



**AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY SCHOOLS'
PROGRAMS IN TERMS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY**

AYLİN DOĞAN FIRAT

**YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANA BİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BİLİM DALI**

**GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

OCAK, 2016

TELİF HAKKI ve TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren(....) ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

YAZARIN

Adı : Aylin
Soyadı : Doğan Fırat
Bölümü : İngilizce Öğretmenliği
İmza :
Teslim tarihi :

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı : İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu Programlarının Öğrenen Özerkliği Açısından Değerlendirilmesi

İngilizce Adı : An Evaluation of English Preparatory Schools' Programs in terms of Learner Autonomy

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Aylin DOĞAN FIRAT

İmza:

Jüri onay sayfası

Aylin Doğan Fırat tarafından hazırlanan “An Evaluation of English Preparatory Schools’ Programs in terms of Learner Autonomy” adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği / oy çokluğu ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: (Unvanı Adı Soyadı)

(Anabilim Dalı, Üniversite Adı)

.....

Başkan: (Unvanı Adı Soyadı)

(Anabilim Dalı, Üniversite Adı)

.....

Üye: (Unvanı Adı Soyadı)

(Anabilim Dalı, Üniversite Adı)

.....

Üye: (Unvanı Adı Soyadı)

(Anabilim Dalı, Üniversite Adı)

.....

Üye: (Unvanı Adı Soyadı)

(Anabilim Dalı, Üniversite Adı)

.....

Tez Savunma Tarihi: 11 / 02 / 2016

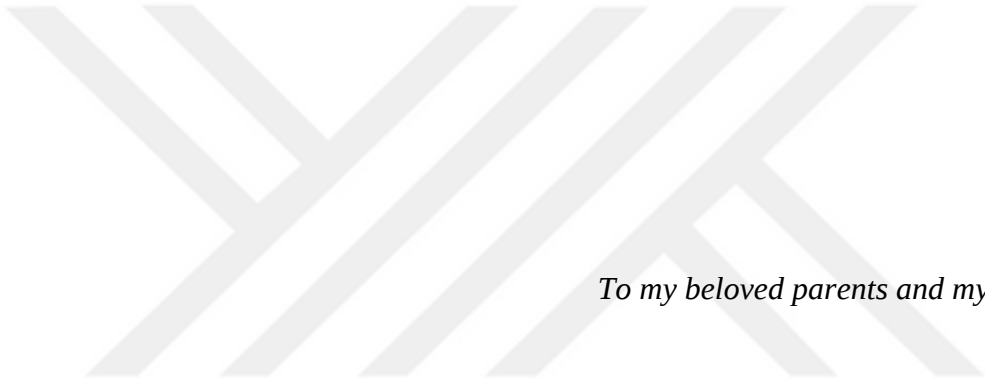
Bu tezinAnabilim Dalı’nda

Yüksek Lisans/ Doktora tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Unvan Ad Soyad

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü

.....



To my beloved parents and my husband,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Studying on Learner Autonomy for my Master's degree had been my biggest dream since I graduated from university, and I wholeheartedly believe that one of the most well-known names reminiscent of Learner Autonomy for anyone who wishes to study in this field in Turkey is certainly Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı. Therefore, I could not have been any luckier regarding my advisor since I could obtain the chance to write a thesis under the guidance of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı. He began to illuminate my path of study in the first minute that I met him to discuss the outline of my study. I believe he is a person who simply cannot help contributing in a way to lives of people around him personally, academically and professionally. He has always gifted me with his great insight, keen interest, overwhelming attitude to help, invaluable knowledge in the field, and wise suggestions. That is why, I feel privileged to have had the opportunity to learn from his constructive feedback and his mentoring. It is a genuine pleasure for me to express my deep sense of thanks and gratitude to my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı.

I was originally studying for the non-thesis M.A. program; however, there was one person always encouraging me to change my way and certainly pursue a degree in the thesis M.A. program. The person who in the first place led me to write this thesis and created the incentive for me to do so was my dear friend Sema Abal. I have never forgotten her saying “yaparız nolcak” 😊 during this journey. Therefore, I now want to say I have made it, and you are the very reason that pushed me to achieve this. I am very much thankful to you Sema for your great encouragement and for your being a true friend to me.

I am very much thankful to my dear colleagues whom I worked with in the Curriculum and Materials Development Unit at my workplace. I would like to specifically acknowledge the help and support of Şebnem Güzelbayram Öztürk, Melis Akdoğan Gündoğdu, Işıl Ekim

and Hakan Tarhan. It was such a pleasure to work with you and learn from you. I hope we have the chance to work together as a team again.

My mother, my father and my mother-in-law could not have been more supportive. I want to express my appreciation to all since they never stopped encouraging and motivating me through the whole process. I am sure they are now happier than me as I have completed this thesis.

Undoubtedly, I am truly and deeply indebted to my beloved husband, Seçkin Fırat, not because of his endless understanding, support, and care during this process, but for his presence covering all my life. He is my soul mate, and only his warm smile can lift my spirits no matter how depressed, hopeless, or frustrated I feel, and it did so every time I struggled with a breakdown during this process. I know I will never walk alone as long as we love each other. I could not have completed this thesis without the support and motivation you granted. I love you so much; you are the dearest person in my life.

Last but not least, I owe a depth of gratitude to all the administrators and EFL instructors who agreed to contribute to this study. Particularly, I sincerely thank Taner Yapar from TOBB Economics and Technology University, Yeşim Erarslan from TED University, İsmail Fırat Altay from Hacettepe University and Cem Balçıkanlı from Gazi University.

İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK OKULU PROGRAMLARININ ÖĞRENEN ÖZERKLİĞİ AÇISINDAN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Aylin Doğan Fırat
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
Ocak, 2016

ÖZ

Bu nitel çalışmada, Ankara’da bulunan ve İngilizce’nin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği ikisi devlet ikisi vakıf üniversitesinde toplam dört hazırlık okulunda takip edilen programlar öğrenen özerkliği açısından değerlendirilmiştir. Diğer bir deyişle, bu çalışma bu üniversitelerin İngilizce hazırlık okullarında takip edilen programların, öğrencilerin özerk öğrenme becerilerini geliştirmeye yönelik herhangi bir uygulama içerip içermediklerini tespit etmeyi ve programların öğrenen özerkliğini hangi tür uygulamalar aracılığıyla geliştirmeye çalıştığını saptamayı hedeflemiştir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma söz konusu hazırlık okullarında çalışan İngilizce okutmanlarının okullarında yürütülen dil programlarının öğrenen özerkliğini desteklemelerine dair görüşlerini belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır.

Dil programlarının değerlendirilebilmesi için, Reinders (2010) tarafından geliştirilen bir çerçeve kullanılmıştır. Dil programları bu çerçevede belirtilen özerk öğrenmenin sekiz basamağı göz önünde bulundurularak öğrenen özerkliğini destekleyici uygulamalar içerip içermedikleri hususunda incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın verileri başlıca hazırlık okulları yöneticileri ve program geliştirme biriminde çalışan okutmanlar ile gerçekleştirilen görüşmeler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın nitel bir çalışma olması nedeniyle ve hazırlık okulları programları hakkında daha detaylı bilgi sahibi olabilmek amacıyla, ders izlencelerini, öğrenci elkitapçıklarını ve program geliştirme açıklamalarını içeren çeşitli yazılı belgelerden faydalanılmıştır. Veriler, içerik analizi tekniği kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca, çalışmayı daha güvenilir kılmak amacıyla değerbiçiciler arası güvenilirlik methodu uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, tüm programların öğrenen özerkliğini kaynak

seçimi ile ilgili olan dördüncü basamak dışında çerçevede bulunan tüm basamaklarda geliştirmeye yönelik belli oranlarda – çoğunlukla veya kısmen – uygulamalar içerdiğini göstermiştir. Programların hiçbirinin, öğrenenlere kendi öğrenme materyallerini seçmek adına fırsat yaratmadığı ortaya konulmuştur.

Diğer taraftan, İngilizce okutmanlarının hazırlık okulları programlarının öğrenen özerkliğini desteklemeleri açısından görüşlerini belirlemek amacıyla mülakatlar kullanılmıştır. Her okuldan beş gönüllü İngilizce okutmanı olmak üzere, yirmi katılımcı ile görüşülmüş ve elde edilen veriler içerik analizi tekniği ile analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, okutmanların portfolyoların modifiye edilmesi, öğretme/öğrenme sürecinde daha fazla dönüt sağlanması için imkan yaratılması ve öğrenen özerkliğini desteklemek amacıyla öğrenenlere hedef belirleme fırsatları sunan, öğrenme içeriklerini belirleme anlamında kontrol sağlayan, değerlendirme metodları açısından seçenekler sunan ve öğrenenlerin öz-değerlendirme yapmaları için fırsat yaratan daha esnek programların geliştirilmesi gerektiğine inandıklarını göstermiştir.

Bilim Kodu :

Anahtar Kelimeler : öğrenen özerkliği, dil programları, İngilizce hazırlık okulları, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce okutmanlarının görüşleri

Sayfa Adedi : 203

Danışman : Doç. Dr. Cem Balçıklı

AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY SCHOOLS’ PROGRAMS IN TERMS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY

(M.A Thesis)

Aylin Doğan Fırat

GAZI UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

January, 2016

ABSTRACT

In this qualitative study, the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) programs followed in the preparatory schools of the two state and two foundation universities in Ankara were evaluated in terms of whether they foster learner autonomy. In other words, the study aimed to find out whether the programs followed in the English preparatory schools of these universities have any applications for developing students’ autonomous learning skills, and if so, through which practices the programs attempt to foster learner autonomy. In addition, the study aimed to identify EFL instructors’ beliefs about the language programs run in their schools in regard to encouraging learner autonomy.

In order to evaluate the language programs, a framework designed by Reinders (2010) was used, and the language programs were scrutinized to find out whether they included any practices that served for the encouragement of learner autonomy regarding eight self-directed learning stages indicated in the framework. The data were mainly collected through the meetings held with the administrators and the instructors working in the curriculum development units, who are responsible for designing the programs. What is more, since the study is a qualitative one, written documents including course syllabi, student handbooks, and descriptions of program development were made use of so as to obtain more detailed information about the preparatory schools’ programs. The data were analyzed through content analysis technique. Furthermore, in order to make the study more reliable, the method of inter-rater reliability is applied. The findings revealed that all the programs attempted to encourage the development of learner autonomy to a certain extent – mostly or partly – in all stages in the framework except the fourth one which was about

selecting resources. It was revealed that none of the programs created chances for learners to select their learning materials.

On the other hand, interviews were used in order to identify the EFL instructors' perspectives about the programs of the preparatory schools in terms of whether to encourage learner autonomy. Twenty participants, five voluntary EFL instructors from each school, were interviewed, and content analysis technique was used to analyze the data. The findings indicated that the instructors believed portfolios must be modified, more chances for providing feedback must be created in teaching/learning process, more flexible programs must be designed in order to encourage the development of learner autonomy, providing learners opportunities to set goals, giving control to determine what of their learning, giving choices in terms of assessment methods and creating chances for learners to make self-assessment.



Science Code :

Key Words : learner autonomy, language programs, program evaluation, English
preparatory schools, EFL instructors' perceptions

Page Number : 203

Supervisor : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cem Balçıkanlı

CONTENTS

ÖZ	vii
ABSTRACT	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xvii
LIST OF FIGURES	xviii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xix
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
Presentation	1
Background to the Study	1
Problem Statement	3
Aims of the Study	6
Significance of the Study	7
Assumptions of the Study	8
Limitations of the Study	8
Definitions of Key Terms	9
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	11
Introduction	11
Autonomy	11
The Historical Overview of the Concept of Autonomy	11

The Concept of Learner Autonomy in Language Education.....	13
Some Misconceptions on Learner Autonomy.....	20
Some Versions of Learner Autonomy.....	23
Educational Theories in Connection with Learner Autonomy.....	29
Humanism in Connection with LA.....	30
Constructivism in Connection with LA.....	30
Critical Theory in Connection with LA.....	31
Experiential Learning Theory in Connection with LA.....	31
Autonomy Related Concepts.....	32
Motivation and Autonomy.....	33
Reflection and Autonomy.....	34
Culture and Autonomy.....	35
Language Learning Strategies and Autonomy.....	36
<i>Cognitive Strategies.....</i>	<i>38</i>
<i>Meta-cognitive Strategies.....</i>	<i>38</i>
<i>Social and Affective Strategies.....</i>	<i>39</i>
Fostering Learner Autonomy in EFL Classes.....	40
Approaches to Foster Learner Autonomy.....	44
<i>Resource-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>45</i>
<i>Technology-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>46</i>
<i>Learner-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>47</i>
<i>Classroom-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>49</i>
<i>Curriculum-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>50</i>
<i>Teacher-based Approaches.....</i>	<i>51</i>
Some Research Studies on Fostering Learner Autonomy.....	53
Program Evaluation.....	59

Introduction.....	59
Definitions of Program and Program Evaluation.....	60
Purposes of Evaluation.....	61
Approaches to Program Evaluation.....	63
Some Basic Types of Evaluation.....	64
Formative versus Summative Evaluation.....	64
Qualitative versus Quantitative Evaluation.....	66
Program Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching.....	67
Studies of Program Evaluation.....	68
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY.....	73
Introduction.....	73
Universe and Sampling.....	73
Research Design.....	74
Data Collection.....	75
Data Collection Instruments.....	76
The Framework.....	76
Interview.....	82
Data Analysis.....	83
Inter-rater Reliability.....	85
Context.....	86
North School.....	86
East School.....	88
West School.....	89
South School.....	91
CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	95

Introduction.....	95
Findings from the Content Analysis of the Programs.....	95
Identifying Needs.....	96
North School.....	97
East School.....	98
West School.....	99
South School.....	101
Setting Goals.....	102
North School.....	103
East School.....	105
West School.....	106
South School.....	108
Planning Learning.....	109
North School.....	110
East School.....	111
West School.....	112
South School.....	113
Selecting Resources.....	114
North School.....	114
East School.....	115
West School.....	116
South School.....	117
Selecting Learning Strategies.....	118
North School.....	118
East School.....	119
West School.....	120

South School	121
Practice	123
North School	123
East School	128
West School	132
South School	134
Monitoring Progress	137
North School	138
East School	139
West School	140
South School	141
Assessment and Revision	141
North School	141
East School	144
West School	146
South School	146
Findings from the Content Analysis of the Interviews	147
North School	148
Perceptions about LA	148
Perceptions about Fostering LA	149
Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA	151
Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program	153
East School	155
Perceptions about LA	155
Perceptions about Fostering LA	155

Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA.....	157
Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program..	159
West School.....	160
Perceptions about LA.....	160
Perceptions about Fostering LA.....	161
Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA.....	162
Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program..	164
South School.....	164
Perceptions about LA.....	164
Perceptions about Fostering LA.....	165
Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA.....	167
Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program..	168
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION.....	171
Introduction.....	171
Summary of the Study.....	171
Pedagogical Implications.....	174
Suggestions for Further Studies.....	176
REFERENCES.....	179
APPENDICES.....	201
Appendix A: Consent Form and Interview.....	201

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Stages in the Development of Learner Autonomy.....	77
Table 2. Background Information About the Participants.....	83
Table 3. Modules and Class Hours at North School.....	87
Table 4. Modules and Class hours at East School.....	88
Table 5. Class Hours for A1, A2, B1 and B1+ Levels at West School.....	90
Table 6. Class Hours for B2 and B2+ Levels at West School.....	90
Table 7. Class Hours for C1, C1+, C2 and C2+ Levels at West School.....	90
Table 8. Overall Findings from the Content Analysis of the Programs.....	96
Table 9. Findings for Identifying Needs Stage.....	97
Table 10. Findings for Setting Goals Stage.....	103
Table 11. Findings for Planning Learning Stage.....	109
Table 12. Findings for Selecting Resources Stage.....	114
Table 13. Findings for Selecting Learning Strategies Stage.....	118
Table 14. Findings for Practice Stage.....	123
Table 15. Findings for Monitoring Progress Stage.....	138
Table 16. Findings for Assessment and Revision Stage.....	141

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Defining Autonomy: The Capacity to Take Control Over Learning.....	25
Figure 2. Developing Autonomy Through Language Teaching.....	41



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LA	Learner Autonomy
CoE	Council of Europe
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
NS	North School
ES	East School
WS	West School
SS	South School

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Presentation

In this chapter, the background to the study, the problem statement, the aim of the study, the significance of the study, the assumptions of the study, the limitations of the study and the definitions of key terms will be presented.

Background to the Study

"The greatest sign of a success for a teacher is to be able to say, "The children are now working as if I did not exist."

Maria Montessori

Children are born with an inherent readiness and ability to learn. In other words, in each child there is a natural potential, intrinsic curiosity and desire to learn, and these in the first place become evident in the act of a child's language learning. Montessori leads us to realize that we, human beings, are inherently capable of controlling our own learning experience by stating "The only language men ever speak perfectly is the one they learn in babyhood, when no one can teach them anything". With this quotation Montessori, an influential educator, reflects her belief that human beings can already exercise autonomy when they are young children, and they are capable of educating themselves; thus, she insists that autonomy be a cornerstone in the course of education (Montessori, 1967). Similarly, Benson (2011) argues that as young children, we are capable of taking control over the learning of our mother tongue. However, as our learning becomes more complex and is directed by institutionalized education, we seem to lose a lot of our autonomy.

What's more, when we become teenagers or adults attempting or struggling to learn foreign languages, we come to find self-directed learning difficult and even tend to prefer being directed by teacher and learning materials. In this point, the concept of autonomy proves to be significant. Even though language learners appear to give up most of their autonomy in the course of institutionalized education, many researchers would agree that today there has been great emphasis on developing autonomy through modern institutionalized learning. For instance, McDevitt (1997) points out that "the end product of education is an independent learner and that cultivating learners' independence or autonomy should be regarded as the ultimate goal that teachers or educators try to pursue" (p. 34).

As Balçıklı (2006) maintains when foreign language learning process is considered, being an effective language learner is both challenging and demanding since achieving success requires learners to allocate a lot of their time and effort along this difficult process. In the context of education, learning is defined as "the permanent change into the behavior through practice and repetition". In this respect, language learners have to practice and do repetition in order to qualify as proficient, and this may occur both in the guidance of a teacher and without a teacher (p. 2). The fact that learning may take place at any time at any place implies that a learner has to be aware of his learning process and be able to contribute to his own learning even in the absence of the teacher. Learner autonomy entails one's taking responsibility for his own learning rather than being dependent on a teacher. Only through this way can a learner become more autonomous, as a result, more successful in learning process.

Reinders (2010) states that recently the importance of learner autonomy and the role of individual learners in directing their own learning process, both inside and outside the classroom have been recognized and valued in terms of learners' achievement as foreign language learners. The Common European Framework of Reference, which is a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe, can be accepted as a practical application of this growing recognition since its principles primarily include developing learner autonomy and encouraging self-assessment.

The CEFR is one of the projects developed in 1991 by the Council of Europe. Trim (2007) describes the Council of Europe as an "international co-operation in support of lifelong language learning for effective communication, mutual cultural enrichment and democratic

citizenship in Europe” (p. 1). Since it was established in 1949, The CoE has developed significant projects in order to promote the study of the languages, history and civilization of the parties involved in the territory, and ‘The European Unit / Credit Scheme for Adult Education’, ‘Modern Languages’, ‘Language Learning for European Citizenship’ are some other projects developed by the CoE in addition to the CEFR (Trim, 2007).

The Ministry of National Education in Turkey has also revised the country’s EFL curricula and course materials in accordance with the principles of the CEFR. As a consequence, all educational institutions of Turkey can be considered to adopt the criteria determined in the CEFR, and the current EFL curricula followed in these institutions are supposed to embrace learner autonomy. Nonetheless, there have been few studies on determining whether the educational institutions in Turkey really adopt fostering learner autonomy as a principle in their EFL curricula, and if they do so, how they achieve this. The present study aims at determining whether the EFL programs followed in universities’ preparatory schools foster learner autonomy or not. It attempts to shed light on the nature of English language programs run in preparatory schools in terms of encouraging learner autonomy.

Problem Statement

It is known that Turkish EFL students are required to study at preparatory schools in most of the universities in Turkey for one semester or more frequently for a whole academic year before being admitted to their faculties. These institutions outline the tests and qualifications they accept as proof of proficiency in English varying from the scores obtained from institutions’ own proficiency exams to the scores obtained from some internationally approved ones, such as TOEFL ITP, IBT or IELTS. It must also be noted that adult learners are taught English intensively at these preparatory programs in order to qualify as proficient in English as a foreign language. At most preparatory schools around Turkey, learners are bombarded with lots of course books, other course materials, activities, and most importantly hours of instruction in classes. Even though there has been a great shift from teacher-centered practices to learner-centered practices in language teaching methodology in recent years, there may be some misapplications resulting from the curriculum and the instructors themselves. Consequently, the students may feel weak, hopeless, demotivated, and ultimately incompetent in the process of language learning. As Dickinson (1995) points out when learners are actively and independently involved in their

own learning, their motivation levels increase, and in turn they learn more effectively. Nevertheless, Knowles (1980, as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2008) argues that adults do not know how they can determine their own learning needs, set goals, select learning resources and strategies to use those resources, evaluate their learning and ultimately have their evaluation justified, and Turkish adult learners may reveal a similarity with their peers learning English or another foreign language throughout the world. Here, Knowles (1980) indeed implies that adults do not have much idea about being autonomous learners, thereby making us think about the importance of learner autonomy, which is a highly significant notion in effective learning (as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2008).

The notion of “learner autonomy” has become more and more crucial in the field of language teaching because of learner-centered approaches in education. However, Turkish EFL students suffer from the results of teaching practices or approaches that fail in terms of certain practices, one of which is the lack of effort to encourage learner autonomy. For instance, Dokuz (2009) points out that educators in Turkey are considered “a mechanical figure who sovereigns the whole class and has a potential of supervising and directing students’ behaviors about what to do, how to do it, what to learn, how to learn it, or what to read outside the classroom” (p. 29).

Benson (1997) notes that “autonomous learning is more or less equivalent to effective learning” (p. 18). When we take Turkish EFL students into consideration, not being autonomous learners in most senses may be regarded as one of the main factors in a great number of students’ failure in the course of foreign language learning. One of the fundamental elements that influence many variables in foreign language education at preparatory schools is the curriculum – if they have one – followed throughout the language program. To say, in order to help students become more effective language learners and achieve more, the significant role of learner-centeredness and encouraging learner autonomy must be considered in curriculum development processes, especially in the curricula of preparatory schools where students are educated intensively and for a relatively short period of time to learn a foreign language especially for adults in a classroom context. Even though expected to be more inclined to become self-directed learners as students participating in higher education, adult learners in preparatory schools may not be provided with the opportunities to exercise autonomy in their learning. In order to clarify the relation between effective learning and autonomy, Wang (2011) exemplifies

the proverb saying you can lead a horse to water, but you can't make it drink. Wang (2011) suggests that the proverbial horse may be led to water, but it must do the drinking itself, which can be interpreted in the following way: “even with the best teachers and methods, students are the only ones who can actually do the learning” (273). In this regard, Wang (2011) emphasizes the role of constructivist learning theory.

According to Audrey Gray (1997), constructivism is a view of learning that is based on the belief that knowledge is not something simply given by the teacher to students sitting in their desks. Instead, knowledge must be constructed by learners through an active mental process, and learners are viewed as the builders and creators of meaning and knowledge. Thus, a constructivist classroom should be learner-centered, and the teacher, with the role of a facilitator, must provide students with learning experiences that allow them to hypothesize, predict, manipulate objects, pose questions, research, investigate, imagine, and invent (as cited in Wang, 2011, p. 274). As a result, constructivist learning theory emphasizes learning not teaching, values active engagement, collaboration, creativity, and reflectivity, and it also encourages learner autonomy.

Moreover, Wang (2011) states that negotiation is an important aspect of a constructivist classroom since it unites teachers and learners in a common purpose, and he mentions the concept of “negotiating curriculum” (p. 276). Negotiating the curriculum with students is important as learners work harder and better in this way. Also, what they learn mean more to learners if they discover their own ideas, ask their own questions, and struggle hard to answer them for themselves. Therefore, they become educational decision makers and owners of the work they are to do (Cook, 1992, as cited in Wang, 2011).

In short, it could be concluded that curricula in preparatory schools must involve implications of constructivist learning theory and attempts to foster learner autonomy in order to facilitate effective learning. However, since there have been very few studies on this subject in the literature, it is a problem that we do not have sufficient information about if learner autonomy is considered in the course of curriculum development, and if so how it is evident in the curricula of the preparatory schools. To this end, this study has been designed to provide us with insights into this problem.

Aims of the Study

This study evaluates the program followed in each preparatory school of the two state and two foundation universities in Ankara with the aim of identifying any practice present that helps encourage learner autonomy. In other words, the study has been designed in order to find out whether the programs followed in the preparatory schools of universities have any applications for developing students' autonomous learning skills, and if so, through which practices the programs attempt to foster learner autonomy.

Another aim of the study is to identify EFL instructors' perspectives of learner autonomy, actual practices they adopt to foster learner autonomy besides their beliefs about the language programs of their schools in terms of encouraging and hindering learner autonomy. This way, we intend to figure out to what extent and in what ways instructors assume that the programs followed in their schools foster learner autonomy. On one hand, this offers us a retrospective of instructors' actual applications intending to foster learner autonomy. On the other hand, it gives us a chance to identify what practical or theoretical adaptations the EFL instructors think must be made in the programs so that the programs can encourage learners to develop autonomy.

In order to realize these aims, we determined two main research questions. Both the main research questions and eight sub-questions of the first main research question are provided below.

Research Questions

1. Do the English preparatory programs of the two foundation and two state universities encourage EFL learners' autonomous skills?
 - 1.1. Do the programs encourage learners to identify their needs?
 - 1.2. Do the programs encourage learners to set goals for themselves?
 - 1.3. Do the programs encourage learners to plan their learning?
 - 1.4. Do the programs encourage learners to select resources?
 - 1.5. Do the programs encourage learners to select learning strategies?
 - 1.6. Do the programs encourage learners to practise?
 - 1.7. Do the programs encourage learners to monitor progress?
 - 1.8. Do the programs encourage learners to make assessment and revision?

2. What are the perceptions of EFL instructors about the encouragement of autonomy in the programs?

Significance of the Study

The concept of ‘learner autonomy’ is not a new notion in the field of education, and as Esch (1996) states “autonomy has shaped views on education for thirty years in Europe, mainly through the influence of the work of the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe” (p. 35). Over the years, this concept has continued to attract attention and lots of research studies have been done on autonomy both in Turkey and in many other parts of the world. Turkish EFL education has witnessed a lot of research studies on autonomy in relation to self-access (Bolat, 1995; Cephe, 1987; Demirtaş, 1996; Kocatürk, 2011), portfolio implementation (Egel, 2003; İşler, 2005; Koyuncu, 2006; Köse, 2006; Öğmen, 2011; Servi, 2010; Üğüten, 2009), culture of learning (Karabıyık, 2008), academic achievement (Akbaş, 2011; Arkoç, 2008; Çiftçi, 2011; Gökgöz, 2008; Kucuroğlu, 1997) blended learning environments (Bitlis, 2011; Mutlu, 2008) and the perceptions and attitudes of teachers and students (Balçıkanlı, 2010; Barlas, 2012; Baylan, 2007; Çoban, 2002; Dişlen, 2010; Dokuz, 2009; Durmuş, 2006; Ilgaz, 2011; Özdere, 2005; Sabancı, 2007; Sancar, 2001; Tursun, 2010; Yapıörler, 2013; Yıldırım, 2005).

However, encouraging or fostering learner autonomy is an area that has not been dealt with as much as those mentioned above. There have been some studies done on encouraging learner autonomy so far in Turkey among which are Balçıkanlı (2006), İnözü (2011), Kennedy (2002), Mutlu (2008), Üğüten (2009), Ürün, Demir and Akar (2014), Yıldırım (2013).

As for the research studies on learner autonomy in relation to curriculum or curriculum evaluation, we see that only a few studies have been conducted so far. Kucuroğlu (2000) and Yumuk (2002) are two of them. In this regard, we have delicately handled the concept of promoting learning autonomy through curricular procedures. That is to say, this research study is significant in that it will provide us concrete ideas about whether there is any room for encouraging learner autonomy in current programs used in preparatory schools.

Assumptions of the Study

It is assumed that all administrators and instructors who provide and share data, which are about specifically the programs or the other educational practices followed throughout the academic year and ideas or beliefs related to those, will do so honestly and accurately.

Another assumption of the study is that instructors know what learner autonomy is and have adequate background knowledge related to learner autonomy, as well as the characteristics of autonomous learners and the practices that may be present in a foreign language teaching curriculum.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of the study is the number of the preparatory schools included in this study. Since there are 179 universities in Turkey, and most of them have preparatory school programs, it would be impossible to conduct a study involving all of them. Ankara is the capital city of Turkey, and it has eighteen of the universities established in the country. Therefore, we assume that at least it gives us an overview of the profile of the country. Moreover, the study cannot be generalized to account for the tendency of all preparatory schools programs in Turkey in terms of encouraging learner autonomy.

This study has another limitation concerning the definition and aspect of the term learner autonomy to be adopted as there are various definitions in the literature that have been made by different scholars from different aspects. Winch (2006), for instance, states that autonomy consists of a political aspect that is related to someone's independence in making his or her own educational choices in addition to a more philosophical viewpoint related to the ability of individuals to choose and follow their own conception of a life that they consider to be suitable for themselves. Nevertheless, in order to eliminate this limitation, a framework developed by Reinders (2010) is used, and this framework provides us with a more mechanical view of learner autonomy by emphasizing the observable skills as Reinders and Balçıkanlı (2011a) suggest.

Definitions of Key Terms

Learner Autonomy (LA): the ability of a learner to take the responsibility of his or her own learning.

Foreign Language: the language which is studied in an environment where it is not the primary means for daily interaction or communication and the exposure to that language is very limited (i.e. people learning English in Turkey). It is simply the language of another country (Cook, 2003, p. 7).

EFL: English as a foreign language.

TEFL: teaching English as a foreign language.

Adult Learners: This term in this study is used for the students studying at preparatory schools of higher education, and these are the students whose ages are eighteen and above it.

Curriculum: “the overall plan or design for a course and how the content for a course is transformed into a blueprint for teaching and learning which enables the desired learning outcomes to be achieved” (Richards, 2013, p. 6).

Learner-centered Curriculum: Nunan (1996) suggests that a learner-centered curriculum shares similar elements with the ones a traditional curriculum involves. He, however, states that the major difference between these two types of curricula is that the important decisions such as what is to be taught, how and when it is to be taught, and how to assess it are taken with reference to the learner.

CoE: an abbreviation used to refer to the Council of Europe.

CEFR: an abbreviation used to refer to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In this chapter, the literature on Autonomy and Program Evaluation will be covered in regards to various aspects. First of all, the historical overview of the concept of autonomy will be presented in general terms in addition to the roots of learner autonomy in EFL. Then, the concept of learner autonomy in the field of English as a Foreign Language will be dealt with by providing some cornerstone definitions, some misconceptions and versions of learner autonomy. In addition, five main educational theories will be reviewed in terms of their relations with and contributions to the development of the concept of learner autonomy. Moreover, some autonomy related concepts, such as motivation, reflection, culture, learner-centeredness and language learning strategies will be presented. The roles of teachers and learners in autonomous learning will be presented along with the characteristics of autonomous learners. Furthermore, fostering learner autonomy in language teaching/learning will be discussed in terms of various approaches. The literature on Program Evaluation covers definitions of program and program evaluation, purposes and types of program evaluation, approaches to program evaluation in addition to program evaluation in foreign language teaching and some evaluation studies.

Autonomy

The Historical Overview of the Concept of Autonomy

Autonomy is definitely not a narrow concept that is only limited to the field of education and particularly language learning. Instead, as Benson and Voller (1997) point out the

terms “autonomy” and “independence” are the two keywords that reflect primarily the twentieth-century liberal European thought in various fields such as philosophy, psychology and politics as well as education. Benson and Voller (1997) mention that in philosophy and psychology autonomy and independence have been associated with “the capacity of the individual to act as a responsible member of society” since the eighteenth century (p. 4). Moreover, an older sense of autonomy is present in the field of politics in which autonomy is described as “freedom from external control” by Benson and Voller (1997, p. 4). Benson (2011) illustrates this sense of autonomy by giving information about the etymology of the word “autonomy”. He states that “autonomy” is a word derived from Ancient Greek, and it referred to the political status of conquered cities that are governed according to their own laws, not those of the conquering power. Benson (2011) states that the implications of the concept of autonomy can be found in several early works of many great thinkers including Kant, Galileo and Rousseau.

Kant, for instance, identifies the concept of individual autonomy as the foundation of human dignity (Hill, 1991). Modern philosophy has inherited the idea that individuals must be treated as “ends” not as “means” towards other ends from Kant’s concept of personal autonomy (Benson, 2011). Moreover, the argument by Galileo that “you cannot teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself” reflects his firm belief in autonomous learning (Benson, 2011, p. 27). As Benson (2011) mentions another great thinker working on autonomy is Jean Jacques Rousseau. Benson (2011) claims that even though Rousseau is rarely cited as a source, the roots of the contemporary idea of autonomy in learning can be found in his thought. According to the model of education proposed by Rousseau, children should be taught what they want to learn and at the time when they want to learn it in a natural way. In his model, the teacher is considered a permissive individual who both supports learners and learns with them (Benson, 2011). Benson (2011) adds that in Rousseau’s educational model learners are responsible for their own actions, and they should be encouraged to learn by enjoying or suffering the consequences of their actions. Under the influence of such a natural education can children transform naturally into individuals who are subject to their own authority instead of others’.

Benson (2011) also believes that the educators such as John Dewey and William Kilpatrick and the psychologist Carl Rogers were directly influenced by Rousseau’s ideas, and these

thinkers had an immense influence on not only the theory but also the practice of autonomy. John Dewey, a pragmatist philosopher, contributed to the idea of autonomy mainly in three aspects which are the relationship between education and social participation, education as problem solving, and classroom organization. According to Dewey, learners' own felt needs must be the starting point of activities, thus the educational aims would be, rather than those of the teachers', those of the learners (Benson, 2011). The other educator influenced by Rousseau was William Kilpatrick who contributed to the idea of autonomy with his "project method" (Benson, 2011). Benson (2011) describes this method as one according to which learners are expected to plan, construct and perform their own learning projects, which can be achieved in four ways. These are construction projects, enjoyment projects, problem projects and specific learning projects. Another important contributor to the idea of autonomy valued by Benson (2011) is Carl Rogers, a psychologist and the founder of "client-centered" therapy. Benson (2011) states that Rogers' notion of the teacher as a facilitator is central to classroom-based approaches that foster autonomy.

The Concept of Learner Autonomy in Language Education

For centuries autonomy has been a concern in various fields, such as politics, philosophy, psychology and education. Indeed, Finch (2000) points out that the emergence of the growing concern with autonomy as an educational goal may be explained in the developments that took place in the 20th century in the fields of social sciences, psychology, philosophy and political science. The term "autonomy" has a history of approximately four decades in the field of foreign language learning/teaching (Benson, 2011) and it takes the form of learner autonomy in terms of language teaching. The concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching with adult self-directed learning, defined as the ability of a learner to take the responsibility of his or her own learning by Holec (1981, as cited in Benson, 2011). Benson (2011, p. 9) gives a brief history of learner autonomy in the field of language teaching:

The concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching through the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project, established in 1971. One of the outcomes of this project was the establishment of the Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) at the University of Nancy, France, which rapidly became a focal point for research and practice in the field. Yves Chalon, who is regarded as the father of the autonomy in language learning by many today, is the founder of CRAPEL. Chalon died at an early age in 1972, and the leadership of CRAPEL was passed to Henri Holec, who remains a prominent figure within the field of autonomy today. A seminar on self-directed learning and autonomy at the University of Cambridge in December 1976 was also an important foundational event in the field (Harding-Esch, 1977, as cited in Benson, 2001). Holec's (1981) project report to the Council of Europe is a key early document on autonomy in language learning. The journal *Melanges Pedagogiques*, published at CRAPEL, has also played an important role in the dissemination of research on autonomy from 1970 to the present day. The Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project aimed to provide adults with opportunities for lifelong learning. The approach developed at CRAPEL was influenced by the self-directed learning.

In addition to Benson (2011), Gremmo and Riley (1995) outline some important social events and currents of thought which contributed to the emergence and spread of the ideas related to learner autonomy in language learning. Gremmo and Riley (1995) assert that interest in the concept of autonomy within the field of language education was partly a response to ideals and expectations aroused by the political turmoil in Europe in the late 1960s, the years following the Second World War. The summary of the factors contributing to the emergence of concepts like "autonomy" and "self-direction" in language learning/teaching identified by Gremmo and Riley (1995, p. 152) is as follows:

1. First of all, the wave of minority rights movements contributed to the development of the concepts related to learner autonomy in language learning as the values, motives and aims of minorities came into focus in education, learning and schooling.
2. The reaction against behaviorism was the second important factor.
 - a. even though there were numerous differences among the educationists, there was also an emphasis on the notion of learner-centeredness
 - b. In addition, linguists and philosophers of language started to give importance to sociolinguistic disciplines, resulting in the "Communicative Approach" to language learning and teaching which puts emphasis on autonomy along with individual needs, social norms and communicative functions.

- c. Humanistic psychology and cognitive psychology were two distinct but compatible reactions against behaviorism within the field of psychology.
3. The interest in minority rights had a direct influence on the development of adult education in Europe, which manifested itself through the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project.
4. Developments in technology made a crucial contribution to the spread of autonomy and self-access.
5. The demand for foreign languages greatly increased as a result of political development (European Union, the United Nations), multinational corporations rose (IBM, Renault, Shell) and travel and tourism became easier.
6. The commercialization of much language provision encouraged adult learners with different learning needs to make informed choices, resulting in flexible learning programs.
7. Finally, the vast increase in the school and university population encouraged the development of new educational structures for dealing with large numbers of learners. Self-directed learning, institutional support in the shape of counseling and resource centers were among these structures that were found helpful.

Learner autonomy is not a new term in the field of education, and there has been a great deal of discussion on the concept since the early 1970s. Nevertheless, defining autonomy in terms of education and language learning/teaching has always been a difficult task as the attempts to describe it have consisted of various references to social, political or individualistic purposes as well as absence of constraint (Sinclair, 2000). This tendency could be observed in the definition of autonomy in common parlance provided by Kamii and Clark (1993, as cited in Yıldırım, 2005). They suggest that:

...autonomy means the right of an individual or group to be self-governing. For example, when we speak of Palestinian autonomy, we are referring to this kind of political right. In Piaget's theory, however, autonomy refers not to the right but the ability to be self-governing, in the normal as well as the intellectual realm. Autonomy is the ability to think for oneself and to decide between right realm, and between truth and untruth in the intellectual realm, by taking all relevant factors into account, independently of reward and punishment. Autonomy is the opposite of heteronomy. Heteronomous people are governed by someone else, as they are unable to think for themselves (p. 19).

The view that describing autonomy from the perspective of language education is difficult is also supported by Chan (2001a) who states that defining autonomy is not an easy task. Moreover, according to Finch (2000, p. 1), autonomy has been largely addressed in recent TEFL literature and practice and had the risk of becoming the latest “politically-correct catch-word”. In addition, Little’s (1991, p. 2) definitions of autonomy as a “buzz-word of the 1990s” and as a slippery concept difficult to define precisely (Little, 2003) reflect the same opinion. In brief, it is clear that certain problems occur in regard to defining what learner autonomy exactly is in the field of foreign language learning/teaching as most of the definitions have failed to fulfill the expectations of the term correctly (Balçıklı, 2006).

However, Benson (2011) argues that it is important to define autonomy for two main reasons. The first reason is that construct validity is an important precondition for effective research, and in order for a construct such as autonomy to be researchable, it must be describable in terms of observable behaviors. Secondly, Benson (2011) believes that programs or innovations designed in order to foster autonomy become more effective if they are based on a clear understanding of the behavioral changes they aim to foster. Although the researchers define and describe autonomy in various ways by recognizing it in the contexts of their own research and practice, the earliest and most often cited definition of autonomy is the one proposed by Holec (1981, as cited in Benson, 2011). In his report to the Council of Europe, Holec (1981, as cited in Benson, 2011) defines autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (p. 59), and he elaborates on this definition as follows:

To take charge of one’s own learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, i.e.:

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

Some frequently-cited definitions of autonomy in literature are as follows:

- “Autonomy is a term describing a potential capacity to act in a given situation- in our case- learning, and not the actual behavior of an individual in that situation” (Holec, 1981, as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006, p. 14).
- “Autonomy is a *capacity* – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning” (Little, 1991, p. 4).
- “Autonomy in language learning is not merely a matter of control over learning activities and resources. It is also a matter of a particular orientation towards language learning, in which ‘for the truly autonomous learner, each occasion of language use is an occasion of language learning, and vice versa’” (Little, 1997, p. 99).
- “Autonomy is an adaptive ability, allowing learners to develop supportive structures within themselves rather than to have them erected around them” (Trim, 1976, as cited in Esch, 1996, p. 37).
- “Autonomy is a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his or her learning and the implementation of those decisions” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11).
- “... the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning” (Cotterall, 1995b, p. 195).
- “Autonomy is a capacity and critical ability to reflect on one’s experience and to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1995, as cited in Dickinson, 1995, p. 165).
- “Autonomy represents a recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems. In the context of ELT, it also represents a recognition of the rights of the ‘non-native speaker’ in relation to the ‘native speaker’ within the global order of English” (Benson, 1997, p. 29).
- “Autonomy includes the notion of interdependence that is being responsible for one’s own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways” (Kohonen, 1992, p. 19).

- “Autonomy is the ability to assume responsibility for one’s own affairs” (Schwartz, 1977, as cited in Esch, 1996, p. 37).
- “The main characteristic of autonomy as an approach to learning is that students take some responsibility for their own learning over and above responding to instruction” (Boud, 1988, p. 23).
- “We can define an autonomous person as one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out choices which govern his or her actions. This capacity depends on two main components: ability and willingness” (Littlewood, 1996, p. 428).

Among the most frequently-cited definitions of autonomy, the “Bergen Definition” (Dam, 1995) is the more recently published one which characterizes learner autonomy as “a readiness to take charge of one’s own learning in the service of one’s needs and purposes” (p. 1). This entails a capacity and willingness on the part of the learner to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person (Dam, 1995). Moreover, Vanijdee (2003) extends the concept of learner autonomy as a capacity –a construct of attitudes and ability that allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning. In addition to these definitions, Benson and Voller (1997, p. 1) point out that the term autonomy is used for at least five different ways which they identify as:

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

By building upon the definitions mentioned above, the recent research findings, and the current understandings of autonomy in language learning, Sinclair (2000) derives a broad description of the concept of autonomy consisting of thirteen aspects of learner autonomy. The following thirteen aspects of learner autonomy, adapted from Sinclair (1997), now seem to have been widely accepted by the language teaching profession (Sinclair, 2000, p. 7).

