

**Readiness for Learner Autonomy:  
An Investigation into Beliefs and Practices of Indonesian  
Tertiary EFL Students**

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## ABSTRACT

Learner autonomy has long been recognised as an imperative in second/foreign language learning. Despite the huge body of research on the benefits of learner autonomy and the interventions aimed at promoting it, little attention has been given to students' readiness for accepting responsibility in their learning, which is a prerequisite for developing learner autonomy. Moreover, the concept of learner autonomy has been the subject of debate: some suggest that it is a Western concept, while some research in the Asian context shows that autonomy is an appropriate educational goal in Asian settings too. To extend this debate, the current study sought to investigate beliefs about, and readiness for, learner autonomy among Indonesian university students by scrutinising their perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English learning, their decision-making abilities, out-of-class autonomous English learning activities, and the reasons behind the held beliefs and practices. The study employed a mixed methods explanatory sequential design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In the quantitative phase, questionnaires were completed by 402 first year undergraduate students in four higher educational institutions in a province in Indonesia. In the qualitative phase, interviews were conducted with 30 of the students purposefully selected based on the results of the quantitative phase. The quantitative data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data obtained through interviews were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The questionnaire results revealed that the students deemed the teacher to be the one in charge of their learning despite their positive perceptions of their decision-making abilities. This could be a result of the teaching and learning style in the Indonesian context in which teacher-centred pedagogy has long been common practice (Azra, 2002; Bjork, 2005; Buchori, 2001; Darmaningtyas, 2004; Siegel, 1986). The results also showed that although the students engaged in a number of out-of-class English learning activities, many of the activities were more receptive than productive in nature. The interviews echoed the questionnaire results, and interviewed students claimed that they were not autonomous in their learning behaviour. Among the reasons offered for not exercising autonomous learning were: lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties in learning English, lack of interest in English, time shortage, and learning resource shortage.

Spearman's rank correlation analyses indicated the presence of positive relationships between students' perceptions of their responsibilities and their decision-making abilities, between their perceptions of responsibilities and their out-of-class learning activities, and between their decision-making abilities and their out-of-class learning activities. The study did not identify any significant differences between males and females in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, or out-of-class learning activities. Also, no significant difference was found between the students of an English major and those of non-English majors in their perceptions of their decision-making abilities. However, there were significant differences between these groups in their perceptions of their responsibilities and out-of-class learning activities. This suggests that the students of the English major tended to accept more responsibility and engage more in English learning activities outside the class than those of non-English majors.

The results from the qualitative phase suggested that the students lacked understanding of the concept of learner autonomy: most of the interviewed students viewed learner autonomy as isolated independent learning which is entirely free from any intervention from the teacher. The results also revealed students' willingness to develop learner autonomy and a recognition of its benefits. Among the mentioned benefits were: a compensation for time and resource scarcity, broadening students' knowledge, and more effective and personalised learning. The study also identified a number of hindering and supporting factors related to the development of learner autonomy. The hindering factors were extrinsic in nature, such as the environment, time, and resources, while the supporting factors were more intrinsic such as the students' willingness to succeed, the broadening of students' knowledge and pleasing their parents. There was a general consensus among the students that the teacher plays an important role in the development of their autonomy. These results suggest that, despite the constraints in developing learner autonomy, the Indonesian students held positive attitudes towards it, which is consistent with other research on Asian students (e.g. Aoki & Smith, 1999; Joshi, 2011). Some significant practical implications for teachers, learners, curriculum designers, and institutions of higher education in the Indonesian context are discussed in this thesis.

**FORM B**  
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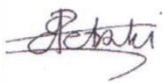
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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iii
FORM B: CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP OF THESIS .....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	ix
LIST OF TABLES .....	xv
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .....	xix
 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .....	 1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background of the study .....	2
1.2.1 The Indonesian context .....	2
1.2.2 A brief history of foreign language education in Indonesia.....	3
1.2.3 An overview of ELT in Indonesia.....	4
1.2.4 Challenges of ELT in Indonesia.....	8
1.3 Research interest area .....	12
1.3.1 Learner autonomy in language education .....	12
1.3.2 Research on learner autonomy in language learning .....	13
1.4 Statement of the research problem.....	15
1.5 The purposes of the study .....	17
1.6 Significance of the study.....	19
1.7 Methodology.....	21
1.8 Organisation of the thesis .....	22
 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	 27
2.1 Introduction.....	27
2.2 Learner autonomy in language education.....	27
2.2.1 A brief history of learner autonomy.....	27
2.2.2 Definitions of learner autonomy .....	28
2.2.3 Levels of learner autonomy .....	32
2.2.4 Versions of learner autonomy .....	35

2.2.5	Misconceptions about learner autonomy .....	38
2.2.6	Arguments for the importance of learner autonomy .....	40
2.3	Characteristics of autonomous language learners .....	42
2.4	Learner autonomy and culture .....	44
2.5	Learner autonomy and learner variables .....	48
2.5.1	Learner autonomy and language proficiency .....	48
2.5.2	Learner autonomy and gender .....	50
2.6	Teacher's and learner's roles in learner autonomy .....	52
2.6.1	Teacher's roles .....	52
2.6.2	Learner's roles .....	55
2.7	Approaches to fostering learner autonomy .....	57
2.7.1	Resource-based approaches .....	57
2.7.2	Technology-based approaches .....	59
2.7.3	Curriculum-based approaches .....	62
2.7.4	Teacher-based approaches .....	65
2.7.5	Classroom-based approaches .....	68
2.7.6	Learner-based approaches .....	72
2.7.7	Summary .....	74
2.8	Research on beliefs about learner autonomy and out-of-class English learning .....	74
2.8.1	Beliefs about learner autonomy .....	74
2.8.2	Out-of-class English learning .....	82
2.9	Research on learner autonomy in the Indonesian context .....	85
2.10	Summary .....	86
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....		89
3.1	Introduction .....	89
3.2	Theoretical framework: Pragmatism .....	89
3.3	Research approach .....	91
3.3.1	The mixed methods approach .....	91
3.3.2	Advantages and disadvantages of the mixed methods approach .....	93
3.3.3	Major types of mixed methods design .....	95
3.3.4	Rationale for choosing the mixed methods approach and the explanatory design .....	96
3.3.5	Validity of the mixed methods design .....	100

3.3.6	Case study .....	104
3.4	Research participants and research sites .....	105
3.5	Data collection instruments .....	108
3.5.1	Questionnaires.....	108
3.5.2	Interviews.....	114
3.6	Steps of data collection .....	117
3.6.1	Ethics and approvals .....	117
3.6.2	The quantitative phase .....	118
3.6.3	The qualitative phase .....	119
3.7	Data management and analysis .....	121
3.7.1	Data management.....	121
3.7.2	Data analysis .....	121
3.8	Summary.....	125
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE .....		127
4.1	Introduction.....	127
4.2	Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities.....	127
4.3	Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities.....	132
4.4	Students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class .....	134
4.5	The relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities.....	139
4.6	The relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.....	139
4.7	The relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.....	140
4.8	Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender.....	140
4.9	Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between students of an English major and students of a non-English major.....	142
4.10	Summary of quantitative findings.....	144



CHAPTER 5: RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE PHASE .....	149
5.1 Introduction.....	149
5.2 What does learner autonomy mean to the students?.....	149
5.3 The benefits of learner autonomy in learning English.....	151
5.4 The locus of responsibilities in student learning .....	155
5.5 Characteristics of autonomous language learners.....	160
5.6 Students' perceptions of their autonomous behaviour.....	163
5.7 Factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy .....	167
5.8 What teachers should do to help students become autonomous.....	171
5.9 Language learning activities in which the students engaged outside the class.....	173
5.10 The importance of out-of-class learning activities for students in learning English ....	174
5.11 Summary of qualitative findings.....	176
5.12 Integration of quantitative and qualitative findings.....	178
 CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS .....	 183
6.1 Introduction.....	183
6.2 Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities.....	184
6.3 Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities.....	188
6.4 Students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class .....	189
6.5 The relationships among students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class .....	196
6.6 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender.....	197
6.7 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors .....	198
6.8 Reasons behind students' beliefs about and practices of learner autonomy.....	199
6.8.1 Students' understanding about the concept of learner autonomy .....	199
6.8.2 The benefits of learner autonomy in English language learning .....	202
6.8.3 Characteristics of autonomous language learners.....	204
6.8.4 Students' perceptions of their autonomous behaviour.....	207
6.8.5 Factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy.....	208

6.8.6	What teachers should do to help students become autonomous .....	214
6.9	Chapter summary .....	219
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION .....		225
7.1	Introduction.....	225
7.2	Overview of the project .....	225
7.3	Summary of major findings .....	227
7.4	Practical implications.....	240
7.4.1	Learner training.....	240
7.4.2	Teacher Training .....	246
7.4.3	Recommendations for classroom and teaching materials .....	248
7.5	Limitations of the study .....	250
7.6	Recommendations for future research .....	251
7.7	Conclusion .....	252
REFERENCES.....		255
APPENDICES.....		285
Appendix 1: Institutional approval to conduct research.....		285
Appendix 2a: Participant Information Form (English version) .....		287
Appendix 2b: Participant Information Form (Indonesian version).....		289
Appendix 3a: Participant consent form (English version) .....		291
Appendix 3b: Participant consent form (Indonesian version).....		293
Appendix 4a: Questionnaire (English version) .....		295
Appendix 4b: Questionnaire (Indonesian version).....		297
Appendix 5a: Interview questions (English version) .....		301
Appendix 5b: Interview questions (Indonesian version).....		303
Appendix 6a: A sample interview transcript (English version) .....		305
Appendix 6b: A sample interview transcript (Indonesian version).....		309

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Five level model of learner autonomy .....	33
Table 3.1	Research participant profile for the quantitative phase .....	107
Table 3.2	Research participant profile for the qualitative phase .....	109
Table 3.3	List of adapted items of the questionnaire .....	111
Table 4.1	Students' perceptions of their teacher's responsibilities .....	129
Table 4.2	Students' perceptions of their own responsibilities .....	131
Table 4.3	Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities .....	133
Table 4.4	Students' learning activities outside the class .....	135
Table 4.5	Students' learning activities inside the class .....	138
Table 4.6	Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities .....	139
Table 4.7	Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning outside the class .....	139
Table 4.8	Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class .....	140
Table 4.9	Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities depending on gender (N=402).....	141
Table 4.10	The Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities depending on gender (N=402) .....	141
Table 4.11	Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their autonomous English learning activities outside the class regarding gender (N=402).....	141
Table 4.12	Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities regarding majors of study (N=402) .....	142
Table 4.13	Mann-Whitney U test results of the students' autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on major of study (N=402) .....	142
Table 4.14	Mann-Whitney U test results of students' autonomous English learning activities outside the class in regard to major of study for each item .....	143
Table 4.15	Mann-Whitney U test results of the students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities regarding majors of study (N=402).....	144