1. *Autonomy is a construct of capacity.*

2. *Autonomy involves learner's willingness to take responsibility of his/her own learning.*
3. *This capacity and willingness is not innate.*
4. *Complete autonomy is not a realistic goal.*
5. *Autonomy has some degrees.*
6. *These degrees are unstable and variable.*
7. *Autonomy cannot be described just as putting students in situations in which they need to be independent.*
8. *Developing autonomy necessitates learners to be consciously aware of their learning process.*
9. *Promoting autonomy can not be simply achieved through strategy training.*
10. *Autonomy may take place not only inside but also outside the classroom.*
11. *Autonomy has a social dimension besides individual one.*
12. *Promoting learner autonomy has both a political and a psychological dimension.*
13. *Every culture interprets autonomy differently.*

Upon having revised most cornerstone definitions and descriptions of the concept of learner autonomy in the literature, we have gained a clear understanding of what learner autonomy is. However, a suggested option in order to provide a better understanding of what learner autonomy actually means in the process of language learning is to identify what learner autonomy is not. David Little (1990, p. 7) provides insights into what learner autonomy is not. In his description, he suggests that:

- 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 the 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 another teaching method.
- Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.
- Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners.

Following Little's (1990) description of what learner autonomy is not and all of the aforementioned clarifying explanations based on what learner autonomy is, it could be concluded that a great deal of diversity of terms exists in terms of defining what autonomy is in the field of education, as well as what it refers to in language teaching and learning. As a result of this diversity, some misconceptions associated with the concept of learner autonomy arise, which in turn necessitates us to discuss these in order to clarify the term of learner autonomy and the qualities they share and do not share.

Some Misconceptions on Learner Autonomy

As Pemberton (1996) states the term "autonomy" is used by people from a wide range of backgrounds for various purposes. He adds that in regard to autonomy different terms are used to refer to the same thing, or the same term is used to mean different things; therefore, there is a massive potential for misunderstanding. Therefore, it is advisable to revise the relevant literature with some misconceptions on autonomy and some synonyms for it to avoid misunderstanding.

"Independence" is one of the terms used as a synonym for autonomy (Sheerin, 1991). Dickinson (1992) is another scholar who associates autonomy with the idea of learning alone and "independence". Dickinson (1992) stresses complete responsibility for one's own learning which is carried out without a teacher or pedagogic materials. Van Lier (1996) describes learner autonomy by focusing simultaneously on "awareness" and "authenticity", and according to him there are two central aspects of learner autonomy which are choice and responsibility. James and Garrett (1991) also prefer the term "language awareness" to define learner autonomy. Candy (1991) uses "self-direction" or "self-management" as synonymous terms for autonomy. He describes self-direction as both a process and a product of education. As a process, self-education may refer to learner-control (as opposed to teacher-control) in formal instructional settings, or it may mean intentional self-education outside formal settings. As a product, self-direction can be personal autonomy, or it can be self-management in directing one's learning activities. Knowles' (1980) learning theory called "andragogy" is the synonym he uses for autonomy since it presents the individual learner as one who is autonomous, free, and growth-oriented.

In addition to Pemberton (1996), Benson (2001) states that the concept of autonomy in the field of language learning is complex and multifaceted and he refers to two different aspects leading to the misconceptions on learner autonomy. These misconceptions are partly a result of terminological and conceptual confusion within the field itself. Why a great many definitions and views to describe and define learner autonomy have arisen and also why so many synonyms of this term exist in the field of foreign language teaching and learning may be explained by the features that autonomy shares with the other related terms such as self-instruction, self-education, self-direction, self-directed learning, self-access learning, open-learning, individualized instruction, independent learning, self-regulated learning, self-regulation, autonomous learning, distance learning, out-of-class learning, flexible learning, autodidaxy, tandem learning, semi-autonomy and full-autonomy. Even though some of these terms are utilized synonymously with autonomy, others do not refer to the same components of it. In order to clarify how they share similar components or differ from each other, we need to address definitions of some of the terms mentioned above.

1. Self-instruction: refers to learning without a teacher (Little, 1991), or in other words “without the direct control of a teacher” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11).

2. Open learning: allows choices within the curriculum as well as in access; it requires learners to take responsibility for learning, but it appears to be an institutional response to the need to include more students while decreasing the costs (Lewis, 1995).

3. Distance learning: is a subset of open learning, but it is a way of organizing learners which usually only allows them control over access such as time, place and pace of their study (Lewis, 1995).

4. Individualized instruction: means providing activities designed to meet the needs of individual learners, but the teacher is responsible for preparing and adapting materials, setting objectives and evaluating the learner's ability to perform required skills (Logan, 1980). In another definition given by Chaix and O'Neil (1978), individualized instruction is described as "a learning process which (as regards goals content, methodology and pacing) is adapted to a particular individual, taking this individual's characteristics into consideration" (as cited in Dickinson, 1987, p. 11).

5. Flexible learning: is described by Evans (1993) as the type of learning in which the teacher or department provides materials and activities; the learner has to some extent

choice over what to do and when, but there is usually little chance of negotiation about learning goals or evaluation (as cited in Pemberton, 1996, p. 2).

6. Self-access learning: refers to learning from materials/facilities that are organized to facilitate learning. It means self-instruction in using self-access materials. The term is neutral as to how self-directed or other-directed the learners are (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11).

7. Self-direction: describes a particular attitude to the learning task, in which the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions concerned with his learning but does not necessarily undertake the implementation of those decisions (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11). According to Brockett and Hiemstra learner self-direction refers to ‘characteristics of an individual that predispose one toward taking primary responsibility for personal learning endeavors’ (1991, p. 29).

8. Self-directed learning: describes a process in which learners take the initiative to diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify resources for learning, choose and implement suitable learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes (Malcolm Knowles, 1975). Brookfield (1985) states that the term self-directed learning is used in the literature in two senses: to refer to the process of and the techniques used in directing one’s own learning, and also to mean the change of consciousness as a result of such learning (as cited in Pemberton, 1996).

9. Autodidaxy: is one of the four aspects of the term self-direction according to Candy (1991). He proposes that autodidaxy as a term for referring to self-instruction which takes place outside of formal institutional settings which he calls “natural societal setting” (p. 23).

10. Independent learning: is “learning in which the learner, in conjunction with relevant others, can make the decisions necessary to meet the learner's own learning needs”. In the case of independent learning, independent learners learn to identify their own needs and capabilities and know when, where and how help is needed (Kesten, 1987, p. 3).

11. Out-of-class learning: is used to refer to “the efforts of learners taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class” (Benson, 2007, p. 26).

12. Self-regulation / Self-regulated learning: is defined as the “self-generated thoughts, feeling and behaviors” oriented to achieving goals. Self-regulation is not a mental ability or

an academic performance skill; rather it is “the self-directive process through which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills” (Zimmerman, 2002, p. 65).

13. Autonomy: is mostly used to refer to either “the capacity take charge of, or responsibility for, one’s own learning (Benson, 2011, p. 58).

15. Semi-autonomy: is “the stage at which learners are preparing for autonomy” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11). Riley and Zoppis (1985) however describe semi-autonomy as learners’ working in a self-access center (as cited in Benson, 2011).

16. Full-autonomy: is the type of autonomy is which “there is no involvement of a teacher of an institution, and the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11).

17. Tandem Learning: is the type of learning in which “two people who are learning each other’s language work together to help one another” (Lewis, 2005, as cited in Benson, 2006, p. 26).

18. Autonomous learning: refers to the type of studying without a teacher, especially in the literature on learning outside the classroom (Benson, 2011).

Taking all these definitions mentioned above into consideration, we can conclude that all the terms are somehow related to autonomy and some of them are even used interchangeably with autonomy since as Benson (2011) puts forward autonomy is a multidimensional concept, and it can take different forms in different contexts of learning. Although there has been a great deal of misconception about the concept of autonomy, there are certain fundamentals that researchers agree. For instance, autonomy is the learner’s broad approach to the learning process, not an approach towards a specific mode of teaching or learning. Moreover, autonomy is a meaningful and significant aim in the field of language education (Benson, 2011). Furthermore, we can draw the conclusion that all these terms somehow associate autonomy in general sense with the situations in which learners have some kind and degree of capacity, control, independence and responsibility either in the presence or absence of a teacher/institution. There has been an agreement in that autonomy entails taking responsibility for (control, charge of) one's own learning; that it presupposes a certain extend of freedom or independence.

Some Versions of Learner Autonomy

Throughout the previous parts of this chapter, we have dealt with the definitions and descriptions of learner autonomy in addition to some misconceptions on the term in an attempt to provide a meaningful, broad and clear interpretation of the term learner autonomy. Then, we have reached the conclusion that whereas a variety of definitions exist in the literature, most have some common features. Indeed, as Benson (2011) remarks the existence of numerous definitions brings an elasticity, which is considered to help researchers rather than to hinder them. There may be little debate over or disagreement on what autonomy exactly means. However, the more widely autonomy is discussed, the more different approaches emerge in the application of the concept in practice (Benson, 2011). Besides the models of learner autonomy, there have been some versions of learner autonomy identified by different scholars in the literature. The idea that there may be different kinds of autonomy can be accepted as an interesting development in the field of language learning/teaching; thus, a summary of these versions is provided below.

Benson (1997) discusses different versions of autonomy which he identifies as technical, political and psychological. According to Benson (2011) Holec describes autonomy mostly in technical terms although he is aware of the cognitive dimension of it, and Little's (1991) definition is complementary to Holec's, but adds a psychological dimension. He suggests that the third dimension their definitions lack is the control over the content of learning. Therefore, he prefers to describe autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's learning" since he assumes that the construct of 'control' appears to be more open to investigation than the constructs of 'charge' or 'responsibility' (Benson, 2011, p. 61). In Benson's autonomy model, 'technical' versions of the learner autonomy are considered to focus on mainly learning management (Benson, 2011). In technical versions of learner autonomy, the concept is described as the act of learning a language outside the framework of an educational institution without the presence of a teacher (Benson, 1997). Benson and Voller (1997) suggest that there has been a tendency for the literature to assume that self-access and self-instruction are natural means by which autonomy may be realized, and this reflects the technical view of the learner autonomy as well. In technical versions, autonomy is seen in terms of situations in which learners have to take charge of their own learning and the main concern is how to make learners equipped with the skills and techniques they need to deal with such situations if they exist (Benson, 1997). Another

version identified by Benson (1997) is ‘psychological’ autonomy which sees autonomy as a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities or characteristics – which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning. Autonomy is considered as an “internal transformation” in an individual which might be supported by situational autonomy (Benson, 1997, p. 19). This approach could be said to correspond with Little’s (1996) description of learner autonomy as “a special instance of a socio-psychological phenomenon” (p. 203). The last version is ‘political’. In political versions of autonomy, focus is on the control over processes and content of learning and supporting learners to achieve structural conditions which let them control both their own learning and the institutional context in which learning takes place (Benson, 1997).

Benson’s (2011) autonomy model is illustrated with the figure below. As it has been mentioned before, he prefers the term control while describing learner autonomy, and he identifies three dimensions of control which are cognitive processes, learning management and learning content. He associates cognitive processes, learning management and learning content with the psychology of learning, learning behavior and learning situations, respectively, and these three areas are interdependent supporting each other. When it comes to the relation between the three versions of autonomy and the three dimensions of control, he matches technical version of autonomy with learning content, political version of autonomy with learning management and psychological version of autonomy with cognitive processes.

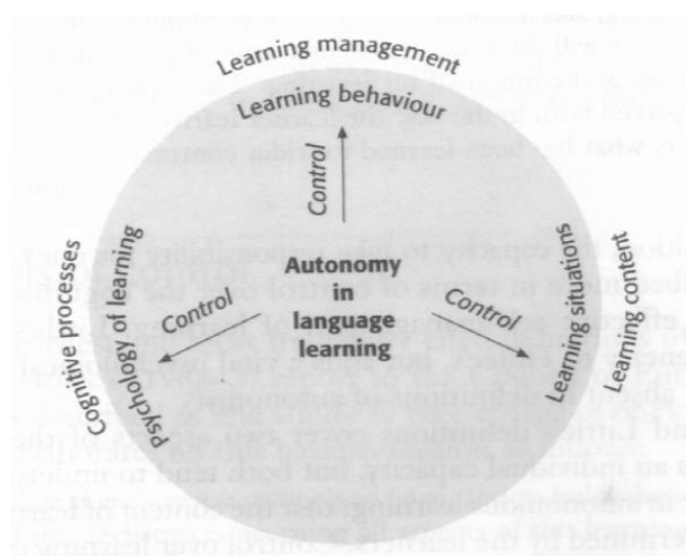


Figure 1. Defining autonomy: the capacity to take control over learning (Benson, 2011, p. 61)

Oxford (2003) proposes another model by building on Benson's model of versions and she integrates four perspectives which are technical, psychological, "socio-cultural" and "political-critical" (as cited in Martinez, 2008, p. 106). Oxford (2003) recognizes technical and psychological autonomy in the way Benson (1997) does and adds that socio-cultural autonomy focuses on interactions or negotiations between learners and their environment which can be coined as mediated learning. Political-critical perspective, on the other hand, focuses on learners' ideologies, access and power structures in their communities (as cited in Martinez, 2008).

Another model of learner autonomy focusing on students' areas of control is the one proposed by Littlewood (1996). He identifies three different versions which are "autonomy as a communicator", "autonomy as a learner" and "autonomy as a person" (as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 62). This is a model for the development of autonomy including three stages which are language acquisition, learning approach and personal development. Littlewood (1996) argues that autonomy in the stage of language acquisition refers to the type of autonomy as a communicator since it involves an ability to function with the language independently and to communicate in real situations. Autonomy in relation to learning approach refers to the type of autonomy as a learner since it involves learner's ability to take responsibility for his/her own learning as well as to develop and apply personal learning strategies. Autonomy in terms of personal development refers to the type of autonomy as a person, and it is considered as a higher-level aim that most probably emerged from the mixture of autonomy in communication and learning approach (as cited in Benson, 1997).

In addition to this distinction, Littlewood (1999) derives two versions from the definition of learner autonomy as a self-regulation process. Littlewood's (1999) model includes two levels of self-regulation which are "proactive" and "reactive" autonomy (as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 62). Proactive autonomy emphasizes learners' individuality, and it sets up directions which learners themselves partially generate. Hence, it regulates both the directions and the activity. On the other hand, reactive autonomy does not generate directions rather it facilitates learners to manage resources autonomously to achieve their goals after the clear directions have been already provided (Benson, 2011).

Furthermore, Macaro (1997, 2008) identifies three versions of autonomy which are “autonomy of language competence”, “autonomy of language learning competence” and “autonomy of choice and action” (Macaro, 2008, p. 47). Autonomy of language competence could be associated with Littlewood’s (1996) autonomy as a communicator since it entails learners’ generating their own sentences or utterances gradually and communicating appropriately in situations different from the ones in which learning took place even s/he has not taken any input related to those before. It is the communicative ability of a learner. Autonomy of language learning competence refers to the ability to utilize a variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the process of learning. It also entails the ability to reuse and transfer language skills to similar situations. Lastly, the concept of autonomy of choice and action implies that language learners may become increasingly self-assertive about the type of proficiency that they would like to achieve. By having autonomy of choice and action in their own language learning, learners take control not only the language but also the goals and purposes of their learning, and they become able to identify personal learning strategies (Macaro, 2008).

Another scholar, Nunan (1997) suggests that self-directed learning could be incorporated into pedagogical materials, and he outlines a scheme for gradually increasing degree of autonomy of learners in a learning program. He proposes a five-level model for implementing learner autonomy which includes “awareness”, “involvement”, “intervention”, “creation” and “transcendence” in order (p. 195). According to his model, first of all learners must be made aware of learning goals, content and strategies. In the second step, learners move from awareness to active involvement by selecting their goals from a variety of goals and other alternatives. Then, in the third stage students are encouraged to modify and adapt their own goals, content and tasks. The next level gives them encouragement to create their own goals, develop content and learning tasks. At the final stage, learners become fully autonomous, and they move beyond the formal learning environment and they continue to create their own learning materials. Nunan (1997) points out that the levels in this model involve overlap, and when put into practice, learners will probably move back and forth between the levels.

There are numerous other distinctions in the recent literature proposed by different researchers. One of them is made by Holliday (2003). His distinction involves three approaches which are “native-speakerist”, “cultural-relativist” and “social” approaches (as

cited in Benson, 2011, p. 63). Ribé (2003) identifies “convergence”, “divergence-convergence” and “convergence-divergence” models of autonomy. In convergence model, there are shared curriculum goals open to be directed by others while divergence models are associated with approaches to language curriculum which is open to and supportive of autonomy in almost all components of the process giving space for autonomy in a wide range of choices (as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 63). In addition, Smith (2003) introduces “strong” and “weak” pedagogies for autonomy. He argues that strong pedagogies assume students are already autonomous, whereas weak pedagogies assume students lack autonomy and they are not ready to exercise autonomy directly (as cited in Benson 2008, p. 24). Moreover, Kumaravadivelu (2003) makes a distinction between “narrow” and “broad” views of autonomy. While the narrow view supposes that the main goal of learner autonomy is to learn to learn, the broad view supposes that the goal should be to learn to liberate (as cited in Benson, 2007, p. 27). Allford and Pachler (2007) make the most recent distinction and propose “radical” and “gradualist” versions of autonomy. Radical versions emphasize the learners’ right to autonomy, whereas gradualist versions see autonomy as a long term goal and a product that is owned by acquiring autonomous learning skills (as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 63). Scharle and Szabo (2000) as well propose their own model of autonomy consisting of three stages: “raising awareness”, “changing attitudes” and “transferring roles” (p. 9). In the raising awareness stage, learners are made aware of learning objectives, and they become conscious about the contents. Next, learners change their attitudes by attempting to replace their behaviors with new ways of learning in the changing attitudes stage. Finally, learners become able to control their learning process fully and evaluate it, they still need little help in terms of instructions and support, though.

To conclude, as Oxford (2003) suggests “no single perspective should be considered antithetical to any other perspective” (as cited in Martinez, 2008, p. 106); therefore, it could be proposed that all these perspectives and approaches are somehow complementary to each other, and researchers should not feel hesitant or worried to study on the concept of autonomy from various perspectives.

In accordance with the conclusion drawn above, we have adopted a certain version of autonomy as a starting point in order that we could build our study upon a valid and structured framework and research design. In this study, we have focused on the ‘technical’ versions of learner autonomy, which is one of the three versions of autonomy

that Benson (1997) suggested. As it has been already mentioned above, technical versions of learner autonomy involve situations in which learners feel an obligation to take charge of their own learning. In addition, the main concern in these versions is how learners could be equipped with the ‘skills’ and ‘techniques’ in order to cope with such situations outside the class without a teacher (Benson, 1997). We believe that raising students’ awareness of their own learning outside the classroom and enabling students to have the necessary skills in order to take charge of their learning is a significant task for the teacher.

Educational Theories in Connection with Learner Autonomy

Holec (1981), the father of the term autonomy in language learning/teaching, asserts that if any democratic state aims to develop and flourish as a democracy, it has to commit itself to taking educational measures that serve the purpose of developing the capacity of their citizens to think and act as free and self-determining individuals (as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006). Education and educational philosophies are the significant fields that have utmost importance in countries’ political, social and even economic structures. These fields are influential in shaping countries’ orientation in terms of independence, development, innovation and well-being of the citizens through individuals. That is to say, today all over the world there is a great emphasis on developing and improving 21st century skills through educational and pedagogical practices. The skills that most countries strive to develop in their children and adults – in short citizens – include being flexible, responsible, adaptive to change, managing time and goals, working independently, being self-monitoring and self-directed, aspiring to be a life-long learner as well as the ability to collaborate and interact with others, to solve problems and to undertake the role of a guide or a leader if necessary. It is clear that 21st century skills, favorable skills in the world’s most developed countries, have implications of autonomy, and as Winch (1999) states if education in any society aims to prepare children for adult life, and if adults are in need of more independence than children; then, autonomy in this sense is an unavoidable aim of any educational process. He also suggests that the best kind of education includes developing autonomous reasoning and self-determination.

In order to encourage learners to achieve these aims mentioned above, autonomy must be one of the components that are placed necessarily at the center of any educational practice, and it must be remembered that autonomy is related to many significant fields. Some

dominant educational theories that contribute to the concept of learner autonomy will be discussed in this chapter with a focus on how each of these is connected to learner autonomy.

Humanism in Connection with LA

Humanism can be expressed through religion, education and psychology. The freedom and the dignity of the individual are greatly valued in humanism. When it comes to humanism in education, it attaches a great deal of importance to the human being since s/he is considered who is able to change and develop anything s/he comes across. According to humanism, human beings must be seen as whole creatures rather than as combined parts. Humanists see learning as the quest for the discovery of personal meaning within, and self-discovered learning, self-actualization, self-evaluation, freedom and autonomy are the core concepts of humanism in education (Rogers, 1961). Holec (1981) and Gremmo and Riley (1995) suggest that early pedagogical experiments concerning autonomy were inspired by humanistic expectations which were aroused by the political turmoil and counter-cultures of late-1960s Europe. As a result of these experiments, self-access centers were developed and learner training came under focus (as cited in Benson, 1996).

Since 1970s, humanistic psychology has been influential on self-direction in adult education. Accordingly, it has also had a major impact on the theory of autonomy in language learning. Rogers (1969) is one of the most influential names in humanistic psychology, and he puts forward that only if a student chooses his/her own direction, discovers his/her own learning resources, formulates his/her own problems, and decides his/her own course of action is learning maximized. In brief, maximization of autonomy is associated with maximized learning in humanistic approach, and great importance is attached to learner autonomy and self-actualization. Roger's another major contribution to language learning/teaching is his reconceptualization of the role of the teacher. The notion of the teacher as a facilitator was developed by Carl Rogers, and classroom-based approaches to autonomy in language learning/teaching are grounded on this view which attributes a facilitating role to teacher in helping learners achieve self-actualization and an active role to learners in their learning process (Benson, 2011).

Constructivism in Connection with LA

Hein (1991) defines constructivism as "the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves - each learner individually (and socially) constructs meaning - as he or she learns". Therefore, as Benson (1997) states learning involves the reorganization and restructuring of experience – which is unique for everyone – rather than the discovery of predetermined knowledge. Consequently, according to constructivism learners' prior knowledge, experiences and beliefs are the departure points of the learning process, and there is a need for learner-centered instruction (Esch & St. John, 2003). One of the key ideas that autonomy in language learning owes to constructivism is the idea that effective learning means active learning. Gray (1997) states that according to constructivism knowledge is constructed by learners through an active, mental process of development, and learners are the builders and creators of meaning and knowledge. Wang and Peverly (1986) describe effective learners as being capable of learning independently and deliberately by means of identifying, formulating and restructuring goals; using strategy planning; developing and executing plans; and doing self-monitoring. All these imply that the learner is the owner of his learning process, which means the learner must be in control of and responsible for that process, so s/he needs to have a voice in deciding what to learn and how to learn it (Esch & St. John, 2003). Moreover, creativity, engagement with target language, interaction, self-evaluation and peer-evaluation are important aspects of constructivism that support autonomy. In brief, constructivist approach to language learning supports especially psychological versions of autonomy which deals with learner's behavior, attitudes, personality, and motivation as well as focusing on individual responsibility for one's learning, interaction, active engagement with target language and self-concept (Benson, 1997).

Critical Theory in Connection with LA

According to critical theory, which is an approach within the humanities and language studies, learning is a process of engagement with social context, which involves the possibility of political action and social change (Finch, 2000). Benson (1997) notes that autonomy develops as long as learners' critical awareness of the social context of their learning and the constraints implied by this context grows. Therefore, critical theory encourages more social and political versions of learner autonomy.

Experiential Learning Theory in Connection with LA

Experiential learning model has been developed by David Kolb (1984) building on the work of Dewey, Kelly and Rogers. However, the theory of learner autonomy in language learning has been mainly influenced by the work of Kohonen (1992), and the theory emphasizes the significance of learner's immediate experience for learning as well as reflecting on this experience, the ability to manage learning, gaining self-concept in order to develop skills consciously and to organize tasks (as cited in Benson, 2011; Kocak, 2003). Kohonen also adds that learners need to be producers rather than consumers of language courses while acquiring a self-concept. So, experiential learning, which basically refers to 'learning-by-doing' through providing learners with freedom to use their capacities for thinking and judging independently, is a requirement to facilitate this capacity (as cited in Kocak, 2003, p. 21). Another point made by Benson (2011) is that the notion of learning as a cyclical process which integrates immediate experience, reflection, abstract conceptualization and action is important in experiential learning. Therefore, the methodology proposed by experiential learning entails helping learners to integrate knowledge into their own systems of meaning and take control of their own learning.

Furthermore, Legutke and Thomas (1991) emphasize the advantages of project work which is a common practice of experiential learning in language learning, and they suggest that project work is an effective method of fostering learner autonomy. Indeed, learners are provided with the opportunity to learn in an autonomous way in project works while trying to achieve the project goals by planning, organizing and carrying out the work, examining the work critically, working and cooperating with others, clarifying ideas in speech or writing, and so on (as cited in Kocak, 2003).

Autonomy Related Concepts

Everhard (2006, p. 2) describes the process of dealing with the concept of learner autonomy as:

something akin to 'opening a can of worms'. Some of the worms that emerge include the following: Motivation, Self-esteem, Self-regulation, Counselling, Learning Styles, Learning Strategies, Learner Training, Teacher Training, Self- and Peer-assessment, Learner Diaries, Learner Contracts, Culture, Technology, Self-access, Affect, Multiple Intelligences, Differentiation, Self-instruction, Learning Pathways, Perceptions and Beliefs, Goal-setting, Portfolios and the list goes on ...

The term ‘worms’ mentioned by Everhard (2006, p. 2) are used to refer to some factors that may have influence on fostering autonomy. In this part of the chapter, some autonomy related concepts will be presented in order to clarify how these concepts are related to the development of learner autonomy.

Motivation and Autonomy

Dickinson (1995) suggests that motivation plays a key role in both general education and autonomous learning. She states that highly motivated learners are autonomous learners, and their autonomy leads to better and more effective work. Dickinson (1995) adds that enhanced motivation is a factor affecting the ability of learners to take responsibility for their own learning since it encourages them to notice that their successes or failures depend on their own efforts, not on the factors out of their control. Moreover, Dörnyei (1998) argues that if students are motivated enough, it is also easier to activate their inner capacities which may involve their autonomy, self-realization and self-confidence. Furthermore, Spratt, Chan and Humphreys (2002) conclude that motivation functions as a pre-condition for autonomy, and it’s a key factor influencing the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously. Therefore, they suggest that teachers should attempt to ensure motivation before they start training their students to become autonomous.

In the literature, motivation in language learning has been studied from different perspectives. For instance, Gardner and Lambert (1972, as cited in Ushioda, 2008) investigated motivation from a socio-psychological perspective. They argued that language learning motivation is different from other forms of learning motivation qualitatively, and motivation could be distinguished as ‘integrative’ and ‘instrumental’. Integrative motivation refers to sincere and personal interest in the target language, people and their culture. On the other hand, instrumental motivation refers to the value and practical advantages of learning a language. This theory of language learner motivation prevailed in the field and was explored from this angle till the 1990s.

Dörnyei (2001a) asserts that since the 1990s, there has been a move towards theorizing and studying motivation with more “education-friendly” and “classroom-based” approaches (as cited in Ushioda, 2008, p. 20). The recent influential approaches to motivation are self-determination theory, attribution theory, and goal theories. Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory has been one of the most influential approaches in motivational

psychology. Deci and Ryan (1985) added two different notions of motivation to the field by developing the self-determination theory (SDT). These notions are “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to “doing something because it’s inherently interesting or enjoyable”, whereas extrinsic motivation refers to “doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 55). Noels, Clement and Pelletier (1999) also specialize in self-determination theory. The results of their study show that stronger intrinsic motivation leads to more positive language learning outcomes, one of which is greater self-evaluations of competence. Furthermore, Scharle and Szabo (2000) emphasize that intrinsic motivation which is the source of a learner’s inner drive or interest must be encouraged since intrinsically motivated learners are better able to identify with goals of learning, making them more eager to take responsibility for outcomes.

In the 1980s, attribution theory became the dominant theory in motivational psychology. Attribution theory explains how people perceive the reasons of their actions and those of others for success and failure in learning (Benson, 2011). The last prominent theory is goal-orientation theory. Why students choose to engage in particular tasks is the main concern of goal-orientation theorists. This theory is significant since as Benson (2011) indicates encouraging autonomy requires a focus on learner’s perspective in regard to the goals and process of learning.

Reflection and Autonomy

According to Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) reflective practice is “the process of learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice” (p. 7). It also entails being self-aware and critically evaluating someone’s own responses to practice situations in order to gain new understandings and thereby improve her/his future practice. This is regarded as a part of the process of life-long learning (Boud et al., 1985). Reflection, as Reinders (2010) points out ‘is the glue that holds autonomous learning together’ (p. 50).

Little (2006) argues that the first step taken towards developing the ability to take charge of one’s own learning is to accept full responsibility for the learning process, which means acknowledging that success in learning depends crucially on ourselves rather than on others. He adds that this acceptance of responsibility leads us to “set out to learn the skills

of reflection and analysis that enable us to plan, monitor and evaluate our learning” (Little, 2006, p. 1). According to Little (2006) there are three basic pedagogical principles that govern the development of autonomy in language learning, and these are learner involvement, learner reflection and appropriate target language use. Learners need to reflect while they are thinking critically when they plan, monitor and evaluate their learning. In other words, in formal language learning contexts, “learner autonomy entails reflective involvement in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating learning”. In these contexts, a teacher must require her/his students to keep a written record of their learning and involve her/his learners in regular evaluation of their progress as individual learners and as a class (Little, 2006, p. 3).

To put it briefly, reflection is considered a crucial means that serves to enrich and deepen one’s learning in a positive way, and learner autonomy and reflection are two closely associated concepts. Therefore, learners must be provided with the opportunity to reflect upon about why, what and how they are learning certain things, and they must be reinforced to develop a capacity for reflection in order to become autonomous learners.

Culture and Autonomy

According to Palfreyman (2005), culture in popular usage “usually refers to patterns of attitude and behavior shared by people from a particular national or ethnic group (e.g., Chinese culture)” (p. 212). The role of culture in language learning is one of the most frequently discussed issues in literature since there is a prevailing belief in the fact that culture is an inevitable part of language and correspondingly, language learning.

When it comes to the relation between autonomy and culture, the current literature suggests that the perception of the concept of learner autonomy differs from one cultural context to another. Oxford (2003) for instance believes that differences present in different cultures’ belief systems obviously imply that learner autonomy may differ from one culture to another one. Moreover, Palfreyman and Smith (2003) state that the practicality of learner autonomy concepts among different cultures may lead to different interpretations of the theory of learner autonomy. That is to say, the culture and educational contexts of students and teachers influence how the theory of learner autonomy is realized in practice (Benson, 2001; Gremmo and Riley, 1995; Koçak, 2003; Littlewood, 1999; Littlewood, 2000; Reinders, 2000). Ho and Crookall (1995) suggest that:

While personal autonomy appears to be a universally desirable and beneficial objective, it is important to remember that learner autonomy is exercised within the context of specific cultures. Therefore, in choosing the skills and kinds of knowledge to develop and selecting the procedures or methods that are to be used to help learners develop skills for autonomy, the culturally-constructed nature of the classroom setting needs to be taken into account. We must also consider how certain cultural traits might either facilitate or inhibit the acquisition of these skills and knowledge and, thus, restrain or assist the development of autonomy (pp. 236-237).

This view is supported by Benson (2011) who indicates that “if autonomy takes different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts of learning, its manifestations are also liable to vary according to cultural contexts” (p. 69).

In brief, culture and learner autonomy are closely interrelated as the recent literature suggests. Therefore, before attempting to study on learner autonomy or to foster autonomy in learners belonging to any culture, one must bear in mind the reality that cultural context influences that specific group of learners’ implications and realizations of the theory of learner autonomy.

Language Learning Strategies and Autonomy

Attempts to research language learning strategies first began in the 1960s. Developments in cognitive psychology have particularly had much of the influence on research on language learning strategies (Williams & Burden, 1997). The primary concern in most of the research on language learning strategies has been on "identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language." (Rubin & Wenden, 1987).

The concept of Language Learning Strategies has been defined in different ways by various researchers; therefore, there has been a conflict in the literature concerning the definition of language learning strategies. As a consequence, providing some key definitions of the concept is required before mentioning the relationship between language learning strategies and learner autonomy.

One of the earliest researchers who attempted to define learning strategies, Rubin (1975) made a broad definition of learning strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (p. 43). Chamot (1987) also provides one of the earliest definitions of learning strategies as “techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area

information” (p. 71). According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), strategies consist of sets of operations, steps, plans, or routines that are used by the learners so that they could obtain, store, retrieve and use information. In another important definition made by Oxford (1990), it is stated that learning strategies are “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8). Lastly, Wenden (1998) states that learning strategies are mental steps or operations used by learners in order to learn and regulate their efforts to learn a new language.

All in all, it could be deduced from these definitions that language learning strategies contribute to the learning process since they make learning easier, more effective and more permanent for the learners who try to acquire a foreign language.

Just as defining language learning strategies has created conflict among the researchers, classifying those strategies has been a controversial issue since different researchers have developed different classification schemes of the concept from different viewpoints by including or excluding certain manifestations of language learners. For instance, Wenden (1983, as cited in Liu, 2010) examines the strategies used by adult foreign language learners in order to direct their own learning, and she identifies three general categories of self-directing strategies which are a) knowing what language is and what language and language learning involves, b) planning the content and methods of language learning, and c) self-evaluation of progress in learning and learner’s responses to the learning experience (p. 100).

Another classification is proposed by Rubin (1987) that categorizes learning strategies under two main groups and several subgroups considering the criterion whether the strategy contributes directly or indirectly to learning. She first identifies three major kinds of strategies: learning strategies, (interactive) communication strategies, and social strategies. The first major group, learning strategies are further categorized into cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, which directly affect the development of the learner’s language system. In Rubin’s (1987) classification, cognitive strategies include: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring. Meta-cognitive strategies involve processes such as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management. The second major group, communication strategies less directly affect language learning since their focus is on

participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying someone's intention. The last major group, social strategies contribute to language learning indirectly, and they activities that learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge. Social strategies include questions to fellow students/teachers/native speakers, and initiating conversations.

Moreover, Oxford (1990) makes a detailed distinction between direct and indirect language learning strategies. According to her, direct strategies involve “direct learning and use of the subject matter, in this case a new language”, and they are subdivided into three groups as “memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies”. Indirect language learning strategies “contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning”, and they are also subdivided into three groups as “meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies” (as cited in Liu, 2010, p. 101).

Finally, O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification of language learning strategies has also contributed to the current literature. In this categorization, language learning strategies are differentiated into three primary categories of cognitive, meta-cognitive and affective and social strategies depending on the level or type of process involved (as cited in Liu, 2010). These major categories will be examined below under sub-headings.

Cognitive Strategies

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), cognitive strategies are operations that are carried out directly on the material to be learned. They involve the manipulation or transformation of the material to be learned, such as “resourcing, repetition, grouping, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, key word method, elaboration, transfer, inferencing, note taking, summarizing, recombination and translation” (as cited in Liu, 2010, p. 101).

Meta-cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies involve “knowing about learning and controlling learning through planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning activity” (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, as cited in Liu, 2010, p. 101). The main metacognitive strategies include advance

organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production and self-evaluation (Thanasoulas, 2000).

With regard to the relationship between learner autonomy and metacognitive strategies, Victorio and Lockhart (1995) emphasize the use of effective metacognitive strategies to help students to develop a more active and autonomous attitude in their learning. Wenden (1991) also mentions the importance of metacognitive strategies by stating that “metacognitive knowledge about language learning is the second kind of learner training content to be included in learning plans to develop learner autonomy” (as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006, p. 46). In addition, Camilleri (1997) points out that metacognitive strategies, which involve planning, monitoring and evaluating learning, are closely related with autonomous learning skills as transferable key skills such as planning, monitoring, evaluating, reflecting, decision making, and accessing and organizing information. Therefore, it is significant for learners to be aware of metacognitive strategies which play a fundamental role in learner autonomy.

Social and Affective Strategies

Social and Affective Strategies are the strategies that are used to describe the ways in which learners cooperate and interact with others and regulate themselves in order to boost their learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006). Social strategies may include “asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms” and they help learners cooperate with others and understand the target culture besides the language. Affective strategies such as “identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk” are some of the most common strategies that foreign language learners use (Oxford, 2003, p. 14).

Language Learning Strategies and Learner Autonomy are closely interlinked concepts and research on learner autonomy necessitates being informed on learning strategies for several important factors. To begin with, according to Chamot, Keatley, Meloni, Gonglewski and Bartoshesky (2010), in order to learn a language effectively, learners need to know how to learn as well as what to learn. They take the advantage of learning strategies while they are trying to learn how to learn, and the learners who have learned how and when to use

learning strategies become more self-reliant and better able to learn independently. As they have a repertoire of learning strategies, these learners can become better and more autonomous learners. Moreover, strategic learning encourages learners to take the responsibility for their own learning and reflect on their own thinking process. For instance, learners who are aware of effective learning strategies can “monitor their progress and evaluate their performance and achievement”; consequently, they can make “sophisticated learning decisions” (p. 4). This view is also supported by Cohen (1998) who believes that learning strategies may help learners monitor and self-evaluate their language learning performance in addition to helping them transfer successful learning strategies to new learning contexts (as cited in Balçıkanlı, 2006). Furthermore, Wenden (1991) asserts that:

In effect, ‘successful’ or ‘expert’ or ‘intelligent’ learners have learnt how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Therefore, they are autonomous (p. 15).

To conclude, language learning strategies are effective tools in terms of promoting learner autonomy. As Cohen (1998) argues training students on learning strategies can “enhance students’ efforts to reach language program goals because it encourages students to find their own pathways to success, and thus it promotes learner autonomy and self-direction” (as cited in Gökgöz, 2008, p. 23).

Fostering Learner Autonomy in EFL Classes

Littlewood (1996) argues that the goal of all education process is “to help people to think, act and learn independently in relevant areas of their lives” (p. 434). However, as Cotterall (1995) states learner autonomy does not arise spontaneously within the learner, but it develops out of the learner’s dialogue with the world which he or she belongs to. In accordance with the whole education/learning process, developing and fostering learner autonomy should be one of the major goals of language programs/language teaching. Littlewood (1997) provides a detailed explanation on how autonomy develops in language learner through the process of language learning. He identifies three kinds of autonomy which are “autonomy as a communicator”, “autonomy as a learner” and “autonomy as a person” (p. 83). He believes that students’ level of motivation and confidence determine their willingness to act independently. In addition, their level of knowledge and skills

determine their ability to act independently. He also claims that in regard to language teaching our task is to “help students develop motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills that they require in order (a) to communicate more independently, (b) to learn more independently and (c) (by extension) to be more independent as individuals” (p. 82). Littlewood (1997) illustrates his definition of autonomy and the ways of developing autonomy with the figure below.

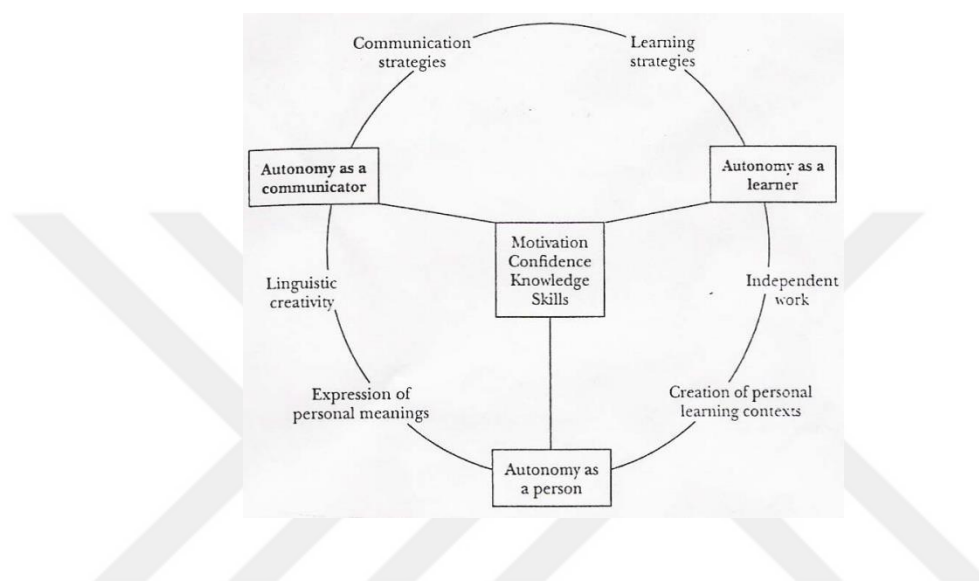


Figure 2. Developing autonomy through language teaching (p. 83)

In Figure 2, the center box includes the four components that contribute to a learner’s willingness and ability to act independently. The three surrounding boxes show the three types of autonomy. Lastly, the six additional labels around the circle show some of the concrete ways in which these types of autonomy are expressed in language learning. In practice, Littlewood (1997) adds, all of these aspects are interconnected.

Moreover, Nunan (1997) believes that a learner cannot reach the stage of being fully autonomous; this is an idealistic state not realistic one. He points out that autonomy is “not an all-or-nothing concept”, and there are degrees of autonomy (p. 192). Moreover, the extent to which autonomy could be developed is to be determined by some constraints, such as psychology and cognitive characteristics of the learner in addition to cultural, social and educational context of the learning.

Nonetheless, according to him encouraging learners to move towards autonomy is possible, and it can be best achieved inside the language classroom. He claims that this could be realized by integrating two key curricular sets of goals into language programs.

The first set of goals consists of language content goals, and the second set consists of learning process goals. It is significant to incorporate these sets of goals into the curriculum harmoniously rather than providing students with separate lessons on learning strategies. Furthermore, Nunan (1995) regards the development of learner autonomy as closing the gap between learning and instruction – between what a teacher teaches and what a learner learns. He suggests that in a learner-centered curriculum, key decisions about what to teach, how and when to teach it and how to assess it are made with reference to the learner. However, he states that assuming learners come into the language classroom with a natural ability to make choices about what and how to learn is a mistake. He believes that “there are relatively few learners who are naturally endowed with the ability to make informed choices about what to learn, how to learn it, and when to learn”. Therefore, he supports “the development of curricula and materials which encourage learners to move toward the fully autonomous end of the pedagogical continuum” (Nunan, 1995, p. 134).