Table 4.16	The details of quantitative findings.....	145
Table 5.1	Factors that hinder and support the development of learner autonomy.....	171
Table 5.2	The details of qualitative findings.....	177

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1	Types of mixed methods design.....	97
Figure 3.2	Flowchart of procedures undertaken for the study .....	102
Figure 4.1	Students' out-of-class English learning activities .....	136
Figure 4.2	Out-of-class English learning activities more and less practised by the students .....	137
Figure 4.3	Students' learning activities inside the class .....	138
Figure 5.1	Benefits of learner autonomy .....	153

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BSNP – *Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* [National Education Standards Board]

CALL – Computer-Assisted Language Learning

CI – Confidence Interval

CMC – Computer-Mediated Communication

CRAPEL – *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues*

DVD – Digital Versatile Disc

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

ELT – English Language Teaching

ESP – English for Specific Purposes

HREC – Human Research Ethics Committee

KTSP – *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* (the school-based curriculum)

RQ – Research question

TOEIC – Test of English for International Communication

VCD – Video Compact Disc

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

---

*“Not I, nor anyone else can travel that road for you.  
You must travel it by yourself.  
It is not far. It is within reach.  
Perhaps you have been on it since you were born, and did not know.  
Perhaps it is everywhere - on water and land.”*

— Walt Whitman, *Leaves of Grass* (goodreads, n.d.)

#### 1.1 Introduction

Learner autonomy has long been recognised as an imperative in second/foreign language learning. An escalating growth of interest in learner-centred approaches to language teaching over the past few decades, coupled with recent advancements in technology-based approaches, makes clear the point that learner autonomy is an indispensable element in second/foreign language learning. A large number of studies have introduced pedagogical interventions in the classroom aiming to promote learner autonomy. However, limited research has been done on students' readiness for accepting responsibility for their learning, which is a prerequisite for developing learner autonomy. This research investigated Indonesian university students' beliefs about learner autonomy, with the aim of providing a better understanding of students' readiness to develop autonomous learning; this understanding is necessary before any actions aimed at promoting learner autonomy are put into practice. It is expected that the findings of this research can also be applied in other contexts that share similar characteristics to those of the Indonesian context.

The following section provides the background of the study (1.2) outlining the context of the research, Indonesia (1.2.1), a brief history of foreign language education in Indonesia (1.2.2),

an overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Indonesian context (1.2.3), and the challenges of ELT in Indonesia (1.2.4). Together it is these factors which demonstrate why this research was worth conducting. Then, there is a description of the research interest area (1.3) which covers, briefly, learner autonomy in language education (1.3.1) and research on learner autonomy in language learning (1.3.2). The chapter continues with a statement of the research problem which serves as the rationale for conducting this study (1.4). Following this, the chapter presents the research aims and research questions (1.5). Then, the significance of the study is outlined (1.6) and the research methodology is presented (1.7). The chapter concludes with an outline of the organisation of the thesis (1.8).

## **1.2 Background of the study**

To provide a better understanding of the context of the study, this section offers an overview of the context, namely Indonesia, followed by a brief history of foreign language teaching in this context, and an overview and identification of the major challenges of ELT in Indonesia.

### **1.2.1 The Indonesian context**

Indonesia, officially the Republic of Indonesia, is an archipelago in Southeast Asia located between the Indian and the Pacific Oceans. It consists of around 17,500 islands, with five main ones: Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, and Papua, and is referred to as the largest archipelago on earth because of the number of islands. Inhabited by around 257 million people as of 2015, Indonesia is the fourth most populous nation in the world ([www.worldpopulationreview.com](http://www.worldpopulationreview.com), 2016, Retrieved 27 May 2016). It is home to diverse religions, ethnic groups, cultures, and languages. There are six religions officially acknowledged by the government: Islam, Protestantism, Catholicism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism, with Islam the dominant religion. According to the 2010 Indonesian



census, 87.2% of the total population is Muslim. Indonesia is also exceptionally diverse in cultures. There exist around 350 ethnic groups and tribes, many with their own customs, styles of village, social structure, beliefs, and religions (Madya, 2007). Of this tremendous number, Javanese is the dominant ethnic group, which represents around 42% of the total population (Suryadinata, Arifin, & Ananta, 2003). Consisting of 34 provinces, Indonesia is also home to over 700 local languages, more than 150 of which are spoken by over 10,000 speakers (Hamied, 2012): *Javanese* is the most spoken local language with 60.62 million speakers, followed by *Sundanese* in second place with 24.15 million speakers, and *Madurese* in the third place with 6.72 million speakers (Renandya, 2004). Although the members of each ethnic group speak their own local language to communicate with people in their community, they use *Bahasa Indonesia* as the main language of communication across cultures. *Bahasa Indonesia* is the national language of Indonesia and serves as the means of inter-cultural communication as well as a symbol of nationhood, an agent of national identity, and a tool for uniting the country's diverse tribes and communities (Hamied, 2012). Despite all this diversity, the people, as stipulated in the historic 1928 *Sumpah Pemuda* (the Youth Pledge), are united by being Indonesian, acknowledging Indonesia as the only motherland, *Bangsa Indonesia* as the only nation, and honouring *Bahasa Indonesia* as the only language of unity; all of this is clearly articulated in the motto *Bhineka Tunggal Ika* or Unity in Diversity (Madya, 2007).

### **1.2.2 A brief history of foreign language education in Indonesia**

Foreign languages have been part of the Indonesian education system for a long time. During the Dutch colonial period, several foreign languages, including Dutch, German, French, and English, were introduced in Dutch schools in Indonesia (Candraningrum, 2008), before the Indonesian government officially declared English as the first foreign language taught in

schools not long after Indonesia's independence. Indonesia was colonised by the Dutch for more than 350 years and then by the Japanese for another 3.5 years before it gained its independence on 17 August 1945. According to Mistar (2005), despite the long period of colonisation, ELT in the country can only be traced from the 1900s, when there was action to substitute the French taught as a subject in *Europesche Lagereschool* (European Primary Schools) with English. When the Japanese army occupied Indonesia and forced the Dutch out in early 1942, the teaching of English as well as Dutch was suppressed throughout the Indonesian archipelago (Thomas 1968, cited in Mistar, 2005), resulting in the burning of books and other materials written in English or Dutch. As a substitute, *Bahasa Melayu*, later on called *Bahasa Indonesia*, was taught extensively in addition to the Japanese language (Mistar, 2005).

On August 18, 1945, one day after the proclamation of Indonesian independence, the constitution, *Undang-undang Dasar 1945* (the 1945 constitution), was adopted. Chapter XV, article 36 of this constitution articulates that the language of the state is *Bahasa Indonesia*. However, a decision about the choice of the foreign language of the country had not been yet made (Mistar, 2005). Later, the government decided to adopt English, rather than Dutch. The reason for choosing English was that Dutch was regarded as the language of the colonialists and it did not have such a powerful role in international communication as English did (Smith, 1991; Lauder, 2008). From that time, English has been a compulsory subject in secondary schools (Yulia, 2014).

### **1.2.3 An overview of ELT in Indonesia**

In this globalised era, international business exchange and trade necessitate a language for communication which is broadly used by countries around the globe. As a result English, a

significant international *lingua franca* and the most widely spoken language in the world (Cholakova, 2015), has become the most commonly taught foreign language in Indonesia.

English has been a compulsory subject from secondary to tertiary levels of education for a long time and, during the last two decades, it has been offered as an elective and a local content subject at the primary level. The inclusion of English at this level was based on the Education and Culture Minister's decree No. 060/U/1993 (Lestari, 2003; Zein, 2011) and was first officially included in *Kurikulum 1994* (the 1994 Curriculum) (Adityarini, 2014). The recognition of its status was then reinforced in *Kurikulum 2006* (the 2006 curriculum), known as KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or the school-based curriculum). However, in the newly launched *Kurikulum 2013* (the 2013 curriculum), labelled as K-13, English was not included, either as an elective or compulsory subject in primary schools. The reasons for this exclusion were: first, there were so many subjects taught in primary schools that teaching English was believed to put more burden on the students; and, second, the exclusion would allow primary school students to strengthen their mother tongue, *Bahasa Indonesia*, before they were introduced to foreign languages ([www.voaindonesia.com](http://www.voaindonesia.com), 2012). However, primary schools are still allowed to teach English as an elective subject as long as they have capability to teach the language (Muhammad, 2012).

Although a new curriculum, K-13, has been launched, the curriculum in place for primary and secondary schools currently is the 2006 one. To a great extent this is due to the many problems arising from the implementation of K-13, including its premature status, content and methodological issues, the complexity of assessment methods, material printing and distribution issues, teacher unpreparedness, etc. ([www.republika.co.id](http://www.republika.co.id), 2014). In responding to these issues, the new government that took office in 2014, through the Education and

Culture Minister's decree Number 160 of 2014, suspended the K-13 implementation and reenacted the previous 2006, school-based, curriculum. The 2006 curriculum is developed by each school based on "the national set framework, standards of content, and standard of graduate (exit) competencies" (Madya, 2007, p. 197) and in light of the distinctive needs of every school according to geographical situation, resources, and socio-cultural context (Murtiningsih, 2014). This curriculum promotes student-centred learning, and students are placed at the center of the learning process to encourage motivation, interest, creativity, initiative, inspiration, autonomy, and learning spirit (*Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan* [BSNP] or National Education Standards Board, 2007). As with the primary and secondary levels of education, the curriculum for the tertiary level is also developed by each individual institution, based on the national standards of education for each program of study, which cover the development of intellectual intelligence, good behaviour, and skills (*Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 12 Tahun 2012 tentang Pendidikan Tinggi* [Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 12 Year 2012 on Higher Education]).

The purposes of ELT in the Indonesian context vary according to the level of education. In primary schools, the purpose of ELT is to develop students' basic communicative competence within the school context, and raise students' awareness of the nature and importance of English in an effort to improve the nation's competitiveness in the global community (BSNP, 2006a).