Cotterall (1995) points out that recently there has been great interest in autonomy in the field of language learning/teaching, and autonomy has been thought of as a desirable goal for three main reasons which are the psychological reasons, the practical reasons, and the philosophical reasons. To begin with, promoting learner autonomy in language classrooms has a psychological rationale which could be simply expressed with the belief that people learn better when they are in charge of their own learning. Candy (1988, as cited in Cotterall, 1995) argues that when learners, especially adults, are involved in making choices and decisions about the pace, sequence, mode of instruction, and the content, their learning is more meaningful and effective. Moreover, such learners are likely to have more motivation towards learning, which correspondingly leads them to become more successful learners. That is, increased motivation brings about more effective learning. Secondly, as Tudor (1993) mentions there are practical reasons for autonomy which are needed in order to provide more available language teaching situations in contexts that traditional approaches are not practical enough. For instance, there may not be a teacher always available to assist learners because of the large number of students in a classroom, or learners might not have sufficient free time or financial source to attend educational institutions. Finally, as Crabbe (1993, as cited in Koçak, 2003) argues there is a philosophical rationale behind autonomy which is the view that each individual has the right to make his or her own choices both in learning a language and in other fields.

Additionally, according to him societies with free individuals who have not been restricted by the choices of social institutions become happier and healthier.

Moreover, learners may be provided with more opportunities to use the target language especially in non-native environments by fostering autonomy. Therefore, fostering autonomy not only helps learners to improve their language skills but also lets them to communicate even in EFL settings (Gökgöz, 2008).

Consequently, in the light of explanations made above in regard to its contributions, such a conclusion could be drawn that promoting learner autonomy in EFL contexts is significant and necessary. Nonetheless, to promote learner autonomy necessitates particular conditions in various aspects. Some of these conditions will be discussed below.

Helping learners to develop a sense of autonomy is of great importance; however, it must be noted that learner autonomy could be developed and promoted providing certain conditions exist. One of the leading factors that influence the success in fostering learner autonomy is the teacher without doubt. Teacher attitudes and the learning environment (including practices both inside and outside the classroom) that a teacher sets for the learners are influential on the ways how learners are introduced autonomy and how they perceive it. Thanasoulas (2000) believes that providing a safe learning environment where students feel free to try out their English skills and to make decisions without being criticized in accordance with the learner-centered practices is critical in fostering learner autonomy. What's more, teachers must be willing to reshape their attitudes in terms of the distribution of the power and authority in class. He also states that learners' cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, positive attitudes towards learning a language, knowledge and self-esteem about language learning are some of the factors necessary in fostering learner autonomy. Lee (1998) also believes that flexible environment, teacher support, and peer support are some of the factors facilitating learner autonomy.

Another fundamental condition is the notion of responsibility since responsible learners are ready to accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to make progress in learning. In fact, responsible learners can monitor their own progress, and they voluntarily try to do their best to take available opportunities for their own benefits (Scharle & Szabo, 2000). Besides this, Scharle and Szabo (2000) outlines three basic conditions for the development of autonomy gradually, these are raising awareness, changing attitudes and transferring roles (p. 9).

Lastly, motivation plays a significant role in autonomous learning. The relation between autonomy and motivation has already been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Approaches to Foster Learner Autonomy

As it has been mentioned before in this chapter, Benson (2011) believes that the capacity for control over learning has various aspects, and autonomy may take various forms. According to Benson (2011) all practices that encourage and enable learners to take greater control on their learning can be considered means of fostering learner autonomy; however, he discusses the practices associated with fostering learner autonomy in language learning under six broad headings and calls them “Approaches to the development of autonomy” (p. 125). He provides a brief explanation of each approach and its relations with learner autonomy as follows.

Approaches to the development of autonomy:

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

These distinctions of practices to foster learner autonomy made by Benson (2011) will be described in detail below.

Resource-based Approaches

Resource-based learning is an umbrella term that covers various approaches, such as self-access, tandem learning, distance learning, self-instruction and out-of-class learning. All these types of learning somehow share a focus on the learners' independent interaction with physical, human or digital language learning resources. These approaches provide learners with chances not only to self-direct their learning but also to develop the skills and characteristics connected with autonomy through experimentation and discovery.

Brown and Smith (1996) suggest that the students who have an active tendency to develop learning techniques which help them to become lifelong learners are capable of choosing their own modes of study, pacing themselves and evaluating their effectiveness. They emphasize the view that students can benefit from the best resource-based learning materials in order to take responsibility for their own learning needs.

Of all the approaches under the title of resource-based learning, self-access centers have always been in the central focus in fostering autonomy and have gained widespread popularity among the teachers who have tried to foster learner autonomy (Benson, 2011). While Sheerin (1991) defines self-access as “a way of describing materials that are designed and organized in such a way that students can select and work on tasks on their own”, Gardner and Miller (1999) define it more broadly as “an environment for learning involving resources, teachers, learners and the systems within which they are organized (as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 128). Learning resources available at self-access centers involve audio, video and computer workstations, audiotapes, videotapes and DVDs, computer software and print materials, and mostly access to the Internet or satellite TV. Sheerin (1997) emphasizes the importance of self-access centers by mentioning that learners have the opportunity to analyze their needs, set their objectives, plan a program of work, choose the materials and activities, work unsupervised and evaluate the progress, and synthesize the structure and lexis of a language through self-access learning and self-access systems. Benson (2011) also mentions that locating self-access centers in language teaching departments is a major strength of self-access since it provides opportunities for self-instruction in environments where advisors, classroom teachers and other learners are available for face-to-face communication. Therefore, resource-based learning fosters learner autonomy by creating environments for learners to direct their own learning.

Technology-based Approaches

Benson (2011) points out that technology-based approaches and resource-based approaches display similarity in many respects; however, technology-based approaches are discussed under a new heading since they focus on technologies to access resources and claims have been frequently made for the role of new technologies in the development of autonomy. The relationship between new educational technologies and learner autonomy is described by Motteram, (1997, as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 145) as follows:

There has always been a perceived relationship between educational technology and learner autonomy. This is taking educational technology in its broadest sense and taking learner autonomy as the super-ordinate term. This has become increasingly true for computers and self-access.

Technology-based approaches may include utilizing student-produced video, Web 2.0 technologies such as blogging, WebQuests, chatbots, CD-ROM packages, E-mail messages, and mobile language learning devices connected to the Internet such as PDAs and mobile phones (Benson, 2011). The significance of educational technology in fostering learner autonomy is explained by Murray (1999, as cited in Hamilton, 2013) who states that “...educational technology demonstrates its effectiveness as a purveyor of learner autonomy” (p.1). Kessler (2009) also says that “one obvious benefit of technology for language learning is the creation of opportunities for students to use language in authentic contexts. Such activities encourage students to strive for autonomy in the target language (as cited in Hamilton, p. 1).

Among technology-based approaches, as the most outstanding approaches computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and the use of the Internet are considered to promote learner autonomy by the researchers and foreign language teachers. Kenning (1996) agrees that CALL in general promotes learner autonomy as it is supported with the usage of multimedia, hypermedia and interactive technologies (as cited in Benson, 2011). Moreover, according to Little (1996), computers can promote the development of learner autonomy to the extent that they can stimulate, mediate and extend the range and scope of the social and psychological interaction on which all learning depends.

Besides CALL, the Internet is also accepted to foster learner autonomy as a means of technology-based approaches. In her various studies with regard to the use of the Internet and technologically-enhanced learning environments, Hanson-Smith (2000) observes that

in each case “changes brought by technology far exceeded the designers’ original intentions, often leading to new ways of teaching and learning... [and] more independence and self-sufficiency for students who are moved to take responsibility for and control of their own learning” (as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 149).

Learner-based Approaches

In contrast to resource-based and technology-based approaches to autonomy with a focus on providing opportunities for self-directed learning, learner-based approaches directly address to the development of learner or creating behavioral and psychological changes within the learner which, consequently, enable learners to take greater control over their own learning. The primary goal of these approaches is to help learners become “better” language learners (Benson, 2011, p. 155). Benson (2011) points out that current approaches to learner development result from the integration of two traditions, one of which is European work related to learning training and the other one is North American work related to the “good language learner”, learning strategies and strategy training (p. 154). Benson (2011, p. 155) categorizes approaches to learner development into six major types given below.

1. Direct advice on language-learning strategies and techniques, often published in the form of self-study manuals for independent learners.
2. Training based on ‘good language learner’ research and insights from cognitive psychology.
3. Training in which learners are encouraged to experiment with strategies and discover which work well for them.
4. Synthetic approaches drawing on a range of theoretical sources.
5. Integrated approaches treating learner training as a by-product of language learning.
6. Self-directed approaches in which learners are encouraged to train themselves through reflection on self-directed learning activities.

Benson (2011) adds that in current practice there has been an agreement in the literature that learner development activities function best when they are presented with language-learning activities in an integrated manner.

In addition to Benson's (2011) categorization, Scharle and Szabo (2000) offer some guidelines enriched with sample activities for the teachers who would like to promote learner autonomy in their classrooms. These sample activities have been mainly designed to develop learner strategies, help learners monitor their learning process and establish self-evaluation, promote motivation and develop co-operation among learners.

Whereas Scharle and Szabo (2000) provide a resource for teachers in order that they could use to develop learner autonomy in their classes, Rubin and Thompson (1994, as cited in Yildirim, 2005) provide a broad resource related to strategy training and learner autonomy for students. The reason why they wrote this book was to share with learners the ways that can enable them to become better foreign language learners by explaining them in simple terms. In this book they provide sufficient answers to four basic questions: (a) What is the nature of language and communication? (b) How are objectives defined for language study? (c) How can one plan his language study? (d) How is the language-learning process managed best?

In this part of the chapter, in addition to the discussion of learner-based approaches, we believe that it is essential to mention certain roles and characteristics of learners in autonomous learning. Breen and Mann (1997) outline eight qualities that an autonomous learner in a language learning classroom has. According to Breen and Mann (1997, pp. 134-136), the characteristics of autonomous learners are as follows:

1. "The learner's stance": autonomous learners can discern their relations and positions towards what is to be learned, how they may learn, and the resources in hand for which they feel in charge or in control.
2. "The desire to learn": Autonomous learners in a language classroom have a genuine desire to learn a language.
3. "A robust sense of self": Autonomous learners of a language have a strong sense of self; thus, any real or assumed negative assessment of themselves by others does not undermine their confidence. Instead, they embrace assessment as a rich source of feedback.

4. “Metacognitive capacity”: Autonomous learners have the ability to reflect upon what they are doing. This metacognitive ability helps them decide what to learn, when, how and with which resources.
5. “Management of change”: Autonomous learners are both “alert to change” and “able to change”.
6. “Independence”: Autonomous learners in an EFL/ESL context are capable of learning and being successful independently – isolated from the educational processes, using out of class resources – .
7. “A strategic engagement with learning”: Autonomous learners can utilize the environment they have strategically. They are able to make right decisions at right times since they have their own evolving criteria of language learning curriculum.
8. “A capacity to negotiate”: Autonomous learners are able to negotiate and collaborate with others even though their success in learning may not depend on the context they are in.

Classroom-based Approaches

Classroom-based approaches focus on fostering learner autonomy by providing learners opportunities to be involved in decision-making processes dealing with the day-to-day management of their learning. Practices which encourage learners to take a degree of control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning have mostly positive effects, and studies mostly show that learners have the capability of exercising control over these aspects of their learning when given a chance to take over control and supported appropriately. This capacity also seems to develop in the classroom more effectively since the classroom presents a learning environment where learners can more easily collaborate with others and built better performance on the support of their teachers (Benson, 2011).

Exercising learner control over the planning of classroom activities is one of the two main aspects of classroom-based approaches. Experiments conducted with foreign language learners which aim at giving them more control suggest that more independence leads to more motivation and increased sense of responsibility for learning. In one of his experiments, Littlejohn (1983) introduces some important elements of learner control into a teacher-directed learning environment. Learners are asked to volunteer to do research on

an area of grammar, share their findings with others, prepare exercises, tasks and games for practice. Meanwhile, they have class hours allocated to student-directed classes in which groups of learners decide on and carry out the activities by themselves. When the students retake the examination they had failed the year before, the experimental group of students shows improvement greater than the students in other teacher-directed groups. Littlejohn also reports that the learners developed a higher level of responsibility for their learning, took roles in the class more actively and became more involved with the course texts and eager to use additional sources (Benson, 2011).

The second aspect of classroom-based approaches is learner control over assessment of classroom learning. Self-assessment holds a significant place in the literature on autonomy and language testing, and it has been considered to bring plenty of benefits for learning. Oscarson (1989) highlights four main benefits of formal self-assessment for learners (as cited in Benson, 2011).

1. Learners are trained to evaluate the effectiveness of their communication, which benefits learning.
2. Learners' awareness of the learning process increases and they are stimulated to think over course content and assessment critically.
3. Their knowledge about the abundance of possible goals in learning is enhanced, which leads them to a better position in order to direct their own learning and classroom activities.
4. It extends the width of assessment criteria in a way that areas students are especially competent in are also included.

Curriculum-based Approaches

Curriculum-based approaches to autonomy indicate extending learner control over the management of learning to the curriculum as a whole. These approaches could also be described as “deep-end” approaches since learners develop the capacity to exercise control over their learning at various levels (Benson, 2011, p. 184). The formulation of the principle of learner control over the curriculum has been achieved through the idea of the process syllabus. In process syllabus there is an expectation on the learners' side to make the major decisions in regard to the content and procedures of learning by collaborating

with their teachers. Learners are given the freedom of choice and responsibility at early stages of the course. Moreover, in a process syllabus the content is determined through an ongoing cycle of negotiation and evaluation. In order that curriculum-based approaches can work effectively, learners must be supported in decision-making processes with either implicit or explicit scaffolding structures. Without these structures, curriculum-based structures would probably fail in developing autonomy (Benson, 2011).

There have been a number of examples on curriculum-based approaches to autonomy in the literature. For instance, the work done by Leni Dam (1995) and her colleagues has still been regarded as one of the most successful examples of curriculum-based approaches to autonomy in action to date. She reported in her study with Danish learners of English that students had the chance to be involved in making decisions about their own learning process. Another key initiative that has been taken at the Helsinki University Language Centre since the 1990s is the ALMS (Autonomous Learning Module) program. In this 14-week credit-bearing EFL program, teachers attempt to design a curriculum framework in the direction of greater autonomy, and students are largely responsible for determining and evaluating learning activities in the program. Students report that they have become more autonomous as language learners and users and they are also capable of applying this autonomy to other areas of their lives (Benson, 2011).

In conclusion, curriculum-based approaches to autonomy can be judged to be highly effective in that they give learners a voice in the development of a course program by letting them choose learning activities and an opportunity to exercise control over learning by letting them determine the learning procedures.

Teacher-based Approaches

Teacher-based approaches to autonomy emphasize the significant role of teachers in the process of language learning and in the practice of fostering learner autonomy. They imply that the first step towards changing learners is to change teachers, and the teachers' professional skills and commitment to the concept of autonomy will play an undeniably crucial role in the effectiveness of other approaches to foster learner autonomy. It is assumed that in order that teachers can succeed in fostering learner autonomy, as a prerequisite, teachers themselves must exercise a degree of autonomy in their approaches to foreign language teaching and learning. Teacher-based approaches can be discussed in

two basic aspects: the roles of teachers in autonomous learning and teacher autonomy itself (Benson, 2011).

The first aspect of teacher-based approaches focuses on the work on teachers' roles in autonomous learning. Various terms suggested to describe the teacher's role within the framework of interpretation teaching – not traditional teaching – include facilitator, helper, coordinator, counselor, consultant, adviser, knower and resource (Benson, 2011). Voller (1997), who reviews the literature on teacher roles in autonomous learning, reduces these terms to three: *facilitator*, in which teacher is responsible for providing support for learning; *counselor*, in which one-to-one interaction with the learner is emphasized; and *resource*, in which teacher is considered the source of knowledge and expertise. He also itemizes some important functions and characteristics of these roles under the headings of technical and psycho-social support (as cited in Benson 2011, p. 186).

The key features of technical support are:

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

The key features of psycho-social support are:

- the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, emphatic, open, non-judgment);
- a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging, commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome obstacles, being prepared to enter into a dialog with learners, avoiding manipulating, objectifying or interfering with, in other words, controlling them);

- an ability to raise learners’ awareness (to “decondition” them from preconceptions, about learner and teacher roles, to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for independent learning).

The second aspect of teacher-based approaches focuses on teacher autonomy and teacher education. The idea of teacher autonomy partly emerges from a shift in the field of teacher education from a focus on the teacher conducting the methods developed by experts to a focus on the teacher as a self-directed learner and practitioner (Benson, 2011). Little (2000b, as cited in Benson, 2011) argues that:

It is unreasonable to expect teachers to foster the growth of autonomy in their learners if they themselves do not know what it is to be an autonomous learner”; and in fostering learner autonomy, teachers must apply to their teaching “those same reflective and self-managing processes that they apply to their learning (p. 193).

As a result, as Benson (2011) argues teacher autonomy could be developed through educational interventions similar to those that lead to learner autonomy. In this case, teacher education programs should not only simply teach student teachers the idea of learner autonomy, but they should also be directed towards teacher autonomy as a goal.

Upon reviewing all these approaches to fostering learner autonomy in practice, we may conclude that no single method of fostering autonomy can be considered the best or the most effective. On the contrary, if autonomy consists of several different aspects of language learning, it is likely that learner autonomy can be best fostered through a combination of all these approaches (Balçıkanlı, 2008).

Some Research Studies on Fostering Learner Autonomy

As Benson (2006, as cited in Liu, 2012) observes since the 1980s promoting learner autonomy in English language learning has been given great importance, especially during the past one decade. The reason why researchers and educators are starting to pay more attention to autonomy could be possibly attributed to more learner-centered or communicative approaches, which are considered current trends in foreign language teaching. As a result of this growing attention and popularity, a great number of studies have been carried out on learner autonomy all over the world. Some of these studies are presented below.

One of the significant results of growing attention on fostering learner autonomy is the design of programs that aim at developing learner autonomy and studying their effects and effectiveness. One of such programs is the ‘Language Acquisition in an Autonomous Learning Environment’ project started in a Danish school in 1992 by Dam and Legenhausen. The LAALE project aims at developing learner autonomy among school children who are trying to learn English by following the principles of autonomous language learning. The main aim of the study is to compare the language development of a class of young learners who study English in an autonomous way with other classes of learners who follow a more traditional model of instruction and to show that autonomous learning can work effectively in terms of language proficiency. This is a longitudinal study that focuses on different areas of language at different stages of the project. The results of the LAALE project in relation to vocabulary acquisition showed that autonomous approach is more successful and effective when compared to a more traditional, textbook-based course approach. According to the results, the students from LAALE project developed their vocabulary faster and were more spontaneous in their language use. This advantage is concluded to result from the fact that the students in the LAALE project are encouraged to expand their vocabulary based on their own interests and to produce their own materials. Moreover, since the project aims at raising their awareness of language around them, the students also notice resources outside the classroom more easily (Dam & Legenhausen, 2010a).

In addition to the LAALE project intended for school children, programs for young adults have also been developed. One such program is the ‘Autonomous Language Learning Modules’ program developed at the Language Center at Helsinki University, Finland. The aim of the program is to develop learner autonomy among the students by promoting reflection, self-evaluation and collaboration. The students enrolling in the program are first of all involved in awareness-raising classes, and then they set their own learning goals, make a plan to achieve those goals and keep record of and evaluate their own learning (Kijssik, 1997). Working in cooperation with other students and with a counseling teacher is a fundamental characteristic of the project. Results indicate changes in students and teachers who took part in the program. Data collected on the attitudes with questionnaires and interviews show that the changes in the teachers’ and the students’ attitudes are mainly positive. Those changes in the teachers’ views are related to their roles, and the changes in the students’ views are related to their motivation, meaningfulness of learning,

responsibility of learning and learning opportunities beyond the language classroom (Nortlund, 1997).

In order to promote learner autonomy, Lee (1998) designed and conducted a program with fifteen students on a course in Hong Kong and evaluated its results using data from the students and the teacher. A suggested list of activities and materials were the instruments of the study. The findings of this study indicated that creating a self-directed learning program does not necessarily enable learners to become more self-directed. Moreover, it is concluded that the teachers and educators who offer programs in self-directed learning must think very carefully about how they can provide the necessary supportive circumstances and contexts to help learners develop the necessary capacity and willingness to take more responsibility for their own learning.

Spratt et al. (2002) assessed students' readiness for learner autonomy by investigating students' perceptions of their own and teachers' responsibilities, how confident the students are in terms of their ability to act autonomously and their perceptions of their motivation level to learn English. The study also investigated the students' actual activities of autonomous language learning within the frame of both outside and inside class context. They collected data from 508 participants at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University by means of a questionnaire having four sections and small group interviews. Results showed that motivation has an important role in students' readiness to operate autonomously, and thus teachers could try to improve learner motivation before they start leading students to become autonomous. Spratt et al. (2002), also suggest that in order to develop learner autonomy teachers should start with the activities that students already engage in, rather than choosing activities that would require them to change their attitudes or behaviors.

Kennedy (2002) conducted a case study with twenty-three participants at the Institute of Business Administration (as cited in Koçak, 2003). The study's main aim is to see to what extent learner autonomy can be fostered among a group of Turkish students. First, in order to foster independence among students the researcher carried out some practical activities, such as diary writing, use of monolingual dictionary, use of grammar reference books with answer keys, joke telling, summary writing and doing research. Seven months later, the researcher asked the students to write a detailed evaluation of the course they have completed. The results indicate that Turkish students mainly criticize the lack of focus on more grammar practice although some of them reported their enthusiasm in diary

writing. The researcher has also concluded that learner autonomy has much importance to the students. Moreover, he states that promoting learner autonomy in the EFL classroom in Turkey is not easy, and it would be a mistake to expect too much from Turkish learners in a short time since they have traditional experiences before attending English language classes (Kennedy, 2002, as cited in Koçak, 2003).

Another important study was conducted in Turkey by Balçıkanlı (2008) in order to foster learner autonomy through the implementation of certain activities. The study was carried out at Preparatory School of Gazi University, and data were collected by means of a three-part questionnaire from forty participants, half of whom belong to the experimental group and half of whom belong to the control group. Before implementing activities, both groups of students were given the questionnaire to identify their levels of autonomy. During the course of the study, the learners in the experimental group were instructed on implementing autonomy whereas the learners in the control group were not exposed to any change in their education. At the end of the 12-week implementation process, both groups took the same questionnaire again. The study revealed that the learners in the experimental group achieved higher scores than the ones in the control group, and these learners showed a stronger tendency towards autonomy than the learners in the control group. Taking the findings into consideration, Balçıkanlı (2008) suggests that syllabuses used in preparatory schools must be improved and course books must be evaluated in terms of fostering learner autonomy.

Yumuk (2002) conducted another important research study with 90 third-year Turkish students in Bilkent University. The participants were taking an English translation course on the Internet, and the study investigated how an Internet information search based program can encourage learners to take more responsibility for their own learning. The main aim of the study was to design and evaluate a program which could encourage students to use the Internet to select, analyze, evaluate and apply relevant information so that they could improve the accuracy of their translations besides promoting a change in students' attitudes from a traditional mode of teaching to a more autonomous view of learning. The data were collected with pre-course and post-course questionnaires, post-course interviews, and a journal kept by the teacher, who is the researcher as well, weekly. The findings of the study revealed that the program was successful since the students who were not willing to take responsibility for their own learning initially became actively

involved in the learning process and took more responsibility by searching for, analyzing, and transferring information from the Internet to translation tasks (Yumuk, 2002).

Kucuroğlu (2000) carried out a study in Doğuş University in order to assess the role of a learner-centered approach in language teaching in the development of learner autonomy. She examined the principles and design features of an English course, namely English-2. The design of this course required much of the work to be done outside class and by the learners themselves. In her study, Kucuroğlu (2000) discussed the design of the model course which has five main features: assessment of learners' needs, allowing learners' choices in learning, authenticity of textual materials, learners in charge and the roles of teachers. The researcher argued that this course with the features mentioned above is effective in taking students through the stages of conducting academic research and helping them increase their confidence in working independently. In addition, the course is reported to help students learn to take the responsibility for their own learning.

Mutlu (2008) investigated four aspects of learner autonomy within the context of CALL in order to find out whether CALL environments contribute to the development of learner autonomy. The participants consisted of two groups of students, in total 48 preparatory school students, at intermediate level in the Department of Foreign Languages at a private university in Ankara. Firstly, the researcher explored the students' language learning strategy use. Secondly, only one group of these students was given a five-week language learning strategy training through CALL. During the training, she examined students' motivation levels, willingness to take responsibility for learning and involvement in out-of-class studies. The research tools included questionnaires, semi-structured face-to-face interviews, observations and e-learning diaries kept by the strategy training group; as a result, data were collected through both qualitative and quantitative methods. The findings indicated that the students in the strategy training group benefitted from the five-week language learning strategy training, and their use of language learning strategies improved. Also, their motivation increased, which encouraged them to take responsibility for their learning and engage in out-of-class activities. On the other hand, compared to the students in the strategy training group, the students who were not exposed to the five-week language learning strategy training through CALL did not exercise many uses of language learning strategies, high motivation levels, willingness to take responsibility and engage in out-of-class activities. In short, the study reveals that learner autonomy can be fostered

through CALL by helping them to use language learning strategies, increase their motivation, take responsibility for learning and engage in out-of-class activities.

Another research on fostering autonomy is *The Use of Writing Portfolio in Preparatory Writing Classes to Foster Learner Autonomy* done by Durak Ügüten (2009). In this study, the researcher used portfolio implementation and assessment in a preparatory writing class including 30 participants at Çukurova University English Language Teaching Department in order to improve learners' success and determine if implementing portfolio had an impact in terms of developing learner autonomy. The instruments were writing portfolios, cover letters, reflection sheets, interviews and an autonomy level questionnaire. The results demonstrated that learners' achievements could be improved through the use of writing portfolio, and also portfolio implementation in preparatory writing classes leads to more autonomous learners.

İnözü (2011) is conducted to portray the case of a single English teacher in Turkey, and it investigates an EFL classroom in which the teacher tries to develop more autonomous learners. The study draws on qualitative interview data, and the main focus is to analyze the issues emerging during the implementation process of learner autonomy. İnözü (2011) identifies certain challenges to promoting learner autonomy, such as students' negative attitudes towards classroom practices, dissatisfaction with the language learning activities, and lack of motivation among the students. Findings of the study reveal that students in this case study express negative reactions towards accepting the role of more autonomous learners. İnözü (2011) concludes that learners showed negative attitudes towards the new syllabus since Turkey is a developing country, and in the educational systems of developing countries teachers spoon-feed their learners. That is to say, learners resist developing autonomy because of traditional way of instruction.

Çalışır (2013) conducted a qualitative study in order to find out if the English course books used in the seventh grades of state schools in Turkey foster learner autonomy. A framework created by Reinders (2010), the one which will also be used in the present study, was used as the data collection tool to evaluate the books. The framework is composed of eight stages of self-directed learning. According to the results, none of the four English textbooks analyzed covered any of these eight skills contributing to learner autonomy. The results implied that teachers must be more careful while they are choosing

the course books, and the writers must consider involving elements in terms of encouraging learner autonomy while producing the books.

Yıldırım (2013) evaluated the use of portfolio in regard to developing ELT major student-teachers' autonomy. The research was carried out for fourteen weeks with twenty-one 3rd grade student-teachers in the English Language Teaching Department of Çukurova University. It was conducted in a course named Language Teaching Skills II. In order to evaluate the impact of portfolios on fostering the students' autonomy, data were collected through an autonomy readiness questionnaire, semi-structured interviews with the student-teachers and three portfolio evidences: graded goal sheets, reflection reports, and cover letters. The findings of the study revealed that the use of portfolios helped the student-teachers become autonomous in terms of their personal and professional development and that the student-teachers perceived the portfolio process positively.

As the previous studies have demonstrated, the notion learner autonomy plays a key role in learners' motivation and success; moreover, it leads to both learner-centered teaching and more permanent and effective learning in foreign language education. In this regard, the researcher believes that it is significant to study learner autonomy from various aspects, specifically curriculum since a curriculum constitutes all crucial components of a program, such as the philosophy of teaching, methodology, and assessment policies.

Program Evaluation

Introduction

In this part of the chapter, some definitions of the concept of the program evaluation in the literature will be provided. In addition, what program evaluation is will be discussed in various aspects such as evaluation purposes, approaches and types. Moreover, a review of literature regarding program evaluation in foreign language teaching will be presented. Finally, some program evaluation studies conducted abroad and in Turkey will be provided.

Definitions of Program and Program Evaluation

To begin with, program is a term that could be defined in various ways. One of the earliest and simplest definitions belongs to Cronbach et al. (1980) that believe program is a “standing arrangement that provides for a ... service (p. 14). The Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation defines program as “activities that are provided on a continuing basis” (Yarbrough et al., 2011, p. 3). In its broad sense program can be defined as a “complex of people, organization, management, and resources that collectively make up a continuing endeavor to reach some particular educational, social or commercial goal” (Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004, p. 54). Spaulding (2008) suggests that program is “a set of specific activities designed for an intended purpose, with quantifiable goals and objectives (p. 5).

As for the definition of the term evaluation, Scriven (1967, as cited in Gredler, 1996) provides one of the earliest definitions and proposes that evaluation is judging the worth or merit of something. Gredler (1996) believes that evaluation is “the systematic collection of information to assist in decision making” (p. 3). Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) broadly define evaluation as “the identification, clarification, and application of defensible criteria to determine an evaluation object’s value (worth or merit) in relation to those criteria” (p. 5).

In the light of these definitions of program and evaluation, it could be suggested that program evaluation is “a systematic inquiry designed to provide information to decision makers and/or groups interested in a particular program, policy or other intervention” (Gredler, 1996, p. 15). Spaulding (2008) states that program evaluation means examining programs in order to determine their worth and make recommendations for improvement and success. In another definition provided by Sanders (1998) evaluation is considered the formal determination of the quality, effectiveness or value of a program, product, project, process, objective or curriculum. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are a number of key components to be addressed in program evaluation including texts and materials, learning environment, the students, learner motivation, financial resources, staff development, physical facilities, and quality of instruction (Kiely & Rea-Dickons, 2005; Murray & Christison, 2011). Likewise, Richards (2001) indicates that evaluation is conducted by collecting information about different aspects of a language program in order that it could be understood “how the program works” and “how successfully it works” (p.

286). According to him, once a program is in action, there are still a number of questions to be answered which are:

- Is the program achieving its goals?
- What is happening in classrooms and schools where it is being implemented?
- Are those affected by the program (e.g. teachers, students, administrators, parents, employers) satisfied with the program?
- Have those involved in developing and teaching a language course done a satisfactory job?
- Does the program compare favorably with others of its kind?

Answering these questions enables us to make decisions about the program, such as whether the program meets the learners' needs, whether teachers need further teacher training and whether learners are learning sufficiently from it (Richards, 2001).

Brown (1995) suggests that program development is an ongoing process, and it tries to keep all the elements connected to each other at all stages. Therefore, without evaluation there will be "a lack of cohesion in and among the elements, and if left in isolation, any of the elements may become meaningless" (p. 217). In addition, Nunan (1990) states that without an evaluation phase no curriculum can be considered complete. Considering all these aspects, it can be concluded that program evaluation is a significant element that must be included in any educational context in order to make judgments about the effectiveness of program and provide opportunities for improvement.

Purposes of Evaluation

Determining the purpose of evaluation is significant in that it affects the design of the evaluation process. Nonetheless, Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) argue that there has been massive variety in terms of determining purposes of evaluation, and evaluators lack consistency in what they believe evaluation's purpose to be. They believe that the main aim of evaluation is "to render judgments about the value of whatever is being evaluated" (p. 10). Talmage (1982) notes that there are three purposes frequently appearing in definitions of evaluation which are "(1) to render judgments on the worth of a program, (2) to assist decision makers responsible for deciding policy; and (3) to serve a political function" (p. 594). In addition,

Mark, Henry and Julnes (1999) mention four different purposes for evaluation: assessing merit and worth, oversight and compliance, improvement of program and organization, and development of knowledge. The most widely-adopted evaluation purpose in the field of education belongs to Scriven (1994), and he indicates that evaluation “is undertaken to identify and apply defensible criteria to determine its worth, merit or quality” (p. 380).

All these mentioned above provide us with a review of literature regarding purposes of evaluation in the field of education in general terms. However, it is possible to find some specifications of purposes provided for the field of English language teaching. One of these is articulated by Murray and Christison (2011). They identify four main purposes for evaluation of a language program, and each purpose leads us to a different evaluation design. The first type of evaluation is “progress-oriented”, and the purpose of this kind of evaluation is to determine the progress that the program has made towards achieving certain goals which could be related to teacher retention, budget goals, or student learning. Since the programs vary a lot, they show variety in terms of their goals. Another purpose of evaluation is to help the program make decisions about future developments and change; therefore, this type of evaluation is named as “decision-oriented” evaluation. Thirdly, evaluation may be carried out in order to explain effects and identify the causes of effects to be able to make decisions about program’s effectiveness. This is called as “research-oriented” evaluation. Finally, evaluation can be carried out for the purpose of demonstrating that the program has met a group of standards, usually for the purpose of accreditation necessitating the presence of a licensed accrediting body. This type of evaluation is accepted as “standards-oriented” evaluation (p. 217).

When the purpose of the present research study is considered, this evaluation falls into the type of decision-oriented evaluation. Since the results of the evaluation will provide insights into whether the program is effective in terms of fostering learner autonomy and will help to decide what type of future developments and changes are required in the programs in order to encourage the development of learner autonomy, the evaluation is decision-oriented.

Approaches to Program Evaluation

Program Evaluation can be said to have a long history dating back to the seventeenth century. It became a profession in the 1970s when several prominent program evaluation

specialists proposed new and differing models. Just as there are many types of applied research approaches, there are several different approaches that program evaluators can use. Evaluation models differ greatly, and this diversity of classifications has resulted from evaluators' diverse worldviews, philosophical ideologies, cognitive styles, methodological preferences, practical perspectives and their values. Owing to this diversity in program evaluation, there is not a universally accepted single model. As Erden (1995) states, researchers can choose the most appropriate model in terms of their purposes and contexts during their program evaluation, or they can develop a new one making use of the existing ones. In this part of the chapter some common approaches to program evaluation will be presented.

Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) classify the evaluation approaches under six main categories as objectives-oriented, management-oriented, consumer-oriented, expertise-oriented, participant-oriented and alternative approaches.

One group of approaches is *objectives-oriented* evaluation approaches. The distinguishing characteristic of these objectives-oriented evaluation approaches is that the purposes of any activity are specified first, and then evaluation focuses on the extent to which those purposes are achieved. In educational context, the activity may include a one-day classroom or the whole schooling enterprise. Another common approach is *management-oriented* evaluation approaches which are meant to serve decision makers. The underlying principle implies that evaluative information is an essential part of good decision making and that the evaluator can be most effective by serving entities such as administrators, policy makers, boards, practitioners, and others who need good evaluative information. *Consumer-oriented* evaluation approaches are supported by independent agencies or individuals who take responsibility to collect information about educational or other human services products, or help others in gathering information. Curriculum packages, workshops, instructional media, in-service training opportunities, staff evaluation forms or procedures, new technology, software and equipment, educational materials and supplies are some examples of such products. The fourth group of approaches is *expertise-oriented* evaluation approaches which depend primarily upon professional expertise to judge an institution, program, product or activity. Specific evaluation processes including doctoral examinations conducted by a committee, proposal review panels, and professional reviews conducted by professional accreditation bodies are some of the examples expertise-

oriented evaluation. Furthermore, there are *participant-oriented* evaluation approaches that aim at observing and identifying all of the concerns, issues and consequences integral to human services enterprise. There is a wide variety of participant-oriented evaluation approaches, but they all mainly focus on the program participants. Finally, Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) mention *alternative* evaluation approaches. They present a summary of comparative analysis of all five approaches and emphasize that ideally evaluators must select from a variety of evaluation approaches the one which is appropriate for the situation. In addition, evaluators may prefer eclectic uses of the alternative evaluation approaches by choosing combination of concepts from different approaches that are most relevant to the task at hand since each group of approaches has its own benefits and limitations.

Some Basic Types of Evaluation

While approaching the task of program evaluation, there are some factors to be specified in design process including primarily the purpose, timing, focus and the instruments used (Brown, 1989; Nation & Macalister, 2010). These factors lead us to some basic types of program evaluation including summative versus formative evaluation, long-term versus short-term evaluation, and qualitative versus quantitative evaluation.

Formative versus Summative Evaluation

The concept of *formative* and *summative* evaluation was introduced into the literature of evaluation by Scriven (1991). The primary purpose of formative evaluation is collecting and sharing information for program improvement (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). While a program is being installed, the formative evaluator works to provide the program planners and staff with information to help adjust it to the setting and improve it (Morris & Fitz-Gibbon, 1978). Since it focuses on ongoing development and improvement, formative evaluation is carried out to discover what is working well, what is not, and what problems need attention. The major questions related to formative evaluation are as follows:

- Has enough time been spent on particular objectives?
- Have the placement tests placed students at the right level in the program?
- How well is the textbook being received?

- Is the methodology teachers are using appropriate?
- Are teachers or students having difficulties with any aspect of the course?
- Are students enjoying the program? If not, what can be done to improve their motivation?
- Are students getting sufficient practice work? Should the workload be increased or decreased?
- Is the pacing of the material adequate? (Richards, 2001, p. 288)

In contrast to formative evaluation focusing on program improvement, *summative* evaluation is concerned with providing information in order to serve decisions or help in making adjustments about program adoption, continuation, or expansion (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). Summative evaluation is the type of evaluation that takes place after the implementation of a program has been completed, and it is concerned with evaluating the effectiveness, efficiency and acceptability of the overall program. Summative evaluation is carried out to answer such questions as:

- How effective was the course? Did it achieve its aims?
- What did students learn?
- How well was the course received by students and teachers?
- Did the materials work well?
- Were the objectives adequate or do they need to be revised?
- Were the placement and achievement tests adequate?
- Was the amount of time spent on each unit sufficient?
- How appropriate were the teaching methods?
- What problems were encountered during the course? (Richards, 2001, p. 292)

As it is clear, formative evaluation is typically conducted during the development or improvement of a program, and it is conducted often more than once (Scriven, 1991). Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is conducted at the end of a program to provide potential consumers with judgments about that program's worth or merit. Therefore, the

present study has a summative nature since evaluation takes place after the completion of the programs, and it focuses on decision-making.

Qualitative versus Quantitative Evaluation

Basically two types of data on which an evaluation study can rely can be mentioned, and these are quantitative data and qualitative data. Quantitative data can be expressed numerically, “seek to collect information from a large number of people on specific topics and can generally be analyzed statically so that certain patterns and tendencies can emerge” (Richards, 2001, p. 296). Checklists, surveys, test scores, self-ratings or student rankings are some examples of quantitative data (Richards, 2001). In contrast, *qualitative* data are generally observations and in the form of words thus cannot be turned into numbers and statistics. Qualitative evaluation depends more on subjective judgment or observation. In addition, it is more holistic and naturalistic, and it seeks to collect information in natural settings for language use rather than test scores. Furthermore, it is more explanatory and collects a large amount of information from a small number of cases. Finally, the information obtained through qualitative evaluation is more difficult to analyze because it is often open-ended and must be coded or interpreted. Information collected through classroom observation, interviews, journals, logs and case studies is qualitative (Richards, 2001).

In addition to these two types, language program evaluation may necessitate both quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect data since they can be used to complement each other. For instance, an evaluator may collect data from observations, interviews and learners’ scores on exams. This type of evaluation is called as mixed-methods evaluation (Richards, 2001; Murray & Christison, 2011).

In relation with the present study, it can be stated that the data are qualitative since they consist of program documents and interviews.

Program Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching

Lately, rapid globalization within contemporary societies has necessitated the study of foreign languages and cultures for learners. As a result, foreign language education has gained importance all over the world. It is known that English is the foreign language

which most learners prefer to study as a foreign language. As Yürekli (2012) indicates, the increase in the use of English has led to various changes in educational institutions, and English is not only taught simply as a foreign language, but it also serves as the medium of instruction in numerous countries even in non-English speaking ones today. Kennedy (2001) mentions different circles of influence regarding English in his work based on Kachru's (1986) summaries of "three concentric circles of English use, the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle" (p. 101). The inner circle of English involves the countries where English is the native language, such as the USA and the UK. The outer circle is composed of the countries that use English as an additional language such as Nigeria and Malaysia. Finally, there is the third circle of English, the expanding circle of English to countries needing English for international communication, and Turkey is regarded as one of these Expanding Circle countries (Yürekli, 2012).

Considering all these points mentioned above, it can be concluded that English language teaching programs exist in many different social contexts throughout the world in Inner, Outer and Expanding Circle countries. These programs can be conducted by both public and private entities, and they may serve a broad range of learners belonging to different age groups and having different levels of proficiency and different reasons for studying English. Additionally, these programs have different missions, goals or models for the delivery of instruction and this diversity certainly presents a challenge for evaluation of English language programs. Therefore, we could reach the conclusion that program evaluation in English language teaching is not a "one-size-fits-all" model, but rather it is highly varied regarding program structure, the design of instruction, and the course offerings (Murray & Christison, 2011, p. 214). This diversity in interpretation of the concept of language program evaluation can be clearly seen in the literature.

For instance, Mackay (1994) states that in the field of foreign language teaching, the term program evaluation is used to describe a wide variety of activities, ranging from academic, theory-driven research to informal inquiries carried out by a single classroom. Therefore, evaluation may focus on many different aspects of a language program such as curriculum design, classroom processes, the teachers and the learners. Lynch (2003) defines program evaluation as "the systematic inquiry into instructional sequences for the purpose of making decisions or providing opportunity for reflection and action" (p. 1). Moreover, Likewise, Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005) suggest that evaluation has many meanings in

language programs. Evaluation may be a part of the novice teacher's checklist to guide the development of initial lesson plans and her teaching practice, a process of determining learning achievements or learner satisfaction, and a dimension of the analysis of data in a formal evaluation or research study. It may also refer to judgments about learners made by teachers and by external assessors; the performance of teachers by their students, program managers and institutions; and programs, departments and institutions by internal assessors, external monitors and inspectors. Furthermore, evaluation may be considered to be about the relationships between different program components, such as the procedures and epistemologies developed by the people involved in programs, and the processes and outcomes used to indicate the value of a program – “accountability” – and enhance this value – “development” (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005, p. 5).