In junior high schools, the purposes are (1) to develop students' oral and written communicative competence to achieve functional literacy level; (2) to raise students' awareness of the nature and importance of English as part of the effort to improve the nation's competitiveness in the global community; and (3) to develop students' understanding

of the relationship between language and culture (BSNP, 2006b). The purposes of ELT in senior high schools are similar to those in junior high school except in the first, which has changed to develop students' oral and written communicative competence to achieve an *informational* (instead of *functional*) literacy level (BSNP, 2006c). According to Wells (1987), a *functional* level entails the ability to deal with the demands of everyday life that are expressed in the written word, for example having the ability to read newspapers, follow instructions, complete an official form and so forth. Meanwhile, the *informational* level is related to the role of literacy in the communication of knowledge. This level of literacy emphasises reading and writing but particularly reading for the purpose of accessing information.

At the tertiary level, the focus of ELT for non-English major students is on the development of students' reading skills, translation from English into *Bahasa Indonesia*, and sometimes writing skills (Kirkpatrick, 2007). ELT at this level aims to support the need students have for English during their studies at tertiary level, such as to understand learning materials written in English (Ahmad, 2002). Thus, the kind of English taught for non-English major students is English for academic or specific purposes (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Lowenberg, 1991, Sofendi, 2008). By comparison, for the English major students the objective is to develop both language skills and theoretical knowledge (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Thus, the curriculum of the English major usually contains subjects concerned with English language skills and pedagogical knowledge as well as a range of non-English subjects that are compulsory at national, institutional and faculty levels.

The time allocated for English instruction also varies according to the level of education. Both in junior and senior high schools, students are required to take 4 credit hours per week

(Yulia, 2014): a credit equals 40 minutes of instruction in junior high schools (BSNP, 2006b) and 45 minutes in senior high schools (BSNP, 2006c). At the university level, the students of non-English majors are usually required to take two or three credits of English (Kirkpatrick, 2007), where each credit equals 50 minutes (*Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia Nomor 49 Tahun 2014 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan Tinggi* [Regulation of the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia Number 49 Year 2014 on National Standards for Higher Education]).

While the status of ELT in Indonesia has now been established and the teaching curricula have undergone a number of changes, there is general dissatisfaction and criticism over the students' foreign language outcomes and achievements (e.g. Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Huda, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Madya, 2002, Marcellino, 2008). This situation provided a strong motivation for the current research and the issue is discussed in the next section.

#### **1.2.4 Challenges of ELT in Indonesia**

The challenges of ELT in Indonesia have been well documented in the literature. Although much effort has been made to improve its quality, the indications are that ELT in Indonesia has so far been unable to achieve its stipulated goals (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Madya, 2002). After having studied English for no fewer than 800 contact hours by the end of secondary school, many students are still unable to use English for communication purposes (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Madya 2002). Beh's (1997) study found out that 85% of 1,265 third year senior high school students in four provinces in Indonesia obtained less than satisfactory academic results in their English proficiency, both spoken and written. Similar disappointing results were revealed in Lamb's (2000) study, in which it was found that 75% of students entering university had no more than an 'elementary' level of English proficiency. The unsatisfactory

proficiency of students at the tertiary level was also discussed by Kirkpatrick (2007) who noted that because the entry level of most students is very low, the English class focuses on the teaching of grammar and translation, and that most ESP programs failed to appropriately develop students' English language proficiency.

In response to the challenges, the government has frequently attempted to improve the quality of ELT in Indonesia. Notably, there have been 8 revisions of curricula since the first curriculum was born in 1947 (see Yulia, 2014) which have included the introduction of different types of curricula, such as the 2004 competency-based, the 2006 school-based, and the 2013 character-based curricula. Despite these efforts, the changes have yet to bring any significant improvement to ELT (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Huda, 1999; Madya, 2002; Marcellino, 2008). Many suggest that the ongoing problems are caused by factors other than the curriculum. Musthafa (2001), for example, named a variety of factors such as the teachers' lack of self-assurance in using English in front of their own students, the limited time allotted to English instruction, the lack of good and authentic learning materials, the constraints teachers face in creating well-designed and meaningful exercises due to large class sizes and packed curriculum, the lack of English speaking practice in the classroom due to the emphasis on grammar knowledge, the teachers' inclination to depend on non-communicative learning tasks and to use the mother tongue, and the students' lack of opportunity to use English out of the classroom. Other issues identified include large class sizes, teachers' low English proficiency, teachers' low salaries, the inadequate preparation of teachers to teach the new curriculum, and the cultural impediments to taking on the new teacher role of facilitator (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). What is more, the teacher-centred instruction and rote learning that have become routine in the Indonesian educational system (Azra, 2002; Bjork, 2005; Darmaningtyas, 2004; Siegel, 1986) generally give the

students little or no place to practise the target language, and this may be de-motivating. In fact, Lamb (2007) found in regard to the Indonesian context that the low level of student interest in English was due to the teacher-centred classroom instruction they received, and classrooms where there was almost no communicative use of language encouraged.

The causes of the ongoing problems in ELT in Indonesia are evidently complex and will take a long time to understand fully, but there remains the responsibility of finding ways to help students achieve satisfactory English outcomes. The results are still disappointing given the latest curricula has advocated learner-centred approaches and teacher efforts to encourage student creativity, motivation, and independence. While a number of avenues have been pursued to address these challenges, one important measure that has not been considered is the development of learner autonomy. As Chan (2001b, p. 285) suggests, when students cannot learn in the way we teach them, we have to help them find ways to do their own learning.

It is important to note here, however, although the majority of Indonesian EFL students have demonstrated low attainment in English proficiency, a small minority do in fact succeed in achieving a satisfactory level of communicative competence by the time they enter university (Lamb, 2002). To quote Lamb, "... where learning opportunities are scarce, ... students ... determined to learn the language actually seek them out and benefit from them" (p. 46). And from the research of Dardjowidjojo: "With few exceptions, generally a high school graduate is not able to communicate intelligibly in English. Those who are can be suspected of having taken private courses or [they] come from a certain family background" (Dardjowidjojo, 2000, p. 27). Such observations suggest that the students need to exercise autonomous learning if they are to achieve an appropriate level of communicative proficiency and become



successful language learners, which is exactly what Lamb (2002) argues: “Almost certainly, successful learners would need a degree of autonomy” (p. 38).

While learner autonomy necessitates students’ acceptance of responsibility to take control of their own learning (see e.g. Benson, 2001; Benson & Voller, 1997; Dickinson, 1995; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991, Littlewood, 1999), Indonesian students’ learning behaviour is evidently otherwise. The literature suggests that Indonesian students are passive, shy, and quiet learners (Exley, 2005), which, at least, to some extent is believed to be a result of the teacher-centred pedagogy they experienced. The teacher-centred pedagogy generally fails to encourage students’ self-expression, creativity and responsibility (Crumly, Diettz, & d’Angelo, 2014; Garrett, 2008; Rogers & Frieberg, 1994; Shor, 1992; Wolk, 1998), so that learners may be reluctant to take responsibility for their own learning and expect too much of their teachers.

Given that learner autonomy has been linked to strong language learning benefits, including more effective learning (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, Little, 1991), enhanced proficiency, (e.g. Apple, 2011, Karatas, Alci, Yurtseven, & Yuksel, 2015) and increased motivation (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dickinson, 1987, 1995), promoting learner autonomy in the Indonesian context would be an important step to helping students achieve satisfactory results in their English learning. However, before any interventions aimed at promoting autonomy are put into action, it is important to explore students’ beliefs about learner autonomy, in the expectation that the knowledge will give a better understanding of students’ readiness for autonomous learning.

### **1.3 Research interest area**

#### **1.3.1 Learner autonomy in language education**

Learner autonomy has been a central focus of research and practice in language education for some thirty years. The evident escalating trend of learner-centred pedagogy makes clear that learner autonomy is an important component in language education. The concept of learner autonomy in the field of language learning started to take root with the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project, which began in 1971 (Benson, 2001). Holec's 1981 report to the project was an early determining document on learner autonomy: in it he defined the concept as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 3). Since then, numerous definitions have emerged but researchers have not agreed on one straightforward definition that adequately describes the concept. To a great extent, this is due to its being a multifaceted concept whose meaning can take many different forms and be discussed from many different perspectives (Benson, 2001; Boud, 1988; Smith, 2008). As Benson (2001) points out, learner autonomy may be different "even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times" (p. 47). Despite the numerous definitions, "Holec's (1981) definition has proved remarkably robust and remains the most widely cited definition in the field" (Benson, 2007, p. 22).

Learner autonomy has long been regarded as an eventual goal of education (Benson, 2001; Boud, 1988; Dang, 2010; Haydon, 1983; McClure, 2001; Waterhouse, 1990) and its benefits in language education are justified for a number of reasons: among others these are primarily ideological, psychological, and economic (Crabbe, 1993). The ideological argument for promoting learner autonomy is based on the idea that learners have the right to make free choices in regard to their learning. The psychological reason is simply that people learn better when they are in charge of their own learning. The economic reason is related to the

insufficient resources possessed by society to provide the level of personal instruction required by all its members in every arena of learning. Individuals, therefore, must be able to address their own learning needs if they are to gain the knowledge and skill they desire. Evidence indicating the practical potencies of learner autonomy has been shown by research. It has been suggested in the literature that autonomous learning leads to increased learner motivation (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dickinson, 1987, 1995; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Lee, 1996; Miller, Hopkins, & Tsang, 2005; Tagaki, 2003; Ushioda, 1996), enhanced language proficiency (e.g. Apple, 2011; Dafei, 2007; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Dincer, Yesilyurt, & Takkac, 2012; Hashemian & Soureshjani, 2011; Karatas et al., 2015; Lowe, 2009; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan, Latief, & Suharmanto, 2013; Ng, Confessore, Yusoff, Aziz, & Lajis, 2011; Sakai & Tagaki, 2009), and students' active involvement in learning activities (e.g. Dam, 1995; Dincer et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2005; Natri, 2007; Nunes, 2004; Rao, 2005; Smith, 2003). Given its numerous benefits, learner autonomy is an important measure to develop in the Indonesian context.

### **1.3.2 Research on learner autonomy in language learning**

Since the term learner autonomy was first coined by Holec, a great number of research studies have been conducted on the topic. Among the aspects that have received substantial attention are: the relationship between learner autonomy and proficiency (e.g. Apple, 2011; Cho, Weinstein, & Wicker, 2011; Dafei, 2007; Shangarffam & Ghazisaeedi, 2013; Hrochová, 2012; Karatas et al., 2015; Lowe, 2009; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan et al. 2013; Ng et al., 2011; Nguyen, 2008; Sakai & Takagi, 2009); the connection between learner autonomy and motivation (e.g. Conttia, 2007; Furtak & Kunter, 2012; Gardner & Yung, 2015; Ma & Ma, 2012; Oxbrow & Juárez, 2010; Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002); classroom-based practices aiming at promoting learner autonomy (e.g. Murphy, 2008; Nguyen & Gu, 2013;

Tamjid & Birjandi, 2011; Yang, 1998); assessment of learner autonomy (e.g. Karababa, Eker, & Arik, 2010; Champagne, Clayton, Dimmitt, Laszewski, Savage, Shaw, Stroupe, Thein, & Walter, 2001; Lai, 2001; Macaskill & Taylor, 2010; Nematipour, 2012; Zhang, 2011); promoting learner autonomy using technology (e.g. Groß & Wolff, 2001; Hafner & Miller, 2011; Lee, 2011; Mutlu & Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Yumuk, 2002); students' readiness for autonomous learning (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan, 2001a, 2001b; Chan, Spratt & Humphreys, 2002; Cotterall, 1995a; Dişlen, 2011; Farahani, 2014; Hozayen, 2011; Joshi, 2011; Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014; Rungwaraphong, 2012; Tamer, 2013; Yıldırım, 2008); and, out-of-class learning (e.g. Bayat, 2011; Ekşi & Aydın, 2013; Hoyt, 2015; Hyland, 2004; Inomata, 2008; Lai & Gong, 2015; Mohammadi & Moini, 2015; Pickard, 1996; Shen, Tseng, Kuo, Su, & Chen, 2005; Suh, Wasansomsithi, Short, & Majid, 1999; Tok, 2011).

Despite the great number of studies, very few empirical studies have been done in the Indonesian context. As discussed earlier, learner autonomy may facilitate students' improvement in language learning. It also aligns with the government's efforts to promote learner-centred approaches in the Indonesian context. Among the few studies that have been undertaken are Ardi (2013), Lamb (2004), Myartawan, et al. (2013), and Wachidah (2001): each of these studies had a different research focus. Ardi (2013) investigated autonomous behaviour and English learning activities beyond the classroom by looking at 192 first year university students. Lamb (2004) examined autonomous attitudes amongst EFL learners. His study involved 12 purposefully chosen learners in provincial Indonesia during their first year in junior high school. Myartawan, et al. (2013) investigated the correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency among 120 first semester English-major students of a university. Wachidah's (2001) study focused on student learning styles and autonomous learning involving 126 students in a Javanese-dominated general high school. Taking into

account the large number of educational institutions in Indonesia and the potential for research given the many facets of learner autonomy, these embody relatively few studies.

#### **1.4 Statement of the research problem**

Despite the huge body of research on learner autonomy, the need for conducting the present study was justified on several grounds. Much of the literature on learner autonomy suggests that the concept of autonomy may be culturally conditioned (e.g. Benson, 2001; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Littlewood, 1999; Benson, Chik & Lim, 2003; Palfreyman, 2003). Some argue that learner autonomy may be Western-based notion so that it has restricted applicability to Asian contexts (e.g. Ellis, 1996; Holliday, 1994; Jones, 1995; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Pennycook, 1989), including Indonesia (Dardjowidjojo, 2001). Scrutinising the Javanese society, one of the dominant ethnic groups in Indonesia, Dardjowidjojo (2001) came to the conclusion that learner autonomy is not a concept that can be readily implemented in this context due to certain philosophical and cultural views held by members of the society. He argues: “the Western concepts cannot be conveniently implemented without changing the cultural values of the society” (p. 1). Others, however, suggest that autonomy is universal in nature and not restricted to the West (Little, 1999; Littlewood, 1999). Several studies in the Asian context have shown that Asian students may well have a positive attitude towards learner autonomy (e.g. Aoki & Smith, 1999; Joshi, 2011). Therefore, the research undertaken for this study is important as it contributes to the current debate on learner autonomy and extends our understanding of the applicability of autonomy, especially in the Indonesian context in which beliefs about learner autonomy are still underexplored.

Much of the available research on learners' beliefs about learner autonomy in non-Western contexts, mostly focused on students' readiness for autonomous learning, has been conducted in specific non-Western countries or contexts such as Hong Kong (e.g. Chan, 2001a, 2001b; Chan et al., 2002), Turkey (e.g. Koçak, 2003; Üstünlüoğlu, 2009; Yıldırım, 2008), Japan (e.g. Gamble, Aliponga, Wilkins, Koshiyama, Yoshida, & Ando, 2012), Thailand (e.g. Rungwaraphong, 2012), Iran (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Farahani, 2014), Saudi Arabia (e.g. Tamer, 2013), Palestine (e.g. Razeq, 2014), and Nepal (e.g. Joshi, 2011). As indicated in the previous section, there have been limited studies on the issue of learner autonomy conducted in the Indonesian context, especially studies that systematically look into learner beliefs about learner autonomy including student perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in learning, their decision-making abilities, autonomous English learning activities inside and outside the classroom, and the reasons behind their beliefs and practice. More information is needed to broaden our understanding of learner beliefs about autonomy in language learning in the context of Indonesia and its education system, and this is of a particular significance given the enormous number of educational institutions across the country.

Many studies on learners' readiness for autonomy that have been undertaken so far have used a quantitative approach, and the data were mainly collected by means of questionnaires (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan, 2001b; Koçak, 2003; Rungwaraphong, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008); very few studies have employed data collection methods that lend themselves to qualitative analysis or even a combination of the two. The present study employed a mixed methods approach. The results provide information about students' beliefs and behaviour, and also offer a deep understanding of the reasons for the beliefs held and behaviours practised. By combining the

strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods, there is a better understanding of the research problems (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

As mentioned already, most of the studies exploring learner readiness for autonomy have been focused on describing students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities, students' decision-making abilities, and students' autonomous English learning activities inside and outside the class. Very few of the studies have examined the relationships between these variables and their connections with other variables such as gender and major of study. Hence, further investigation is needed to better understand the links among the variables, and these are matters which this study addressed.

### **1.5 The purposes of the study**

The main purpose of the current study was to investigate Indonesian university students' beliefs about and readiness for learner autonomy in English language learning. More specifically, the study attempted to describe students' perceptions of both their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning, their decision-making abilities in English language learning and the extent to which the students engaged in autonomous language learning activities outside and inside the class. The study also sought to examine whether students' perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class and whether students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. In addition, it examined whether there are any statistically significant differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between female and male students, and between the students who do an English major and

students doing non-English majors. The study also sought to explain the reasons behind students' beliefs and practices about learner autonomy with regard to outside and inside classroom learning.

The overarching research question of the study was 'What is the level of Indonesian EFL university students' readiness for practising learner autonomy and their engagement in out-of-class English learning activities?' In particular, the specific questions the current research attempted to answer were:

1. How do the students perceive their teachers' and their own responsibilities for their English language learning?
2. How do the students perceive their decision-making abilities in English language learning?
3. To what extent do the students report that they engage in autonomous language learning activities outside and inside the class?
4. Do their perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their decision-making abilities?
5. Do their perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class?
6. Do their perceptions of their decision-making abilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class?
7. Are there any statistically significant differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on gender?
8. Are there any statistically significant differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities



outside the class between the students who are English major and the students who are non-English majors?

9. What are the reasons behind the students' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy?

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

Despite the fact that an abundance of research on learner autonomy has been conducted in the broad Asian context, scant research on this issue has been conducted specifically in the Indonesian context. The very few studies that have been undertaken in the Indonesian context include studies by Ardi (2013), Lamb (2004), Myartawan, et al. (2013), and Wachidah (2001), and each of these had a different focus to that of the present study. The researchers either focused on a limited number of students, or particular variables related to learner autonomy such as links between learner autonomy and language proficiency and students' autonomous behaviour and learning activities outside the classroom. In light of this, the present study is the first to systematically investigate students' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Indonesian context, and specifically address student readiness for learner autonomy. Thus, it fills an important gap in the field of learner autonomy and out-of-class English learning, and, particularly as this exists in the Indonesian context.

The present study also contributes to the understanding of Indonesian university EFL students' beliefs about learner autonomy, the practices of learner autonomy, and the reasons behind these beliefs and practices. Thus, it enriches the increasing but still limited literature on learner autonomy in the Asian context which appears to present contradictory results on Asian students' ability to be autonomous in their learning. The findings of the study provide teachers, curriculum designers and institutions with insights on student beliefs about learner

autonomy which will be helpful in formulating appropriate future interventions aimed at assisting students to improve their language learning in the Indonesian context. Further, findings from this should be applicable not only in the Indonesian context but also in other contexts, in other countries, that share similar characteristics.

Most previous research on readiness for learner autonomy mainly is focused on describing students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities, students' decision-making abilities, and students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class. Very little attention has been paid to the links between these variables and other variables such as gender and major of study. To the best of my knowledge, there has not been a study that looked at the relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom, and also the relationship between students' decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom. Neither has there been any study that examined the differences between the students who major in English and those who have non-English majors in term of their perceptions of their responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. The present study provides a strong theoretical contribution since it also examined the relationships between aforementioned variables and the differences in student's perceptions with regard to their major of study, that is, between the students who have English as their major and those who do not.

Additionally, most previous research on students' readiness for learner autonomy has primarily utilised questionnaires in investigating learners' readiness for learner autonomy (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan, 2001b; Koçak, 2003; Rungwaraphong, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008). In

combining both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study, the present study makes a distinctive contribution to the field and offers an in-depth exploration into the problem of the investigation and an understanding of autonomous learning issue that present day educators in Indonesia must address.

## **1.7 Methodology**

To address the aims the research, this study used a mixed methods approach and took the form of the sequential explanatory design. The data were collected from one of the provinces of Indonesia thus it should be treated as a case study. Four hundred and two EFL students from four different institutions of higher education were recruited as voluntary participants. All the participants were first year students doing English as their major or were non-English language majors, they were both male and female, were from eighteen to twenty years of age, and had varied English language proficiency levels. The focus on a particular Indonesian province was justified given the aim to provide an in-depth understanding of a particular context.

In keeping with the nature of the mixed methods approach and sequential explanatory design, the data were collected and analysed sequentially: the quantitative data collection and analysis were done in the first phase and the qualitative data collection and analysis were done in the second phase of the study. To collect the quantitative data (n=402), a questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was adapted from Chan et al. (2002) and divided into three sections: Section 1 focused on whose responsibility (the teacher's or the student's) the students believed various aspects of English learning inside and outside the class should be; Section 2 focused on students' views of their decision-making abilities in regard to learning English inside and outside the classroom; and Section 3 explored the actual activities

students engaged in outside or inside the classroom which could be considered manifestations of autonomous language learning behaviour. In each section, students were asked to rank their answers on a Likert scale. To collect the qualitative data, semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected students. In this phase, 30 out of the 402 participants in the first phase were purposefully selected from those who indicated their availability to take part in an interview. Following the procedure of the sequential explanatory design, the participants were selected based on the questionnaire results using two criteria: variation in their perceptions of responsibility and in their degree of autonomous behaviour practices.