Regarding the significance of program evaluation in foreign language education, it is pointed out in recent commentaries and research studies that program evaluation in college foreign language programs have potential contributions (Bernhardt, 2006; Houston, 2005; Norris, 2006; Norris, Davis, Sinicrope & Watanabe, 2009; Sullivan, 2006; Wright, 2006). Scholars and practitioners suggest that language program evaluation may allow institutions to gain empirical information about the attainment of goals and outcomes, the program's strengths and weaknesses, and a program's congruence across the diverse areas of language learning and the complex structures of university departments (Sullivan, 2006). Furthermore, language program evaluation can assist language program directors (LPDs) in demonstrating a program's effectiveness to stakeholders like students, professors, chairs, and administrators (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005).

Studies of Program Evaluation

Since evaluation is an important part of teaching and learning practices, in the literature, there have been a great number of evaluative studies with the aim of improving quality in educational programs conducted both abroad and in Turkey. However, the studies related to evaluation vary greatly in terms of their purposes, their methodologies and their emphasis. Some studies make a thorough program evaluation while others evaluate only one particular part of a program (Gerede, 2005; Tunç, 2010).

A detailed study carried out by Erdem (1999) aimed at exploring the English language curriculum at METU Foundation High School. The evaluation mainly focused on four

areas which were goals, organizations, operations and outcomes. In this study, the participants were teachers, students and school principals. The data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, observations and written curriculum documents. Data analysis focused on the frequency and the degree of match/mismatch between the current and desired status. Data revealed that the current teacher-centered organization of the curriculum needs to be replaced with a student-centered one, in-service training needs to be improved and an ongoing curriculum evaluation system needs to be set up.

Finch (2001) conducted a formative evaluation as a part of program development. The focus of the study was affective aspects of language learning, and it used mixed-methods evaluation model. The criterion for program success in the evaluation was positive attitude change in students and teachers. The findings indicated that language learning is positively affected by implementation of task-based approach.

Another research study carried out in South Korea by Nam (2005) investigated the perceptions of college students and their English teachers regarding the new communication-based English curriculum and instruction in a specific university-level English program. In addition, the study aimed at exploring the needs for future college EFL curriculum design and instructional development in the general South Korean context. The findings of the study demonstrated that whereas learners generally seemed to have negative opinions, teachers seemed to have positive opinions about the effectiveness of the new curriculum. Moreover, it was concluded that it was likely that the current communication-based EFL curriculum may not comply with the learners' desires, due to several weaknesses of the curriculum itself and certain barriers already existing in the institutional system behind the curriculum.

Al-Darwish (2006) conducted a research study in order to examine the perceptions of Kuwaiti elementary school English language teachers, and their supervisors regarding the teachers' effectiveness in teaching English to first and second graders. The findings indicated that the communicative language teaching was strongly approved of by Kuwaiti English language teachers. However, the actual classroom teaching was highly teacher-centered rather than student-centered. Additionally, the teachers and the supervisors stated that they would have liked to expand the official curriculum to include more translation into Arabic, and earlier introduction of reading, writing, and simple grammar. Moreover, it

was found out that the teachers generally criticized their college education since they believed that it was theoretical and did not focus more on practice.

Akar (2009) carried out a study that aimed to find out how effective the foreign language teacher training colleges (FLTTC) in Poland were, and to investigate the difficulties they experienced. In order to understand in-depth data related to the purpose and process of this program, the researcher made use of a two-way mixed method, a case study and a survey. The findings of the study showed that FLTTCs were mainly preferred in order to learn a foreign language and to get a better job. Additionally, it was suggested that the participants generally had positive perceptions of their teaching in the classroom.

The study conducted by Tunç (2010) aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of Ankara University Preparatory School program considering the perspectives of instructors and students. The CIPP (context, input, process, and product) evaluation model developed by Stufflebeam (1971) was utilized in the study. The participants were 406 students attending the preparatory school and 12 instructors teaching in the program. The tools included a self-reported student questionnaire and an interview with the instructors. Besides, written documents were examined in order to obtain more detailed information about the preparatory school. The findings of the study showed that the program at Ankara University Preparatory School partially served for its purpose. Besides, some improvements in the physical conditions, content, materials and assessment dimensions of the program were required to make the program more effective.

In her study, Demirlier (2010) investigated English language teachers' and 6th, 7th and 8th grade learners' attitudes towards the newly developed English Language Curriculum for Primary Schools. Data were collected through two different questionnaires for both the teachers and the learners. The results indicated that the learners liked English course more, were interested in the topics and participated actively. Projects, performance tasks and portfolios were effective and contributed to their learning. Similarly, teachers indicated that learners' interest in learning English and class participation increased. Moreover, they believed that even though the curriculum is based on evaluation of learners' learning process, learners are not aware of this.

Köse (2012) conducted a study with purpose of finding out whether the language teaching in English Preparatory Program of Uludağ University, School of Foreign Languages is successful in meeting the needs of faculties and examining to what extend the goals of the

program are materialized according to students' and their instructors' views. 326 students who finished English Preparatory Program and continue their faculties and 65 instructors who were teaching these students at faculties were the participants of the study. The researcher used survey model and two questionnaires to collect data. The findings revealed that there are some deficiencies in the curriculum and to meet the students' foreign language needs, arrangements and developments should be carried out.





CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This section of the study provides detailed information about the research design, data collection, data collection instruments, data analysis procedures, inter-rater reliability, universe and sampling in addition to the context of the study.

Universe and Sampling

All preparatory programs at universities in Turkey constitute the universe in this study since English is taught as a foreign language to adult learners in these institutions all around the country. Nonetheless, since analyzing all preparatory programs in Turkey would not be possible, the four preparatory schools in Ankara were chosen as the samples of the study. These samples are specifically composed of two state and two foundation universities. Since they are among the most distinguished and successful universities in Turkey, it was significant to evaluate the programs designed and implemented at their preparatory programs in order that it could provide valuable data about the tendency that universities show in terms of recognizing the importance of learner autonomy in foreign language education and encouraging learner autonomy through taking it into account in the process of curriculum development.

Originally, the researcher had identified three state and three foundation universities by considering the ones which have the most-populated programs in Ankara, including Middle East Technical University and Bilkent University. However, since the administrators of the Department of Basic English (Preparatory School) Program of these

universities did not accept to collaborate for data collection, the researcher had to quit two of the original samples.

Therefore, the study required us to rely on non-probability samples in the course of sample selection procedure. In non-probability sampling procedure, the selectivity derives from the researcher who targets a particular group and is aware of the fact that samples do not represent the wider population, but represent themselves. That is to say, the main attempt is not to generalize the results. There are several types of non-probability samples, such as convenience sampling, quota sampling, dimensional sampling, purposeful sampling and snowball sampling. In this study we applied the convenience sampling – accidental or opportunity sampling – procedure. Convenience sampling involves “choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p. 102). In this type of sampling, the researcher simply chooses the sample from the ones which are available to access easily. Therefore, the researcher needed to determine the samples of the study by considering whether they are available to access easily and whether they agree to provide data.

Research Design

The aim of this study was to evaluate the programs followed in the preparatory schools of four universities, two of which were state and two of which were foundation, in terms of fostering learner autonomy. Since the main goal was to identify whether the preparatory language programs of these universities foster learner autonomy, the study necessitated a qualitative research approach. As Harwell (2011) points out qualitative research allows the researcher to make a detailed exploration of a topic of interest in which data is collected through case studies, ethnographic work, interviews, and so on. Qualitative research design includes data collection procedures that mainly lead to open-ended and non-numerical data, which is to be analyzed by primarily non-statistical methods (Dornyei, 2007). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) describe qualitative research as follows:

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (p. 3).

The most common sources for gathering data in qualitative research design are interviews, observations, and review of documents (Creswell, 2009b; Locke, Silverman, & Spirduso, 2010; Marshall & Rossman, 1999). What types of data-gathering and analysis techniques were specifically used in this study will be explained in detail in the data collection and data analysis parts of the chapter below.

Data Collection

In qualitative research design, the researcher “collects open-ended emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data”, and the data-gathering procedures in qualitative research design can be grouped under four categories: observations, interviews, documents, and audiovisual materials (Creswell, 2003, p. 18). In this study, we conducted the data collection procedures through mainly two different techniques: document review and interview.

Since this study included program evaluation, we used both document review and interview in order to be able to reach some findings and answer our first research question; therefore, the data were in the form of words. To achieve so, we needed to use a framework developed by Reinders (2010). The preparatory programs of the four universities chosen were evaluated in accordance with eight sub-questions that we derived from the stages indicated in the framework developed by Reinders (2010). We conducted interviews with the instructors who work as program designers in the Curriculum and Materials Development Units of the preparatory schools of universities. Moreover, written documents were also collected so as to obtain more detailed information about the preparatory schools. The documents included course syllabi, student handbooks, descriptions of program development, and minutes of meetings obtained in interviews.

On the other hand, the second phase of the data collection procedures was conducted using interviews, which are again situated in the qualitative research paradigm. Interviews were

preferred in order to gain insights into the perceptions of instructors' about the encouragement of learner autonomy in the programs as well as their perceptions about the actual realizations of learner autonomy during the implementation of these programs. In this phase, we sought an answer for the second research question.

Data Collection Instruments

The Framework

As previously mentioned, this study involves evaluative analysis of four programs in respect of learner autonomy. In order to investigate whether the programs followed in preparatory schools encourage learner autonomy or not, a framework developed by Reinders (2010) was used as the instrument. The framework allowed the researcher to identify the observable implications of learner autonomy present in the programs. This framework includes eight stages of self-directed learning process, and it was built upon the five-step model developed by Knowles (1975). Knowles' (1975, as cited in Smith, 2002) five-step model of self-directed learning consists of the following steps:

1. Diagnosing learning needs
2. Formulating learning goals
3. Identifying human and material resources for learning
4. Choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies
5. Evaluating learning outcomes

Reinders (2010) emphasizes that the framework was designed in the context of language education. In addition, it draws on the skills that teachers could use as a guide in order to raise learner responsibilities. Since the framework used in this study is a ready-made framework which was developed by Reinders (2010), and since it has been used in various research studies among which are Reinders and Balçıkanlı (2011a), Reinders and Balçıkanlı (2011b) and Çalışır (2013), the research tool is assumed to be reliable and valid. The figure of the framework and detailed explanations about the stages in the framework are provided below.

Table 1. Stages in the Development of Learner Autonomy

Learning Stages	Teacher-directed	Learner-directed
Identifying needs	Placement tests, teacher feedback	Learner experiences difficulties in using the language
Setting goals	Determined by the course, relatively fixed	Contextually determined, relatively flexible
Planning learning	Determined by the teacher, somewhat flexible	Contextually determined, very flexible
Selecting resources	Provided by teacher	Self-selection by learners
Selecting learning strategies	Teacher models and instructions	Self-selection by learners
Practice	Exercises and activities selected by the teacher	Implementation, language use and experimentation
Monitoring progress	Regular classroom feedback and comments on assignments and tasks	Self-monitoring and peer feedback
Assessment and revision	Tests, curriculum changes	Self-assessment, reflection

(Reinders, 2010, p. 46)

The first stage of the framework is identifying needs, and the first sub-question in the evaluation process is concerned with whether the programs encourage learners to identify their learning needs or not. Needs Analysis is a significant means for carrying out research before designing and evaluating lessons, materials, and syllabi. Moreover, needs analysis helps draw a profile of learners and course so as to identify and prioritize the needs for which learners require English to use (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). In order to foster learner autonomy, the program needs to encourage learners to become aware of their individual profiles of learning needs including their strengths and weaknesses, their wants and the areas in which they have difficulties in using the language. Learners' language and learning needs should be recorded in a learning diary or portfolio, and they should be regularly reviewed in order to raise their awareness of their strengths and weaknesses. Needs analysis should be repeated at regular intervals since it is the starting point of a dynamic process. This helps learners become aware of the importance of aligning their work with their needs on an ongoing basis (Reinders, 2010; Ushioda & Ridley, 2002). A language program may encourage learners to identify their needs through various practices, such as making them keep diaries or language logs, do surveys, use checklists or inventories that involve possible needs and wants of learners.

The second stage in the framework is setting goals, and the second sub-question in the evaluation process is concerned with whether the program encourages learners to set goals for themselves or not. Reinders (2010) indicates that goal setting is helpful for learners in that it leads them to become specific about the outcomes which they aim for. That is to say, the process of learners' defining their goals gives learners the chance of determining where they would like to reach and what they would like to achieve in their learning process. A large number of studies indicate that goal setting is effective on increasing performance and enhancing achievement. Particularly, studies show that appropriate goal setting, when supported with specific feedback, can lead to higher achievement, better performance, a high level of self-efficacy, and self-regulation (Boekaerts, 2002; Edwins, 1995; Griffie & Templi, 1997; Kennett & Keefer, 2006; Moriarity, Pavelonis, Pellouchoud & Wilson, 2001; Schunk, 2003). In addition, if goal setting is to improve performance, learners should be allowed to participate in setting their own goals (Azevedo, Ragan, Cromley, & Pritchett, 2002). However, people who create learning goals to be pursued in the learning process are mostly educators, and they rarely encourage students to adapt these goals to their personal needs and interests (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). To say, many overestimate their students' ability to set their own learning goals (Boekaerts, 2002).

Boekaerts (2002) proposes that the case in which learning goals are set by learners and approved by the teacher is an optimal strategy since it entails creating learning goals agreed-upon by both sides. These goals have "a better chance of being accomplished" as learners feel more motivated to reach their own aspirations and engage in their own process within such an educational environment (p.18).

All in all, as Nunan (1999) states, if learners can reach a point in which they are able to define their own goals and create learning opportunities on their own, they can be described as autonomous. Goal setting is seen as a positive contributor to self-management and self-regulation, and positive correlations have been found among autonomy, self-efficacy and academic goal achievement (Dembo, 2004; Lodewyk, Winne & Jamieson-Noel, 2009; Zimmerman, Banner & Kovach, 2002). Learners who can set goals and develop plans to achieve these goals take responsibility for their own lives. They do not expect parents or teachers to instruct them as to what they should be doing with their lives (Dembo, 2004). Therefore, goal setting is an important factor in developing autonomy, and it is included in the framework as the second stage.

The third stage in self-directed learning framework is planning learning, and the third sub-question to be answered in evaluation process is whether the programs encourage learners to plan their learning or not. Wenden (1998) points out that planning language learning is a crucial meta-cognitive strategy for becoming an autonomous learner. In order to give learners control over learning planning, they need to be encouraged to draw up their learning plans and allocate time to them. They must be given responsibility in directing 'what', 'when' and 'how' of their learning actions, which means having control over the content of the course, learning activities and the pacing or timing of the learning. McGarry (1995) draws attention to the importance of fostering autonomy through planning and summarizes the attributes of autonomous learners. When learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning by being given some control over what, how and when they want to learn, they are more likely to set realistic goals, plan their learning programs, develop strategies to cope with new learning situations, and evaluate and assess their own learning. Moreover, those learners can learn how to learn from their own successes and failures; consequently, they become more efficient learners. In addition to giving learners control over what, when and how of their learning, it is possible to encourage autonomy in regard to planning by offering choice over the types or order of activities for the same language content. Signing contracts or keeping dossiers are some other ways of planning learning in an autonomous way (Reinders, 2010).

Selecting resources is the fourth stage of the framework. It is concerned with the sub-question whether the programs allow learners to select resources or not. Materials may come in many shapes and formats. They are produced either locally by teachers themselves or commercially in the form of sets. Moreover, sophisticated and user-friendly computer packages are available as learning/teaching resources (Nunan, 1990). In traditional classroom contexts, only the teachers are responsible for choosing learning materials; however, in order to increase learners' autonomy levels teachers and schools can experiment with involving learners in resources selection process (Reinders, 2010). There may be various ways to involve learners in this process. For example, some of the resources could be determined by self-selection by learners. In addition, as Dam (1995) exemplifies learners could be asked to bring authentic materials from outside the classroom for class use or for self-access centers. Moreover, as Ellis (2000) illustrates many activities and tasks may require learners to produce and share materials. In addition, Nunan (1997) suggests that it is possible to ask learners to generate their own materials. They could be

either totally or partly student-generated materials. For instance, learners could be given aural or written texts and asked to write some comprehension questions preferably in groups to accompany these texts. Then, they can exchange the questions and answer the other groups' questions.

The fifth stage in the framework is selecting learning strategies, and the sub-question of the research related to this stage is whether the programs encourage learners to select their learning strategies or not. Learning strategies can be defined as specific actions taken by the learners to make their learning easier, faster, more self-directed, more permanent and effective and more transferable to new situations. In this respect, the importance and the role of learning strategies in effective learning cannot be denied. Learners need to be encouraged to develop various learning strategies and choose appropriate strategies for learning tasks although in traditional classroom contexts they are ready to leave all decisions about how to complete the activities to teachers (Reinders, 2010). Learning strategies and techniques may be combined with the classroom teaching, which helps learners learn about all kinds of learning strategy skills, such as "listening skills, communicative strategies, reading strategies, writing techniques, translation skills and question-answer skills". These strategies could be covered in classes through examples, modeling and practice with the aim of fostering learner autonomy. On the other hand, the model of strategy training may be used to foster the learners' ability of autonomy through sessions outside the usual classroom learning context. This may become helpful for learners especially to form a habit of making study plans, choosing study methods, arranging study tasks, monitoring the study process, and checking the flow of study tasks. (Reinders, 2010; Shen, 2011, p. 30).

Practice is the sixth stage of the self-directed learning framework, and the programs of the chosen universities have also been evaluated to find out whether they encourage learners to practise autonomously or not. Creating chances for learners to experiment with the language outside the class or school is important. In order to develop autonomy, learners must be encouraged to find and benefit from various opportunities to practice language on their own terms. As Reinders (2010) states, many of the learning materials do not offer learners any choice regarding which aspect of the new knowledge they want to practise. Moreover, they do not let learners control how they will implement their new knowledge or experiment with it. Therefore, materials and activities used for practice must encourage

learners to find different ways to move beyond the borders of their pedagogical environment. Provided a degree of choice, learners must be supplied with chances to incorporate new knowledge into their lives in the ways relevant to them. In a foreign language learning context, the opportunity to practice a foreign language must always be available for learners (Jingnan, 2011). That is to say, practising must be considered an indispensable part of language learning.

The seventh stage in the framework is monitoring progress, and the research question related to this stage concerns whether the programs encourage learners to monitor their progress autonomously or not. In a completely teacher-directed classroom environment which is based upon a course with a set program, progress is generally monitored by others. Teachers measure student progress through mini-tests and assignments and give them feedback. However, for the development of autonomy, learners must be given a chance to develop the ability to monitor their own progress and revise their learning plans accordingly (Reinders, 2010). Little (2003) proposes an index of learner autonomy attributes and categorizes these attributes into three processes. Monitoring is the second process in the index. He believes that in order to monitor their own progress learners need to be flexible and regulate their learning by taking actions. They need to implement agendas, concentrate on learning, collaborate and interact with others. Expressing opinions and negotiating with their peers is another significant feature of monitoring. Lastly, learners must be able to reflect upon their learning critically. Self-monitoring helps learners modify their learning paths to progress better. Some of the practices that language programs can adopt to encourage monitoring progress may be giving learners reflection sheets or involving tasks to help them reflect upon their learning, asking learners to document their individual learning products in a dossier to realize how they progress or to keep learning diaries in which they can reflect upon their motivation levels, language and learning issues and making them provide peer-feedback to each other. Moreover, encouraging them to write blogs paper or online or to utilize learning management systems may help learners monitor progress.

Assessment and revision is the last stage of the self-directed learning framework, and the research question concerning this stage is whether the language programs encourage learners to develop autonomy through making assessment and revision. In traditional classes learners are assessed by teachers and given test scores to prove how well they have

learnt. In such learning environments assessment is not an ongoing process, and the only assessment type used is summative assessment. However, as Reinders (2010) argues, learners need to be given opportunities for alternative assessment to feel confident in their own learning processes. Similarly, Shen (2011) suggests that language teachers can use self-assessment as an attractive alternative to traditional ways of assessment since it helps learners develop characteristics of the “good language learner” (p. 31). Dam and Legenhausen (1999) maintain that if the learners are familiar with evaluating, their self-assessment is highly reliable. They propose some practices which can be carried out to create autonomous classrooms. One way is to let learners evaluate their own performance before they get actual results of their performance. Moreover, they may be allowed to mark their own essays before their teachers do so. Learners can even produce their own tests.

Assessment and revision play a key role in language learning since learners and teachers can act collaboratively to identify new learning needs, to set new goals, to have new learning plans, to select new resources and appropriate strategies based upon assessment and revision. Then, renewed practices are carried on, new progress is monitored and a different assessment is formed to build an “autonomous cycle” in language learning (Shen, 2011, p. 31). Portfolios (may also be digital), self-assessment and peer-assessment worksheets or checklists, self-rating scales, journals, an activities checklist and can do lists are some tools for implementing alternative assessment that programs could let learners make use of to assess their learning in a formative approach.

Interview

In order to answer the second main research question, interviews were carried out with the EFL instructors. After a broad study on the literature regarding learner autonomy and how to foster it, the data collection instrument, the interview, was developed by the researcher herself. The researcher made a comprehensive examination about the points to be investigated and piloted the interview in her school in order to identify the most relevant points and determine the final wording of the questions. Finally, the researcher decided on four questions and received two experts’ feedback on the questions. In the data collection procedure, five voluntary EFL instructors from each university were interviewed about their perceptions of LA, their actual practices aiming at fostering LA both inside and

outside the class, the factors that may hinder the development of LA in their schools and any adaptations to be made in their schools' programs so as to encourage LA.

Participants of the study were all English language instructors working at four preparatory schools chosen for the study. Some background information about the participants is provided below.

Table 2. Background Information about the Participants

Participants	Gender	Age	Experience	B.A.
NS Instructor 1	Female	33	11 years	English Language Teaching
NS Instructor 2	Female	30	8 years	English Language Teaching
NS Instructor 3	Female	28	6 years	English Language Teaching
NS Instructor 4	Female	28	6 years	English Linguistics
NS Instructor 5	Female	25	3 years	English Language Teaching
ES Instructor 1	Female	34	9 years	English Linguistics
ES Instructor 2	Female	30	5 years	English Language and Literature
ES Instructor 3	Female	29	6 years	English Linguistics
ES Instructor 4	Female	28	5 years	English Language Teaching
ES Instructor 5	Male	27	5 years	English Language Teaching
WS Instructor 1	Female	49	27 years	English Language Teaching
WS Instructor 2	Male	35	13 years	American Culture and Literature
WS Instructor 3	Female	30	8 years	English Language Teaching
WS Instructor 4	Female	29	7 years	English Language Teaching
WS Instructor 5	Female	29	7 years	English Language and Literature
SS Instructor 1	Female	30	8 years	English Language Teaching
SS Instructor 2	Male	30	8 years	English Language Teaching
SS Instructor 3	Female	29	7 years	English Language Teaching
SS Instructor 4	Female	28	6 years	English Language Teaching
SS Instructor 5	Female	28	6 years	English Language Teaching

Data Analysis

As it is mentioned above, this study adopts a completely qualitative research design; therefore, in the data analysis stage the raw data were dealt with in two phases. In the first phase in which program evaluation was conducted, all kinds of qualitative data including all written documents related to the programs along with the transcribed minutes of interviews with administrators and the instructors working in the Curriculum and Materials Development Units were analyzed in the light of the items in the evaluative framework developed by Reinders (2010). Each item of the framework was conducted on each

program so as to identify specific practices regarding that specific item. All the data were scrutinized in detail in order to determine whether the programs involve any observable practices for each stage. The researcher took notes and highlighted relevant data while scrutinizing each program. Next, the findings were presented in a table. The table summarizes all the results regarding each item in the framework. A check mark was used in the table in order to indicate that a program includes some practices regarding the items in the framework. A cross mark was used to symbolize the absence of observable practices regarding the items. Moreover, discussions were provided after the findings belonging to each item were presented. In other words, the researcher first reported the findings for an item in the framework regarding a school; then, she discussed these findings under the same sub-heading. An important point that was considered throughout the data analysis process was to provide the extent to which these programs consisted of autonomy fostering practices. The extent was expressed as either partly or mostly in accordance with the characteristics and the number of the practices present in the programs. This phase was carried out in order to answer the first research question.

In the second phase of the data analysis, content analysis method was used. As Fitzpatrick et al. (2004) describe content analysis is “a special type of analysis of qualitative information collected in textual form (e.g., field notes, narrative interviews, newspaper articles, minutes of meetings)” (p. 362). In this phase, the data obtained through the interviews with instructors were analyzed in order to be able to answer the second research question regarding EFL instructors’ perceptions. Each school’s data were treated one by one. First, the data obtained from each interviewee were transcribed. Next, the data were grouped according to the question number. Since there were four questions in the interviews, all answers given for the same question were brought together for each school. Afterwards, the data were subjected to coding by the researcher herself. Coding is “the process of organizing a large amount of data into smaller segments that can be retrieved easily” (Bailey, 2007, p. 127). Coding is a way of reducing and simplifying data. Coding takes place in two stages which are initial coding and focused coding. During initial coding, researchers repeatedly read their data in order to break up many pages of text into more manageable segments that can be grouped together and to code as much of the data as possible. At the second stage, focused coding, the researcher further reduces the data “by identifying and combining the initial coded data into larger categories” (Bailey, 2007, p. 129). Therefore, the researcher firstly undertook initial coding then focused coding, and

the patterns and themes running in the data were identified manually and selected chunks of the textual information were coded and analyzed. Coding category focused on the actual content of the documents; in other words, it focused on “what is said” (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004, p. 362). Finally, the data were presented and discussed in the order of the questions school by school.

Inter-rater Reliability

Findings of a qualitative study, whose findings are usually not represented in plain numbers, are perceived in a more imponderable light when compared to a quantitative study (Marques & McCall, 2005). In order to eliminate this disadvantage and make a qualitative study more reliable, the method of inter-rater reliability is applied in qualitative studies. As Marques and McCall (2005) point out, inter-rater reliability in a qualitative study requires the inter-raters to read and interpret the material attentively, while at the same time they are expected to display a similar or basic understanding of the topic. The use of inter-rater reliability is considered a solidification tool which can contribute to the quality and the level of seriousness of the study. Likewise, Mays and Pope (1995) suggest that “the analysis of qualitative data can be enhanced by organizing an independent assessment of transcripts by additional skilled qualitative researchers and comparing agreement between the raters” (p. 110).

Therefore, the researcher asked one of her colleagues to evaluate two of the same programs evaluated by herself. One program belonged to a state university and the other one belonged to a foundation university. The inter-rater works in the Curriculum and Materials Development Unit in one of the universities in Ankara, and she holds an M.A. degree in the Department of Curriculum Development.

The comparison of the findings obtained by the researcher and the inter-rater indicated that the findings were mostly consistent. The only discrepancies occurred in the interpretation of the data regarding stage three in both schools, stage two in one school and stage seven in one school. To conclude, the two inter-raters came up with a decent amount of similar findings.

Context

This study evaluated the English language programs of four universities in Ankara, namely Gazi University, TOBB Economics and Technology University, Hacettepe University and TED University. The programs belonged to the English preparatory schools in which learners study English as a foreign language. Some information about the schools whose programs were evaluated is provided below.

North School

North School is a foundation university. The school has six faculties which are Science and Letters, Law, Economics and Administrative Sciences, Fine Arts, Design and Architecture, Engineering and Medicine. At this school, the medium of instruction is completely English in the Department of English Language and Literature, and it is completely Turkish in the Departments of Law, Turkish Language and Literature, History and Visual Communication Design. The medium of instruction is partially (thirty percent) English in the rest of the departments.

The Department of Foreign Languages offers courses in three different language programs. These are Preparatory English Program, Undergraduate English Program, providing credit-bearing English courses for academic or professional purposes once students are in their faculties and Second Foreign Languages Programs, offering courses for French, German, Spanish, Arabic, Italian, Japanese, Russian and Chinese.

There is a Curriculum and Materials Development Unit, a Measurement and Evaluation Unit, an Educational Technologies Unit, an Extracurricular Activities Unit and a Professional Development Unit in the structure of English Preparatory Program.

English preparatory program is mandatory for all students who scored 499 and below on the TOEFL test if they are not to study in one of the departments in which the medium of instruction is one hundred percent Turkish. TOELF ITP is the qualifying English test students take in order to be admitted to undergraduate programs. In order to be admitted to their faculties, all students except who will study in the Departments of Law, Turkish Language and Literature, History and Visual Communication Design have to score 500 and higher on the TOEFL test. The students who will study in the Department of English Language and Literature have to score 550 and above on the TOEFL test.

North School offers three academic terms per year; therefore, English preparatory program consists of three terms of instruction, each of which lasts thirteen weeks. English Preparatory Program runs on a modular system. Newly registered students are placed in one of the four modules according to the scores they receive from the placement test including 125 questions and TOEFL ITP. The modules are named as AF, A, B, and C. However, CEFR is considered in both program design process and student placement process. Students who score between 0-49 in the placement test are placed in AF (basic) level classes. Students who score between 50-64 in the placement test, or who score 65 and higher in the placement test, but have a score of 399 or lower in the proficiency test are placed in A (beginner) level classes. Students who score 65 or higher in the placement test, and between 400-449 in TOEFL ITP are placed in B (pre-intermediate) level classes. Students who score 65 or higher in the placement test, and between 450-499 in TOEFL ITP are placed in C (intermediate) level classes. Students who were registered in previous years, but have an unsatisfactory score in the TOEFL ITP test are placed in the last level that they finished with a satisfactory grade.

If students are not able to complete a module successfully, they have to repeat the module. Students may study in the program up to two academic years. In order to pass their module successfully, AF and A level students need to receive 65 out of 100. B and C level students need to get 65 out of 100. Having completed the C module, students can take TOEFL ITP; however, students who have studied B level can also take TOEFL ITP providing they obtain an average grade of 80 out of 100. Moreover, students are required to attend 90 percent of the courses in Preparatory English Program.

Table 3. Modules and Class Hours at North School

Modules	Class Hours a Week
AF (Foundation)	30 hours / week
A (Beginner)	25 hours / week
B (Pre-intermediate)	25 hours / week
C (Intermediate)	25 hours / week

English Preparatory Program consists of Integrated Skills Course, Reading and Writing Course, and Listening and Speaking Course. 10 hours of instruction a week is allocated for Integrated Skills, and Reading and Writing Courses. 5 hours of instruction a week is allocated for Listening and Speaking Courses. Only AF level students receive 15 hours of Integrated Skills instruction weekly. Students take three midterm exams, two reader exams,

one speaking exam and four quizzes, one of which includes writing part, in each term. Additionally, they are required to complete their Learning Portfolio and writing assignments. Students' final grades are calculated considering all those mentioned above in addition to instructors' overall evaluation of students' performance and attitudes both inside and outside the class.

East School

East School is the second foundation university whose language program was evaluated in this study. The school has four faculties which are Architecture, Economics, Administrative and Social Sciences, Education, Engineering, and it has a Basic Sciences Unit. The medium of instruction is completely English in all departments at this school.

At this university, English courses are offered only in English Language School. There is a Curriculum and Program Development Unit and a Testing and Assessment Unit in the structure of the school. Although there is not an Extracurricular Activities Unit, the school provides activities arranged by various clubs run by volunteer instructors.

The language program of East School runs on a modular system. There are three modules: Beginner, Intermediate and Upper. Students who enroll in this university are first required to take the placement test including 100 questions. The students who are able to display a high level of English in the placement test become eligible to take the English Proficiency Exam. The passing grade for the proficiency exam is 65. Other students are placed into the modules according to the regulations of the school. The ones placed in the modules study at the language program at least one term or at most two years depending on their entry level and academic performance during the program. Beginner and intermediate level students are required to attend 85% of the classes and receive an average grade of 60 in order to be able to successfully pass onto a new module. Students who are not able to complete a module successfully have to repeat the module. Students who have studied upper level need to obtain an average of 75 and attend 85% of the classes. Therefore, they can be admitted to their faculties. If they are not able to collect an average of 75, they may take the proficiency exam and pass onto their faculties providing they get 65 out of 100 in the proficiency exam. If they cannot get 65, they have to repeat upper module. Students' final grade is calculated considering the scores students get from three different level

achievement tests, pop quizzes, written outcome tasks, learning portfolio and speaking tasks.

Table 4. Modules and Class Hours at East School

Modules	Class Hours a Week
Beginner	26 hours / week
Intermediate	23 hours / week
Upper Intermediate	20 hours / week

The English Preparatory Program consists of Reading & Writing and Listening & Speaking Courses. Therefore, it can be said that the program adopts a skills-based approach. Throughout a term, students take three level achievement tests and several pop quizzes. Additionally, they have to complete a Learning Portfolio and carry out a number of writing and speaking tasks.

West School

West School is the first state university whose preparatory language program was subjected to evaluation. The school has fourteen faculties, a conservatory school, and six vocational schools of higher education. The medium of instruction at departments is one of the four languages which are Turkish, English, French and German. The School of Foreign Languages offers courses at two departments. The first department is the Department of Basic Languages, including one-year English, German and French preparatory programs. The second one is the Department of Modern Languages which offers compulsory English language courses and elective English, German, French, Spanish, Italian, Chinese, Russian, Greek, Japanese and Latin courses. These courses are successive and spread throughout eight semesters for the students registered at the faculties and schools of the university.

The English Preparatory Program consists of a Curriculum Unit, a Testing Unit and a Professional Development Unit. The courses offered at English preparatory program are categorized according to the departments of students studying at the university. While designing the preparatory program, the school considers academic goals set in students' faculties in addition to CEFR, and it establishes different education programs and adopts different measurement and evaluation practices depending on these goals.

The West School English Preparatory Program runs on a modular system. Each module is named after one of the levels involved in CEFR as follows: A1, A2, B1, B1+, B2, B2+,

C1, C1+, C2, and C2+. Students who are not able to complete a module successfully have to repeat the module. One academic year consists of four quarters, each of which lasts seven weeks. The exit level for all students studying at preparatory school is at least B1+. All students are required to attend 80% of the classes in each quarter. If the students fail to meet the attendance requirement, they cannot take the Level Achievement Test and are considered to get 0 even if they take it. In order to pass onto the next level, students in Groups 1 and 2 mentioned above need to obtain at least an average of 65 out of 100. However, 55 out of 100 is the passing grade for the students in Group 3.

Students who have met the requirements of at least B1+ level can take the Proficiency Exam. While calculating students' year end final grades, the average of their level achievement test scores is taken into account. 50 % of this average is added up to 50 % of the score a student gets in the Proficiency Exam. If the sum of these two scores is at least 65 or above, students in Group 1 and 2 obtain the right to be admitted to their faculties. As long as the sum is at least 55 or above, students in Group 3 are admitted to their faculties. Most importantly, the score a student gets from the Proficiency Exam cannot be less than 50.

In addition to these criteria students have a chance to obtain bonus scores providing they meet the requirements of DynEd, a distance English education system. When they fulfill the specifications regarding frequency and efficiency of their study and attendance at face-to-face courses, 20 % of their DynEd scores are added up to their final grades.

Another important detail related to West School preparatory program is that it gives a chance to students to be considered to have completed the program successfully without taking the Proficiency Exam. Providing students meet the following criteria, they can be admitted to their faculties without taking the Proficiency Exam.

- Meeting the attendance requirement
- Passing all levels successfully
- Getting at least an average of 85 in all level completed
- Completing at least B1+ level successfully

Table 5. Class Hours for A1, A2, B1 and B1+ Levels at West School

A1, A2, B1, B1+ Levels' Class Hours a Week		
Education in Classroom	DynEd	
	Distance	Face-to-face
24	5	1

Table 6. Class Hours for B2 and B2+ Levels at West School

B2, B2+ Levels' Class Hours a Week		
Education in Classroom	DynEd	
	Distance	Face-to-face
19	5	1

Table 7. Class Hours for C1, C1+, C2 and C2+ Levels at West School

C1, C1+, C2, C2+ Levels' Class Hours a Week		
Education in Classroom	DynEd	
	Distance	Face-to-face
14	5	1

A1 level consists of only Integrated Skills Course. In other levels, Reading and Writing, Listening and Speaking Courses are provided in addition to Integrated Skills. Four hours of instruction is allocated to each Reading & Writing and Listening & Speaking Course. Each term, students take some quizzes and pop quizzes. Moreover, they take a Level Achievement Test at the end of each term. Students' final grades are calculated considering the scores they take from quizzes, level achievement tests and instructors' overall evaluation of students' performance.

South School

South School is the second state university whose English preparatory program we evaluated with a specific focus on encouragement of learner autonomy. The school has twenty-one faculties, a conservatory school, five colleges, and thirteen vocational schools of higher education. The medium of instruction at South School varies according to the departments. Some programs' medium of instruction is 100 % Turkish or 100 % English. In some departments the medium of instruction is 30 % English.

The College of Foreign Languages at South School offers language courses at two departments. The first department is the Department of Basic Languages. The second one is the Department of Modern Languages which offers compulsory and elective English, German and French courses.

At South School, studying at Preparatory Program is compulsory only for the students who are to study in departments in which the medium of instruction is partially or completely

English. Students who enroll in these departments of the university are first required to take the Foreign Language Proficiency Exam. The passing grade for the Proficiency Exam is 60. Therefore, students who achieve obtaining a score of 60 and above are admitted to their faculties. The remaining students need to take a placement test in order that their proficiency levels could be identified. Upon taking a multiple choice type of test, they additionally take a writing and a speaking exam. The students are placed in two levels which are Starter and Elementary in accordance with their placement exam results. The students in Starter group receive twenty-five hours of instruction weekly, and the ones in Elementary group receive twenty hours of instruction.

One-year English Preparatory Program consists of two terms, each of which lasts fifteen or sixteen weeks. The students in Starter and Elementary groups who receive an average of 30 out of 100 and below at the end of the first term are deprived of the opportunity to continue their education in the second term since the program does not run on a modular system. These students can take the Foreign Language Proficiency Exam in September in the following academic year, and if they succeed in receiving 60 and above, they are admitted to their departments. However, if they cannot achieve the score, they have to start studying at the preparatory program again in the second year. The students who are unable to complete the Preparation Program during the two academic years are discharged in the event that they fail the Foreign Language Proficiency Exam that is held at the beginning of the third academic year.

The ones who are eligible to continue education in the second term are grouped according to their faculties and placed into the same classes. An ESP program different from the standard one used in the first term is designed and run in the second term for these students. Integrated Skills Course remains the same; however, in Skills Courses students are presented with various contents that address students' professional fields. They are taught words related to their professions through especially reading, or practise speaking through the contexts specific to their fields. There is a different Curriculum and Materials Development Unit member responsible for every department's ESP program, and this person develops materials for skills courses to provide content specifically designed for certain departments. Accordingly, the scope of their exams varies.

All South School preparatory program students are required to attend 85 % of the classes in each term. Students who fail because of absence are not eligible to take the Final Exam

and can only attend summer school if their yearly average point is 54.50 or higher. The Final Exam is held only at the end of the academic year, the second term. Moreover, the students who fail because of absence can take the Proficiency Exam in Foreign Language regardless of their yearly average point. Students are considered eligible if their general average point is at least 60 and above. Their general average point is calculated by adding 50 % of students' yearly average point to 50 % of the score they receive from the Final Exam. When students fail in the Final Exam, they have a right to take a make-up exam. In addition to these regulations, providing students meet the following criteria, they can be admitted to their faculties without taking the Final Exam.

- Meeting the attendance requirement
- Getting at least a yearly average point of 75

As for the exams students take throughout an academic year, there is one Foreign Language Proficiency Exam held in the beginning in September. Then, there is a placement test. Upon being placed into levels, students take some quizzes, pop quizzes and midterm exams till the end of the second term. Students can ask for excuse examinations if they miss one of the midterm exams. In addition to these, at the end of the second term, students take the Final Exam. In the event that students cannot attend this exam, they have a chance to take a make-up exam. Moreover, students carry out some tasks presented through a Learning Portfolio.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

This section of the study provides the analysis and the discussion of the data gathered through the research tools namely, content analysis and interview. Since this chapter is outlined on the basis of two research questions of the study, the findings and the discussion are presented under two main parts. The first part in which we present answers to the first research question provides the findings from and the discussion of the qualitative analysis of the programs. In this part, the results are provided and discussed by following the self-directed learning stages of the framework. The second part in which we present answers to the second research question provides the findings from the content analysis of the interviews with the instructors working at the universities at which we collected data.

Findings from the Content Analysis of the Programs

As it has been mentioned earlier, this study aimed at evaluating the programs followed in the English preparatory schools of four universities in Ankara in order to find out whether they encourage the development of learner autonomy. In this section, the results of the qualitative analysis of the programs are presented and discussed. For the analysis, the framework developed by Reinders (2010) was used. While analyzing the data obtained, we used the first research question of the study and the eight sub-questions that we had drawn from the framework developed by Reinders (2010). The questions are outlined below:

1. Do the preparatory programs of the two foundation and two state universities in Ankara encourage EFL learners' autonomous skills?

- 1.1. Do the programs encourage learners to identify their needs?

- 1.2. Do the programs encourage learners to set goals for themselves?
- 1.3. Do the programs encourage learners to plan their learning?
- 1.4. Do the programs encourage learners to select resources?
- 1.5. Do the programs encourage learners to select learning strategies?
- 1.6. Do the programs encourage learners to practise?
- 1.7. Do the programs encourage learners to monitor progress?
- 1.8. Do the programs encourage learners to make assessment and revision?

The findings from the content analysis of the four preparatory schools' programs are shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8. Overall Findings from the Content Analysis of the Programs

Self-directed Learning Stages	Schools			
	Foundation Schools		State Schools	
	North	East	West	South
Identifying needs	X	✓	X	✓
Setting goals	✓	X	X	X
Planning learning	X	✓	✓	✓
Selecting resources	X	X	X	X
Selecting learning strategies	✓	✓	X	✓
Practice	✓	✓	✓	✓
Monitoring progress	✓	✓	✓	X
Assessment and revision	✓	✓	X	✓

The findings revealed as a result of the data analysis and the discussion of the findings are presented below stage by stage.

Identifying Needs

The first stage of the framework was identifying needs, and the first sub-question in the evaluation process was concerned with whether the programs encourage learners to identify their learning needs or not. The findings regarding the identifying needs stage are shown in Table 9 below.

Table 9. Findings of the Stage “Identifying Needs”

Identifying Needs		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	X	
East School	✓	- <i>An initial reflection sheet to help learners self-evaluate their needs and learning difficulties,</i> - <i>Ongoing self-reflection on skills development</i>
West School	X	
South School	✓	- <i>A needs / expectations analysis questionnaire</i>

North School

The first foundation school whose preparatory program was evaluated in this study is North School. The North School’s preparatory language program evaluation with a specific focus on the identification of learner needs reveals that the program does not involve any practices to encourage learners to identify their needs. The language program does not give learners an opportunity to realize their own learning needs, including their individualized profiles of their strengths and weaknesses or wants either at the beginning or in the course of their learning processes.