The quantitative data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The descriptive statistics were used to respond to research questions 1, 2, and 3. The inferential statistics were used to provide answers to research questions 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. The qualitative data were analysed using a thematic analysis approach which assisted in identifying the significant themes and categories following the steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). This analysis was used to respond to research question 9 and also support the analysis related to research questions 1, 2, and 3.

## **1.8 Organisation of the thesis**

This thesis is divided into seven chapters: Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Results of the Quantitative Phase, Results of the Qualitative Phase, Discussion of Findings and Conclusion. Each chapter is briefly outlined below.

Chapter 1, Introduction, presents the background, the context, aims and research questions as well as the significance of the study and the organisation of the thesis.

Chapter 2, Literature Review, begins with a brief review of the history of learner autonomy in language education, followed by a presentation of the major theories relating to the concept of learner autonomy, and reviews of previous studies that have relevance to the present study. It also discusses research on promoting learner autonomy and ends with a discussion of the research gap to which this thesis is contributing.

Chapter 3, Methodology, outlines the design and methodology of the research. It begins with a brief discussion of pragmatism, the theoretical framework employed in the study. Following this is an explanation of the research approach used in the study. This covers the definition and characteristics of the mixed methods approach, the advantages and disadvantages of the mixed methods design, the major types of mixed methods design, reasons for the choice of the mixed methods approach and the explanatory design, along with a discussion of ways to ensure the validity of the results that emanate from the mixed methods design. The chapter then describes the sampling of participants, followed by presentation of the data collection instruments and the steps of the data collection process. The data management and data analysis procedures are then presented and discussed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the mixed methods approach adopted for this research which is particularly useful for the presentation of results.

In Chapter 4, the results of the quantitative data analysis are presented. The quantitative results cover: Indonesian EFL university students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning; their perceptions of their decision-making abilities in English language learning; their autonomous language learning activities outside and inside the class; relationships between the variables: students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities in learning English, and their autonomous English

learning activities outside the class; differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender; and differences in the students' perceptions of responsibilities, decision-making abilities and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students doing an English major and the students of a non-English major.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the qualitative data analysis. The qualitative data cover students' beliefs about learner autonomy elicited through interviews. These beliefs include: the Indonesian students' understanding of the concept of learner autonomy; their perceptions of the benefits of learner autonomy in English language learning; their perceptions of the locus of responsibilities in student learning; their opinions about characteristics of autonomous language learners; their perceptions of their autonomous behaviour; the factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy; what they as students expected teachers to do to help them become autonomous; language learning activities in which the students engaged outside the class; the students' opinions of the importance of out-of-class learning activities for learning English. The chapter concludes with a summary the qualitative findings, followed by an integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings.

Chapter 6, Discussion of Findings, records a discussion of the major findings that emerge from the quantitative and qualitative data analyses. The chapter is organised into sections that serve as direct answers to the following research questions: how Indonesian EFL university students perceive their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning; how the students perceive their decision-making abilities in English language learning; the extent to which the students engage in autonomous language learning activities outside and

inside the class; whether or not students' perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their decision-making abilities; whether or not students' perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class; whether or not their perceptions of decision-making abilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class; whether or not there are any significant differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom depending on gender; whether or not there are any significant differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom between students doing an English major and students doing non-English majors; the reasons behind students' beliefs about, and their practices of, learner autonomy. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the major contributions of this study.

Chapter 7, Conclusion, contains a summary of the research and the major findings. It discusses the practical implications of the results for teachers, learners, curriculum designers, and institutions of higher education. At the end of the thesis, there is a presentation of the limitations of the study and recommended directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

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#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews theories and research relating to learner autonomy in second/foreign language education. The chapter begins with a description and discussion of learner autonomy in language education (2.2) including a brief history of learner autonomy (2.2.1), definitions of learner autonomy (2.2.2), levels of learner autonomy (2.2.3), versions of learner autonomy (2.2.4), misconceptions about learner autonomy (2.2.5), and benefits of learner autonomy (2.2.6). The chapter then goes on to summarise the characteristics of autonomous learners (2.3). After that, it discusses the relationships between learner autonomy and culture (2.4) and between learner autonomy and the learner variables (2.5) which specifically include language proficiency and gender. This is followed by a discussion of the roles of learners and teachers in relation to learner autonomy (2.6). The chapter then presents different approaches to fostering learner autonomy (2.7) and a review of research on beliefs about learner autonomy and out-of-class English learning (2.8) and also of studies that have been already done on learner autonomy in the Indonesian context (2.9). The chapter concludes with a summary of the main points discussed throughout the chapter and formulates the research gaps which the present study addresses (2.10).

#### **2.2 Learner autonomy in language education**

##### **2.2.1 A brief history of learner autonomy**

Although the concept of learner autonomy has existed for a long time, it is only during the past three decades that it has been a matter of interest in the field of language education. The term became one of particular interest in the late 1960s at least partly due to the political



unrest in Europe which led to the founding of the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project in 1971 (Gremmo & Riley, 1995). The initial purpose of the project was to "provide adults with opportunities for lifelong learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 8), and for more than a decade the project's primary role was to assist immigrant workers with language instruction and development (Gremmo & Riley, 1995). One of the products of this project was the establishment of the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL) at the University of Nancy, France, and this unit quickly became "a focal point of research and practice in the field" (Benson, 2001, p. 8). Holec's (1981) seminal project report to the council is one of the earliest and most influential documents on learner autonomy in language learning (Benson, 2001).

By the early 1990s, the concept of learner autonomy had become popular internationally. One of the defining moments contributing to its acceptance into the global context was the 1994 conference on learner autonomy held in Hong Kong, which assembled interested parties from Europe, Asia and Australia/New Zealand, and connected the 'worlds' of modern language education and English language teaching (Smith, 2008). In recent years, interest in learner autonomy in the field of language education has become more intensive following the expansion of self-access centres in the 1990s, and more recent advancements into computer-based teaching and learning along with the "deconstruction of conventional language learning classrooms and courses" around the world (Benson, 2007, p. 22).

### **2.2.2 Definitions of learner autonomy**

Although learner autonomy has been a matter of interest in the field of language education for some thirty years, due to the multifaceted nature of the concept (Benson, 2007; Smith, 2008) and diverse views on what constitutes learner autonomy, as well as the various

interpretations of its scope (Palfreyman, 2003), there have been many definitions of the term. In his report to the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project, Holec (1981) defined learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (p. 3). For Holec, 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 procedures of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.); evaluating what has been acquired. (Holec, 1981, p. 3)

This definition "has been taken as a starting point in much subsequent work in the area" (Gardner & Miller, 1999, p. 6) and has proved remarkably vigorous being the most commonly cited in the literature (Benson, 2007, Cotterall, 2008).

Following Holec's presentation of his 1981 definition, many subsequent definitions have emerged. For example, at the 3rd Nordic workshop on learner autonomy held in Bergen in 1989, participants in the workshop agreed on what is referred to as the 'Bergen definition of learner autonomy', which combines psychological features with the need for situating autonomy within a social learning setting. This definition states that: "Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's own needs and purposes...This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a social, responsible person" (Trebbi, 1990, p. 102). In other words, the Bergen definition of learner autonomy incorporates a social dimension in the concept. When using this definition, being an autonomous learner involves not only having the ability to reflect individually, alone, but also having the ability to collaborate with others. Littlewood (1996) sees capacity and willingness as two principal components of learner autonomy. He

defines the concept in terms of the “learners’ ability and willingness to make choices independently” (p. 427). According to Littlewood, ability and willingness can each consist of two sub-components. Ability is dependent upon “possessing both *knowledge* about the alternatives from which choices have to be made, and the necessary *skills* for carrying out whatever choices seem most appropriate”, while willingness is contingent on “having both the motivation and the confidence to take responsibility for the choices required” (p. 428). A person needs to possess these four sub-components if he/she is to succeed in performing autonomous behaviour.

Complementing Holec’s (1981) definition and acknowledging the importance of the psychological element of the ‘Bergen definition of learner autonomy’, Little (1991) defines autonomy as “a *capacity* – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action” (p. 4). He is concerned with the psychological relationship the learner has both with content and process of learning. Little further explains that the capacity for autonomy is manifested in how learners go about their learning and how they transfer what they have learned to wider contexts.

According to Benson (2001), both Holec’s and Little’s definitions cover two essential facets of the nature of autonomy, namely learning management and cognitive capacity. However, a third fundamental aspect in autonomous learning is underestimated, that is, “that the content of learning should be freely determined by the learners” (Benson, 2001, p. 49). Autonomous learners should have the freedom to decide their own goals and purposes if learning is to be truly self-directed. Besides, as noted in the Bergen definition, it has a social aspect, which may entail control over learning situations and the need to have particular capacities regarding the learner’s ability to interact with others in the learning process. By defining

learner autonomy as “the capacity to take control of one’s own learning” (p. 47), Benson asserts that autonomous learners are decision makers who exercise varying degrees of control over learning management, learning content and cognitive processes. In other words, autonomous learners make decisions about how, when, what, and where they learn as well as how they think about and manage their learning.

The definitions noted above describe learner autonomy as an attribute of learners, one that includes capacity and willingness. However, other scholars define the concept somewhat differently. Dickinson (1987), for example, regards learner autonomy as a situation rather than an attribute of the learner. In his view, learner autonomy is “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions” (p. 11). For Dickinson, autonomy entails supreme responsibility for one’s learning so it is performed without the investment of a teacher, institution or specifically prepared materials. Kenny (1993) sees autonomy not only as the freedom to learn but as the “opportunity to become a person” (p. 436), which covers all the decisions and activities of independent learning. Boud (1988) describes autonomy as an approach to learning. He believes that with such an approach, “students take some significant responsibility for their own learning over and above responding to instruction” (p. 23). More recently, Pennycook (1997) has regarded learner autonomy as “the struggle to become the author of one’s own world, to be able to create own meanings, to pursue cultural alternatives amid the cultural politics of everyday life” (p. 39).

On consideration of the aforementioned definitions, it is clear that the learner autonomy has been described in a number of ways and used very broadly. However, there is general consensus that the term is best used to refer to the capacity to take control or take charge of

one's own learning (Benson, 2013). The capacity, however, should not be understood as a total independence from the teacher or as students learning in isolation. An autonomous learner learns through interaction and develops a sense of interdependence with others in the learning process (Benson, 2001; Little, 1991).