At the beginning of each academic year – in each September – North School administers a placement test through which it determines the levels of the learners and the modules in which learners will be studying during the first term. This placement test makes it possible for learners to determine their proficiency levels, and the test results are regarded as an indicator of learners’ present proficiency. As West (1994) states, pre-course placement tests or diagnostic tests estimate the language level of the learners. It is undeniable that this diagnostic test, if reliable and valid, is effective to show learners their language levels and to make them aware of the next levels of proficiency they are required to achieve. The North School preparatory program attempts to identify its learners’ needs only by means of a placement test. By taking the results of the test into consideration, the school places new learners at different levels. Although administering such a test may be considered an attempt to identify learner needs, it does not involve a detailed needs analysis process, and it by no means outlines learners’ individual needs. This placement test does not serve as an instrument in order to encourage learner autonomy in terms of identifying learners’ own learning needs. Moreover, as Reinders (2010) considers, placement tests are the most typical tools that are used in teacher-directed / traditional teaching contexts to determine what learners lack or need as language learners. In this respect, this school only benefits

from a traditional method in order to identify learners' needs, and the placement test functions as the only source that provides information about what learners need to attain. To conclude, North School preparatory program does not give learners a chance to determine their individual learning needs, and it does not attempt to integrate learners' possible expectations or wants with the necessities, the competence levels or the objectives determined by the school. The program does not have a design which allows learners to have a say over what they need to learn and attain their specific goals.

East School

The second foundation university whose preparatory program was scrutinized in the study is East School. The analysis of East School's preparatory program in regard to identifying learner needs shows that the preparatory school's program mostly encourages learners to identify their needs. The East School language program has an implementation called learning portfolio which mainly involves various writing and speaking tasks for learners. These tasks are designed in accordance with the objectives/outcomes of learners' writing and speaking courses. Before the learners start this learning portfolio implementation, which means before they start doing their portfolio tasks, they are given a questionnaire called 'initial reflection sheet'. Learners receive this reflection sheet at the beginning of each term, and they are expected to evaluate themselves through this questionnaire in regard to their writing and speaking skills. Since the language program of this school is shaped around a skill-based approach, and the learners use only skill-based books, the initial reflection sheet involves items that are concerned with speaking and writing skills. With the help of this sheet, learners are expected to identify and reflect upon their own learning needs – what they think that they need to learn – and the areas in which they think they have learning difficulties or need improvement and help. That is to say, through this reflection sheet, learners are provided with an opportunity to think on their needs critically and to become aware of their individual profiles as language learners. They are encouraged to identify their strengths, weaknesses and learning needs in regard to writing and speaking skills.

Through this initial reflection sheet, the learners studying at East School are given a chance to determine their strengths and weaknesses as language learners. This is significant because strengths and weaknesses analysis can be a first step to get learners to think about

their learning. Learners can take responsibility for their learning better if they become aware of their individual learner profiles (Scharle & Szabô, 2000). Nunan (1985a) differentiates between objective needs analysis done by the teachers/institutions and subjective needs/content analysis done by the learners themselves during the implementation of needs analysis. While conducting needs analysis in institutions, having a content/subjective needs dimension is also possible, in which learners decide what they want to learn. Therefore, we could draw the conclusion that East School preparatory program attempts to establish a learning environment in which learners could develop autonomy through subjective needs analysis which allows them to identify their needs and integrate these needs into their learning. At East School, in addition to the initial reflection sheet learners are regularly provided with specifically-designed reflection sheets both before and after they receive each portfolio task. These sheets encourage learners to realize their specific writing and speaking skill needs and help them become more aware that they are given opportunities to attain their goals. As Reinders (2010) mentions, doing needs analysis is the initial step of creating a dynamic learning process, and it should be repeated at regular intervals. Only in this way can learners develop an awareness of the importance of aligning their work with their needs on an ongoing basis. To this end, East School preparatory program encourages learners to develop autonomy and help their learning become more meaningful through various learner-directed needs analysis practices.

West School

The third school whose preparatory program was evaluated is a state school named West School. The findings revealed that the West School preparatory language program does not encourage learners to identify their learning needs in an autonomous way. The learners are not provided any chances to realize their lack in addition to their strong sides as individual learners. For instance, they are not given any surveys or checklists through which either they could recognize their needs or they could express their expectations from the language program in which they are going to study. Moreover, the program does not involve any practices aiming at collecting information about learners' individual needs so that the program could address learners' personal learner profiles. In brief, learners' individual learning needs do not directly or indirectly inform their language classroom practice in

West School, and the learners are not given any responsibility in the process of needs analysis.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mention a learning-centered approach to needs analysis, and they propose that needs analysis be a negotiation process between individuals and society. In this approach, society represents all aspects of a program including syllabus, materials, teaching method and so on. Moreover, they divide learning needs into three categories as necessities, lack and wants. As it is clearly shown, if a program adopts a learner-centered approach in the process of identifying needs, it needs to negotiate with learners in regard to determining what learners need and want to have learnt at the end of the language program, which by all means encourages learner autonomy. Furthermore, Nunan (1990) considers needs analysis a set of procedures used to specify the parameters of a course. These parameters may include certain criteria for especially grouping learners, selecting and arranging the content, methodology, length and intensity of the course. Therefore, in a learner-centered course design, learners themselves are given a chance to engage in determining such parameters, and there is an extensive consultation between learners and course designers in such systems. Nevertheless, the West School preparatory program does not allow any negotiation with learners regarding needs analysis; as a result, learners themselves are not involved in the needs analysis process and take responsibility for determining their own needs, strengths and weaknesses. Through such a program design, learners cannot be provided any chances to become aware of their individual learner profiles and learning needs and to be led to more autonomy. The only instrument the West School preparatory language program uses in order to identify learners' needs is the placement test carried out at the beginning of the new academic year. However, as we mentioned earlier applying a placement test is a traditional method which does not encourage learner autonomy and does not contribute to learners' personal needs analysis process (West, 1994; Reinders, 2010). All in all, it could be concluded that the West School preparatory language program does not adopt a learner-centered approach in regard to identifying learning needs, which means it does not attempt to foster learner autonomy by means of need analysis.

South School

The fourth and the last school whose program was subjected to data analysis is another state school named South School. As it is clear from Table 9, South School partly encourages its learners to develop autonomy in regard to identifying their needs. In South School preparatory program, learners are given a questionnaire at the beginning of each academic year in order to gather data about their expectations from the program and their preferences or wants regarding the types of activities or tasks that learners would rather do while learning English. In addition, the questionnaire involves some items related to learners' attitudes towards learning English. The results obtained through the questionnaires are one of the factors shaping both in-class and out-class learning activities at the preparatory school. That is to say, learners are partly encouraged to have a say over identifying their learning needs and integrating them with the course content. The same questionnaire is conducted one more time with little modifications at the end of the program to see whether learners think that their expectations have been met or not.

In order to design an effective program, it is of great importance to perform needs analysis initially, which helps to gather information about what learners' needs are during the second or foreign language learning process (Purpura & King, 2005). Likewise, it is suggested in EFL and needs analysis literature that learner needs must be addressed if a course is to succeed, and the current trend in teaching is to take learners wants into account (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002; Garcia, 2002; Kavaliauskiene & Užpaliene, 2003). The results of the study show that South School preparatory program regards doing needs analysis as important and necessary, and it aims to establish itself as an effective program by providing learners opportunities to express their wants and needs and addressing these in the course of curriculum development.

Moreover, in recent decades, a concern for stakeholder involvement has emerged within the field of curriculum development and evaluation (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005). It is believed that stakeholders are the ones who are most affected by the findings of program evaluation, and if they are believed to be the ones who are to make changes, it is necessary to involve them in the whole process, which certainly includes planning, the processes, evaluation and articulating the outcomes of evaluation (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009). Similarly, Finney (2002) indicates that doing needs analysis is one of the ways to include stakeholders within the evaluation process, and she argues that ideally as many of the

program participants as possible should be included in the needs analysis, especially the learners themselves. Since the learners are involved in specifying course content, there will be a greater likelihood that they can perceive it as relevant to their own needs and take an active role in course evaluation. By considering the points mentioned above, we can deduce that South School preparatory program involves learners/stakeholders in both design and evaluation process by performing needs analysis in the beginning and by applying questionnaires in the end in order to identify whether learners' expectations have been met or not. These practices are attempts to involve learners in curricular processes and to create a chance for them to have a say over the program.

Furthermore, it is significant to find out about learners if a program attempts to help them develop autonomy through institutionalized education. Knowing learners' expectations and their existing attitudes towards both learning and learning a foreign language plays a crucial role since it can be considered the starting point for encouraging them to develop responsible attitudes. Conducting questionnaires or interviews on responsible attitudes, strengths and weaknesses, learning styles, activities and preferences are some of the ways to collect information about learners. Finding out about learners through such types of activities helps devise programs that foster learner autonomy. Moreover, conducting needs analysis leads learners to raise awareness towards their own learning, which leads them to take more responsibility in their learning process (Scharle & Szabó, 2000). All in all considering all these issues mentioned, one could conclude that South School program partly encourages learner autonomy in regard to needs analysis. Since the learners are encouraged to develop more responsible attitudes and to express their preferences through the needs / expectations analysis questionnaire conducted at the school, they are given a chance to develop autonomy.

Setting Goals

The second stage in the framework was setting goals, and the second sub-question in the evaluation process was concerned with whether the program encourages learners to set goals for themselves or not. The findings regarding the setting goals stage are shown in Table 10 below.

Table 10. Findings of the Stage “Setting Goals”

Setting Goals		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	✓	- <i>my goals task sheet</i> , - <i>why I am learning English task sheet</i>
East School	X	
West School	X	
South School	X	

North School

The findings of program evaluation regarding encouraging autonomy through goal setting indicate that the North School preparatory language program partly encourages learners to set goals for themselves. At North School preparatory program, new coming learners are trained on and given tips about how to learn English better through learning to learn sessions, each of which takes fifty minutes and is done on five different focuses. One of these sessions focuses on goal setting, and the learners are encouraged to reflect upon their reasons/objectives to study English at this program. Through the task sheet on which they are expected to provide individual answers for the question “why do I want to learn English?” the learners are encouraged to think about what they want to achieve with the target language. By giving reasons as in the following example: “I want to learn English because I want to use it for my job and for studying abroad”, the learners have a chance to reflect upon their objectives/reasons for learning and their priorities in their foreign language learning process. In addition, learners are instructed on what goal setting is and how they can set short-term or long-term goals for themselves. Upon being informed about goal setting, the learners are given a task sheet through which they are expected to think about their goals. First of all, they are told to brainstorm about what they want and need to do for learning English; then, they organize what they have written and make a list. Next, they are expected to reflect upon and write their long-term goals – from one to five years of time – and short-term goals – from one week to three months of time –. These practices help learners become aware of their learning goals and reflect upon what they need to do or how they need to study to learn English more effectively. The tasks contribute to learner autonomy in that they encourage learners to realize they need to set some goals for themselves and direct their learning in accordance with these goals by taking responsibility if they really want to succeed in learning the target language. Therefore, the North School

English preparatory program partly attempts to encourage learner autonomy through goal setting.

Nonetheless, even if the program has some practices to make learners aware that they need to set goals or to help them reflect upon their general learning objectives, they are not encouraged to determine specific learning goals. In other words, the learners are not provided any chances to determine and express what they want to be taught specifically. Their individual learning goals are not addressed and integrated into the program. The reason for this may be the exam-oriented education system. Reinders (2010) believes that teachers may not consider ignoring the existing curricula and required learning outcomes possible or desirable especially in the case of national exams. Even though North School preparatory language program is not designed in accordance with the goals/objectives of a national exam, it is designed in a way that it could meet the goals prescribed by a fairly difficult international exam for preparatory school learners which is TOEFL ITP. Since the learners are expected to achieve the goals required by this international exam in order to be admitted to their departments, and since this process does not leave much space for learners' expressing – setting – and achieving their own goals due to some administrative or time constraints, the program may not be involving the learners in the decision-making process regarding the content of the program and how it is taught. In other words, learning objectives for the learners are all predetermined by the program – curriculum development unit –, and goal setting is not a flexible and collaborative process. In the course of program implementation, teachers are strictly restricted in terms of modifying the existing program, and under no conditions are the teachers allowed to ignore or adapt any parts of the program defined by the curriculum development unit. However, when the goals are individual and specific to the learners, and when they are not set by the teacher or the textbook, learners feel more at ease with the subject and more anxious to achieve the goals that had been set by themselves, which shows formulating their own goals increases learners' motivation to take responsibility of their learning (Ushioda & Ridley, 2002). To this end, learners learning English in North School preparatory program are not given a say over what they want to be taught since all the goals are prescribed beforehand without any negotiation with learners. Still, they are encouraged to notice their learning goals, to reflect upon what they need to achieve and to take responsibility to achieve these goals for both a short term period and a long term period.

East School

The program of the second foundation school, namely East School, does not encourage their preparatory school learners' autonomy in terms of setting goals. The findings show that the East School preparatory language program does not entail any practices which help learners determine their own goals. The objectives/outcomes of the units/courses are predetermined by the curriculum development unit, and these goals are not flexible. The program does not involve any practices that can help learners define certain goals through their learning process and encourage them create opportunities to attain these goals. That is to say, the program doesn't permit learners to have a say over what they are going to be taught and to set goals for themselves and take responsibility in order to achieve these goals.

Nevertheless, human action is realized on purpose and for any action to take place, goals must be set by choice (Locke & Latham, 1990). Likewise, goals need to reflect individuals' interests and personal values rather than reflecting expressions of others regarding what individuals are expected to achieve (Sheldon & Kasser, 1998). While goals which are not endorsed by the individual are likely to cause intrapersonal conflict, goals set by the individual autonomously are to allow the individual to draw on his volitional resources (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon & Houser-Marko, 2001). In a qualitative research study conducted by Koda-Dallow and Hobbs (2005), it is indicated that undergraduate students required to explicitly set out weekly learning goals during a five-week Japanese course could personalize their learning processes more easily than others could. They even adopted goals that were challenging and beyond the course requirement since they are interesting to them. Therefore, it is concluded that these learners could personalize their learning process more easily. In brief, in order to help learners draw on their resources to manage and personalize their learning, the program needs to create chances for them to exercise autonomy by setting goals. However, the program of East School does not allow learners identify learning goals depending their interests and personal objectives.

Additionally, Dickinson (1993) suggests that autonomous learners are able to set their own goals and to arrange their learning processes accordingly. As one of the characteristics of autonomous learners, setting goals plays a key role in self-regulating learning. However, in order to give learners control over the content of a course and encourage them to take more

responsibility for their own learning, primarily, curriculum needs to be designed in a way that teachers and learners are flexible to develop their own capacity to establish the objectives of a lesson (Benson, 2011). When we consider East School language program, we can realize that it does not provide learners any opportunities to think critically about their personal objectives to achieve throughout their language learning process. Since learners are not encouraged to formulate their own goals flexibly, the program cannot be said to have a design enhancing learners' willingness and ability to take responsibility for their learning.

Dörnyei (2001) argues that even though goal-setting is an effective and powerful strategy and there is compelling evidence in support of goal setting, it is little understood and not used efficiently in language education. For instance, in a research study conducted by Bishop (2003), 85% of the individuals responded 'no' when they are asked "Were you taught how to set goals in school?" Likewise, learners studying at East School are not taught how to set goals, and they are not allowed to determine their own goals. Therefore, it can be concluded that the program does not have a goal setting practice that fosters development of autonomy.

West School

The findings of program evaluation indicate that West School English preparatory program does not encourage learners to set goals for themselves. The language program is very prescriptive in what learners are expected to learn throughout the program. That is, the process of identifying goals is fixed, and all goals are pre-determined by the program. In this school, the curriculum development office workers identify the objectives they expect their learners to have achieved at the end of each proficiency level proposed by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). These CEFR-based objectives are determined collaboratively by the curriculum development office staff and the other instructors working at the school. In this process – while course objectives are being determined – learners are not given any responsibility or choice to express their own learning goals. Therefore, there is no room in the program for learner choice in terms of defining and achieving their own learning goals.

Nevertheless, learners' setting their own goals is likely to lead to more autonomous learning, and goal setting must be considered relatively flexible. Learners should be given

the freedom to set their own goals – what they should be able to do by the end of the course/term/academic year –, and the teachers should help learners to see what they must do in order to achieve their goals and remind them their goals at regular intervals. To this end, learners need to be encouraged in order to view the language course as one of the elements in achieving their own goals, and they must be able to seek out additional support or opportunities for practice when they need. (Reinders, 2010; Little & Perclová, 2001). When goals are designed and evaluated by learners themselves, they become more authentic and meaningful to the learners (Bellanca & Fogarty, 1991). In order to foster learner autonomy, teachers/institutions should give learners the opportunity to discuss their goals, to discuss some case studies that display how other learners have achieved their language-learning goals, and to be provided with positive feedback on their own strategic behavior. All these opportunities given to learners include collaboration, motivation, decision making and reflection (Crabbe, 2000, as cited in Nortlund, 1997). When it comes to the West School preparatory language program, it is clear that the program does not encourage autonomous learning through goal setting since the learners are not allowed to determine any objectives of the course and set goals for themselves or reflect upon their success in achieving those goals on a regular basis. Indeed, different types of learners study at the West School preparatory program for various reasons. These learners are classified under four main groups. The first group of learners consists of the ones whose majors require them to know English very well. Some of the majors are American Culture and Literature, English Language Teaching, English Translation and Interpreting. The second group of learners has to attend one-year English language compulsory preparatory program since the medium of instruction in their departments is English one-hundred percent. Some of these departments are Environmental Engineering, Industrial Engineering, Economics, Business Administration, International Relations and Medicine. The third group involves learners the thirty percent of whose education is conducted in English. Some of these departments are Computer Engineering, Food Engineering and Nursing. It is optional to study at the preparatory school for the last group of learners since the medium of instruction in their courses is one-hundred percent Turkish. Some departments in this group are Turkish Language and Literature, Statistics, Sociology, Mathematics, and History. Considering the variety in this learner groups, one can conclude that all these learners will have different needs in or expectations from the language program they study in; therefore, they may set different goals for themselves in terms of English language

learning. However, the program considers them just one large group of learners with the same learning needs and goals and does not encourage learners to define their personal goals. The program is not collaborative in the way that it identifies learning goals of learners, as a result of which learners are not given any choice over what they want to be taught and any chance to develop autonomy through goal-setting.

South School

Findings from the qualitative analysis of the program of the South School reveal that South School preparatory language program does not involve learners in goal setting process, and learners are not given a chance to control what they want to be taught. Learners are not encouraged to determine their own goals, and the program does not attempt to integrate goals that may be set by the learners with the objectives of the course. In this school, learners deal with goal setting processes neither on a weekly nor on a monthly basis since determining objectives is seen as the task of the instructors.

The effort to develop learner autonomy entails involving learners in decision making processes regarding their own language competence, and if they are involved in these processes, “they are likely to be more enthusiastic about learning” (Littlejohn, 1985, p. 258), and learning could be more focused and purposeful for the learners in this way (Camilleri, 1997; Chan, 2001; 2003). Likewise, the notion that “learners have the power and right to learn for themselves” is regarded as an essential aspect of learner autonomy (Smith, 2008, p. 2). Therefore, involving learners in decision making regarding their own learning is crucial to contribute to the development of learner autonomy in language classrooms. Since goal setting can be considered the first stage in personal decision making process, learners must be encouraged to set their own goals in order to help promote their motivation to take responsibility for their own learning. That is to say, learners can exercise their right to learn for themselves by being given opportunities to determine personal learning goals either in the beginning of or throughout their learning processes. However, when we consider South School preparatory program, it is clear that learners are not involved in decision making regarding determining the objectives and what they want to be taught. Since they are not handed any control in order to increase their level of self-determination, the development of learner autonomy is not encouraged through goal setting.

Additionally, Cotterall (2000) outlines five principles for designing language courses that promote learner autonomy, and the first principle emphasizes the importance of giving control to learners on setting goals and raising learners' awareness of ways of identifying goals. Any course designed to promote learner autonomy must reflect learners' goals in its language, tasks, and strategies, and it must aim to achieve the goals which the learners consider important. It is significant to realize that personal goal setting is the starting point since all decisions which are about language, texts, tasks, and strategies to focus on during the course must be made in relation to the goals stated by the learners. Nonetheless, one can notice that the South School preparatory program does not allow and help learners to set their own personal learning goals. They are not given a voice over what they want to be taught specifically. To illustrate, all the goals/objectives are predetermined, and the learners are not expected to take any responsibility in their learning process since they are not encouraged to determine and achieve their own goals. To this end, the South School preparatory language program does not encourage development of autonomy through giving learners a chance to identify their own goals and seek opportunities to achieve them. The way learners' learning goals are set does not foster autonomy since learners do not have any control over this process.

Planning Learning

The third stage in self-directed learning framework was planning learning, and the third sub-question to be answered in evaluation process was whether the programs encourage learners to plan their learning or not. The findings of the qualitative analysis on programs regarding the planning learning stage are shown in Table 11 below.

Table 11. Findings of the Stage "Planning Learning"

Planning Learning		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	X	
East School	✓	- <i>student council meetings</i>
West School	✓	- <i>a learning management system (DynEd)</i> - <i>choice over the selection of presentation topics</i>
South School	✓	- <i>choice over the types of some activities and selection of presentation topics</i>

North School

As it is shown in Table 11, North School language program does not encourage learners to plan their learning by any means. The program does not have any practices that provide learners opportunities to plan their learning on their own. At North School, the content to be taught and when to teach it are all determined by the curriculum development unit, and neither the teachers nor the learners are allowed to make any changes in this fixed order. The program design requires teachers to strictly follow the schedule and the content prescribed by the program. Moreover, the program fails to encourage learners to make decisions related to activities, the order of the activities or the ways learners use to interact and participate. Learners' preferences regarding these aspects of their learning are not considered because in the program there are no applications that aim at obtaining information about learners' preferences. Furthermore, the program does not have any practices such as making learners sign contracts to plan their learning and remain stick to their plans. As a result, it could be concluded that the North School program does not encourage learners to take control over 'what', 'when' and 'how' of their learning processes.

Nonetheless, involving learners in the decision making processes regarding the course content and giving them some responsibility for planning and carrying out teaching/learning activities may result in better learning (Dam, 1995). At North School, the curriculum development unit provides various activities for the content to be taught; however, this does not mean giving learners a choice over different types of activities for the same set of materials or language content. When learners are encouraged to make firm plans by writing contracts or signing up for support groups in which they can form partnerships and describe individual learning projects they plan to do, they get chance to exercise autonomy. In such programs, learners set their own objectives and plan for their fulfillment (Nordlund, 1997). Nevertheless, in North School's teaching/learning system, teachers are the only decision makers who determine what kinds of activities learners will do or what kinds of materials learners will make use of. As Benson (2003) argues autonomy may be best described as a capacity since various types of abilities could be involved in control over learning. The most important abilities can be considered those which allow learners to plan their own learning activities, monitor their progress and evaluate their outcomes. However, the North School language program does not support

learners to develop such abilities. To conclude, since the learners at the North School are not given any chances to develop their ability to plan their learning activities, they are not encouraged to exercise autonomy.

East School

The findings from the qualitative analysis of East School preparatory program reveal that the program partly encourages learners' autonomy through planning learning. The East School language program makes use of a 'student representation' system in order to make sure that the learners can fully exploit the program. In this system, a student from each level is elected in order to represent the learners studying in that particular level. These three head representatives form the student council, and they arrange regular student council meetings with student representatives of each class. The council is responsible for reporting problems learners encounter during their learning processes, their needs and wants in relation to their learning. The reports are presented to the Assistant Director in charge of Administrative Affairs in both oral and written form twice a term. Through these meetings the learners are given a chance to express their preferences regarding what type of exercises they would like to have more or less often or how they would like to participate in certain learning practices. For instance, learners have once reported that they would like to have more writing tasks. Therefore, the curriculum development unit has made necessary adaptations. To this end, these council meetings are an attempt to collaborate with learners in terms of issues especially related to 'what' and 'how' of their learning. Therefore, it can be concluded that East School preparatory learners are given a say over their preferences regarding planning their learning. Furthermore, learners learn most effectively when they are actively engaged in planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning. When they are given a chance to generate their own purposes for learning, in order to pursue these purposes, they need to determine both the content of learning and the way in which this learning will take place (Little, 1991). Moreover, in order to help learners to take some initiatives that encourage them to direct their own learning processes, they must be considered as equal partners. Therefore, they should be given a chance to share the responsibility for determining the time, place and pace of the lesson through an interactive process (Dickinson, 1987). With the help of the student council meetings, learners as equal partners may obtain an opportunity to share their

dissatisfaction with the content, methodology or pacing of the program and demand certain modifications in the program according to their goals and preferences. To this end, learners are encouraged to take responsibility for planning their learning at East School.

West School

The preparatory program in the first state university, which is West School, partly encourages learner autonomy regarding planning learning stage. At West School, the language program involves a learning management system in addition to the other components. The name of this learning management system is *DynEd*. This program is a distance education tool, and it offers English courses for various types of learners, such as K-12 learners or vocational school learners. However, the version used by West School learners is the course designed for adult learners to teach them general English. All learners in all levels are required to register to the system by means of the online platform provided by the school. They gain access to the system through their own usernames and passwords. If the learners meet the requirements of the distance education component of the program, they are granted bonus points out of their level achievement score. In order to meet the criterion and be able to obtain bonus points, learners are required to allocate at least five hours a week to study through the system. They need to practise in *My Dynamic English* section of the software at least thirty-five hours during each of their seven-week quarters. The software offers a placement test to the learners no matter in what level they are studying at school. According to results of this test, learners are placed in appropriate levels in the system. The system regularly monitors learners' progress, and if they cannot succeed in achieving the course objectives, they study the language content in which they fail with different materials and activities. The system helps them reach the level objectives by supporting them through different methods and activities. While using this distance education tool, learners decide when to study, and the system also helps them to have control over what and how to study. Learners are provided with a chance to become aware that they themselves can regulate their learning outside the class with the help of a source other than a teacher or instructor.

Autonomous learners are able to “step back from what they are doing and reflect upon this” in order that they could decide what they need to do and experience next. With the help of this meta-cognitive capacity, learners can make decisions on what, when and how

and with what resources to learn (Breen & Mann, 1997, p. 135). Moreover, when learners are encouraged and provided an opportunity to take control over planning and assessing their classroom learning with sufficient guidance, they are able to exercise autonomy over these aspects of their own learning (Benson, 2011). To this end, being provided a chance to study whenever they want, to reflect upon their performance in the learning management system and to study the same content with different methods and activities, West School learners are encouraged to exercise autonomy. This could be regarded as a step to make them realize that they could plan their learning according to their own learning objectives, learning styles and pacing by choosing suitable activities and materials.

In addition, West School learners are given a choice when they are told to decide the topic of the presentations they will make. They themselves search for a suitable topic according to their interests or subject knowledge and determine a topic to present. This is an example of giving learners control over what of their learning. To conclude, since the learners studying at West School are given a chance to regulate the time of their study and to check their study plan to achieve their learning goals with a different set of activities when needed, and since they can control what of their learning to some extent, the program helps them develop autonomy through planning learning stage.

South School

Lastly, South School's preparatory language program evaluation findings indicate that the South School program partly encourages learners to plan their learning. The program gives a voice to learners especially in terms of 'what' and 'how' of their learning. The program allows learners to decide on the type of certain portfolio tasks. To illustrate, if learners do not prefer to do a role-play activity in front of the class, they can choose to complete the assignment in another way like shooting a video. This is an example of planning 'how' of their learning. In addition to this, learners are free to choose the topics about which they want to make presentations. This is an example of giving control to learners over planning 'what' of their learning.

Assignments provide learners an opportunity to revise and experiment with what they have learned in the process of learning a foreign language. In addition, they have a significant role in developing learner autonomy since learners need to use the target language in extended periods of time. Consequently, in order to encourage autonomy, learners should

be involved in the process of determining the content of homework assignments (Little, 1994). Moreover, when the learners who share similar interests in activity types are allocated to work together and when they are encouraged to work out their own action learning plans that are suitable for their favorite activities, these learners become better controllers of their learning activities in time. In other words, if they are allowed to implement their own learning plans and given more power to manage their own learning, learners become more willing to take the opportunity to do so in the future (Smith, 2001, 2003a). To conclude, South School learners are given choices over the types of certain assignments and the ways how to complete them. Through these kinds of assignments learners can not only experiment with the language they are learning, but also they can exercise autonomy as they are the decision makers who manage what and how of their learning. Being given the chance to make groups according to their interests and design learning activities, South School preparatory program learners are encouraged to develop autonomy through planning their learning.

Selecting Resources

Selecting resources was the fourth stage of the framework. It was concerned with the sub-question whether the programs allow learners to select resources or not. The findings regarding the selecting resources stage of the framework are shown in Table 11 below.

Table 12. Findings of the Stage “Selecting Resources”

Selecting Resources		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	X	
East School	X	
West School	X	
South School	X	

North School

As it is shown in Table 12, North School preparatory program does not encourage learners to select resources. At North School resources selection is undertaken by the curriculum development unit workers at the end of each academic year upon evaluating the whole program completed. The unit members evaluate the resources to be used in accordance with the objectives by using materials evaluation checklists. Some experienced teachers

share their opinions about the resources selected by the unit, and the unit members complete the resource selection process before the new academic year begins.

Normally, just as it happens at North School, in traditional education contexts resource selection is regarded as mainly the task of the teacher (Reinders, 2010). However, in recent years it has been widely believed that learners need to be aware of some learning strategies and know how to select materials so as to develop responsibility for their own learning (Lee, 1996). Moreover, whether learners can maintain their interest in learning is very much dependent on whether they find the materials which they use interesting and useful (Frankel, 1982; Hughes, 1982). It is believed that this is especially true in the context of autonomous learning since learners become more willing to take responsibility of their learning when they can proceed their learning with the resources they choose (Allwright, 1981; Aston, 1993; Sturtridge, 1982). When it comes to the North School preparatory program, it can be concluded that the program has a traditional approach in which the only decision makers determining resources are the teachers. The program does not encourage learners to develop autonomy since it does not allow learners to have control over resources selection process and to take responsibility in regard to generating and sharing learning materials.

East School

The second foundation university whose program was subjected to data analysis with a focus on resources selection is East School. The findings from the analysis of the East School's preparatory program reveal that the program does not encourage learners to select resources. At South School decisions in relation to all learning materials including learning management systems are made by the teachers and the administrators. Learners are not involved in any stage of the materials selection processes. The program does not allow instructors to experiment with the resource selection in some ways that can foster learner autonomy such as allowing or assigning learners to identify their own learning materials. In addition to this, learners are not given any opportunities to generate their own learning materials and share them with their classmates.

Nonetheless, in order to foster language learners' autonomy, certain amount of time must be allocated to raise learners' awareness of how to identify resources besides strategies needed to achieve learning goals. Moreover, learners must be allowed to extend and

individualize resources, which means giving learners a chance to participate in the selection and organization of their learning material (Cotterall, 2000). In this way, learners are given greater responsibility for their learning. When it comes to East School, it is clear that learners studying at East School preparatory program are not allowed to behave autonomously in terms of choosing their learning materials and determining their resources. They are not regarded as decision makers who have the capacity and responsibility for choosing learning resources among available materials.

West School

The West School's preparatory language program evaluation with a specific focus on the selection of resources reveals that the program does not involve any practices which encourage learners to contribute to the resources selection process. Learners are not given any responsibility to choose some or all of their learning materials. They are not encouraged to attempt to locate any authentic materials from outside the class to be used in class or generate their own materials. At this school, only the instructors are responsible for determining which resources are to be used. During summer period upon completing the academic year, curriculum development office members identify certain resources that could be preferred and used in the program. Then, they organize meetings with all the teachers and make them evaluate the possible resources via material evaluation checklists. After the results of the checklists are interpreted, the curriculum development office members complete the resources selection process. To this end, learners are obliged to use these resources to learn English in class. In brief, only the teachers are decision makers in terms of determining learners' in-class learning materials at West School.

Nonetheless, learner autonomy necessitates learners to develop an understanding and capacity to decide which materials could assist them in reaching their learning goals (Little, 1991). Therefore, learners must be encouraged to select and use their own learning materials in accordance with their personal learning needs and interests (Finch, 2000). Moreover, when learners are regarded as decision-makers who can develop or have developed the ability and capacity for choosing from among available learning tools and resources in order to do a learning task in hand, they exercise autonomy (Dickinson, 1995; Holec, 1985; Little, 1991). As for the learners at West School, they are neither considered to have the capacity for selecting learning resources nor provided any chances to develop a

capacity for deciding what resources to use so as to reach their learning goals. To sum up, it can be concluded that West School preparatory language program does not encourage English language learners' autonomy by means of letting them select their learning materials.

South School

Lastly, South School preparatory language program does not take any actions to foster learner autonomy through encouraging learners to select resources. Learners are not involved in a self-selection process for determining the resources that they are going to use in their learning process. They do not have a direct role in choosing learning materials by bringing resources to class generated by themselves. Furthermore, they are not given a chance to officially evaluate or select resources either at the beginning or at the end of the academic year. Therefore, learners' only unofficial, verbal feedback is considered in terms of resource selection for the coming terms. The learning needs analysis questionnaire conducted at the school includes just two items related to resources; nonetheless, they do not serve for encouraging learner autonomy in the resources selection process.

However, autonomous learners are reported to assume responsibility for their own learning in setting personal learning goals, choosing learning strategies to achieve these goals, developing study plans and identifying and selecting relevant resources for their learning (Chan, 2000). Likewise, a learning environment fostering autonomy, learners must be given the freedom to choose materials that they use in the classrooms (Fenner & Newby, 2000). This encourages them to take greater responsibility for their learning since they need to reach and use resources in their learning contexts and carry their learning and develop strategies (White, 2003).

In conclusion, in order that learners are encouraged to develop autonomy, they must be provided chances to select their learning materials in addition to be given opportunities in various areas, such as goal setting, learning planning and strategies choice. Programs must have a collaborative design in which learners could organize their resources autonomously. Nevertheless, South School language program does not encourage learners to be involved in resources selection process and to take responsibility; therefore, they are deprived of the opportunity to develop autonomy in their learning process in regard to selecting resources.

Selecting Learning Strategies

The fifth stage in the framework was selecting learning strategies, and the sub-question of the research related to this stage was whether the programs encourage learners to select their learning strategies or not. The findings revealed regarding the selecting learning strategies stage are shown in Table 13 below.

Table 13. Findings of the Stage “Selecting Learning Strategies”

Selecting Learning Strategies		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	✓	- <i>learning to learn sessions,</i> - <i>learning styles and strategies inventory</i>
East School	✓	- <i>learner training</i>
West School	X	
South School	✓	- <i>tips about how to learn better</i>

North School

The findings indicated that the program in the North School preparatory school mostly encourages learners to select strategies. At North School at the beginning of each academic year, teachers instruct learners about how to study English and indeed specifically present some tips and strategies about how to learn vocabulary items, how to create chances to do reading, writing or speaking especially outside the classroom. This is a part of a practice called ‘learning to learn’ which is developed by the curriculum development unit. Each learning to learn session is conducted explicitly in class time once a week for a month by one of the instructors. The strategies that the learners are aimed to be equipped with through these sessions are mainly meta-cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Moreover, teachers ask learners to identify their current strategy use through a learning styles and strategies inventory provided by the curriculum development unit. Learners keep this inventory in their portfolios during the term. This tool helps both the learners to identify their learning strategies and encourage them to develop new ones and the instructors to learn their learners’ characteristics as learners, which in turn guides them while planning the lessons.

Learner strategy training may be provided in the form of an optional course that is offered to interested learners only, or it may be integrated into a language course. A further discrimination can be made between the two ways of developing skills and attitudes. The first option is to help learners develop strategies in an implicit way, and the other one is to

realize this in an explicit way with the conscious participation of the learners. Integrating responsibility development into the regular curriculum and teaching strategies to learners explicitly is an effective method for several reasons. First of all, it saves time. Secondly, there are always some learners who are not motivated to volunteer to attend a training course, which leads them to miss chances of developing autonomy. Moreover, explicit training encourages a collaborative spirit between the teacher and the learners (Scharle & Szabó, 2000). By integrating the strategies training into the regular classroom time – the curriculum –, the North School language program aims at helping learners develop strategies consciously. Furthermore, it has been recognized that learners' strategy use is an integral component of the self-regulated learning framework (Zimmerman 2001; Nota et al., 2004; Cleary 2006; Sperling et al., 2004), and the North School language program makes the opportunity to improve learning strategies available for all learners since learning to learn sessions take place in learners' regular class time. That is to say, the program attempts to contribute to the learners' self-regulatory learning processes. Another significant benefit of this practice is to help learners become aware of and identify the learning strategies that they may already use or could potentially use in the future in order that they can take greater control over their own learning. The learning styles and strategies inventory implemented in North School language program functions as a tool that helps learners identify and raise awareness towards their language learning styles and strategies. As Camilleri (1997) and Özdere (2005) conclude autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies; therefore, language learners must be encouraged to explore their learning strategies. To this end, learners studying at North School are encouraged to explore their language learning strategies and develop autonomy in this respect to a great extent.

East School

As one can easily understand from Table 13, the second foundation school's – East School – preparatory program mostly encourages learner autonomy in regard to selecting learning strategies. At the beginning of each academic year, new learners to study at preparatory school are provided with a chance to receive learner training. The learner training program consists of one-hour sessions, each of which has a different focus, such as reading, listening, writing, vocabulary, and speaking. The training program lasts for two weeks, and

the sessions are conducted with the aid of PPTs by voluntary instructors who have experience in learner training. During these sessions, learners are firstly encouraged to identify their current language learning strategies and share them with their peers. Besides, learners are introduced certain learning strategies and tips that they can use in order to learn and study English better and more effectively. These sessions help learners develop autonomy by means of providing them a chance to expand their repertoire of learning strategies. Moreover, they encourage learners to select and use a variety of strategies to improve their English in both in-class and out-class learning environments.

Assuming that adult learners come to educational contexts being equipped with necessary study skills and learning strategies would be a mistake (Galloway & Labarca, 1990). If a program is to encourage learners to take more responsibility for their learning and to become more autonomous learners, it must encourage them to develop the ability to use a wide range of learning strategies (Hedge, 2000; Simmons, 1996). Therefore, in order to help learners become aware of certain learning strategies and become autonomous, providing them with learner training would be an effective way because without learning strategies, learners will always be trapped in their traditional patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never develop full autonomy (Lee, 1998; Wenden, 1998). As it is clear from the findings, the East School preparatory language program provides learners with learning training sessions which encourage learners to identify and develop a wide range of learning strategies and to make use of these strategies in order to learn English in a better and more effective way. With the practice of providing learning training at school, the program creates chances for learners to extend their choice of strategic behaviors available to them and to expand their understanding of the contributions which strategies can make to their learning (Cotterall, 2000). Furthermore, learning strategies training can increase student motivation by increasing learners' confidence in their own learning ability in addition to providing learners with certain techniques to be successful in language learning. As a result, learners become more self-reliant and better able to learn independently (Chamot, Keatley, Meloni, Gonglewski & Bartoshesky, 2010). To conclude, learners studying at North School preparatory program are encouraged to become autonomous learners through selecting learning strategies stage.

West School

The preparatory language program evaluation of the West School has indicated that the program does not encourage English language learners to select appropriate learning strategies and develop new ones in their learning process. At West School learners are not introduced with the concepts of learning styles and strategies explicitly throughout the program. In addition, the program does not have any practices to raise learners' awareness towards the current strategies they use. The learners are provided with neither any learning styles and strategies inventories to realize that they may utilize certain strategies to learn more effectively nor any tasks that help them reflect upon their strategy use. The only way in which learners get a chance to familiarize with learning strategies or study tips is the study skills or tips parts of their course books.

Whereas most of the current course books have such parts as study skills, the effective use of these parts to help learners develop autonomy mostly depends on the attitudes of the instructors. The program of the West School does not ensure that all the instructors guide learners by emphasizing the use of various learning strategies and development of new ones through these classroom learning materials. As Scharle and Szabó (2000) suggest learning strategies can be said to serve as tools that improve a learner's "language competence", and if learners are expected to take responsibility for their competence, primarily they need to be aware of these tools. As a result, in order to equip our learners with these tools, we are supposed to show them various strategies available, help them to realize what works best for them, and help them to understand how and when they can use these strategies. In this way, they are led to explore and expand their own repertoire of abilities (p. 8). Moreover, strategy training, which means explicitly informing learners about how to apply language learning and language use strategies, can contribute to learners' efforts to reach language program goals since it encourages learners to discover their own ways to succeed. Therefore, it fosters learner autonomy (Cohen, 1998). However, West School learners do not receive training on language learning strategies. That is to say, they are not encouraged to develop autonomy through strategy use.

South School

Finally, as it is clearly seen in Table 13, South School preparatory program partly encourages learners to select learning strategies. At the beginning of each academic year, new learners attend an orientation session, and one component of this session includes informing learners about how to learn better and how to create chances to develop some learning strategies. Learners are presented some tips about how to learn English better through this part of the orientation session. The section about learning strategies is a very short one, and it only provides some key information in the form of nine tips that help learners learn English more easily. In addition, it has been found out that at East School preparatory program the learning strategies which learners are provided with information are mostly cognitive strategies.

According to Wenden (1998) “successful” or “expert” or “intelligent” learners in practice are the ones who have learnt how to learn. These learners have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge in a confident, flexible, appropriate and independent way. Therefore, they become autonomous learners (p. 15). In order to encourage learners to become autonomous learners, they must be given a chance to develop the ability to identify their preferred personal learning strategies (Conole et al., 2008; Macaro, 2008) and to employ suitable learning strategies (Hart, 2002; Voller, 2005). Regarding the South School language program, it can be concluded that the program partly encourages learners to be aware of their current strategy use and develop new ones through the mini session in orientation schedule. Even though the learners do not receive learner training, they are provided with a chance to realize how they can study or learn English better autonomously through the mini session in the orientation program.

Practice

Practice was the sixth stage of the self-directed learning framework, and the programs of the chosen universities have also been evaluated to find out whether they encourage learners to practise autonomously or not. The findings regarding the practice stage are shown in Table 14 below.