As demonstrated in the preceding literature, there has been difficulty in reaching consensus on a single definition of the concept of learner autonomy. For this reason, another approach employed by researchers has viewed learner autonomy in terms of degree and version. Hence, attention has shifted to “the range of potential meanings for the idea of learner autonomy and to the different ways in which these meanings are represented in research and practice” (Benson, 2007, p. 23). And one of the questions in the interviews conducted during this study aimed to identify learners' perceptions of learner autonomy, and thus expand the understanding of the term as it appears in the current literature. The following sections present the more significant of the different degrees and versions of autonomy suggested in the literature.

### **2.2.3 Levels of learner autonomy**

Some two decades after the inception of the term ‘learner autonomy’ by Holec, a number of researchers (e.g. Benson, 2001; Littlewood, 1997, 1999; Macaro, 1997; Nunan, 1997) attempted to define the concept in terms of degree. Nunan (1997), for example, proposed a model of five levels of autonomy in terms of learner actions: awareness, involvement, intervention, creation, and transcendence. This model theoretically addresses the stages of a learning process which entails both content and process. In the content aspect at awareness level, for example, “[l]earners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using.” In the process, learners are encouraged to “identify strategy

implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles/strategies” (p. 195). Providing another example, in the content aspect this time at the ultimate level, transcendence, “[l]earners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.” In the process, “[l]earners become teachers and researchers” (p. 195). The details of each level are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Five level model of learner autonomy (Nunan 1997, p. 195)

Level	Learner Action	Content	Process
1	Awareness	Learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using.	Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles/strategies.
2	Involvement	Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer.	Learners make choices among a range of options.
3	Intervention	Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and contents of the learning programme.	Learners modify/adapt tasks.
4	Creation	Learners create their own goals and objectives.	Learners create their own tasks.
5	Transcendence	Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.	Learners become teachers and researchers.

Macaro (1997) proposed a three-stage model which includes ‘autonomy of language competence’, ‘autonomy of language learning competence’ and ‘autonomy of choice and action’. In regard to autonomy of language competence, the learner should be able to communicate having attained a reasonable mastery of the rule system of the target language and work to a great extent without the help of a more proficient user of the target language. At the stage of autonomy of language learning competence, the learner should have the

ability to replicate and transfer the learning skills in the target language to various other situations. In the autonomy of choice and action, the learner should be able to develop a logical reason for why he/she is learning a foreign language even though he/she has no choice but to learn that language, perceive his/her short-term and long-term language learning goals, perceive the range and types of target language materials and have access to the materials which will assist him/her to achieve his/her individual goals and, come to an understanding of the ways of learning which suit him/her best.

Littlewood (1997, p. 81) also proposed a model of three levels of autonomy. This model involves the elements of language acquisition, learning approach, and personal development. Autonomy in language acquisition entails “an ability to operate independently with the language and use it to communicate personal meanings in real, unpredictable situations.” In the context of learning approach, autonomy involves learners’ “ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active, personally meaningful strategies both inside and outside the classroom.” And, in the context of personal development, autonomy entails “... greater generalized autonomy as individuals.”

Two years later, Littlewood (1999) proposed a two-level classification of autonomy in terms of self-regulation, which he called ‘proactive’ and ‘reactive’ autonomy. Proactive autonomy refers to circumstances where learners are able to take charge – plan, monitor and evaluate – of their own learning. Such autonomy allows learners to “affirm their individuality and [set] up directions which they themselves have partially created” (p. 75). Reactive autonomy, the second level of autonomy, is “the kind of autonomy which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal” (p. 75). Reactive autonomy is seen as an initial

step toward proactive autonomy. According to Littlewood (1999), although for many writers proactive autonomy is the only type that counts, the concept of reactive autonomy is useful to consider in educational contexts because it may be either a preliminary step towards proactive autonomy or a goal in its own right. With regard to this, Benson (2001) commented that proactive autonomy might be understood as control over the methods and content of learning, while reactive autonomy entails control over methods alone.

While Littlewood's (1997) model involves the dimensions of language acquisition, learning approach, and personal development, Benson's (2001) model involves the dimensions of control over language learning and teaching processes which are categorised into three diverse but interdependent realms, namely learning management, cognitive processing and the content of learning. "Effective learning management depends upon control of the cognitive process involved in learning, while control of cognitive process necessarily has consequences for the self management of learning... self-management and control over cognitive processes should involve decisions concerning the content of learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 50). Despite the differences, each of the proposed models, according to Benson (2007), indicates the possibility of a movement from 'lower' to 'higher' levels of autonomy, and may also be associated with "the movement of the idea of autonomy into mainstream language education and a perceived need to identify spaces at the lower levels, where autonomy might be fostered without radical educational reforms" (p. 24).

#### **2.2.4 Versions of learner autonomy**

Learner autonomy has also been described in different versions. Benson (1997) identified three versions of autonomy: technical, psychological, and political. Then, expanding Benson's (1997) model, Oxford (2003) introduced technical, psychological, socio-cultural,



and political-critical versions. Technical autonomy refers to “the act of learning a language outside the framework of an educational institution and without the intervention of a teacher” (Benson, 1997, p. 19). In this version, autonomy is understood with regard to conditions in which learners are compelled to take charge of their own learning and the main concern is how learners are provided with the skills and techniques necessary to deal with such conditions. According to Oxford (2003), the emphasis of technical autonomy is on the situational conditions under which learner autonomy may develop, frequently referred to as ‘other-created’ conditions, instead on those initiated by the learners themselves. This version of autonomy, according to Oxford, may be best illustrated by Dickinson’s (1987) definition of autonomy in which autonomy is defined as the circumstance in which learners are entirely responsible for setting and implementing the decisions concerning their learning. In full autonomy, all this is carried out without the investment of a teacher, an institution or specifically prepared materials. Murase (2007) views this version as consisting of two sub-categories, behavioural and situational autonomy. Behavioural autonomy is concerned with the learners’ ability to take control of their own learning, which can be generally understood as being when learners learn a language on their own beyond the classrooms without the involvement of the teacher, whereas situational autonomy can be seen as circumstances in which learners are bound to take charge of their own learning.

In the psychological version, autonomy is defined as “a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities – which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning” (Benson, 1997, p. 19). This version of autonomy is concerned with mental and emotional characteristics of learners either as individuals or as members of a social or cultural group (Oxford, 2003). The context is often described as “second versus foreign language environment, rather than the details of the immediate setting” (Oxford, 2003, p. 83).

According to Murase (2007), capacity in this version of autonomy can be categorised into three aspects: motivational, metacognitive, and affective aspects. The motivational aspect is related to the cognitive psychological approach to motivation, which may involve both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The metacognitive aspect concerns learners' *metacognitive knowledge*, which is a precondition for self-regulated learning, and *reflection*, which is "[a]n effective way of raising the learner's awareness of this metacognitive knowledge" (p. 5). Finally, the affective aspect is related to factors influencing individual learners, such as anxiety, self-esteem, and emotions.

The political version of autonomy is defined in terms of control over the process and content of learning. The major concern in this version is "how to achieve the structural conditions that will allow learners to control both their own individual learning and the institutional context within which it takes place (Benson, 1997, p. 19). In Oxford's (2003) political-critical version, autonomy is primarily concerned with issues of power, access and ideology. Context is related to "ideologies and attitudes found in specific locations, situations, groups (related to age, gender, religion, culture), institutions, and socioeconomic levels", which is viewed in "a highly political way, reflecting issues of oppression, power, control, and access" (Oxford, 2003, p. 89). This version is usefully described in the work of Pennycook (1997), which holds that autonomy "is the struggle to become the author of one's own world, to be able to create one's own meanings, to pursue cultural alternatives amid the cultural politics of everyday life" rather than the result of lost power or isolated reflection (p. 39).

The sociocultural version of autonomy emphasises social interaction as a foremost element of both cognitive and language development (Oxford, 2003). This version of autonomy consists of two related aspects, which Oxford (2003) refers to as sociocultural I and sociocultural II.

Sociocultural I is based on Vygotsky's (1978) work, which holds that cognitive development involves the alteration of social relations into mental functions via mediated learning. The role of the 'more capable other', often a teacher or parent, is indispensable in the development of a learner's ability to act deliberately and independently by providing him/her with scaffolding, which can be eliminated as he/she becomes more self-regulated. Similarly, Sociocultural II also depends on mediated learning. However, the emphasis is on the context rather than the individual exercising it. Context is the *community of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991), the relationships that take place in a community, and in the wider social and cultural setting (Oxford, 2003). As newcomers, learners take part peripherally in the community with established members and then become full participants. This interaction, according to Oxford (2003), can only occur if the established members are "willing to provide insider knowledge, cultural understandings, practice, and strategies to newcomers" (p. 87). Thus, the established members play a significant role in helping the newcomers develop their autonomy within the *community of practice*.

From the above discussion, it is obvious that the concept of learner autonomy has been defined and viewed in many different ways. For the current research, however, learner autonomy is defined as a learner's ability and willingness to take responsibility for all aspects of his/her own learning, which are established with support from the teacher and are exercised independently and in cooperation with others.

### **2.2.5 Misconceptions about learner autonomy**

The enormous number of definitions of learner autonomy has created some misconceptions about the concept. According to Little (1991), there are five misconceptions that are likely to occur. The first is that learner autonomy is identical with self-instruction, that is learners

work on their own without the investment of a teacher. Although to some extent it is true that to reach some degree of autonomy some learners pursue the passage of self-instruction, many do not. Learner autonomy, rather, entails collaboration and interdependence between learners who need to work cooperatively with their peers and with the help of teachers. Little (1991) extends this point further noting that, “because we are social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; our essential condition is one of interdependence. Total detachment is a principal determining feature not of autonomy but of autism” (p. 5). Hence, although learners are freed from the direction and control of others in the process of developing learner autonomy, any decisions made in this regard should consider social and moral norms, traditions, and expectations of others. In other words, autonomous learning is not learning alone, in isolation, but involves interactions with others.

The second potential misconception about learner autonomy has to do with teacher intervention: it is believed that teacher interference might ruin learner autonomy (Little, 1991). This simply is not true; learner autonomy can take place in a class where the teacher is in control. In other words, there is interdependence between learners and the teacher even when learner autonomy is in effect. The third misconception is the belief that “autonomy is something teachers do to their learners” (Little, 1991, p. 3). Although teachers play a vital role in the development of learner autonomy, this does not mean that the development can be programmed in a series of lesson plans.

Another false assumption is that “learner autonomy is a single, easily described behaviour” (Little, 1991, p. 3). To think in this way is fallacious because autonomous behaviour can take diverse forms, depending on a number of learner-related factors such as age, learning progress, learning needs, and so on. A final misconception to consider here is related to the

belief that the autonomy that autonomous learners have achieved will remain steady. In reality, the steadiness of autonomy cannot be guaranteed. Learners might exhibit their autonomy in one domain but not in another domain. In other words, autonomy is not self-instruction or learning without a teacher, does not mean that teacher intervention or initiative is banned, is not something teachers do to learners, is not a single easily identifiable behaviour and is not a steady state learners achieve once and for all (Esch, 1996, p. 37).

### **2.2.6 Arguments for the importance of learner autonomy**

The importance of promoting learner autonomy in language education can be justified in a number of ways. One argument is the idea that learners have the right to make choices regarding their own learning (Crabbe, 1993, Cotterall, 1995b). Promoting learner autonomy is also important because society cannot provide all its members with targeted individual instruction in every area of learning, neither are there always going to be teachers available to address students' language needs. Thus, learners need to meet their own learning needs, so as to obtain the knowledge and skill they desire (Crabbe, 1993; Cotterall, 1995b).

Another argument concerns the need to respond to the demands of various modes of learning that have become available in recent years. Lamb (2008, p. 270) notes that:

Even when learner autonomy is not explicitly expressed as a curriculum objective, the demands of more recent modes of learning (distance learning, flexible learning, blended learning etc.) stimulated by the availability of new technologies require a consideration by the teacher of ways in which learners can assume responsibility for their own learning.

In a broader context, Lamb and Reinders (2005) suggest that the need for the development of autonomy has become even more critical as a result of the numerous changes which have taken place across many aspects of life in recent days. Among the areas of change are in

general those relating to learners, teaching institutions, and society. Examples of changes relating to learners are: the increasing demands for access to education, the needs for (physical) access to learning, motivations for language learning, and expectations of learning support. In regard to teaching institutions, the changes include the increase in student enrolments in higher education and the need to respond to the changing needs of the wide variety of learners and new technologies. Lastly, the changes evident in societies include importantly, an increasing need for communication between people from different parts of the globe and the place of languages in mainstream curricula to address the needs of various communities as more and more countries become multilingual due to global migration.

Another important argument for promoting learner autonomy is related to the potencies it has for student learning. When learners are involved in making decisions with regard to their own learning, they learn better (Crabbe, 1993) and the learning can be more focused and purposeful (Dam, 1995; Little, 1991). Little (1991, p. 8) further argues that since the responsibility for the learning process lies in the hands of the learner, “the barriers to learning and living that are often found in traditional teacher-led educational structures should not arise.” Therefore, the learner’s capacity for autonomous behaviour should be transferable to all other areas of life. Also, when learners take control over their own learning, they “are more likely to be able to set realistic goals, plan programmes of work, develop strategies for coping with new and unforeseen situations, evaluate and assess their own work and, generally, to learn how to learn from their own successes and failures” (McGarry, 1995, p. 1). In addition, “learners become more efficient in their language learning if they do not have to spend time waiting for the teacher to provide them with resources or solve their problems” (Cotterall, 1995, p. 220).

A great number of studies have shown that learner autonomy offers still more practical benefits for learning. Among the most frequently reported are: increased motivation (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dickinson, 1987, 1995; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Lee, 1996; Miller et al., 2005; Tagaki, 2003; Ushioda, 1996), enhanced language proficiency (e.g. Apple, 2011; Dafei, 2007; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Dincer et al., 2012; Hashemian & Soureshjani, 2011; Karatas et al., 2015; Lowe, 2009; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2011; Sakai & Tagaki, 2009), and students' active involvement in learning activities (e.g. Dam, 1995; Dincer et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2005; Natri, 2007; Nunes, 2004; Rao, 2005; Smith, 2003).

Given the recognised benefits to learners, institutions and the societies in which the learners reside, learner autonomy would be a useful resource for Indonesian students. Furthermore, as mentioned in the introduction, learner autonomy is emphasised in the Indonesian curriculum. Some preliminary research in the Indonesian context has demonstrated that students have positive attitudes towards learner autonomy, and with the many limitations in ELT in the Indonesian context, learner autonomy is a promising avenue for improving Indonesian students' language development. This study, then, seeks to provide insight into the beliefs and attitudes towards learner autonomy in Indonesia, as a result of systematic research, and in so doing provide essential evidence of student readiness for learner autonomy.

### **2.3 Characteristics of autonomous language learners**

Researchers in the field of autonomous language learning have suggested that autonomous learners possess individual characteristics that make them different from non-autonomous learners. Little (1995), for example, suggests that autonomous learners are motivated learners and are able to further apply their knowledge and abilities. In the context of English language

learning, autonomous learners can freely apply their language and skills outside the immediate context of their learning. Dam (1995, p. 102) determined that an autonomous learner is “an active participant in the social processes of classroom learning”, an “active interpreter of new information in terms of what s/he already and uniquely knows” and she/he knows how to learn and can make use of this knowledge in any learning circumstances she/he may encounter at any stage in her/his life.

Dickinson (1993) identified five personal characteristics of autonomous learners. First, autonomous learners have a good understanding of what is being taught. Second, they are capable of setting their own learning objectives. Third, autonomous learners are able to select and put appropriate learning strategies into practice for effective learning. Fourth, they have the capacity to monitor the use of these learning strategies. Finally, autonomous learners are capable of self-assessing and monitoring their own learning.

Breen and Mann (1997) distinguished eight qualities autonomous learners should possess. Firstly, autonomous learners have *the learners' stance*, that is, their relationship with what to learn, how to learn, and what resources are available. It is “a position from which to engage with the world, a way of being in it” (p. 134). Learners have to discover autonomy by themselves or they may rediscover their autonomous ability. Secondly, autonomous learners have *the desire to learn*. This is closely related to motivation, and can be intrinsic or extrinsic. The third quality is *a robust sense of self*. In this, learners tend not to be denigrated by any negative assessment of them or their work that is made by other people involved in the learning process. Rather, the assessment can be a “rich source of feedback or can be discarded” (p. 135). The fourth quality of autonomous learners has to do with *metacognitive capacity*. This quality is fundamental as it allows the learners to determine what, when, how,



and with whom they learn and their learning resources. Another quality autonomous learners possess is *management of change*. With this, autonomous learners are not only aware of changes but are able to adapt to it in resourceful and opportunistic way. The sixth quality of autonomous learners is *independence*. They are able to learn on their own, independent of the teacher and school. Another quality autonomous learners have is *a capacity to negotiate*. Being independent of their learning context does not mean that autonomous learners learn in isolation. Rather, they have a capacity to negotiate and work together with others. Finally, autonomous learners have *a strategic engagement with learning*. With this, they can make the most of the learning context around them, identify their own goals and decide how to pursue them.

In general, the above definitions share many of the same features in that they describe autonomous learners. The qualities an autonomous learner possesses are generally agreed to include: being active and motivated, having a capacity to manage, exercise control of and assess their own learning, and having a capacity to negotiate and work together with others. This study investigated Indonesian EFL students' perceptions of the characteristics of autonomous learners to formulate a picture of their understanding of learner autonomy, that will provide a comparison with these more general formulations of what makes for an autonomous learner.

## **2.4 Learner autonomy and culture**

Culture is important in the field of language learning because language is inseparable from the culture in which it is used and it is within a culture (or cultures) that language learning takes place (Palfreyman, 2003; Pennycook, 1997). However, the appropriacy of the concept of learner autonomy in diverse cultural contexts has long been the subject of debate (e.g.

Benson, 2001; Benson & Voller, 1997). The debate is not only between Western versus Eastern scholars, but also between the Western scholars themselves.

One of the fundamental issues is whether the notion of autonomy is a Western concept, one which emphasises the positive value of ‘active participation’ and ‘individualism’ (Benson, 2007), and therefore is perhaps inappropriate for non-Western contexts (Ellis, 1996; Holliday, 1994; Healy, 1999; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Jones, 1995; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Pennycook, 1989). Healy (1999), for example, points out that “learner self-direction and autonomous learning are Western concepts that fit smoothly into US culture in particular” (p. 391). Pennycook (1997) carried this thinking further, regarding the concept of learner autonomy as a neo-imperialist construct, stating: “yet another version of the free, enlightened, liberal West bringing one more form of supposed emancipation to the unenlightened, traditional, backward and authoritarian classrooms of the world” (p. 43). In the context of a self-access centre project at the Phnom Penh University, Jones (1995, p. 230) raised his doubts about the promotion of autonomy seeing it as a notion that does not fit the Cambodian culture. He argues:

Despite the flexibility and compromises within the definition or definitions of autonomy, I have doubts about the applicability of the notion in an educational setting such as Phnom Penh University’s English programme... Firstly, no matter what guise autonomy may take, it remains a Western idea, and may come upon the traditions and conventions of Cambodian education with the force of ideological imposition, promoting a type of behaviour that conflicts with the national culture at a deep level. Secondly, is it really worth the effort, in a syllabus or in self-access, to set up autonomy as a goal with measurable steps towards its achievement? Is there not, to make the point more rhetorical, a danger of teaching autonomy instead of language?

On the other hand, others advocate the value and appropriacy of the concept. For example, (Little, 1999) and (Pierson, 1996) believe that learner autonomy is not limited to the West and Western cultures. Rather, they see it as universal in nature and applicable to all learners, no matter what culture they come from. Little (1999) contends, “If the potential for autonomy is a human universal and the purpose of education is to help learners to develop tools for critical reflection, it follows as a matter of principle that learner autonomy is an appropriate pedagogical goal in all cultural settings” (p. 15).

Besides the theoretical disputes, empirical research into students’ capacity to learn autonomously in the Asian context has shown conflicting results (e.g. Aliponga, Johnston, Koshiyama, Ries, & Rush, 2013; Balla, Stokes, & Stafford, 1991; Chan et al., 2002; Dickinson, 1994, 1996; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Joshi, 2011; Lee, 1998; Marshall & Torpey, 1997; Pierson, 1996; Rungwaraphong, 2012). In a study of attitudes of Hong Kong tertiary students toward autonomous language learning, Chan et al. (2002) found that the students regarded the teacher as a dominant figure in their learning. Similar results were revealed in Tang’s (2009) study with Malaysian university students. Although the students seemed to enjoy communicative-based learning, the majority preferred their teachers to be responsible for their learning including telling them their mistakes, guiding, and motivating them. Rungwaraphong (2012) investigated Thai university students’ readiness for learner autonomy with results that indicated that the majority of the students were not yet ready for learner autonomy. The students saw the teacher as the one who should direct their learning. In addition, the students did not take an active role in their learning process and nor did they adequately use learning strategies essential for autonomous learning.