Table 14. Findings of the Stage “Practice”

Practice		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	✓	- <i>extracurricular activities, self-access centers, CALL, presentations, extensive reading</i>
East School	✓	- <i>extracurricular activities, CALL, presentations, extensive reading</i>
West School	✓	- <i>extensive reading, presentations</i>
South School	✓	- <i>CALL, extensive reading, presentations, self-access center</i>

North School

The findings from qualitative analysis of the program with a focus on the practice stage indicate that North School preparatory program mostly encourages learners to practise in an autonomous sense. During the implementation process of the North School language program, learners are provided with various chances to implement autonomously what they learn. The program ensures this mainly in the following ways:

1. Extracurricular activities
2. CALL
3. Self-access centers
4. Presentations
5. Extensive reading (graded readers and reading room)

To begin with, foreign language learners are encouraged to practise on their own terms through extracurricular activities. At North School, there is an extracurricular activities unit, and the events or the activities that the unit prepares are organized by a coordinator. This unit runs a special program in which the school hosts a group of native speakers from Canada or the United States of America for a semester. Every semester from five to ten native speakers of English come and stay in Ankara to work at preparatory language school, and they are given two main responsibilities. First of all, they are responsible for teaching in the usual schedule of the preparatory school. These classes are called as conversation classes, and in these classes the native speakers lead the activities during the classes, and the teachers do not intervene unless there is something inconvenient relating the classroom environment and behaviors. The content of these contact hours is prepared by these native instructors so as to make them varied, fun and communicatively effective. These classes provide learners with an authentic environment where they can interact with

both their peers and native speakers and they can write or read in English. In short, they provide an environment where learners can practise more independently as the teachers withdraw themselves and act as just guides when needed. In addition, these native speakers organize various student clubs, such as movie club, speaking club, dart club, table tennis club, glee club, dance club, cards club, board games club, and Turkish coffee cup reading and fortunetelling club. During these club gatherings taking place after lessons, learners experiment with the language by talking, listening, writing or reading and take risks by applying their knowledge outside the class. They have chances to activate their own knowledge, incorporate their new knowledge into their lives, communicate with others and share experiences through target language use. In order to make learners more familiar with these contexts and more motivated to participate in these activities, their attendance is graded only in the first term. Then, in the next terms learners are left completely free about their choice regarding whether to participate in these gatherings or not.

Although learners mostly seem to have the capability of relating certain subjects, such as mathematics or history to their lives outside the classroom context, they cannot obtain the same chance with the foreign language. Learners often regard the foreign language classroom as an isolated world, and they feel deprived of the opportunity to make use of the language in their daily lives and to incorporate it with their everyday experience (Bocanegra & Haidl, 1999; Guo, 2011). Nonetheless, creating opportunities for foreign language learning and practice outside the class is significant. In other words, out-of-class activities play a key role in learners' learning and success. To exemplify, it is reported in a study by Nunan (1989) that classroom instruction itself is not considered sufficient by a majority of the learners to develop their English competence, whereas out-of-class learning is considered to enhance their language development. In addition, since out-of-class activities relate to real life situations, they foster more authentic language usage and autonomy (Pearson, 2004). All these demonstrate the need for and significance of incorporating activities outside class for greater learning success. In the North School, by providing learners with chances to meet native speakers of English outside the class and to use the target language for communication in everyday life, the language program encourages learners to relate English with their everyday lives and to practise autonomously. These experiences help learners develop more competence and autonomy, increasing their success. Guo (2011) suggests that out-of-class activities can be devised in order to make learners realize that they are surrounded by chances to experiment with

English, and if they make some effort, they can become aware of the English language resources available to them outside the classroom. This awareness adds to the degree of learners' autonomy in learning. To this end, extracurricular activities run by native speakers of English are considered helpful to develop learner autonomy. In addition, when the native speakers lead the classes for practice, the classroom does not function as an isolated learning environment any longer. Moreover, this type of activities may be helpful for increasing their intrinsic motivation to learn more. Sharp, Pocklington and Weindling (2002) report that the learners who participate in outside class activities develop their metacognitive strategies, and their intrinsic motivation increases, which fosters the sense of autonomy in the learners.

Secondly, learners benefit from CALL to practise mainly vocabulary in addition to listening and speaking through authentic contexts. Through the online program called *English Central*, learners are assigned vocabulary, listening and speaking practice for the items covered in each unit of each book they use. In this language program, one contact hour is allocated for CALL each week. Learners bring their own laptops to classrooms, and they practice through online programs in class time. Besides doing practice through the assigned activities, learners also have a chance to choose as much and varied content as they wish to practice through the program. In addition to this program, all course books have online workbook components which supply a large number of extra activities. This helps learners to practice what they have learnt in class. While selecting resources, the curriculum development unit pays special attention to such qualities of learning materials.

Mutlu (2008) suggests that learners obtain opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning with an authentic audience through computers and the Internet. They are provided with a rich learning experience. In addition, CALL environments are beneficial for learner autonomy since they present not only independent learning experience but also interdependent learning experience in a sociable context. The North School preparatory program aims at enriching the learners' learning experience and providing them with more chances to practice autonomously by integrating CALL applications into their regular class time. Learners can continue practising outside class through these systems. To this end, learners studying at North School preparatory program are encouraged to develop their autonomy through meaningful practice provided by CALL environments.

Another important indication of providing encouragement for practice in a student-directed way at North School is the existence of self-access centers where learners can spend time practising out class. There are two self-access centers at North School Foreign Languages Department, and there is always a teacher at these centers to help learners with their work. Learners can reach various materials here to practise grammar, reading, listening and vocabulary according to their levels and learning needs. They can visit these centers after or before class time and benefit from all human and material resources considering their needs.

Self-access Centers play some major roles in the tertiary language learning process. One of these roles is a dual and super-ordinate role in fostering language learning in addition to encouraging the development of independent learning skills (Morrison, 2008). Since self-access centers provide learners with environments for more learning and practice, learners could develop autonomous learning skills and enhance their learning experience through self-access centers. As Sturtridge (1997) indicates, language acquisition is not a step-by-step linear process, and even though language is taught systematically, learners do not necessarily learn it in the same systematic way. Therefore, it is essential for learners to be able to access any type of language input so that they can further their own language learning. In relation with the North School, it can be said that learners are given a chance to continue their learning and practice what they have learnt by means of self-access centers. In other words, they are encouraged to develop their autonomous learning skills.

Presentations are another group of autonomy fostering practices that help learners practise at North School preparatory program. Each term learners make five-minute to ten-minute presentations on various topics, and they need to prepare for giving a talk on a topic chosen by themselves. Presentations can be associated with encouraging autonomy in several ways. One of the functions presentations serve relates to reading and taking notes in English while learners are preparing their presentations. Next, learners need to speak and listen to and answer their friends' questions if there are any while or after presenting in the class.

Presentations may become effective tools in giving learners responsibility. As Chan (2000) points out individual short talks help to foster learner autonomy in several ways. First of all, learners are made responsible for choosing their own topics in order that the topics they choose can be relevant and interesting. In addition, they need to look for texts from

different sources such as newspapers, journals, and the Internet. These sources serve as the basis of the talk. We can suppose that while both preparing for and making presentations, learners take an active role in these processes. They are the only responsible agents of organizing their research, content and other features. Learners' structuring their presentations in the way they like in accordance with their needs and abilities may be considered a way to empower them and make them more motivated to take responsibility. In addition, presentations help build a student-centered learning environment since the learners are given a voice and control, and mainly there is a student-to-student type of interaction throughout the lessons accompanied with withdrawal of the teachers. Finally and most importantly for this stage, learners benefit from presentations by obtaining a chance to experiment with the foreign language since they need to read, write, speak and listen in it. Considering all these functions of making presentations, it can be concluded that North School language program encourages development of learner autonomy through the use of student-generated presentations.

Lastly, learners are encouraged to do extensive reading through graded readers and a reading room at North School, which is an effective way of doing practice for learners out class. Each term learners have two reader quizzes, and they are supposed to read these books in order that they can succeed in quizzes. In addition, they have some post-reading portfolio tasks related to some of these readers. Learners practise the foreign language by improving their reading skills and vocabulary knowledge autonomously with the help of graded readers. Furthermore, the North School language school program allows teachers to take their learners to the reading room once in every two weeks so that they can have time to do some extensive reading and increase their motivation for and interest in extensive reading. In the reading room, learners can read comics, journals, newspapers, magazines, graded readers or novels. Through this practice learners are supplied with an environment in which they can read about texts they are interested in, and this may help them develop a reading habit and improve their reading skills in such a context autonomously.

"Extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 193). Learners read a large amount of text only for getting the gist and enjoying it. Bamford and Day (2002) provide ten principles of an extensive reading program. According to these principles, extensive reading is mostly done out class since learners read as much as they can. In addition, the purpose of reading

is usually related to taking pleasure or information. Therefore, learners determine what they want to read in accordance with their interests, and they are free to stop reading when the material is not interested for them. Moreover, reading activity is individual and silent since learners read at their own pace outside class.

As a result, learners are encouraged to develop good reading habits and develop a liking for reading through extensive reading (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). This increases the chances that learners practise by improving their reading skills or vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, as Pigada and Schmitt (2006) point out extensive reading is thought to facilitate learner autonomy since vocabulary learning and reading occur simultaneously. Last but not least, post-reading activities can be effective in some ways. According to Yu (1993), for instance, post-reading activities can reinforce what learners have learnt from their reading, which means they practise, and it can give learners a sense of progress, which is related to self-monitoring their own progress autonomously. In the North School, learners are encouraged to develop autonomy by being provided with post-reading tasks. All in all, the North School preparatory program fosters autonomy regarding practice stage with the help of graded readers and the presence of a reading room.

East School

As it is clearly seen in Table 14, the East School language program mostly encourages learners to practise what they have learnt in an autonomous way. Learners studying at East School preparatory program are given a chance to use and to experiment with the language mainly in the following ways:

1. Extracurricular activities
2. CALL
3. Presentations
4. Extensive reading (graded readers)

To begin with, learners are provided with an opportunity to practise in an autonomous sense through certain extracurricular activities. One group of extracurricular activities organized at this school involves student clubs. The learners joining the clubs are encouraged to experiment with the language by participating in various activities. The

student clubs include movie club, book club, poetry club, speaking club and music club. These clubs are run by mostly voluntary instructors, and the activities carried out are mostly determined by these instructors. Student clubs supply learners with environments to practise in meaningful ways. Learners use English as a medium without worrying about their performance. Another group of extracurricular activities consists of competitions, such as treasure hunt, general knowledge quizzes, essay writing competitions and vocabulary quizzes. Through these competitions, learners use the language in genuine environments, and they practise by writing, speaking, listening and reading. Debate and discussion sessions form the third group of extracurricular activities at East School. During these sessions, learners practise speaking and listening since the learners need to listen to the other group's arguments and justify theirs. Another group of extracurricular activities provided in this school is micro-teaching simulations that take place through video-conferencing between East School and a college in Canada. First of all, the instructors from the college are sent the syllabus of the East School preparatory school so that they could prepare micro-teaching sessions specifically designed for East School preparatory school learners. In each session, a virtual classroom where voluntary East School learners and Canadian student-teachers can meet is formed by means of these simulations. The class meets at a time that is prearranged by the two parties. These sessions last for four weeks, and two-hour sessions are arranged once a week. In these sessions learners are provided with an opportunity to practice certain language structures, vocabulary items, listening or speaking with the help of native speakers of English. Lastly, the learners in the East School are expected to participate in some civic projects so as to provide them with different learning experiences and foster their autonomy through extracurricular activities. Upon finishing their projects, learners are asked to present and share their experiences in English.

Learners studying a foreign language in their home countries often face the truth that when they leave the language classroom, they are rarely given opportunities to use the target language (Lee, Browne & Kusumoto, 2011). Therefore, it could be rather difficult for foreign language learners to obtain chances to practise what they have learnt in class. They may need some support and guidance in creating such chances to experiment with the language. It is vital that foreign language teachers and the program should encourage learners to participate in language learning activities outside the class or school as Altunay and Bayat (2009) suggest. East School preparatory program certainly provides learners

with chances to take part in outclass activities through student clubs and competitions organized by the school. In addition, the main goal of the learners enrolling in foreign language classes is to improve their performance of certain language tasks. As a result, the tasks provided by language programs for preparation, practice and feedback should replicate the ones in which learners will participate in the future. In other words, the tasks undertaken by learners in a foreign language learning environment need to either be a replication of real-world communicative tasks or provide rehearsal for such type of tasks. Having such a quality ensures that the language program is designed to foster learner autonomy (Cotterall, 2000). It can be seen that by creating chances for learners' participation in activities such as debates, competitions in various subjects and micro-teaching sessions, the East School language program aims at providing preparation and practice for learners for real-life experiences they can encounter in the future. This indicates that East School language program creates possibilities for fostering learner autonomy regarding practice stage. Learners are given both control of their learning and responsibility for taking initiatives. Furthermore, asking learners to undertake various extracurricular activities in a collaborative project results in improvements in terms of learner autonomy. Such activities may include carrying out extra tasks in relation to the topics covered in class or conducting project work. Learners taking part in this research study report that they enjoyed such extracurricular activities, and they are engaged in learning more actively with the help of these activities. Moreover, these learners developed more motivation and confidence since they collaboratively managed these processes on their own (Miller et al., 2005). When the micro-teaching sessions conducted by native speakers and the civic projects undertaken by East School upper level learners are considered, it can be concluded that the East School language program attempts to foster learner autonomy in various aspects. The learners attending micro-teaching simulation sessions gain opportunities to practise by carrying out extra tasks in relation to the topics they covered in class. Since the contents of the sessions are determined in accordance with the East School English language syllabus, the learners are exposed to activities that are designed to provide learners with extra practice for the same learning objectives of classes. Besides, learners taking part in civic projects can get a chance to develop their autonomy by working in collaboration outside the class and managing these processes independently. Since project-based learning lets learners move beyond the confines of a traditional English curriculum, it leads to greater motivation and confidence in learners (Foss, Carney,

McDonald, & Rooks, 2007). To sum up, the language program of East School encourages learners to take responsibility in regard to practice stage with various extracurricular activities.

Another indication showing that the East School language program encourages learners to practise autonomously is several CALL applications in the practice stage. The resources used at the school have supplementary online practice platforms which can be defined as learning management systems. The program ensures that the learning materials have online components so that learners can gain access to computer assisted language learning environments for extra practice when they need. The learners can practise in an active and self-directed way through these platforms.

Research studies suggest that (Healy, 1999; Murray, 1999; Littlemore, 2001; Schwienhorst, 2003; Sanprasert, 2010) computer-assisted language learning can provide facilitative opportunities for learners to develop learner autonomy. Sanprasert (2010), for instance, compares a computer-assisted learning approach to a traditional classroom environment. The study shows that learners studying in CALL environment believe their attitudes have changed, and they have become more autonomous, in contrast to those learners studying language in the traditional approach. That is to say, the role of CALL environments cannot be denied in terms of providing learners with chances to practise in an autonomous way. East School language program fosters learner autonomy by ensuring learners' access to online platforms in order to practise and build on what they have learnt in class.

Presentations consist of another group of autonomy fostering practices in the East School. Each term learners have many writing and speaking tasks that are evaluated as portfolio tasks. Three of these include presentations. Learners are supposed to make one individual and two group presentations in each term, and they document their presentations in their portfolios upon making their presentations in class. These presentations are mostly related to the topics covered in class. This way, learners can both practise what they have learnt in class and develop their autonomous skills by taking responsibility individually or as a member of a group.

Presentations can contribute to development of autonomy by encouraging learners to practise independently outside the class and to manage certain variables in their learning such as what, when and how of their learning. Griffiths and Keohane (2000) point out that

textbooks most often fail to involve learners; therefore, learners' learning should not be limited to the classroom with set textbooks and practice. Moreover, learners need to be able to acquire information available both inside and outside the classroom context (Field, 2007). To this end, learners are given a chance to move beyond the confines of their classrooms and involve in more meaningful practice with the help of presentations. While they are preparing for their presentations, they need to search for information resources available outside the class without depending only on their textbooks. In addition, to create a satisfactory learning product as a group, they need to learn how to manage their time, content of their work and the ways how they work to achieve their goals collaboratively. As indicated by Chan (2000), learning autonomously is a skill taking time to master. Therefore, in autonomous-based language programs, teachers should start with the more structured tasks before they move on to the more challenging ones. Short talks prepared as a group may form a good basis to increase learners' confidence and motivation in learning. Such group activities provide collaborative learning environments for learners to interact with each other. Additionally, learners are given a chance to initiate and make decisions through group work, and it gives them a greater sense of responsibility. In brief, by giving learners the responsibility of making presentations in class, the East School language program encourages the development of autonomy in practice stage.

Finally, East School learners are encouraged to develop autonomy regarding practice stage with the help of extensive reading. Each term learners take reader exams, and their performance in the exams is assessed in order to determine how effectively they read the books and how well they understood the readings they have done out of the classroom. To say, learners obtain a chance to practice outside the class without a teacher, which fosters their autonomy. As Brown (2012) points out learner autonomy apparently has strong links with extensive reading.

West School

The findings from qualitative analysis of the program with a specific focus on the practice stage show that the West School preparatory program partly encourages learners to practise in an autonomous way. At West School, the ways learners are given opportunities to practise autonomously are limited, and learners are provided with a chance to practise out of class through the following two main practices indicated below.

1. Extensive reading
2. Presentations

The first way in which learners are encouraged to practise autonomously is to assign them to do extensive reading with the help of graded readers. Each term learners in all levels are assigned to read two graded books in order that they could get satisfactory grades in their reader quiz. Learners read both of the books, and they are free to choose the one for which they would like to take a quiz. Upon taking the reader quiz they chose, their performance in the quiz is graded.

Nation (2001) argues that for some learners, especially for EFL learners, reading and using other resources could be the only practical options to improve their language outside the class. Likewise, Voller (2005) argues that extensive reading, along with project work and reflective journals, is among the most appropriate learning activities for learner autonomy enhancement. Moreover, with the help of extensive reading applications, teachers' roles shift from information providers to guides since they act as participants of a reading community (Day & Bamford, 1998). That is to say, extensive reading contributes to the development of learner autonomy, and by creating chances to read extensively West School language program encourages learner autonomy in practice stage.

Another way the West School language program encourages learner autonomy in practice stage is the presence of student-generated presentations. Learners prepare and make presentations on topics they choose. These presentations are regarded as speaking tasks. Through presentations learners at West School exercise responsibility and autonomy by making decisions because free choice may become a choice to relinquish a learner's autonomy over a specific stretch for a specific purpose (Dickinson, 1978). In addition, being autonomous often requires learners to work without a teacher, and presentations set ground for a learning environment in which learners can become independent of a teacher. To conclude, West School language program encourages learners to practise autonomously through presentations. Nonetheless, except extensive reading and presentations the West School language program does not attempt to encourage learners to develop autonomy in regard to practice stage through neither of the applications such as providing various extracurricular activities and self-access centers. To begin with, learners studying at West School are not encouraged to participate in any out-of-class or out-of-school activities to experiment with the target language. They are never given a chance to realize that they can

enhance their learning and practice process, and they can integrate their learning with their interests.

However, when they realize that immediate surroundings and activities may offer meaningful opportunities for themselves to learn English, learners may develop more interest and motivation towards learning (Pearson, 2004). Since learners are not provided with some extracurricular activities in their surroundings, they are deprived of the opportunity to develop interest, motivation and autonomy in their language learning process. Secondly, West School has not set up any self-access facilities in order that learners can benefit various resources according to their learning needs outside the class. Nevertheless, good self-access facilities are advocated in language learning for two main reasons. The pragmatic reason is “individualization” of learning, and the ideological reason is “promotion of learner independence” by helping learners take responsibility for their learning and develop some effective learning strategies (Sheerin, 1997, p. 55). Since the learners at West School are not provided the opportunity to use self-access facilities, they cannot benefit from the advantages of self-access centers such as individualizing their learning and developing autonomy.

South School

Lastly, the qualitative analysis of South School preparatory program reveals that the program mostly encourages learners to practise autonomously. Learners in the South School are provided with chances to put what they learn in class into practice mainly through the ways outlined below:

1. CALL (online components of the classroom resources and computer labs)
2. Self-access center
3. Extensive reading (followed by role-play activity or poster presentation)
4. Presentations

Firstly, learners studying at South School are provided with a chance to practise what they have learned in class through CALL applications. The resources they use are sold with some components that learners can practise outside the classroom. That is to say, the program integrates some ways into learners’ practice through the autonomous use of

CALL applications. Moreover, the South School preparatory program provides learners with chances to practise autonomously in two computer labs where learners can make use of software, such as games, videos and interactive activities. Learners can go to these labs after class and spend time doing practice. All learners are required to go to the labs at least ten times a term in order to get a grade, but a chance to attend more to do more practice there is always available for learners, and it is welcomed by the learners.

Benson (2011) indicates that new technologies allow learners to engage in out-of-class learning. However, as Ushioda (2014) suggests learners may not have the necessary degree of autonomy in terms of thinking strategically and developing knowhow so that they could realize how they can exploit their engagement with different everyday technologies creatively. They may fail to utilize these technologies in order to develop, practise and use their language skills. With the help of games, exercises, video activities and other types of interactive activities set up on the computers, South School learners are guided regarding how to exploit technologies for the benefit of their language learning. These learners are encouraged to practise and develop language skills creatively in an autonomous way through the computer labs available at their school for their use. On the other hand, learners have a chance to do practice through online components of their resources to learn more effectively and put what they learn into practice autonomously. Learners participating in the study conducted by Bitlis (2011) report that having a learning environment in which they could combine their in-class learning with some out-of-class activities motivates them to continue their language learning individually. As a result, it can be concluded that South School language program encourages learners to develop autonomy in regard to practice stage with the help of CALL.

Secondly, at South School there is a self-access center where learners could practise in the areas or skills in which they feel weak. At this center, they can reach various resources to practise grammar, vocabulary, reading and listening. Whenever they need guidance or any help with a particular area of the language, they can get assistance from the teachers or the student-teachers studying at the English Language Teaching Department of the university. Learners' visits to the self-access are graded to some extent at this school. However, they can benefit from the human and material resources in self-access center without being restricted.

In self-access centers, learners feel free to choose the materials they prefer, and they can control their own learning (Sheerin, 1989). Similarly, Aston (1993) believes that self-access centers could offer a variety of opportunities for learners such as spending time in a way they prefer for learning. Consequently, they exercise autonomy through this freedom of choice. Furthermore, Gardner and Miller (1999) maintain that “self-access is probably the most widely used and recognized term for an approach to encouraging autonomy”, and it is seen “as a way of encouraging learners to move from teacher dependence towards autonomy” (p. 8). Since the learners studying at South School are provided an opportunity to use the self-access for their own learning, they are encouraged to develop autonomy.

Another important indication of providing encouragement for practice in an autonomous way is to create chances for learners to do extensive reading. South School preparatory learners may have reader quizzes in one term, and the second term they may have to make poster presentations or do role-play activities based upon the graded readers they use for extensive reading. While carrying out these poster presentations or role-play activities, learners are given freedom to modify certain features of the stories in readers such as characters, time or place. In addition, they can prepare a film brochure for story they acted out. It can be said that learners’ autonomous reading practice is turned into a chance to do speaking, listening and writing practice through poster presentations and group role-play activities.

Post-reading tasks are supported by the output hypothesis. Swain (1993) holds the belief that even though comprehensible input creates a fundamental basis for language acquisition, it must be backed up by the production of comprehensible output if learners aim at achieving a high level of proficiency in the target language. It is argued that production tasks lead learners to realize features of the target language and to create and test hypotheses about the language. Group activities which may take place before, during, or after extensive reading practice increase learners’ proficiency and their interest in reading (McQuillan & Tse, 1997; Renandya, Rajan & Jacobs, 1999; Rodgers, 1997). Regarding the South School language program, we can draw the conclusion that the program presents certain conditions to foster learner autonomy. By assigning learners post-reading tasks through which learners can produce comprehensible output, the program supports the output hypothesis. As a result, learners improve their proficiency autonomously. In addition, practices such as making poster presentations about the readers

or doing role-play activities to act out certain parts of the books provide learners with chances to experiment with the language and to take risks, which is an important aspect of autonomy (Schwienhorst, 2007). Moreover, learners are given freedom of choice – autonomy – in how they prefer to use or implement their new knowledge by being given the right to determine the type of post-reading activities. Lastly, since the learners carry out these activities in groups, they develop interest in reading in addition to improving their proficiency in collaboration.

The last application that may be considered to encourage autonomy in practice stage is giving learners a chance to prepare and make presentations. At South School learners make two different presentations. One of the presentations can be related to any topic. The second type of presentation is called ESP presentation, and it can also be related to any topic. However, learners need to choose a topic among the subjects that they will study at their departments. To be more precise, they themselves determine the topics according to their academic needs and interests.

Reinders (2010) indicates that materials and activities used for practice are to encourage learners to explore ways to move beyond the confines of their pedagogic environment including the classroom, the self-access center and the school. This way, they can incorporate new knowledge into their lives. Similarly, Nunan (1997) points out that when learners reach the last stage in autonomy development, they are able to go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of their classroom learning and the world outside. At this stage, learners become teachers and researchers. Preparing presentations are good ways for learners to move beyond the borders of their typical learning environments and to experiment with the target language independently. They work outside the class to practise, and they take responsibilities for every step and detail of the preparation process. Therefore, we can say that South School language program encourages learners to exercise autonomy in terms of practice through presentations.

Monitoring Progress

The seventh stage in the framework was monitoring progress, and the research question related to this stage concerned whether the programs encourage learners to monitor their progress autonomously or not. All programs were evaluated with a focus on practices

helping learners monitor progress, and the findings regarding the monitoring progress stage are shown in Table 15 below.

Table 15. Findings of the Stage “Monitoring Progress”

Monitoring Progress		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	✓	- <i>peer-feedback, writing dossier</i>
East School	✓	- <i>reflection sheets</i>
West School	✓	- <i>LMS (DynEd)</i>
South School	X	

North School

The first school whose program was evaluated is North School, and the findings reveal that the North School language program partly encourages learners to monitor their progress in a student-directed way. The program necessitates learners to learn how to provide peer-feedback and help their friends monitor progress by giving regular feedback on their written work. After each writing is completed (a paragraph or an essay) learners need to read their peers’ writing and give feedback through checklists. In addition, North School learners keep writing dossiers in which they place their written products such as paragraphs and essays. These dossiers can clearly show their mistakes, corrections and revisions in their writings.

Peer-feedback is an obvious indicator of fostering learner autonomy, and in writing lessons, the North School preparatory school learners read their peers’ writings and give them feedback in regard to organization of the points, format, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. At the end of each writing part in their writing booklets is there a checklist to provide peer-feedback for their friends’ writings. At North School, learners get a chance to monitor their own progress through peer-feedback without depending on the teacher.

Moreover, documenting writings in the format of a portfolio or dossier fosters autonomy in regard to monitoring progress. Organizing pieces of writing in a portfolio is significant since learners could monitor their progress and see how the portfolio has helped them improve as a writer (Durak Ügüten, 2009). This collection of writings can document learners’ performance as they include the signs of what student can achieve. They can be considered evidence of learners' own growth giving learners a chance to monitor what and

how they have achieved (Murray, 1994). To sum up, North School program encourages learners to develop autonomy in terms of monitoring progress with the help of writing dossier practice.

East School

The findings reveal that the East School language program partly encourages learners to monitor progress autonomously. At this school, learners in all levels are regularly given forms which are specifically designed for the units of the course books. This form is titled as production guidelines. Through these production guidelines, learners are asked to reflect upon what they have learnt in the unit they have just covered. Learners receive these forms upon completing a unit, and they are expected to fill in the forms individually by thinking critically about what they have learnt in that specific unit from various aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, speaking, listening, writing and reading. They keep these forms in their portfolios, which is a good practice to observe their progress in language learning in an autonomous way.

Learners could gain deeper insights into their learning processes when they keep written accounts of their work and their reflection on them (Gardner & Miller, 1999). Therefore, by filling in such reflection sheets as production guidelines and keeping them in their portfolios, learners become able to observe their own progress more consciously. This way, learners do not have to depend on the teachers and the tests to monitor their own growth. They realize their own gains, successes and failures by reflecting on the contents of the units without expecting feedback only from the teachers or exams as it happens in traditional learning contexts. Similarly, Shen (2011) points out that teachers could encourage language learners to keep learning reports to ask themselves questions such as: “How am I doing? Am I having difficulties with this task?” and so on. Keeping learning reports is an effective way for learners to monitor their own learning processes and evaluate their own learning progress. By recording these reports learners can reflect on their strong and weak points. When learners are equipped with the habit of keeping reports throughout their learning processes, they will probably take more responsibility in their own learning and become more willing to exercise autonomy in language learning (p. 31). The reflections sheets provided at East School can be regarded as learning reports Shen (2011) mentions. That is, we can conclude that East School language program encourages

learner autonomy regarding monitoring progress stage with the help of self-monitoring reflection sheets distributed after each unit. Learners are expected to take more responsibility in their language learning.

West School

As one can easily understand from Table 15, the West School language program partly encourages its learners to develop autonomous skills through monitoring progress stage. According to the findings of program evaluation, West School learners are required to use a learning management system as it was mentioned before in the practice stage findings section. The name of the program is DynEd, and it offers English courses for various types of learners. At this school, DynEd functions as a learning tool that helps learners both plan their learning and monitor their progress autonomously. Learners make use of the system outside the class, and they are provided with feedback for their successes and failures in addition to guidance for what they need to work on more and how. This learning management system is presented to the learners as an option both to reinforce their learning taking place in the class and to cater for their individual needs or weaknesses. It is a tool creating an environment in which learners can test their progress on their own, see results and take action accordingly.

Hamilton (2013) suggests that the introduction of technology into a learning context can provide learners with opportunities to exploit their capacity for becoming independent learners and exhibiting language behavior beyond the constraints of their traditional learning environment. As for West School learners, they can be said to be provided with opportunities to exercise autonomy and expand their learning contexts to outside the class through DynEd. They receive feedback about their learning from a source different from their teachers/instructors. This is a chance to develop autonomy by monitoring their progress. Additionally, learning management systems, blogs, discussion forums, and wiki environments are favored by learners since these platforms promote learners' reflections on their learning, their interactions and motivation (Dang, 2012). Moreover, distance learning tools allow learners to take control of their own learning processes, which means they help learners develop autonomy (Benson, 2011). All in all, since the LMS DynEd provides West School learners with feedback about their learning performance and helps

them take control over their learning, it encourages learners to develop autonomy in regard to monitoring progress stage.

South School

Lastly, South School preparatory program was evaluated in regard to encouraging development of learners' autonomous skills to monitor their progress. It is revealed that South School preparatory program does not encourage learners to monitor their progress in a student-centered way. To illustrate, a significant indicator of fostering autonomy through monitoring progress is to create chances for learners to reflect upon their both successes and failures in language learning. Nevertheless, learners at South School are not provided an opportunity to reflect upon their learning performance with neither of the practices such as keeping learning diaries, blogs, using LMS or giving peer-feedback. Their progress is monitored in the traditional way of doing mini-tests and other assignments.

Assessment and Revision

Assessment and revision is the last stage of the self-directed learning framework, and the research question concerning this stage is whether the language programs encourage learners to develop autonomy through making assessment and revision. The findings of program evaluation regarding the assessment and revision stage are shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Findings of the Stage "Assessment and Revision"

Assessment and Revision		
Schools	Included?	Description
North School	✓	- <i>portfolio implementation (encouraging revision)</i>
East School	✓	- <i>portfolio implementation (encouraging assessment and revision)</i>
West School	X	
South School	✓	- <i>portfolio implementation (encouraging revision)</i>

North School

The findings from the qualitative analysis of the program indicate that the North School preparatory program partly encourages learners to make assessment and revision in an autonomous way. At North School learners in all levels need to keep portfolios throughout

each term, and different portfolio tasks are designed by the curriculum development unit for learners studying in each module considering learners' level of English, their interests and needs. Learners' portfolio performance is graded out of different rubrics, and portfolio grades affect learners' term grades. The way in which portfolio is implemented at North School makes it an instrument used for revision rather than assessment. It fosters learners' autonomy regarding revision, but not assessment. Learners' portfolios in the North School include a varying number of portfolio tasks, all the writings and their revised versions learners produce during a term, flash cards, vocabulary notebooks or mini-dictionaries that learners can display their vocabulary learning, and any other type of products they want to document.

To begin with, portfolio tasks promote revision at North School. By compiling all the tasks carried on by themselves, learners possess dossiers that summarize their work. It acts as evidence of their learning, and they can benefit from the evidence by going over their learning experiences. The portfolio tasks assigned at North School can be considered activities which help learners revise their both receptive and productive skills accompanied with various language forms and aim at increasing learners' motivation and interest towards language learning by ensuring that learners conduct their tasks in enjoyable ways benefitting technologies, creativity or group work. For instance, in one of the speaking tasks, learners are required to make spontaneous oral production. They make comments about some pictures, chosen by the teachers or the learners themselves, and talk about them by addressing their own lives, habits, likes and dislikes. They conduct this task through a website named www.voicethread.com. In this platform, all learners can record their comments and notify their teachers. Besides, all the learners in a class can listen to others' comments and share their ideas about their friends' comments. For another task, learners in pairs or groups need to create an imaginary product which does not exist currently and shoot videos in which they promote and advertise their imaginary products. In order to complete another task, learners choose a special photograph that belongs to them. They describe and write about these photographs addressing details such as people, events, place, time, or their feelings by using mainly past tense and past continuous tense structures. As it can be understood clearly, the portfolio tasks assigned at this school are designed to be fun activities which learners can revise their learning, develop interest in and motivation towards English language learning through various sources. Since the learners are not given any self-assessment/peer-assessment worksheets or they are not

required to fill in/write self-reports for their own tasks or reports for their peers' tasks, portfolio implementation does not promote making assessment autonomously. Learners never assess their work through self-assessment tools such as can do lists, activities checklists or reflection forms or essays.

Portfolios help North School learners revise what they have learnt. Learners' memory and command of previous learning is reinforced and more out-put of foreign language is facilitated by means of revision. Learners can gain deeper insights into their used strategies, and they can realize the need to evaluate their goals and outcomes continuously (Shen, 2011). In addition to this, when learners document their learning process and products in logbooks or portfolios, their awareness for evaluation is enhanced, which is significant for learner autonomy (Dam, 1995).

Moreover, learners place their written work that they produce in their writing courses in their portfolios. All drafts and final versions of their writings are included in the portfolios. Through such type of a collection, learners may revise what they have done in their writing course during the term and see their mistakes, corrections, and how their writing ability has improved. On the other hand, this collection cannot be called as a writing portfolio which gives learners a chance to make self-assessment. A writing portfolio requires learners to select the best works they have completed throughout a specific period of time. In addition, learners need to reflect upon their writing skills both at the beginning and at the end of their portfolios by writing reflective essays. Through these essays, learners can both assess the products in their portfolios and reflect on the development of their writing skills throughout the course (Durak Ügüten, 2009). Therefore, it can be concluded that keeping written work in a portfolio does not necessarily encourage autonomy regarding assessment. North School learners are encouraged only to revise their learning through this component of the portfolios.

Furthermore, learners place some flash-cards, their vocabulary lists, or mini-dictionaries (which may also be illustrated) into their portfolios, which is helpful for learners in revising these items and seeing how much vocabulary knowledge they have acquired throughout the term. In addition, encouraging learners to keep a vocabulary notebook in a way that they prefer means helping them discover and use various vocabulary learning strategies. Development of these strategies both fosters learner autonomy and increases student success (Aslan, 2009; Aydemir, 2007; Gökgöz, 2008; Torun, 2010).

East School

The second foundation university whose program was evaluated is East School. The findings indicate that the language program of East School mostly encourages development of learner autonomy regarding assessment and revision. As mentioned earlier in the findings part for the needs analysis stage, the East School learners keep a learning portfolio throughout each term. This learning portfolio is an effective tool for learners to revise what they have done or learnt all through the term. In addition, the program promotes assessment by means of the reflection and self-evaluation sheets provided for portfolio tasks.

Since the East School language program mainly emphasizes development of productive skills, learners do not use a mainstream course book. Therefore, they use books designed for reading, writing, listening and speaking classes. Consequently, the portfolio tasks are designed in accordance with the objectives/outcomes of learners' writing and speaking courses. In two weeks of time, only one unit is covered in each book. The speaking and writing tasks which learners need to complete in each unit are modified into learning portfolio tasks. Learners' performances in two of the speaking tasks in their portfolios are separately evaluated in order that teachers can assess learners' speaking skills. The rest of the tasks are scored out of portfolio grades.

While carrying out their portfolio tasks, learners are required to fill in reflection sheets. These sheets are given both before and after the learners do their tasks. By filling in pre-task reflection sheets, learners have chances to become aware of the objectives of each unit regarding writing and speaking. In addition, they are expected to evaluate themselves through these sheets and see how much of the contents of the units they already know or how many of the objectives they can already meet. This carries them into a mental preparation process for learning experience they are going to have in each unit. Upon doing their tasks, they are also required to fill in post-task reflection sheets. Through these sheets, learners are given an opportunity to assess their learning in each unit addressing significant components such as vocabulary items, and writing or speaking objectives/skills. To illustrate, a student mentions the words he has learnt in the unit and in order to prove it is real learning or he can assess himself, he explains how he used these words in his written or spoken production required by the task. He reflects upon his learning by answering questions such as 'Do you think your learning was effective?' or 'What did you find

difficult to learn or do in this unit?’ This way, learners can both revise what they have learnt in each unit and assess their learning autonomously. Furthermore, learners can get continuous feedback for their writings with the help of portfolio since feedback is one of the most indispensable features and benefits of keeping a portfolio. Feedback helps learners realize their mistakes and improve their learning. While correcting their mistakes, learners revise what they need to be able to achieve. All in all, East School learners are encouraged to exercise autonomy regarding assessment and revision through the way in which the learning portfolio is implemented in language program.

Self-assessment is crucial because one can experience self-initiated learning by evaluating his own learning, and self-initiated learning fosters taking responsibility of learning. Through self-assessment, learners are encouraged to be involved in critical reflection on their current abilities with respect to their learning goals. To this end, self-assessment can be regarded as a form of learner training which empowers the learner (Raya & Fernandez, 2010). Many educators (Bachman, 1990; Gipps, 1994; Lefrancois, 1997; Rolheiser, 1996) propose that portfolio assessment can be applied as an alternative to the traditional method of assessment, and a great number of researchers put emphasis on the relationship between learner autonomy and self-assessment tools such as portfolios, self-reports, diaries, self-evaluation sheets, journals, and an activities checklist (Chamot, 2005; Chen, 2008; Chuk, 2004; Cotterall, 1995; Cotterall, 2000; Genesee & Upshur, 1996; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Little, 1997; Lopez-Fernandez & Rodriguez-Illera, 2009; Murphy, 2008; Thanasoulas, 2000). Since portfolios provide evidence of what learners know, assume, and are able to do in their learning processes, they are desired tools for evaluating language learning (Öztürk & Cecen, 2007). Moreover, portfolios can be considered ideal tools for encouraging learner autonomy because of their flexibility (Banfi, 2003). All above-mentioned qualities indicate that portfolios can be used as self-assessment and revision tools which encourage learners develop autonomous skills. Similarly, East School program implements portfolio in a way that learners are given responsibility for evaluating their own learning and revising what they learn. East School language program fosters learners’ autonomy regarding assessment and revision through portfolio implementation.

West School

As it is shown in Table 16, language program in the West School does not encourage learners to develop autonomy regarding assessment and revision stage. As known, West School is a state school, and implementing formative forms of assessment brings burdens for both learners and teacher. Requiring learners keep portfolios is not manageable since there are excessive numbers of learners studying in the preparatory program. It is known that sometimes fifty or sixty learners have to attend English courses in the same classes. Therefore, managing a process-oriented assessment system is regarded as a utopia in such a learning environment. Additionally, since the learners change levels and their classes every seven weeks, these quarters are not considered to give learners enough time so that they can gather their learning experiences in a dossier, get feedback, reflect upon them, monitor progress and make self-assessment. To say, West School program cannot help learners benefit from portfolio implementation due to some time, physical, and managerial constraints. Therefore, learners are not given chances to revise and assess their learning autonomously through portfolios, can do lists, self-assessment worksheets and so on.

South School

The last school whose program was evaluated to see whether it encourages learners to make assessment and revision in an autonomous way is South School. The results show that South School preparatory program partly encourages learners to make assessment and revision. At South School, learners are encouraged to make mainly revision by means of compiling their writings in a dossier. Apart from keeping their in-class writings, learners are not given any opportunities to make self-assessment or to make reflection on evaluation of their performance. South School program implements portfolio in a way that is unique to this school. The portfolio items included in the program are namely in-class participation, computer lab studies, CALL practices, dossier of in-class writings, presentations, extensive reading tasks and study-packs provided by the Curriculum and Materials Development Unit. The school names each of these practices as portfolio quiz; nevertheless none of these practices except dossier of in-class writings foster learner autonomy regarding assessment and revision stage. These portfolio items do not give responsibility to the learners so that they could obtain chances to assess their learning either individually or with the help of their peers, nor they give learners control to make

revisions autonomously. Study packs are particularly aimed at providing learners chances to take responsibility to revise what they have learnt in-class; however, revising learning through study packs cannot be differentiated from other traditional ways of making revision such as doing mini-tests or doing workbook assignments. This practice does not encourage learners revise what they learn in an autonomous way.

Therefore, it can be said that South School language program fosters learner autonomy regarding revision only with the help of in-class writings. If learners document at least four of the writings that they produced in class in the format of a dossier or folder, these writings can be evaluated and graded as one of the portfolio quizzes. Through this practice, learners are encouraged to keep a collection of their written work so that they can keep record of their learning and see their improvement. Whenever they would like to revise their writing skills they developed in the course or their knowledge in written production, they can refer to their in-class writings folder.

The learning process in which learners keep ongoing records of their own work not only engages them more, but it also helps them realize where they started and the progress they have made toward the learning goals without evaluating their performance only with grades. Moreover, this type of application helps learners understand their own learning better since it can be regarded as evidence of their classroom work. (Durak Ügüten, 2009).

All in all, portfolio implementation in this school distinguishes itself to a great extent from the usual way of implementing learning portfolio. When the portfolio activities learners are expected to conduct are considered, it can be clearly seen that they do not benefit learners in making assessment and revision autonomously. Still, we can draw the conclusion that encouraging learners to form a dossier of their in-class writings foster autonomy regarding making revision.

Findings from the Content Analysis of the Interviews

In this section of the chapter, the results of the content analysis of the interviews with the instructors are presented and discussed. Five voluntary instructors from each university were interviewed to collect data regarding their beliefs and perceptions about learner autonomy in addition to the focus on learner autonomy in preparatory language programs followed in their schools. The instructors were asked to evaluate the programs conducted at

their schools in terms of encouraging the development of learner autonomy. In the data analysis, the content analysis technique was used. The transcripts of the interviews were coded by the researcher herself by means of looking for repetitive patterns. The second research question of the study is given below:

2. What are the perceptions of EFL instructors about the encouragement of autonomy in the programs?

The findings from the content analysis of the interviews will be presented and discussed school by school. Each instructor was asked four questions; therefore, the results will be given under sub-headings illustrating the questions.

North School

North School is the first foundation university where we conducted interviews with EFL instructors regarding their perceptions of learner autonomy and the program run in their preparatory school.

Perceptions about LA

The first question in the first part of the interview concerns the definition of learner autonomy. The findings from the content analysis of the data provided for the first question of the interviews indicate that learner autonomy means giving learners freedom and control over their own learning. In addition, the North School instructors believe that learner autonomy is learners' ability to take responsibility of their own learning by means of setting goals, identifying their strengths and weaknesses, and determining what and how of their learning. Another common theme present in the data is related to one's making decisions about his/her learning situation. Moreover, one of the instructors states that learner autonomy can be defined as a "change of roles" between the learners and the teacher, and the culture in which the learners have grown up has an important role in this process.

When we consider the North School's instructors' beliefs and perceptions about learner autonomy, we can conclude that they are aware of the meaning of the concept of autonomy in learning context, and the definitions they provided for learner autonomy are consistent

with the definitions provided in the literature. As in the definition by Holec (1981, as cited in Benson, 2011) autonomy is taking charge of one's own learning, and it entails having the responsibility for all the decisions that concern all aspects of the learning, such as identifying objectives, determining the content, and selecting the techniques to be used. The instructors mention these aspects while describing what learner autonomy means to them. Additionally, as Little (1991) proposes, learner autonomy is seen as a capacity for decision-making and independent action. Moreover, the point made about the changing roles of both instructors and learners deserves attention since the negotiation and cooperation between teachers and learners play a key role in autonomous learning. Scharle and Szabo (2000) propose a three-stage model to encourage development of learner autonomy, and the final stage in the model is "transferring roles" (p. 9). In this final stage, learners are able to control their learning process fully and evaluate it; nonetheless, they still need teachers' help in terms of instructions and support. Therefore, while learners begin to take their own responsibility for their own learning, teachers do not abandon all responsibility. A redistribution of decision-making rights between learners and teachers takes place. Both parties change their roles in this learning/teaching process that aims to foster learner autonomy. Voller (1997) reviews the literature on teacher roles in autonomous learning and reduces these to three as facilitator, counselor, and resource (as cited in Benson, 2011). That is to say, fostering autonomy requires a change in learner/teacher roles. Finally, the relationship between learner autonomy and learning culture is emphasized, and it is believed that the definition and interpretation of autonomy varies from culture to culture. Moreover, there is a significant relationship between the learners' culture of learning and their readiness for learner autonomy as the literature suggests. The extent of exposure to autonomous activities in the high schools in which the learners studied influences their subsequent perceptions and behaviors related to learner autonomy (Karabıyık, 2008). All in all, it could be concluded that North School EFL instructors are informed about the concept and various aspects of learner autonomy, and their perceptions show consistency with the recent literature on learner autonomy.

Perceptions about Fostering LA

The second question asks instructors to state what they do as an English instructor in order to foster learner autonomy in and out of the classroom. The findings reveal that instructors

find it important to encourage learner autonomy by means of both in-class and out-class activities. They believe that learners must be introduced to the concept of becoming autonomous and responsible for their learning especially at the beginning of each term. Moreover, findings indicate that reflection, goal setting, feedback, and independent out-class activities are four common patterns mentioned in the data. The instructors state that they encourage their learners to reflect upon their learning processes mainly through keeping diaries/journals or writing reflections about their learning styles, strengths and weaknesses and their responsibilities in this process. In addition, the instructors emphasize the significance of learners' setting goals for themselves in order that their learning could be more purposeful and meaningful. Two of the instructors exemplify how they encourage personal goal setting by saying:

Ins.3: *"I want my students to understand the importance of setting goals for themselves in learning English (goals other than passing TOEFL with 500)"*.

Ins.4: *"I try to let them set their own goals and during teaching I try to focus on the real reasons of learning the target language"*.

As it is clear, the instructors report that they attempt to foster learner autonomy by means of goal setting. Another pattern concerns the belief that providing feedback to the learners and counseling about the progress they have made is significant. Finally, learners are encouraged to do some out-class learning activities including watching movies/TV series or videos, independent reading through graded readers or magazines and listening to songs by keeping the lyrics and pronunciation of the words in mind. The instructors believe that such activities chosen by learners themselves according to their own interests enhance learning and provide meaningful and authentic context for learning.

Making reflection is one way of planning, monitoring and evaluating one's own learning autonomously (Reinders, 2010; Little, 2006). Likewise, learner autonomy can be regarded as a capacity for critical reflection (Little, 1991) which enriches and deepens one's own learning. Therefore, it could be understood that the North School instructors are well-aware of the close relationship between reflection and autonomy, and they believe that learners must be encouraged to develop a capacity for reflection in order to become more autonomous. It is certainly an effective method to foster learner autonomy. Moreover, the instructors focus on the importance of goal-setting. As it is indicated before, personal goal-setting is helpful for learners in that it increases motivation, performance, self-efficacy and

self-regulation (Boekaerts, 2002; Kennett & Keefer, 2006; Reinders, 2010; Schunk, 2003). Furthermore, giving learners feedback about their progress is a teacher-based approach to fostering learner autonomy since the teacher is considered to have roles as counselor and advisor (Benson, 2011). The instructors working at North School believe in the necessity of acting as a counselor who listens to learners while self-monitoring and gives feedback and advice to them in order to foster their autonomy. Lastly, as Breen and Mann (1997) suggest autonomous EFL learners can learn independently by making use of out-of-class resources. The literature suggests that learning taking place outside the class through extracurricular activities, one of which is extensive reading, plays a key role in fostering autonomy. It provides learners a chance to be exposed to authentic language, to relate what they learnt to real life and to practise. Learners become more motivated and self-confident when they deal with out-class activities (Altunay & Bayat, 2009; Guo, 2011; Pearson, 2004; Miller, et al, 2005). Similarly, the North School EFL instructors believe that learners should be encouraged to do some learning activities outside the class in accordance with their interests to feel more motivated and to practise independently.

Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA

The third question focuses on what the instructors think certain factors that may hinder the development of learner autonomy are. The findings show that the two main factors are learners' cultural background and the program being conducted.

To begin with, the instructors believe that the cultural backgrounds of the learners prevent them from developing autonomy in their learning processes. In terms of cultural background, the instructors mention both familial and educational factors. They state that families are responsible for learners' lack of autonomy. One instructor makes the explanation below regarding familial influence:

Ins.3: "Families do not give enough responsibilities to their children for their learning. They interfere in their educational life so much that students cannot develop self-autonomy. Families even choose their children's majors or universities themselves, leading to students' lack of motivation and being passive in taking responsibility for their education process".

Moreover, it is believed that perceptions of the learners about schools and educational system are among the cultural factors hindering the development of learner autonomy. The learners are very much dependent on teachers and mostly stay passive in the course of their educational lives in Turkey. One of the instructors indicates that:

Ins.1: Learners *“expect the school as a place to get tamed if it is appropriate to say, and the teachers as tamers”*.

Additionally, the instructors state that Turkish educational system is rather exam-oriented, and this inevitably affects the learner profile in their school. The relationship between exam-oriented educational system and the lack of autonomy in learners is explained by the instructors as given below:

Ins.3: *“Turkish education system is so exam-oriented, and there are so many external factors contributing to success (such as private institutions specially designed to prepare students for the university exam) in such a system that students do not develop any internal reasons to be successful. That is why, they depend too much on their families or teachers to achieve success”*.

Ins.5: *“When a learner is not voluntary, the practices are inefficient most of time. The students are very exam-oriented, and most of them are not here to learn English, but to be able to pass an exam in order to be placed in their departments. ... They want to be spoon-fed everything; thus, they have a very passive role in their learning process”*.

The program run in the school is considered the second main factor hindering the development of learner autonomy. The instructors think that the program does not allow teachers to become flexible in teaching because of several reasons illustrated below:

Ins.2: *“I think the main factor is the program’s being fast and overloaded. Both the teachers and the students feel exhausted and always in a rush to catch up with the pace”*.

Ins.5: *“I believe that we have a very guided system of instruction. Naturally, when we do not have teacher autonomy, we cannot really have student autonomy. ... It seems like the institution has made a decision to keep everybody in uniform”*.

Therefore, it could be concluded that the EFL instructors of the North School attribute the lack of autonomy to the institutional factors, specifically the program. They believe that the program is not flexible enough to provide chances for learners in order that they can get engaged in personal learning objectives with the help of their instructors. Moreover,

learners may not find time for extra-curricular activities because of certain factors like time, load, pace and the administrative pressure on the instructors not to include teaching/learning practices if they are not already integrated into the program for all learners' use or benefit.

The literature suggests that culture and the educational contexts of teachers and learners are closely interrelated with learner autonomy (Benson, 2001; Gremmo & Riley, 1995; Koçak, 2003; Littlewood, 1999; Littlewood, 2000; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003; Reinders, 2000). For instance, Karabıyık (2008) points out that learners' previous learning experiences regarded as culture of learning should be taken into account in any attempts to promote learner autonomy. Moreover, Ins.3 believes that family culture – national culture – is one of the factors that do not allow learners to develop autonomy. Ho and Crookall (1995) suggest that learner autonomy is actualized within specific cultural contexts. Therefore, “the culturally-constructed nature of the classroom setting” plays a key role in choosing the types of skills and knowledge to develop autonomy and identifying the procedures or methods to be used to encourage learners to develop skills for autonomy in that specific culture (pp. 236-237).

The nature of the program is the second factor mentioned by the instructors. In the study carried out by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012), teachers strongly believe that institutional factors such as the curriculum hinder the extent to which they could promote learner autonomy in their schools. It is suggested that teachers feel hindered by a full curriculum in which content and assessment are centrally defined and have no flexibility. They complain about the prescribed curricula they have to follow and materials they have to use. The instructors in the North School have the same concerns. They believe that a program which does not give them flexibility is one of the main factors hindering the development of learner autonomy.

Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program

The last question in the interview asks the instructors to share their ideas about the adaptations that they think must be made in the program in order to foster learner autonomy. The instructors believe that the development of learner autonomy is not something only within the control of the program run in the school, but much more

dependent on the learner factors and their background. The answers provided by the two instructors reflect this belief clearly.

Ins.1: *“It is not just the program or the teachers that have the magical power to foster LA”.*

Ins.4: *“It is a bigger issue for our country to be solved in earlier years of education. If the student does not come to school to learn, practise and think, then learning becomes a procedure to be followed and like a burden for them”.*

On the other hand, the instructors suggest that it is possible to make some improvements in the program to foster learner autonomy even though the current learners studying at the school have brought some characteristics they had in their earlier educational life. The main adaptations proposed by the North School instructors to be made in the program are improving the learning to learn module along with the portfolio tasks and modifying the program into a more flexible one including various activities. The suggestions of two different instructors are presented below:

Ins.2: *“... we have this learning to learn module. I think it is very beneficial, and it should be improved. ... portfolio tasks can be restructured in a way to improve learner autonomy. For example, one part of the portfolio can be writing reflections”.*

Ins.3: *“... with the portfolio tasks ... we try to foster learner autonomy. However, there might be more sessions where we can talk with students about developing autonomy”.*

The examples of the suggestions regarding the modification of the program into a more flexible one are as follows:

Ins.4: *“In our current program, other than exam-oriented activities, we should make use of the communicative side of English ... and a more flexible program in which students can find a break to improve their self-evaluation or advancement techniques”.*

Ins.5: *“There used to be activities based on a TV series here. ... Such activities really grab students’ attention, it is authentic material. ... Maybe, such things regarding authentic English can be encouraged formally to be applied outside the classroom, as well”.*

East School

East School is the second foundation university where interviews were carried out with EFL instructors regarding their perceptions of learner autonomy and the language program followed in their preparatory school.

Perceptions about LA

The two patterns identified during data coding are taking responsibility and learning to learn. The instructors state that they believe learner autonomy is taking responsibility of one's own learning. Learners have control over their learning process, share responsibility with teacher and feel motivated to take initiative in their learning. In addition, they believe learner autonomy means learning to learn. Learners have self-awareness in terms of determining how they learn and practise better.

As the literature suggests, learner autonomy is taking charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1981, as cited in Benson, 2011). The main feature of autonomy is that students can take some responsibility for their own learning both over and above responding to instruction (Boud, 1988). Therefore, learners do not remain passive in their learning process only by receiving instruction, and they are willing to take active part in this process. Moreover, it is suggested in the literature that developing learner autonomy is linked with learning how to learn. Cotterall (1995b), for instance, points out that autonomy is "the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning" (p. 195). Learners use a set of tactics to manage their learning and improve their learning skills. Likewise, Kumaravadivelu (2003) mentions a narrow view of autonomy and suggests that the main goal of learner autonomy is to learn to learn. To sum up, as it is clear from the findings, the East School EFL instructors' perceptions of autonomy are in line with the definitions suggested in the literature.

Perceptions about Fostering LA

The three most occurring themes in the data for the second question are encouraging portfolio use and out-class learning activities in addition to giving options to learners and asking for their preferences. To begin with, the East School EFL instructors believe in the

usefulness of learner portfolio in terms of fostering learner autonomy. Some examples of the responses are provided below.

Ins.1: *“Portfolio guidelines (before writing the writing task)”*.

Ins.4: *“I make students keep learner portfolios”*.

Additionally, the instructors state that they attempt to promote learner autonomy through some out-class activities mainly aiming for improving listening and reading. They believe that learning opportunities available outside the school are influential on developing autonomy. Some parts of the answers provided by the instructors are given below.

Ins.2: *“I also try to carry learning outside the classroom activities by providing interactive, meaningful and enjoyable learning opportunities and making them available for learners to make use of”*.

Ins.3: *“I especially promote reading out of classroom by giving students resources and lead them to the some useful websites for it. Another field that I encourage students to improve is listening skill. I recommend some websites ... ”*.

Ins.5: *“I want them to read the books they choose or watch the films they want”*.

The last point made by the instructors regarding fostering learner autonomy is giving learners choices or asking for their preferences in various areas such as the topics for speaking tasks. One of the instructors indicates that:

Ins.2: *“I ... pay attention to their preferences and solutions for things that can be altered ranging from the deadlines to topics they would like learn and speak about more even the patterns of grouping”*.

Ins.5: *“As for speaking tasks in the classroom they are free to choose their topic...”*.

Just as the literature suggests (Dam, 1995; Durak Üğüten, 2009; Everhard, 2006; Shen, 2011; Yıldırım, 2013), the instructors believe that if learners keep portfolios, this promotes their autonomy. Portfolios are helpful since they provide chances for learners to set goals, make reflection, plan and monitor their learning and practise. Moreover, out-class activities are considered important for fostering learner autonomy since they help learners improve their language skills independently. This may give them the sense that they can regulate their learning outside the school context. These learning opportunities can be more meaningful and motivating for learners (Guo, 2011; Pearson, 2004; Sharp et al., 2002).

Therefore, the instructors' beliefs about fostering LA through learning activities conducted outside the class can be regarded as consistent with the ideas suggested in the literature. Lastly, the instructors mention giving choices to learners over some aspects of their learning. Allowing learners to decide deadlines, for instance, can be considered to give control in terms of planning learning. In addition, when learners are given freedom to choose what to speak about or how to form groups, they are provided with a chance to determine "what" and "how" of their learning. This way, learners are encouraged to develop autonomy (Dam, 1995; McGarry, 1995).

Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA

The data analysis of the responses given for the third question indicates that the EFL instructors believe educational background of the learners and some institutional and teacher factors hinder the development of learner autonomy. Firstly, the instructors put forward that learners' background has a key role in fostering LA in preparatory schools. They argue that the learners are not used to thinking critically about their learning and making reflection since they have been educated in a traditional manner since the beginning of their learning processes. Therefore, it is hard to foster learners' autonomy because it requires change in attitudes towards learning and teacher/learner roles or responsibilities. These beliefs are expressed in the following ways.

Ins.1: *"Educational background"*.

Ins.2: *"Their previous learning experiences ... makes up the core of their learning"*.

Ins.3: *"As students come from a background in high school which does not make student think in critical way or produce, students experience difficulties in changing their habits of study"*.

Ins.4: *"... learners who are used to traditional teaching styles may be some of the obstacles"*.

Secondly, institutional factors such as the program and teacher factors such as teaching methods adopted in the school are emphasized as problems that may prevent the development of learner autonomy. The program is seen as a fixed one, and neither instructors nor learners can make modifications regarding the materials and assessment

methods. Moreover, instructors are seen as one of the factors hindering the development of learner autonomy. The instructors express their beliefs as follows.

Ins.1: *“Wrong policy of the institution (trying to make students happy in every situation, lack of academic knowledge of the instructor”.*

Ins.2: *“... the most important aspect is the curriculum. There are certain things that cannot be changed. This includes the course book, units to be covered, topics to be tested, format of the test questions etc. ... teachers have different perceptions and understanding of what learning is and division the role of teacher and learner”.*

Ins.4: *“The approach and teaching philosophy of the institution, teaching methods of the teachers ... may be some of the obstacles”.*

Ins.5: *“Testing issue is a big factor... All the students are instructed to do the same in order to prevent unfair situations related to the exam or quizzes”.*

The idea that learners' educational background may hinder the development of learner autonomy is supported by many researchers. Oxford (2003) for instance believes that differences present in different cultures' belief systems obviously imply that learner autonomy may differ from one culture to another one. Therefore, changing habits and exercising autonomy would be difficult for some of the learners, whereas it would be easier for some others as pointed out by the instructors. Moreover, Karabıyık (2008) reveals that learners' culture of learning and their readiness for learner autonomy are closely related, which suggests that the extent to which learners are exposed to autonomous activities in the high schools affects their present perceptions and behaviors regarding learner autonomy. Furthermore, Nunan (1995) suggests that in a learner-centered curriculum, key decisions about what to teach, how and when to teach it and how to assess it are made with reference to the learner. However, he states that assuming learners come into the language classroom with a natural ability to make choices about what and how to learn is a mistake. We can draw the conclusion that assessment should be made with regard to the learner in order to promote autonomy; however, due to the obligation to apply a fixed program instructors cannot move beyond the borders and experiment in such areas to encourage learner autonomy. Finally, one of the leading factors that influence the success in fostering learner autonomy is the teacher without doubt. Teacher attitudes and the learning environment (including practices both inside and outside the classroom) that a

teacher sets for the learners are influential on the ways how learners are introduced autonomy and how they perceive it. This aspect is also mentioned by the instructors.

Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program

The findings reveal that the only adaptation which East School EFL instructors think must be made in the program in order to foster learner autonomy is giving learners choices and providing options in their learning process. The instructors believe that learners must be given freedom especially while choosing the books they need to read outside the school and take a quiz at school.

Ins.2: “... *offering options for the Graded Reader books can work*”.

Ins.4: “*If we provide choice to the students, I think learners will be more motivated and willing to take responsibility of their learning*”.

Ins.5: “... *names of the books are told by the curriculum. I think they should choose the books on their own*”.

Nunan (1996) describes what an autonomous classroom looks like, and he claims that in non-autonomous classrooms, teachers or institutions generally make all the decisions about what and when it will be taught. In contrast, in an autonomous classroom, decisions regarding the content and classroom norms are made with much reference to the learners. The instructors indicate that East School learners are not provided with classrooms in which they are encouraged to develop autonomy through decision making. Nonetheless, as the literature suggests learners are ready to take more responsibility in some aspects of their learning (Özdere, 2005), and they must be involved in decision making processes that concern the objectives of the course, classroom management, homework tasks, and the selection of materials (Balçıkanlı, 2007). Therefore, by making systematic and planned adjustments in the curricula, the institutions might contribute to the promotion of learner autonomy in universities (Özdere, 2005).

West School

West School is the first state school whose EFL instructors were interviewed about their perceptions of LA and the language program run in their schools. The findings from the interview data are presented below.

Perceptions about LA

The instructors believe that LA is taking responsibility for one's own learning. Learning is considered a life-long process, and LA is the key factor that helps learners to continue their effort to learn outside an educational context and independent of a teacher. In addition, autonomous learners are believed to be aware of their needs, strengths and weaknesses. The instructors express their perceptions in the following ways.

Ins.1: *"... students ... and they take responsibility for their learning ... They should identify their own needs and fulfill them"*.

Ins.2: *"The aim of teaching a language should be to teach students to be autonomous learners, that is; helping learners how to learn as learning is a life-long process and cannot be limited to teaching/learning environment in class. ... students should take responsibility for their learning both in and out of the class"*.

Ins.3: *"Learner autonomy means students taking responsibility for their own learning and being consciously aware of their learning processes as well as their strengths and weaknesses. Autonomous learners ... make themselves an important part of the curriculum by making their needs and interests explicit"*.

Ins.4: *"I think it is the independence that a learner is supposed to have to learn regardless of the existence of a guide or a teacher"*.

Ins.5: *"Learner autonomy means learners take the responsibility for their own learning. ... and students become life-long learners independent of the need for someone to teach them something"*.

As the literature suggests, learner autonomy is "a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes" (Dam, 1995, p. 1). Learners take responsibility of their own learning in accordance with their own needs. Moreover, autonomy may take place not only inside but also outside the classroom (Sinclair, 2000).

Therefore, limiting learners only to classroom environment is not helpful in fostering LA. Autonomous learners can exercise autonomy in all kinds of contexts even when there is no teacher. Dickinson (1992), for instance, stresses complete responsibility for one's own learning which is carried out without a teacher or pedagogical materials. How learners could be equipped with the skills and techniques in order to cope with learning situations outside the class without a teacher is a major concern in developing learner autonomy (Benson, 1997). When language learners develop autonomy, this may affect their learning practices in all other areas since autonomous learners are to become citizens who can think and act as free and self-determining individuals (Holec, 1981, as cited in Balçıklı, 2006).

Perceptions about Fostering LA

The findings reveal that the instructors mainly try to foster LA by means of encouraging learners to discover their own learning styles and develop strategies so that they can take responsibility of their learning especially outside the classroom. The instructors state that they talk to their students to guide them and raise their awareness regarding how to make use of certain learning strategies and how to develop new ones. They believe there are various ways to achieve this such as using a dictionary, engaging in out-class activities or making reflection. Some of the explanations made by the instructors are given below.

Ins.1: *"I tell them that there is not a single way to study or learn, and that they should try to find what they like and prefer"*.

Ins.2: *"I inform them from the very beginning that they cannot learn a language only in the classroom and they should take responsibility of their learning. ... they should make it one part of their life by reading various kinds of books, watching serials or movies etc. ... I teach them how to use collocation dictionary (usually online)"*.

Ins.3: *"I also try to guide them in developing study habits and in what they can do outside the class individually. For example, I usually give them constructive feedback that can enable them to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses"*.

Ins.5: *"reflection and feedback about the learning process"*.

Instructors may foster LA by giving technical support to learners as the literature suggests. The technical version of learner autonomy involves managing learning outside the class or an educational institution without a teacher. Learners have to take charge of their own

learning and the main concern in technical support is how to make learners equipped with the skills and techniques they need to deal with such situations (Benson, 1997). Through raising their awareness of language and learning and providing learner training to help them identify learning styles and appropriate strategies, instructors can help learners to acquire the skills to be used to learn autonomously (Voller, 1997, as cited in Benson, 2011). As it is clear, guiding learners in terms of possible learning strategies is an important aspect of developing LA. Furthermore, according to Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) reflective practice is “the process of learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice” (p. 7). It also entails being self-aware and critically evaluating someone’s own responses to practice situations in order to gain new understandings and thereby improve her/his future practice. Therefore, it is regarded as a part of the process of life-long learning (Boud et al, 1985). Likewise, it could be understood that the instructors believe in the importance of reflection in developing LA.

Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA

What the instructors believe certain factors that may hinder the development of learner autonomy are is the focus of the third question. The findings indicate that the three main factors, which the instructors think hinder the development of learner autonomy at the West School, are the type of educational system, the program and some teacher factors. First of all, the instructors state that the education system fails to adopt alternative assessment methods, and it is traditionally exam-oriented. It does not provide opportunities for learners to take responsibility. Instead, learners are only programmed to pass their exams. Another factor hindering the development of LA is the language program. The instructors point out that the pace of the program is not suitable since it is intensive and does not allow instructors to spare time for learners’ development regarding autonomy. Finally, the instructors mention certain teacher factors that may hinder the development of learner autonomy. It is argued that teachers’ perspectives about the nature of learning, language learning, and teaching methods they adopt influence the ways how they perceive autonomy and what they do to foster it. If teachers are not familiar with the current trends and willing to follow them, or if they insist on teacher-centered classroom applications, it would be very difficult for learners to develop autonomy. These points can be clearly seen in the following examples of the data.

Ins.1: *“Students aim to pass exams rather than to learn English. So, when they only study for the exam, they do not feel the need to take responsibility and see what they need and how they can fulfill it. ... If the education system was not only based on exams, students could feel more free and could take more responsibility”.*

Ins.2: *“... teachers’ beliefs as to what teaching is”.*

Ins.3: *“I think time constraints due to the intensive program, exam-oriented system, ... as well as different teaching styles adopted by teachers hinder the development of LA in my school”.*

Ins.4: *“Our testing and evaluation system, ... unwillingness of some teachers to adapt to latest trends in language teaching”.*

Ins.5: *“traditional ways of teaching (too long teacher-talking time, having a teacher-centered classroom), pace of the program”.*

Littlewood (1996) argues that the goal of all education process is “to help people to think, act and learn independently in relevant areas of their lives” (p. 434). Nonetheless, as Cotterall (1995) states learner autonomy does not arise spontaneously within the learner, but it develops out of the learner’s dialogue with the world which he or she belongs to. In accordance with the whole education/learning process, developing and fostering learner autonomy should be one of the major goals of language programs/language teaching. The instructors believe that the current educational system in their school is not suitable enough to develop autonomy since it is exam-oriented, does not allow experimentation with some alternative assessment methods and is built upon an intensive program. Additionally, helping learners to develop a sense of autonomy is of great importance; however, it must be noted that learner autonomy could be developed and promoted providing certain conditions exist. One of the leading factors that influence the success in fostering learner autonomy is the teacher without doubt. Teacher attitudes and the learning environment (including practices both inside and outside the classroom) that a teacher sets for the learners are influential on the ways how learners are introduced autonomy and how they perceive it. Therefore, as the West School instructors point out, teacher factors have a key role in developing LA.

Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program

The findings reveal that the instructors believe in the necessity of adapting certain program and testing practices in their school. Providing options to learners regarding assessment methods or choices regarding assignments and study materials is considered effective for fostering LA in West School. Some examples of the instructors' perceptions are provided below.

Ins.1: *“Some assignments or projects in which students can have their own choices can be given to students. For instance, instead of reading the same book for an exam, they can read the books that they like and do homework on it”.*

Ins.3: *“More self-study materials should be designed based on students' needs and interests”.*

Ins.4: *“Students should receive continuous feedback from their teachers and this feedback should guide them in their self-assessment”.*

In his study Camilleri (1997) finds out that most of the teachers consider self-assessment preferable to testing, and he indicates that teachers are ready to “trust” learners with assessing themselves on a weekly or monthly basis (p. 10). Therefore, it can be concluded that West School EFL instructors are in favor of promoting learner autonomy in their school regarding assessment methods.

South School

South School is the second state university with whose EFL instructors we conducted interviews about their perceptions about LA and the language program. The findings from the data analysis are presented below.

Perceptions about LA

The instructors believe that LA is taking responsibility for one's own learning. A learner can become autonomous when s/he is aware of her/his strengths, weaknesses and needs, and self-regulate her/his study/learning process accordingly. They believe the role of the teacher in this process is to guide the learner. Some responses of the instructors are as follows.

Ins.1: *“The more autonomous they are, the more they see their instructors as a coach”.*

Ins.2: *“The learner has the responsibility for his own learning. S/he is aware of his/her weaknesses and strengths and study accordingly”.*

Ins.3: *“LA is taking charge of learners’ own learning. It means doing self-studies and being aware of their needs”.*

Ins.4: *“Guiding learners while giving them the responsibility to learn”.*

Ins.5: *“LA means taking responsibility of one’s own learning process, being aware of their own needs”.*

Taking the responsibility of one’s own learning is one of the most-frequently cited definitions of autonomy. The literature suggests that autonomous learners are able to take charge of their own learning, and they feel responsible for all the decisions related to their learning as well as their actions in order to implement these decisions (Holec, 1981, as cited in Benson, 2011; Dickinson, 1987). Learners can take responsibility for their own learning better if they become aware of their individual learner profiles, which means autonomous learners can identify their learning needs (Scharle & Szabó, 2000). Moreover, handing learners control over their learning process requires teachers to adopt roles different from the ones they have in traditional, teacher-centered educational contexts. In the literature, various terms are suggested to describe the teachers’ role within the framework of not traditional teaching. Some of these are facilitator, helper, counselor, and adviser (Benson, 2011). Therefore, it could be concluded that teachers need to be able to act as a guide in learners’ learning process in order to encourage them to develop autonomy.

Perceptions about Fostering LA

Fostering learner autonomy is associated with encouraging learners to carry out some extra-curricular learning activities independently and empowering them in terms of decision-making. The instructors believe that activities done outside the school context improve learners’ autonomy. In addition, the instructors find it helpful to involve learners in decision-making processes. Asking learners about their choices or preferences regarding especially the order of content or how to conduct certain activities can be a way of providing freedom in classroom context. Involving learners in decision-making processes

can be regarded as a way to provide them with freedom within classroom context and to make them feel confident in their learning practices. The beliefs of the instructors regarding fostering LA are expressed in the following ways.

Ins.1: *“I change their taste in music, talk about TV shows, read the news from international websites. I model them into being autonomous and dealing with English in extracurricular activities”.*

Ins.2: *“I always advise them to watch movies and give them the addresses of some websites on which they can practice the skills. Also, I made them buy reading books to read at home in their free time”.*

Ins.3: *“In the very beginning of my classes, I usually encourage learners to take part in decision making. I ask their expectations and share my expectations so that we can mutually set the classroom rules and short-term goals. In addition, I tell them the menu of the day what we are to do that day and ask them which one to start with or how they wish to do it. As long as they offer me reasonable suggestions, we do the things that way. ... these make them not only involve in their learning with decision making but also feel valued. Apart from all these, I usually have them share extra tasks on an online platform such as Edmodo, blogs, or Facebook, which really encourages them to do things on their own”.*

Ins.5: *“To be frank, I cannot give freedom to my students to choose the content of the lesson. However, the way I teach is shaped by their preferences. I try to make my classes student-centered as much as possible. I try to facilitate their learning rather than lecturing during the classes. Outside the classes, I recommend them to study in the computer lab at our school. I show them useful websites to improve their language after classes”.*

The belief that learner autonomy may take place not only inside but also outside the classroom Sinclair (2000), and fostering LA is possible through outclass activities is supported by many researchers. Benson (2007), for instance, proposes the term out-of-class learning and suggests that it is used to refer to “the efforts of learners taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class” (p. 26). Out-of-class learning plays a key role in the development of LA as Sharp et al. (2002) report. The learners who participate in outside class activities develop their metacognitive strategies, and their intrinsic motivation increases, which fosters the sense of autonomy in the learners. Therefore, raising students’ awareness of their own learning

outside the classroom and enabling students to have the necessary skills in order to take charge of their learning is a significant. Additionally, negotiating with learners in terms of making decisions related to their learning processes is significant. Thanasoulas (2000) believes that providing a safe learning environment where students feel free to try out their English skills and to make decisions without being criticized in accordance with the learner-centered practices is critical in fostering learner autonomy. What's more, teachers must be willing to reshape their attitudes in terms of the distribution of the power and authority in class. We can clearly see that the EFL teachers are willing to share the responsibility with the learners, and they attempt to create chances for learners to give control by involving them in decision making about the order of the activities or how to carry out certain activities. Flexible learning environment is one of the factors fostering LA and sharing responsibility concerning classroom practices creates a flexible environment (Lee, 1998).

Perceptions about the Factors Hindering the Development of LA

The findings from the data analysis of the responses given by the EFL instructors indicate that they believe there are some teacher and learner factors that may hinder the development of LA. The teacher factors mentioned include teachers' being unaware of LA, their resistance to new methods and their inability to guide the learners. Secondly, the instructors mention such learner factors as lack of motivation, their ignorance and their resistance to change in terms of taking charge of their own learning due to their educational background since they are used to being dependent on a teacher for learning. The instructors express their beliefs concerning the factors that may hinder the development of LA as follows.

Ins.2: *"Lack of student motivation, maybe the teacher may not be good at directing students to study independently"*.

Ins.3: *"Traditional views of teachers, too much ignorance of teachers and learners, unawareness of teachers"*.

Ins.4: *"Our students are mostly used to learning something only by following the teacher. Changing their point of view, I mean not continuing spoon feeding can be challenging"*.

As it is suggested in the literature, there are teacher-based approaches to autonomy emphasizing the significant role of teachers in the process of language learning and in the practice of fostering learner autonomy. They imply that the first step towards changing learners is to change teachers, and the teachers' professional skills and commitment to the concept of autonomy play an undeniably crucial role in the effectiveness of other approaches to foster learner autonomy. It is assumed that in order that teachers can succeed in fostering learner autonomy, as a prerequisite, teachers themselves must exercise a degree of autonomy in their approaches to foreign language teaching and learning (Benson, 2011). Therefore, it can be concluded that as EFL instructors suggest in order to help learners develop autonomy, teachers, first of all, must be willing to change their perceptions about autonomy, learning and language learning in addition to being eligible to exercise autonomy within educational contexts. Moreover, Little (2000b, as cited in Benson, 2011) argues that no one can expect teachers to foster LA if they themselves have not experienced how it feels to be an autonomous learner. Without the ability to apply their own reflections and self-management skills they develop in their own learning process, teachers cannot play a role in their learners' learning in terms of developing and exercising autonomy. Nonetheless, in addition to teachers, learners themselves certainly have to carry certain qualities so that they can achieve to be autonomous learners. Breen and Mann (1997) outline eight qualities that an autonomous learner in a language learning classroom has, and "a desire to learn", "a robust sense of self", "management of change", and "a strategic engagement with learning" are four of these qualities (pp. 134-136). In other words, if a learner does not have these characteristics, it would be meaningless to expect him to develop autonomy no matter how competent his teachers are in fostering LA.

Perceptions about the Adaptations Required in the Program

The EFL instructors believe that the possible adaptations that can be made in the program are improving portfolio and giving learners more freedom regarding their out-class assignments. However, the instructors do not share any ideas about what kinds of modifications are needed in portfolios. These beliefs of the instructors are provided below.

Ins.1: "We already have portfolios which learners have to cope with alone; however, their content is weak in this end. It could be modified. We have computer labs designed with the purposes of self-access; however, learners are being graded on the amount of their

attendance there, which diverts it from its good purposes. Thus, it should be voluntary-based”.

Ins.2: *“The computer lab program should be voluntary”.*





CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

Introduction

In this chapter, summary of the study will be presented, some pedagogical implications and suggestions in the light of the results of the study will be proposed and recommendations for further studies will be provided.

Summary of the Study

This section of the chapter gives a summary of the whole study by stating the research questions and findings. Additionally, it provides a discussion of the findings of the research.

The present study had two aims. The first aim of this study was to evaluate the EFL programs followed in the preparatory schools of two state and two foundation universities in Ankara in order to identify any practice that is considered to encourage the development of learner autonomy. In order to achieve this aim, a framework designed by Reinders (2010) was used, and the English language preparatory programs of the four universities chosen for the study were scrutinized to find out whether they included any practices that served for the encouragement of learner autonomy regarding the self-directed learning stages. The framework consisted of eight stages; therefore, in order to evaluate the programs in the light of this framework, we determined eight sub-questions based on the stages included in the framework. The eight stages that were used to identify any applications in the programs fostering learner autonomy were in the following order: identifying needs, setting goals, planning learning, selecting resources, selecting learning strategies, practice, monitoring progress and assessment and revision.

In order to reach findings, each language program of the four universities was evaluated based on these research questions. In the data collection procedure, meetings were held with the administrators and the instructors working in the curriculum development units, who are responsible for designing the programs. What is more, since the study is a qualitative one, written documents including course syllabi, student handbooks, descriptions of program development, and minutes of meetings obtained in interviews were made use of so as to obtain more detailed information about the preparatory schools' programs. The findings of the study were provided and discussed for each of the language programs stage by stage.

The overall findings for the first research question revealed that the programs displayed differences regarding autonomy fostering practices available in each stage of the framework. The only stage that we obtained the same findings in all program evaluations was the fourth one which was about selecting resources. It was revealed that none of the programs created chances for learners to select their learning materials. The reason for these same findings may be that in educational institutions such as preparatory schools, resources, course books or others, are selected by the instructors or special committees mostly during the summer break after learners have already completed the program or before they have not arrived the school yet. In other words, resource selection process already takes place after or before the programs are implemented, and learners are not present at schools during this process. In order that learners can be given responsibility or voice in the course of resource selection, schools can apply surveys or questionnaires to collect data on learners' choices in terms of the materials they would like utilize in their learning processes. Therefore, learners' autonomy development can be encouraged through resource selection stage.

Moreover, the findings indicated to what extent the programs encourage the development of learner autonomy in each stage according to both the number and the characteristics of the practices. While the findings were being provided, the extent to which these stages were encouraged was provided in two ways. The programs encourage the development of learner autonomy either mostly or partly.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that three out of four programs fail to include practices that may encourage learners' development of autonomy regarding goal setting, and one program encourages it only partly. The reason why programs do not include practices to

encourage learners to develop autonomy regarding goal setting could be explained via the nature of the preparatory programs. These programs are designed to serve academic purposes of the learners, and in many universities attending English preparatory school is mandatory. However, a lot of learners coming from different backgrounds are instructed in the same classes for mostly a year. They may have different wants, purposes and aims in order to learn English rather than academic purposes. Nonetheless, engaging learners in personal goal setting processes may be regarded as meaningless and useless since programs' objectives are prescribed in standard ways treating all learners as one entity, and integrating learners' personal goals into these standard programs addressing large numbers of learners may be considered impossible.

Another finding that deserves attention is regarding the practice stage. As it is clear in the table, all four programs encourage learners to improve their autonomous skills through practice stage. The reason behind this may be the direct association between practice and success. These learners are young adults, and they have already passed the critical age for learning a foreign language. However, all the systems are exam-oriented, and the learners are not considered to successfully complete preparatory class education unless they provide the required proficiency score at the end of the academic term or year. Therefore, educating – preparing – learners in a way that they can pass the exams with high scores is considered the ultimate goal. It could be supposed that the more the learners practise on their own outside the class, the more successful they become in their learning processes. Therefore, programs may attempt to provide learners more chances to practise than they do to encourage them in other stages.

The second aim of the study was to identify EFL instructors' perspectives of learner autonomy, actual practices they adopt to foster learner autonomy both inside and outside the class in addition to their beliefs about both the factors that may hinder the development of LA and the language programs of their schools in terms of encouraging learner autonomy. In order to realize this aim, interviews were used. Five voluntary EFL instructors from each school were interviewed with the help of four interview questions. The first question was about the instructors' perceptions about what learner autonomy is. They were asked to describe what LA refers to. Most of the instructors mentioned the concepts of taking responsibility of one's own learning, being independent of a teacher to learn, being aware of one's needs, strengths and weaknesses and being able to make

choices or decisions regarding what and how of one's learning. The second question was about the ways the instructors used to foster LA both inside and outside the class. Most of the instructors indicated that they mostly made use of out-class activities to help learners personalize their learning and perceive language learning fun and meaningful. They believed that by engaging in extracurricular activities, learners could obtain opportunities to develop autonomy in term of practice stage since they improve their skills by reading, listening, or writing in their free time. In addition, most of the instructors stated that they suggested some websites so that the learners could do such activities. This gave us an idea about the significance of computer technology in developing LA through extra activities. The third question was about the factors that the instructors think may play a role in hindering the development of LA. The most frequently provided answers included the program, educational background of the learners and some teacher factors related to their philosophy of teaching/learning and awareness of the concept of LA. Finally, the EFL instructors were asked to specify any adaptations that must be made in the programs so that they could foster the development of LA. The major issues discussed by the instructors were the modification of the portfolio, including more feedback and designing a more flexible program which provides learners opportunities to set goals, gives control to determine what of their learning, gives choices in terms of assessment methods and creates chances for learners to make self-assessment.

Pedagogical Implications

This study attempted to shed light on the qualities of the language programs followed in English preparatory schools of four universities in terms of encouraging the development of learner autonomy. Additionally, it has provided insights about the perceptions of the EFL instructors, who currently work at these universities, about LA and necessary modifications to be made in the programs to foster LA. In the light of the findings which have been discussed so far, we can draw considerable educational implications that address two main entities.

First of all, this study has some implications for program designers. Programs should be redesigned in accordance with the principles of learner autonomy. While designing the programs, program designers should consider several key points in order to foster learner autonomy, which leads learners to take responsibility of their own learning process. The

findings of the study suggest that the key points to be considered in program design procedure are as follows.

- a) Program designers should adopt a more learner-centered philosophy which aims to orient learners toward autonomy. Developing a language program should be seen as a collaborative effort between designers and learners, in which both parties negotiate with each other in the decision-making process. Learning is the activity of learners; therefore, they should be considered the owners of their learning processes. The decisions regarding identifying needs, setting goals, planning learning, selecting resources and strategies, planning learning, monitoring progress and assessment are to be made in a way that encourages learner autonomy, implying that learners are given the responsibility and the chance to own their learning processes. Through the adoption of a more learner-centered orientation toward program design, learners' wishes should be taken into account in the program development process.
- b) Since strictly-structured programs may hinder the development of learner autonomy, programs should be more flexible regarding such issues as the load, pace, and prescription of evaluation/assessment procedures so that both teachers and learners could find some chances to exercise autonomy in teaching/learning processes.
- c) Considering the findings about the influence of educational and cultural backgrounds of the learners on the development of learner autonomy, it can be suggested that the concept of learner autonomy should be taken into account also in the development of State and Foundation Primary Schools' programs. Therefore, young adults or adults have already been trained to be learners who can take their own responsibility for their own learning from the scratch instead of expecting to be spoon-fed. In addition, the learners growing in such an educational environment are to live as citizens who believe in the significance of life-long learning throughout the rest of their lives. This carries implications about not only foreign language teaching/learning but also shaping the future of the country in terms of modern, learner-centered educational policies.

Secondly, several implications have arisen from the study for language teachers. It has been revealed that language teachers attempt to foster learner autonomy mostly outside the

language classroom, and these attempts do not go beyond recommending learners some extra activities such as doing extensive reading, watching videos or visiting certain websites to improve their language skills. Even though helping learners select learning strategies or practice skills outside the class is regarded as an autonomy fostering practice, it is highly limited and insufficient in terms of encouraging LA if various practices and applications regarding all eight stages the framework has is considered. Therefore, by considering the findings of the study, we can reach the following implications for language teachers.

d) Language teachers should be equipped with more knowledge and skills regarding how they can foster learner autonomy in various ways both inside and outside the language classroom. Their skills to foster learner autonomy should be sustained and improved through both in-service and in-house training programs. By means of continuous training, language teachers should be provided with more information about autonomy and particularly specific guidance about how to foster learner autonomy both inside and outside the class.

Suggestions for Further Studies

Considering the aims, the limitations and the findings of this study, some suggestions are offered for further studies.

- a) This study could be repeated with a larger number of subjects regarding both the schools and the instructors so that the results may be gained more reliably.
- b) A similar study could be carried out in order to evaluate primary, secondary and high schools' language programs.
- c) A case study could be conducted focusing on only one university's language program in order to obtain more detailed data and to reach more specific interpretations.
- d) This study aimed at evaluating EFL programs of universities in terms of encouraging learner autonomy; therefore, a similar study could be carried out in order to evaluate English for Academic Purposes or English for Specific Purposes programs of universities.
- e) A longitudinal study could be conducted including the observations of teachers' actual practices fostering learner autonomy both inside and outside the class so that

it could be possible to identify whether there are any matches or mismatches between the practices the programs theoretically have and teachers' actual applications of these practices indicated in the programs.





REFERENCES

- Akbaş, R. D. (2011). *An investigation into the relationships between learner autonomy, language engagement and academic achievement*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon.
- Akar, H. (2009). Foreign language teacher education: The Polish case. *The New Educational Review*, 17(1), 185-211.
- Al-Darwish, S. (2006). *An investigation of teachers' perceptions of the English language curriculum in Kuwaiti elementary schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Denver, the USA.
- Allwright, R. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for?. *ELT Journal*, 36(1), 5-17.
- Altunay, U. & Bayat, Ö. (2009). The relationship between autonomy perception and classroom behaviors of English language learners. *Dil Dergisi*, 144, 7-15.
- Arkoç, E. Ş. (2008). *The impact of learner autonomy on the success of listening comprehension*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Trakya University, Edirne.
- Aslan, O. (2009). *The role of gender and language learning strategies in learning English*. Published MA Thesis, Middle East Technical University, English Language Teaching Department, Bursa.
- Aston, G. (1993). The learner's contribution to the self-access center. *ELT Journal*, 47(3), 219-227.
- Aydemir, U. V. (2007). *Effects of the instruction of language learning strategies on students' achievement in English teaching*. Published MA Thesis submitted to Uludağ University, English Language Department, Bursa.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bailey, C. A. (2007). *A guide to qualitative field research*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Balçıkanlı, C. (2006). *Promoting learner autonomy through activities at Gazi University Preparatory School*. Unpublished MA Thesis submitted to Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.
- Balçıkanlı, C. (2007). The Investigation of the Instructors' Attitudes Towards Learner Autonomy at Preparatory School. In Proceedings of Language teaching and learning in multilingual Europe"- International Conference, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania
- Balçıkanlı, C. (2008). Fostering learner autonomy in EFL classrooms. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi* 16(1), 277-284.
- Balçıkanlı, C. (2010). Learner autonomy in language learning: Student teachers' beliefs. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(1), 90-103.
- Bamford, J., & Day, R. R. (1997). ER: What is it? Why bother? *The Language Teacher*, 21(5).
- Banfi, C. S. (2003). Portfolios integrating advance language, academic, and professional skills. *ELT Journal*, 57(1), 34-42.
- Barcelos, A.M.F. (2008). Teachers' and students' beliefs within a Deweyan framework: Conflict and influence. In Kalaja, P. & Barcelos, A.M.F, Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 171-199.
- Barlas, F. (2012). *ELT learners' views on learner autonomy at Balıkesir University Necatibey Education Faculty*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Balıkesir University, Balıkesir.
- Baylan, S. (2011). *University students and their teachers perceptions and expectations of learner autonomy in EFL prep classes*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Marmara University, İstanbul.
- Bellanca, J., & Fogarty, R. (1991). *Blueprints for thinking in the cooperative classroom* (2nd ed.). Palatine, IL: IR/Skylight Publishing.
- Benson, P. (1997). The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (p. 18 -34). London: Longman.
- Benson, P. (2006). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. State-of-the-art Article. *Language Teaching*, 40(1), 21-40. Retrieved on August 22, 2014 from http://www4.pucsp.br/inpla/benson_artigo.pdf
- Benson, P. (2008). Teachers' and learners' perspectives on autonomy. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (p.15- 32). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Bernhardt, E. B. (2006). Student learning outcomes as professional development and public relations. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(4), 588-590.
- Bishop, J. (2003). Empowering students to succeed. NCSC News. Retrieved from <http://www.ncsc.inf>
- Bitlis, Ö. (2011). A blended learning environment in relation to learner autonomy. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Bilkent University. Ankara.
- Blin, F. (2004). CALL and the development of learner autonomy: towards an activity-theoretical perspective. *ReCALL*, 16(2), 377-395.
- Bolat, F. H. (1995). *An Ethnographic case study of how a self-access centre operates in Turkish higher education*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Bilkent University, Ankara.
- Boekaerts, M. (2002). *Motivation to learn*. Educational Practice Series. Geneva: International Bureau of Education.
- Bocanegra, A. & Haidl, A. W. (1999). Language learner autonomy in practice: possibilities in a foreign language situation. *Revista alicantina de estudios ingleses*, 12, pp. 7-17. Retrieved on July 11, 2015 from http://rua.ua.es/dspace/bitstream/10045/5950/1/RA_EI_12_01.pdf
- Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy. *English Language Teacher Journal*, (66)3, 283-292
doi:10.1093/elt/ccr065
- Bosher, S. & Smalkoski, K. (2002). From needs analysis to curriculum development: Designing a course in health-care communication for immigrant students in the USA. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 59-79.
- Boud, D. (1988). *Developing student autonomy in learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Breen, M.P. and Mann, S. J.(1997). Shooting arrows at the sun: perspectives on a pedagogy for autonomy. In P. Benson and P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning* (p. 132-149). London: Longman.
- Brockett, R. G. and Hiemstra, R. (1991). *Self-Direction in adult learning. Perspectives on theory, research and practice*. London: Routledge.
- Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum*. Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishing.

- Brown, D. (2012). Online support systems for extensive reading: Managing the tension between autonomy and institutional education. *The Language Teacher*, (36)2, 11-16.
- Brown, S. and Smith, B. (1996). Introducing resources for learning. In S. Brown & B. Smith (Eds.), *Resource-based Learning* (p. 1-9). London: Kogan Page.
- Camilleri, G. (1997). Learner autonomy: The teachers' views. Retrieved on March 3, 2015 from www.ecml.at/documents/pubCamilleriG_E.pdf
- Candy, P.C. (1991). *Self-direction for Lifelong Learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Cephe, P. T. (1987). *A Written self-access aid for the students of the English department Gazi University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Gazi University, Ankara.
- Chamot, A. (1987). The learning strategies of ESL students. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategy in language learning* (p. 71-83). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Chamot, A. U. (2005). 6. Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, 112–130.
- Chamot, A., Keatley, C., Meloni, C., Gonglewski, M., & Bartoshesky, A. (2010). Developing Autonomy in Language Learners: Learning Strategies Instruction in Higher Education. In C. f. A. Linguistics (Eds.), Washington, DC: National Capital Language Resource Center.
- Chan, V. (2000). Fostering learner autonomy in an ESL classroom. *TESL Canada Journal*, 8(1), 75-86.
- Chan, V. (2001). Readiness for learner autonomy: what do our learners tell us? *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6(4), 505-519.
- Chan, V. (2003). Autonomous Language Learning: the teachers' perspectives. *Teaching In Higher Education*, 8(1). 33-54.
- Chen, Y.-M. (2008). Learning to self-assess oral performance in English: A longitudinal case study. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(2); 235 – 262,
- Chuk, J. Y. P. (2004). Promoting learner autonomy in the EFL classroom: The exploratory Practice way, *Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference 2003*.
- Çiftçi, F. Ş. (2011). *Supporting self-efficacy and learner autonomy in relation to academic success in EFL classrooms (a case study)*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Gaziantep University, Gaziantep.
- Cleary, T. J. (2006). The development and validation of the self-regulation strategy inventory Self-report. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44, 307-322.

- Cohen, A. D. (1998). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Harlow, England: Longman
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education* (5th Edition). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Conole, G., Brasher, A., Cross, S., Weller, M., Nixon, S., Clark, P., & Petit, J. (2008). *A new methodology for learning design Proceedings of World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hyper-media and Telecommunications (EDMEDIA)*, 30 June - 4 July 2008. Vienna.
- Cotterall, S. (1995b). Readiness for autonomy: investigating learner beliefs. *System*, 23(2), 195-205
- Cotterall, S. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 219-227
- Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 109-117
- Creswell, J. W. (2009b). *How SAGE has shaped research methods: A 40-year history*. London: Sage.
- Cronbach, L. J., Ambron, S., Dornbusch, S., Hess, R., Hornik, R., Philips, D., Walker, D., & Weiner, S. (1980). *Towards reform of program evaluation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Çoban, Z. (2002). Attitudes towards Learner Autonomy in Gazi University and Yıldız Teknik University. *Paper presented at the International INGED Conference on Interchanges and Exchanges: Current Trends in ELT*, METU, Ankara, Turkey.
- Dam, L., & Legenhausen, L. (1999). Language acquisition in an autonomous learning environment: Learners' self-evaluations and external assessments compared. In S. Cotterall & D. Crabbe (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in language learning: Defining the field and effecting change* (p. 89-98). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Dam, L. and Legenhausen, L. (2010a). The acquisition of vocabulary in an autonomous learning environment – the first months of beginning English. In R. Pemberton, E.S.L. Li, W.W.F. Or and H.D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking control: autonomy in language Learning* (p. 265-280). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy 3: From theory to classroom practice*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Dang, T. T. (2012). Learner autonomy: A synthesis of theory and practice. *The Internet Journal of Language, Culture and Society* 35, 52-67. Retrieved on August 27, 2014 from <http://www.vietcall.org/tati/pubs>

- Deci, E. I. and Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self Determination Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Dembo, M. H. (2004). *Motivation and learning strategies for college success a self-management approach* . Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Demirlier, H. (2010). *Students' and teachers' attitudes towards newly developed curriculum of primary schools*. Unpublished Master's thesis submitted to Muğla University, Muğla.
- Demirtaş, A. (1996). *A Survey of the design features of national and international self-access centers: Inputs to the process of decision-making for a self-access center in the Middle East Technical University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2005). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Dickinson, L. (1978) Autonomy, self-directed learning and individualization. In *Individualization in Language Learning*. ELT Documents 103. British Council, ETIC Publications.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-instruction in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dickinson, L. (1995). "Autonomy and motivation: a literature review". *System*, 23(2), 165-174.
- Dickinson, L. (1993). Aspects of autonomous learning: An interview with Leslie Dickinson. *ELT Journal*, 47, 330-335.
- Dickinson, L. (1992). *Learner autonomy 2: learner training for language learning*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Dişlen, G. (2010). *Students' and teachers' perceptions on the relationship between learner autonomy and the psychological well-being in the ELT context*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Çukurova University, Adana.
- Dokuz, Ö. (2009). *An investigation into tertiary level Turkish EFL students' awareness level of learner autonomy and their attitudes*. Unpublished MA Thesis submitted to Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon. Retrieved on October 12, 2014 from <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/tezSorguSonucYeni.jsp>
- Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Durak Üğüten, S. (2009). *The use of writing portfolio in preparatory writing classes to foster learner autonomy*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis submitted to Çukurova University, Adana.
- Durmus, A. (2006). *EFL Instructors' Perceptions on Learner Autonomy at Anadolu University*. Unpublished M. A. Thesis submitted to Anadolu University, Eskisehir.
- Edwins, S. D. (1995). Increasing reflective writing and goal-setting skills on high ability sixth grade mathematics students. Retrieved from ERIC database (ED392065)
- Egel, İ. P. (2003). *The impact of the European language portfolio on the learner autonomy of Turkish primary school students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation submitted to Anadolu University, Eskişehir.
- Erdem, H. E. (1999). *Evaluating the English language curriculum at a private school in Ankara: A case study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation submitted to Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Erden, M. (1995). *Eğitimde program değerlendirme*: Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.
- Erwin, E. J., Brotherson, M. J., & Summers, J. A. (2011). Understanding qualitative metasynthesis: Issues and opportunities in early childhood intervention research. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 33, 186–200.
- Esch, E. (1996). Promoting learner autonomy: criteria for the selection of appropriate materials. In R. Pemberton, E. S. L. Li, W. W. F. Or and H. D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking Control- Autonomy in language learning* (p. 203-218). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Everhard, C. (2006) Autonomy and the language classroom: opening a can of worms. *Independence*, (37)2. Retrieved on December 12, 2014 from <http://learnerautonomy.org/wormsarticle.html>
- Fenner, A.B. & Newby, D. (Eds.). (2000). *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks: Implementing Principles of Authenticity, Learner Autonomy and Cultural Awareness*. Graz/Strasbourg: European Centre for Modern Languages/Council of Europe Press
- Field, J. (2007). Looking outwards, not inwards. *ELT Journal*, 61(1), 30-38.
- Finch, A. E. (2000). *A formative evaluation of a task-based EFL programme for Korean university students*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation submitted to University of Manchester. Retrieved on June 5, 2015, from <http://www.finchpark.com/arts/autonomy>.
- Finch, A. (2000). *Autonomy: Where are We? Where are We Going?* (Paper Based on the Author's Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis). The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China. Retrieved on July 5, 2014, from <http://www.finchpark.com/arts/Autonomy.pdf>

- Finch, A. E. (2001). A formative evaluation of a task-based conversation English program. *PAC Journal*, 1(1), 125-46.
- Finney, D. (2002). The ELT Curriculum: A Flexible Model for a Changing World. In Richards R. & Renandya, W. (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fitzpatrick, J.L, Sanders, J.R., & Worthen, B.R. (2004). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines* (3rd edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Foss, P., Carney, N., McDonald, K., & Rooks, M. (2007). Project based learning activities for short-term intensive English programs. *Asian EFL Journal*, 23. Retrieved on August 15, 2015 from [http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/pta_Oct_07_ypf&nc &km&mr.php](http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/pta_Oct_07_ypf&nc&km&mr.php)
- Frankel, F. (1982). Self-study materials: involving the learner. In M. Geddes & G. Sturtridge (Eds.), *Individualisation* (p. 52-60). London: Modern English Publications.
- Galloway, V. & Labarca, A. (1990). From student to learner: style, process, and strategy. In D.W. Birckbichler (Ed.), *New perspectives and new directions in foreign language education* (p. 111-158). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
- Garcia, P. (2002). An ESP program for union members in 25 factories. In T. Orr (Ed.), *English for specific purposes* (pp. 161–173).
- Gardner, D. and Miller, L. (1999). *Establishing Self-Access*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Genesee, F. and Upshur, J. A. (1996). *Classroom-Based Evaluation in Second Language Education*. Cambridge. CUP
- Gerede, D. (2005). *A curriculum evaluation through needs analysis: Perceptions of intensive English program graduates at Anadolu University*. Unpublished Master's thesis submitted to Anadolu University, Eskisehir.
- Gipps, G. V. (1994). *Beyond testing: Towards a theory of educational assessment*. NY: Routledge Falmer.
- Gray, A. (1997), Constructivist Teaching and Learning, SSTA Research Centre Report #97-07. Retrieved on August 31, 2014 from <http://saskschoolboards.ca/research/instruction/97-07.htm>
- Gredler, M. E. (1996). *Program evaluation*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Griffie, D. T., & Templi, S. A. (1997). *Goal setting affects task performance*. Retrieved from ERIC database (ED413782).

- Griffiths, G., & Keohane, K. (2000). *Personalizing language learning*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Gökgöz, B. (2010). *An investigation of learner autonomy and strategies for coping with speaking problems in relation to success in English speaking classes*. Published MA Thesis submitted to Middle East Technical University, English Language Teaching Department, Ankara.
- Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern languages and learning strategies: In theory and practice*. London: Routledge.
- Guo, S. (2011). Impact of an out-of-class activity on students' English awareness, vocabulary, and autonomy. *Language Education in Asia*, 2(2), 246-256.
- Hamilton, M. (2013). *Autonomy and foreign language learning in a virtual learning environment*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Hart, N. (2002). Intra-group autonomy and authentic materials: A different approach to ELT in Japanese colleges and universities. *System*, 30(1), 33-46.
- Harwell, M. (2011). Research design in qualitative/quantitative/mixed methods. In C. Conrad, & R. Serlin (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook for research in education: Pursuing ideas as the keystone of exemplary inquiry* (2nd ed., p. 147-165). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications
- Healy, D. (1999). Theory and research: autonomy and language learning. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson Smith (Eds.), *CALL environments: research, practice, and critical issues* (p. 391-402). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hein, G.E. (1991). "Constructivist learning theory." San Francisco, Calif.: Institute for Learning. Retrieved on August 31, 2014, from <http://www.exploratorium.edu/IFI/resources/constructivistlearning.html>
- Ho, J., & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese cultural traditions: Learner autonomy in English language teaching. *System*, 23(4), 235-243.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Holec, H. (1985). On autonomy: Some elementary concept. In P. Riley (Ed.), *Discourse and Learning*. London: Longman
- Hughes, G. (1982). Classroom techniques for one-to-one teaching. In M. Geddes & G. Sturtridge (Eds.), *Individualisation* (p. 52-60). London: Modern English Publications.

- Hutchinson, T. & A. Waters (1987). *English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, F. (2004). Learning autonomously: contextualizing out-of-class English language learning. *Language Awareness*, 13(3), 180-202.
- Ilgaz, G. (2011). *Investigation of elementary learners' perceptions on self-regulated learning strategies, self-efficacy and learner autonomy in science and technology course*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation submitted to Gazi University, Ankara.
- İnözü, J. (2011). Developing learner autonomy in the language class in Turkey: voices from the classroom. *Asia Pasific Educ. Rev.*, 12, 523-531.
- İşler, Y. (2005). *Learner autonomy and language learning portfolios: A study on the development of reading and vocabulary*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Uludağ University, Bursa.
- James, C. & Garrett, P. (1991). The scope of Language Awareness. In Carl James & Peter Garrett (Eds.), *Language Awareness in the Classroom* (p. 3-23). London: Longman.
- Karabıyık, A. (2008). *The relationship between culture of learning and Turkish university preparatory students' readiness for learner autonomy*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis submitted to Bilkent University, Ankara.
- Kavaliauskien, G. and Užpaliene, D. (2003). Ongoing needs analysis as a factor to successful language learning. *Journal of Language and Learning*, 1(1), 35-49.
- Kennedy, C. (2001). Language use, language planning and EAP. In J. Flowerdew & M. Peacock (Eds.), *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes* (p. 25-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kennedy, J.(2002). Learner Autonomy: A Realistic Proposition for Turkish Students. In M. Monty & M. Godfrey (Eds.), *Global Problems and Local Solutions. Proceedings of ELT Conference* (p.118-122). İstanbul: Işık University.
- Kesten, C. (1987). Independent Learning, *Saskatchewan Education*. Retrieved on August 22, 2014, from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED292836.pdf>
- Kiely, R., & Rea-Dickins, P. (2005). *Program evaluation in language education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kjisik, F. (1997). The ALMS programme. In L. Karlsson, F. Kjisik & J. Nordlund (Eds.), *From here to autonomy* (p. 34- 64). Helsinki: Helsinki University Press,. Retrieved on March 1, 2015 from <http://www.helsinki.fi/kksc/alms/pdf/FromHeretoAutonomy.pdf>.
- Knowles, M. (1980). *The Modern practice of adult education: from pedagogy to andragogy*. Chicago: Follet.

- Kocatürk, C. (2011). *Learners' perceptions of self-access language learning and promotion of autonomy through the self-access center in METU NCC SFL*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Kohonen, V. (1992). *Experiential language learning in foreign language education*. London: Longman.
- Koyuncu, S. (2006). *The effect of the European Language Portfolio on learner autonomy for young learners*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Çukurova University, Adana.
- Köse, C. (2005). *Uludağ Üniversitesi yabancı diller yüksekokulu İngilizce hazırlık eğitim programının incelenmesi*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Uludağ University, Bursa.
- Köse, N. (2006). *Effects of portfolio implementation and assessment on critical reading and learner autonomy of ELT students*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation submitted to Çukurova University, Adana.
- Krippendorff, K. (1980). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Kucuroğlu, Ç. (2000). The Role of a Learner-Centered Approach in Language Teaching on the Development of Learner Autonomy: A Model Course Design. *Doğuş University Journal*, 1, 193-200. Retrieved on March 1, 2015 from http://journal.dogus.edu.tr/index.php/duj/article/view/265/pdf_98
- Lee, I. (1998). Supporting greater autonomy in language learning. *ELT Journal*, 52 (4), 282-290.
- Lee, W. (1996). The role of materials in the development of autonomous learning. In R. Pemberton, E. S. L. Li, W. W. F. Or and H. D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking Control- Autonomy in language learning* (p. 203-218). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Lee, R. A., Browne, K.C., & Kusumoto, Y. (2011). Measuring EFL learners' environment; English contact and use outside the classroom at a Japanese international university. *Polyglossia*, Volume 20, 15-25.
- Lefrancois, G. R. (1997). *Psychology for teaching*. Toronto: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Lewis, R. (1995). Open and distance learning in Europe: add-on or mainstream?. *Open Learning*, 10(3), 52-56

- Liu, H. (2012). Understanding EFL undergraduate anxiety in relation to motivation, autonomy, and language proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(1), 123–139. Retrieved on November 20, 2012, from <http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/v9n12012/liu.pdf>
- Little, D. (1996). Freedom to learn and compulsion to interact: promoting learner autonomy through the use of information systems and information technologies. In R. Pemberton, E. S. L. Li, W. W. F. Or & H. D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking Control- Autonomy in language learning* (p. 203-218). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy: definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik.
- Little, D. (1990). Autonomy in language learning. In I. Gathercole (Ed.), *Autonomy in language learning* (p. 7-15). London, CILT,
- Little, D. (1997). Autonomy and self-access in second language learning: Some fundamental issues in theory and practice. In Muller-Verweyen, M.(Ed.), *New development in foreign language learning: self-management –autonomy*. Standpunkte zur Sprach und Kulturvermittlung Munich: Goethe Institute.
- Little, D. (2006). *Learner autonomy: Drawing together the threads of self-assessment, goal-setting and reflection. Training teachers to use the European Language Portfolio*. Retrieved on May 20, 2015 from http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/Elp_tt/Results/ DM_layout/ 00_10/06/06%20Supplementary%20text.pdf
- Little, D. and R. Perclová (2001). *The European language portfolio: guide for teachers and teacher trainers*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Retrieved on May 24, 2015 from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/edution/elp/ elp-reg/Source/Publications/ELP guide_ teachers trainers _ EN.pdf
- Little, D. (2003). *Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. Guide to Good Practice*. Retrieved on August 19, 2015 from <http://www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/1409>
- Littlejohn, A. (1985) Learner choice in language study. *ELT Journal*, 39(4), 253-261.
- Littlemore, J. (2001). Learner autonomy, self-instruction and new technologies in language learning: Current theory and practice in higher education in Europe. In A. Chambers & G. Davies (Eds.), *ICT and language learning: A European perspective* (p. 39–60). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger Publishers.
- Littlewood, W. (1996). "Autonomy": an anatomy and a framework. *System*, (24)4, 427-435.

- Littlewood, W. (1997). Self-access: why do we want it and what can it do?. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning* (p. 79-92). London: Longman.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal-setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Locke, L. F., Silverman, S. J., & Spirduso, W. W. (2010). Reading and understanding research (3rd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Lodewyk, K.R., Winne, P.H., & Jamieson-Noel, D.L. (2009). Implications of task structure on self-regulated learning and achievement. *Educational Psychology*, 29, 1–25.
- Logan, G.E. (1980). "Individualized foreign language instruction: American patterns for accommodating learner differences in the classroom." In H.B. Altman & C.V. James (Eds.), *Foreign language teaching: meeting individual needs* (p. 94-110). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Lopez-Fernandez, O. & Rodriguez-Illera, J. L. (2009). Investigating university students' adaptation to a digital learner course portfolio. *Computers & Education*, 52, 608–616
- Lynch, B. K. (2003). *Language assessment and programme evaluation*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Macaro, E. (2008). The shifting dimensions of language learner autonomy. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (p. 47-62). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Mackay R. (1994). Undertaking ESL/EFL programme review for accountability and Improvement. *ELT Journal* 48(2), 142-149
- Marshall, C., and Rossman, G.N. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Martinez, H. (2008). The subjective theories of student teachers. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (p. 103-124). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- McDevitt B. (1997). Learner autonomy and the need for learner training. *Language Learning Journal* 16, 34-39.
- McGarry, D. (1995). *Learner Autonomy 4: The Role of Authentic Texts*. Dublin: Authentik

- McQuillan, J., & Tse, L. (1997). Let's talk about books: using literature circles in second language classrooms. In G. M. Jacobs, C. Davis, & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Successful strategies for extensive reading* (p. 81-89). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Merry, M. S. (2005). Cultural coherence and the schooling for identity maintenance. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 39(3), 477 – 497.
- Miller, K. E., Melnick, M. J., Barnes, G. M., Farrell, M. P., & Sabo, D. (2005). Untangling the links among athletic involvement, gender, race, and adolescent academic outcomes. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 22(2), 178-193.
- Moriarty, J., Pavelonis, K., Pellouchoud, D., & Wilson, J. (2001). *Increasing student motivation through the use of instructional strategies*. Retrieved from ERIC database (ED455962).
- Morris, L. L. & Fitz-Gibbon, C. T. (1978). *Evaluator's handbook*. California: Sage.
- Morisson, B. (2008). The role of the self-access centre in the tertiary language learning Process. *System* 36, pp. 123-140.
- Murphy, S. (1994). "Writing Portfolios in K–12 Schools: Implications for Linguistically Diverse Students", In Daiker, D. et al. (Eds.), *New Directions in Portfolio Assessment: reflective practice, Critical Theory, and Large-Ascale Scoring*, Boynton/Cook Publishers, Inc.
- Murphy, L. (2008). Supporting learner autonomy: Developing practice through the production of courses for distance learners of French, German and Spanish. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(1), 83-102.
- Murray, D. E. & Christison, M. (2011). *What English language teachers need to know. Volume II: facilitating learning*. Routledge: New York.
- Murray, G. L. (1999). Autonomy in language learning in a simulated environment. *System*, 27, 295-308.
- Mutlu, A. (2008). *The role of CALL in promoting learner autonomy*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Nam, J.M. (2005). *Perceptions of Korean college students and teachers about communication-based English instruction: Evaluation of a college EFL curriculum in South Korea*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, the Ohio State University, the USA.
- Noels, K.A., Clément, R. and Pelletier, L.G. (1999). Perceptions of teacher communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 83, 23-34.

- Nordlund, J. (1997). Research into attitudes towards autonomy among teachers and learners, and the process of change. In L. Karlsson, F. Kjisik & J. Nordlund (Eds.), *From here to autonomy* (p. 34- 64). Helsinki: Helsinki University Press,. Retrieved on March 1, 2015 from <http://www.helsinki.fi/kksc/alms/pdf/FromHeretoAutonomy.pdf>.
- Norris, J. M. (2006). The why (and how) of assessing student learning outcomes in college foreign language programs. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90, 576-583.
- Norris, J. M., Davis, J. McE., Sinicrope, C., & Watanabe, Y. (Eds.) (2009). *Toward useful program evaluation in college foreign language education*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Nota, L., Soresi, S. and B. J. Zimmerman. (2004). 'Self-regulation and academic achievement and resilience: A longitudinal study,' *International Journal of Educational Research* 41, 198-215.
- Nunan, D. (1985a). *Language teaching course design: trends and issues*. Adelaide: National Curriculum Resource Center.
- Nunan, D. (1990). *The learner-centered curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between learning and instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29 (1), 133-158.
- Nunan, D. (1996). Towards autonomous learning: Some theoretical, empirical and practical issues. In R. Pemberton, et al (Eds.), *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning* (p. 13-26). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1997). Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (p. 192-203). London: Longman.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Ornstein A.C. & Hunkins, F.P. (2004). *Curriculum foundations, principles and issues*. (3rd ed)). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Oliva, P. F. (1997). *Developing the Curriculum*. New York: Longman
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.
- Oxford, R. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: An overview. *Proceedings of GALA (Generative Approaches to Language Acquisition) Conference*, 1-25. Retrieved from <http://web.ntpu.edu.tw/~language/workshop/read2.pdf>.

- Oxford, R. (2003). Toward a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy. In P. David & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner Autonomy Across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives* (p. 75-91). Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Öğmen, K. (2011). *Learning vocabulary through e-portfolios and its effects on 9th grade Anatolian high school students' strategy development and learner autonomy*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Pamukkale University, Denizli.
- Özdere, M. (2005). *State-supported provincial universities English language instructors' attitudes towards learner autonomy*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis submitted to Bilkent University. Ankara.
- Öztürk, H., & Cecen, S. (2007). The effects of portfolio keeping on writing anxiety of EFL students. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 2(3), 218-236.
- Palfreyman, D. & Smith, R. C. (Eds.) (2003), *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives*, Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Palfreyman, D. (2005). Othering in an English language program. *TESOL Quarterly* 39(2): 211-233. Retrieved on December 17, 2014 from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/tesol/tq/2005/00000039/00000002/art00003>
- Pearson, N. (2004). *The idiosyncrasies of out-of-class language learning: A study of mainland Chinese students studying English at tertiary level in New Zealand*. Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference, 2003. Retrieved on August 18, 2015 from www.independentlearning.org/ila03/ila03_pearson.pdf
- Pigada, M., & Schmitt, N. (2006). Vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language*. Volume 18, Number 1, ISSN 1539-0578. Retrieved on August 8, 2015 from <http://nflrc.lll.hawaii.edu/rfl/April2006/pigada/pigada.pdf>
- Pintrich P., & Schunk, D. (1996). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications*. NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Portelli, J. P. (1987). Perspectives and Imperatives on Defining Curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 2(4): 354-367.
- Purpura, J. E., &Graziano-King, J. (2005). Investigating the foreign language needs of professional school students in international affairs: A case study. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 1-33.
- Raya M. J., & Fernández J. M. P. (2002). Learner Autonomy and New Technologies. *Educational Media International*, 39(1), 61-68.
- Reinders, H (2010). Towards a classroom pedagogy for learner autonomy: A framework of independent language learning skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(5), 39-55.

- Reinders, H. & Balçıklanlı, C. (2011a). Do classroom textbooks encourage learner autonomy? *Novitas Royal*, 5(2), 265-272.
- Reinders, H. & Balçıklanlı, C. (2011b). Learning to foster autonomy: the role of teacher education materials. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 2(1), 15-25.
- Renandya, W. A., Rajan, B. R. S., & Jacobs, G. M. (1999). Extensive reading with adult learners of English as a second language. *RELC Journal*, 30(1), 39-61.
- Richards, J. C., J. Platt & H. Platt (1992). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language education*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (Ed.). (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics* (3rd ed.). London: Longman.
- Richards, J. C. (2013). Curriculum approaches in language teaching: forward, central, and backward design. *RELC Journal* 44(1): 5–33
- Rodgers, T. S. (1997). Partnerships in reading and writing. In G. M. Jacobs, C. Davis, & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Successful strategies for extensive reading*, (p. 120-127). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Rogers, C. (1961). *On Becoming a Person*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the “good language learner” can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41–51. Retrieved on October 10, 2014 from <http://www.nkhy.net/jingpinke/buchongyuedu/good%20language%20learners%20by%20Rubin%201975.pdf>
- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (p. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Ryan, R. and Deci, E.L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.
- Sabancı, S. (2007). *EFL Teachers' views on learner autonomy at primary and secondary state schools in Eskişehir*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Anadolu University, Eskişehir.
- Sancar, I. (2001). *Learner Autonomy: A Profile of Teacher Trainees in Pre-service Teacher Education*. Unpublished M. A. Thesis submitted to Uludağ University: Bursa.
- Sanprasert, N. (2010). The application of a course management system to enhance autonomy in learning English as a foreign language. *System*, 38(1), 109-123.

- Scarino, A. & Liddicoat, A. J. (2009). *Teaching and Learning Languages: A Guide* GEON Impact Printing Pty Ltd.
- Scharle, Á. and Szabo, A. (2000). *Learner autonomy: A guide to developing learner responsibility*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schwienhorst, K. (2003). Learner autonomy and tandem learning: Putting principles into practice in synchronous and asynchronous telecommunications environments. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 16(4), 427-443.
- Scriven, M. (1967). The methodology of evaluation. In R. W. Tyler, R. M. Gagne, and M. Scriven (Eds.), *Perspectives of curriculum evaluation*, Volume I (p. 39-83). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Sharp, C., Pocklington, K., & Weindling, D. (2002). Study support and the development of the self-regulated learner. *Educational Research*, 44(1), 29-41.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76, 482-497.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Houser-Marko, L. (2001). Self-concordance, goal attainment, and the pursuit of happiness: Can there be an upward spiral? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80, 152-165.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (1998). Pursuing personal goals: Skills enable progress but not all progress is beneficial. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 24, 1319-1331.
- Schunk, D. H. (2003). Self-efficacy for reading and writing: Influence of modeling, goal setting, and selfevaluation. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19, 159-172.
- Servi, M. (2010). *Attitudes of EFL instructors towards learner autonomy and European language portfolio at Selçuk University*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Selçuk University, Konya.
- Shen, J. (2011). Autonomy in EFL education. *Canadian Social Science*, 7 (5), 27-32. Retrieved on June 2, 2015 from http://scholar.google.com.tr/scholar_url?url=http://www.cscanada.net/index.php/css/article/download/j.css.1923669720110705.381/2016&hl=tr&sa=X&scisig=AAGBfm0d5yF2Ct_adb6uoe7-dh9bc6wE2A&nossl=1&oi=scholar&ei=K5GGVY2PIYOhsgGF4bT4Bw&ved=0CBkQgAMoADAA
- Sheerin, S. (1991). 'State of the art: Self-access'. *Language Teaching*, 24(3), 153-157.
- Sheerin, S. (1997). An exploration of the relationships between self-access and independent learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (p. 54-65). London: Longman.

- Simmons, D. (1996). A study of strategy use in independent learners. In R. Pemberton, E.S.L. Li, W.W.F. Or & H.D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning* (p. 61-75). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press,
- Smith, R. (2001). Group work for autonomy in Asia: Insights from teacher-research. *AILA Review*, 15, 70-81.
- Smith, M. K. (2002) 'Malcolm Knowles, informal adult education, self-direction and andragogy'. *The Encyclopedia of Informal Education*. Retrieved on 12 May, 2015 from www.infed.org/thinkers/et-knowl.htm.
- Smith, R. (2003a). Pedagogy for autonomy as (becoming-) appropriate methodology. In D. Palfreyman & R. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (p. 129-146). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Smith, R. C. (2008). Learner autonomy (Key concepts in ELT). *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 395-397.
- Sperling, R. A., B. C. Howard, S. Richard, and N. Dubois. (2004). Metacognition and selfregulated learning constructs. *Educational Research and Evaluation* 10(2), 117–139.
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6, 245-266.
- Sturtridge, G. (1982). Individualised learning: what are the options for the classroom teacher?. In M. Geddes & G. Sturtrudge (Eds.), *Individualisation* (p. 8-14). London: Modern English Publications.
- Sturtridge, G. (1997). Teaching and learning in self-access centers: changing roles?. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (p. 66-78). London: Longman.
- Sullivan, J. H. (2006). The importance of program evaluation in collegiate foreign language programs. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(4), 590-593.
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50, 158-164.
- Talmage, H. (1982). *Evaluation of programs*. New York: Free Press.
- Thanasoulas, D. (2000). What is learner autonomy and how can it be fostered? *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(11). Retrieved on December 18, 2014 from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Thanasoulas-Autonomy.html>
- Torun, Y. U. (2010). The effects of strategy training on learners' vocabulary development. Unpublished MA Thesis submitted to Gaziantep University, English Language Teaching Department, Gaziantep.

- Trim, J. (2007). Modern languages in the council of Europe 1954-1997. Presentation to the English Profile Seminar, Cambridge, February 2007. Retrieved on November 30, 2014 from https://www.google.com.tr/search?q=Modern+Languages+Project+of+the+Council+of+Europe%E2%80%9D&oq=Modern+Languages+Project+of+the+Council+of+Europe%E2%80%9D&aqs=chrome..69i57j0.584j0j4&sourceid=chrome&es_sm=93&ie=UTF-8
- Tudor, I. (1993). Teacher roles in the learner-centred classroom. *ELT Journal* 1, 47, 22-31.
- Tunç, F. (2010). *Evaluation of an English language teaching program at a public university using CIPP model*. Unpublished Master's thesis submitted to Ankara University, Ankara.
- Tursun, E. S. (2010). *Investigation of elementary learners' perceptions on self-regulated learning strategies, self-efficacy and learner autonomy in science and technology course*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Trakya University, Edirne.
- Ürün, M. F., Demir, C. E., & Akar, H. (2014). A study on ELT high school teachers' practices to foster learner autonomy. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 5(4), 825-836.
- Ushioda, E. (2008). Motivation and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from Good Language Learners* (p. 19-34). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ushioda, E. and J. Ridley (2002). *Working with the European Language Portfolio in Irish post-primary schools: report on an evaluation project*. Retrieved on May 31, 2015 from <http://www.yazikopen.org.uk/yazikopen/node/4495>
- Ushioda, Ema (2014) Motivation, autonomy and metacognition: exploring their interactions. In Lasagabaster, D. and Doiz, A. & Sierra, J. M., (Eds.), *Motivation and Foreign Language Learning: From Theory to Practice* (p. 31-49). Language Learning & Language Teaching (Volume 40). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- van Esch, K. & St.John, O. (Eds.) (2003). *A framework for freedom: learner autonomy in foreign language teacher education*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum- Awareness, Autonomy & Authenticity*. London: Longman.
- Vanijdee, A. (2003). Thai distance English learners and learner autonomy. *Open Learning*, 18(1), 75-84.
- Vann, R. J. and Abraham, R. (1990). Strategies of Unsuccessful Language Learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(2), 98-177.

- Voller, P. (2005). *Teachers, facilitation and autonomy*. Paper presented at the 2nd independent Learning Association Oceania Conference, Manukau Institute of Technology, Auckland, New Zealand. Retrieved on November 20, 2015 from http://independentlearning.org/ILA/ila05/ila05_papers.htm
- Wang, M.C. and Peverly, S.T. (1986). The self-instructive process in learning contexts. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 11, 370-404.
- Wang, P. (2011). Constructivism and learner autonomy in foreign language teaching and learning: to what extent does theory inform practice?. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(3), pp. 273-277.
- Wenden, A. and Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner strategies in language learning*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners*. UK: Prentice Hall International.
- Wenden, A. (1998). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. Great Britain: Prentice Hall.
- West, R. (1994) "State of the art article: Needs Analysis in Language Teaching", *ELTJ*, 27(1), 1-29
- White, C. (2003). *Language learning in distance education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M. and Robert L. Burden (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: a social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Winch, C. (1999). Autonomy as an educational aim. In R. Marples (Ed.), *The aims of education* (p. 74-84). London: Routledge.
- Wright, R. (2006). Youth development and community-based art programs: An exploratory study. *Canadian Social Work*, 8(1), 128-139.
- Yang, N. D. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: Promoting learner autonomy. *System*, 26, 127-135.
- Yapıörner, A. N., (2013). *EFL learners' conceptions of learner autonomy*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Çağ University, Mersin.
- Yarbrough, D. B., Shulha, L. M., Hopson, R. K., & Caruthers, F. A. (2011). *The program evaluation standards: A guide for evaluators and evaluation users* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yıldırım, Ö. (2005). *ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners and future teachers*. Unpublished Master's Thesis submitted to Anadolu University Institute of Educational Sciences, Eskişehir.

- Yıldırım, R. (2013). The Portfolio Effect: Enhancing Turkish ELT Student-Teachers' Autonomy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(8).
- Yu, V. (1993). ER programs: How can they best benefit the teaching and learning of English? *TESL Reporter*, 26, 1-9.
- Yumuk, A. (2002). Letting go of control to the learners: the role of the Internet in promoting a more autonomous view of learning in an academic translation course. *Educational Research*, 44(2), 141-156.
- Yürekli, A. (2012). An analysis of curriculum renewal in an EAP context. *International Journal of Instruction* , Vol. 5, No. 1, 49-68
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2001) Theories of self-regulated learning and academic achievement: An overview and analysis. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (2nd ed., pp. 1-38). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Zimmerman, B.J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: an overview. *Theory Into Practice*. 41(2), 64-70. Retrieved on August 22, 2014, from <http://commonsenseatheism.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/02/Zimmerman-Becoming-a-self-regulated-learner.pdf>

APPENDIX A: Consent Form and Interview

Dear English Instructor,

I am an MA student at the Department of English Language Teaching in Gazi University, and I am an English instructor at TOBB University of Economics and Technology. I am conducting this study to gather information on preparatory schools' programs in terms of fostering learner autonomy. In addition to program evaluation, English instructors' perspectives of learner autonomy and their beliefs about the language programs of their schools in terms encouraging learner autonomy are of special importance in this study. Therefore, educational planners and curriculum designers will be better informed on both how much the programs in preparatory schools foster learner autonomy and how much English instructors think the programs encourage learner autonomy and what factors they think hinder the development of learner autonomy in their schools.

For this purpose, I am carrying out this interview among English instructors in preparatory schools of several state and private universities. I have been permitted to conduct this study at your institution by _____ University Ethics Committee. I therefore would like to know your views about Learner Autonomy and your school's program, and I would like to thank you in advance for your contribution and time.

All information including your name and responses will be kept confidential, and your identity will be coded. Please sign the statement to confirm that that you take part in this study voluntarily.

If you would like to be informed about the results of the study, please provide your e-mail address so that I can share the results with you.

Respectfully yours,

Date:

Participant:

Name, Surname:

Age:

Experience:

B.A.:

E-mail:

“I hereby affirm that I take part in this study voluntarily, and the data I will provide could be used in accordance with the aims of the study.”

Signature: _____

Researcher:

Name, Surname: Aylin DOĞAN FIRAT

MA student in English Language Teaching Program

Gazi University, Ankara

Address: TOBB University of Economics
and Technology

Söğütözü Caddesi No:43, Söğütözü, Ankara, 06560 Turkey

E-mail: adoganfirat@gmail.com

Signature: _____

QUESTIONS

1. How would you describe “Learner Autonomy”? (What does LA mean to you?)

2. As an English teacher do you seek to promote learner autonomy in and out of the classroom? If yes, please elaborate on your practices.

3. What factors do you think may hinder the development of learner autonomy in your school? (some institutional, teacher and learner factors)

4. Do you think there must be some adaptations in the program you follow in your school in order to foster learner autonomy? If yes, please indicate what kind of changes must be made.



GAZİ GELECEKTİR...