There are other studies, however, showing that Asian students do exhibit autonomous behaviour in their learning. For example, Aoki and Smith (1999) conducted a study with university students in Japan. They argued that autonomy may actually be a compelling educational goal in the Japanese context and suggested that Japan is not, and never has been a homogeneously collectivist society. The students in their study responded optimistically to arrangements aimed at fostering learner autonomy and, given the uncertain economic, social and political future they face, autonomy may be a particularly suitable goal for Japanese students to pursue with these days. In this respect, Aoki and Smith argue that people have had a mistaken perception about culture. The first misconception is that culture is equivalent to a political unit, that is, a nation. Essentially, there are national, family and even classroom cultures. Secondly, people mistakenly believe that culture is static and given. In fact, culture is susceptible to change, even if the change is slow: “what worked in the past will not necessarily work in the present or future” (Aoki & Smith, p. 20). The third false conception about culture is that the influence of one culture on another is necessarily unfavourable. The researchers suggest that cultures overlap where they congregate and unavoidably influence each other. In a classroom or educational context, an inevitable meeting place of cultures, it is unavoidable that teachers and students influence each other’s cultures. However, learners and teachers can in cooperation create a ‘negotiated culture’ which takes full account of the perspectives of the participants in questions (Aoki & Smith, 1999). Joshi (2011) conducted a study with 80 Masters level students and six teachers in the English major at Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu. The results showed that the students acknowledged that they had an important role in their learning and made good practice of autonomous activities. Moreover, the teachers confirmed that their students were autonomous in their learning. Aliponga et al. (2013) similarly conducted a study in the Japanese context looking into the perceptions about learner autonomy of Japanese EFL university students in English classes taught by native

speakers and non-native speakers of English. The results indicated that the students acknowledged the importance of working in groups to achieve their common goal. Although the students regarded the teacher as being a person of authority in the classroom, they preferred to discover knowledge by themselves rather than having it transferred from the teacher. This thesis attempted to test the suggestions made by Aoki and Smith but with a focus on the Indonesian culture. There needs to be an awareness that learner autonomy has diverse interpretations and even if it is culturally dependent. For this reason, autonomy needs to be examined in relation to its context.

## **2.5 Learner autonomy and learner variables**

### **2.5.1 Learner autonomy and language proficiency**

Much of the literature has suggested that learner autonomy has a positive relationship with language proficiency. While there have been few studies conducted on the relationship between learner autonomy and language proficiency, most undertaken have revealed positive results. (e.g. Apple, 2011; Dafei, 2007; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996; Hashemian & Soureshjani, 2011; Lowe, 2009; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2011; Sakai & Tagaki, 2009).

Dam and Legenhausen (1996) conducted a project on learner autonomy in 1992 at a Danish comprehensive school aiming to observe the language development of 21 students in an autonomous class setting, and compare and contrast the results with the proficiency levels of learners who followed a more traditional textbook-based syllabus. The findings demonstrated that the learners in an autonomous class achieved better results than the learners who followed a more traditional class in the terms of C-test scores. In a study with 129 non-English majors in a teacher college in China, Dafei (2007) found a significant and positive

correlation between the students' English proficiency and their learner autonomy. Apple's (2011) study investigated the predicted potential of EFL autonomy on English language learning as measured by the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). The result of the study revealed that EFL autonomy variables significantly predicted TOEIC scores. The results also demonstrated that the participants who had autonomous language learning habits in finding learning materials outside the regular class tended to have better English proficiency than those who did not search for self-selected materials outside class. Similar results came from Lowe's (2009) study; Lowe found a significant relationship between learner autonomy and students' academic performance, and so provide evidence of benefits of learner autonomy to language learning. Sakai and Tagaki (2009) looked at the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency of Japanese students. They investigated perceptions learners hold of their learning and learner autonomy by means of questionnaires administered to 721 students from 16 universities. The students were divided into three levels of English proficiency based on their scores in a vocabulary test. Differences in the perceptions of learner autonomy between members of the three groups were found and the results revealed that the high achievers showed characteristics of 'independent users' (who use English in their daily life), the average achievers stayed at the range of 'independent learners' (who can study English by themselves), and the poor achievers were struggling at the 'dependent learners' (who need the teacher's help in studying English) level.

In the Indonesian context, Myartawan et al., (2013) investigated the correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency. The data from 120 first semester students doing an English major at a state university in Bali, Indonesia, that was collected using documents and two questionnaires, indicated a significant, strong, and positive relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency. The clear evidence of a strong link between learner

autonomy and language proficiency leads to the conclusion that promoting learner autonomy is an important step to helping students improve their English proficiency.

### **2.5.2 Learner autonomy and gender**

The role of gender in second/foreign language learning is an important topic of research, including in relation to learner autonomy. Previous studies on the differences between female and male students in autonomous learning have shown varied results.

Boyno (2011), for example, explored the factors that influence learner autonomy. In a study involving 116 ninth and tenth grade high school students in the Turkish EFL context, carried out for the purposes of determining whether there was any significant difference between female and male students in their perceptions of learner autonomy, the results indicated there was a significant difference between female and male students in their perceptions of learner autonomy in favour of females. This finding, according to Boyno, could be interpreted in one of two ways. First, females tend to mature both physically and psychologically in advance of males. Or, in the Turkish style of children's upbringing, girls are treated in such a way that gives them a sense of responsibility which is a very important aspect of autonomy.

In another study in similar context, this time involving 80 participants from 4 seventh grade classes of a primary school, Varol and Yilmaz (2010) investigated whether female and male learners differed in their autonomous language learning activities inside and outside of class. Using a Likert-type questionnaire consisting of twenty-one items, it was found that females appeared to take more opportunities, particularly trying new things in class activities, studying grammar on their own, doing non-compulsory assignments, and noting down new

words and their meanings. That is, the female learners seemed to behave more autonomously both in and out of the class than the male learners.

Tok (2011) investigated whether there were differences in autonomous English language learning among 218 students in an English preparatory programme at Zirve University, Turkey with regard to their motivation level, proficiency level and gender. For gender the results revealed that, although female students scored slightly higher than male students on the number of practised autonomous learning activities, the difference was not significant.

Razeq (2014) investigated student readiness for autonomous learning of English as a foreign language. The study involved 140 students of two English introductory courses at Birzeit University, Palestine. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between female and male students in their abilities to act autonomously in learning English, in which both female and male students regarded themselves as having the abilities to learn autonomously. However, the results showed that there were statistically significant differences between female and male students in their practices of autonomous English learning activities in favour of females.

Kashefian-Naeeni, Riazi, and Salehi (2012) investigated students' readiness for learner autonomy in the Iranian context. The study involved 168 undergraduate and graduate students majoring in English Literature in the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Shiraz University. The data, collected using a questionnaire, showed there was no significant difference between female and male students in their index of autonomy. In other words, gender did not affect students' readiness of autonomy.



As seen above, previous research on the relationship between gender and learner autonomy has been inconclusive. For this reason, the present study also examined the relationship between learner autonomy and gender by looking at Indonesian female and male university students and the differences in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom. In doing so, this investigation aimed to shed more light on the variables affecting the development of learner autonomy.

## **2.6 Teacher's and learner's roles in learner autonomy**

### **2.6.1 Teacher's roles**

Despite the prevalent consensus that learner autonomy is concerned with a learner's capacity to take control or take charge of his/her own learning (Benson, 2013), this does not mean that the teacher's roles is unnecessary. According to La Ganza (2008), learner autonomy is an 'achievement' which is attained reciprocally between the learner and the teacher. It is dependent on "the capacity of the teacher and learner to develop and maintain an interrelational climate characterised by the teacher's holding back from influencing the learner, and the learner's holding back from seeking the teacher's influence" (p. 66). Even in more independent modes of learning, the teacher may be regarded as a form of support to the learner who progressively becomes more autonomous (Lamb, 2008, p. 272).

However, many researchers (e.g. Benson, 2013; Little, 1991; Nunan, 1993, 1997; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Voller, 1997; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Wright, 1987) have drawn attention to how the teacher in an autonomous classroom performs differently from the teacher in a traditional classroom. Unlike in a traditional classroom where the teacher usually acts as a transmitter of knowledge, the teacher in an autonomous learning situation plays

multiple roles (Wright, 1987). There is a general consensus among researchers that the teacher in autonomous learning classrooms acts as a counselor, facilitator, advisor, manager, and/or guide (e.g. Benson, 2013; Camilleri, 1999; Gardner & Miller, 1999; Higgs, 1988; Knowles, 1975; Nunan, 1993; Voller, 1997).

According to Camilleri (1999), the major role of teachers where there is learner autonomy is ‘awareness’ of self. The teachers must be cognizant of their personal influence on the learning process, should also understand pedagogy and possess management skills. Such a teacher, according to Camilleri, takes up the roles of manager, resource person, and counselor. As a manager, they possess the capacity to plan the most potential directions available for their students and the consequences of following any particular direction. As a resource person, a teacher enhances the conditions of learning by providing help to learners to make them aware of an entire range of possible choices and strategies. As a counselor, a teacher has the capacity to accompany the learners in their learning process and to respond to anticipated learning problems.

Voller (1997, p. 101) explained that the teacher was ideally a *facilitator* of learning, or a *helper*, and this is the commonly used term in discussions of self-directed, self-instructional, individualized and autonomous learning, both in adult learning and language learning contexts. In relation to autonomous language learning, Voller identified two different roles for the teacher as a facilitator, namely the psycho-social and the technical. For the psycho-social role, the teacher should possess the personal characteristics of a facilitator such as being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, and non-judgmental. They should also have a capacity for motivating learners, such as be able to encourage commitment, dissolve uncertainty, assist learners to overcome hurdles, and be ready to become involved in

a dialogue with learners. And third, the teacher should have the ability to raise learners' awareness, such as to 'decondition' learners from preconception about the roles of learners and teachers, to help the students be aware of the significance of independent learning. The key qualities of the technical role include: assisting learners in planning and performing their independent language learning, in evaluating their own learning, and obtaining the skills and knowledge required to do this, for instance by raising a student's awareness of language and learning and giving them training to assist in identifying learning styles and learning strategies that work best for them.

According to Little (2009), since the goal of language learning is to develop learner proficiency in the target language, and if language learning is dependent primarily on language use, then the teacher's role is to set up classroom communication in a way that provides learners with "access to a full range of discourse roles, initiating as well as responding" (p. 153). In addition, teachers must help their learners "to identify their individual and collective learning needs and find ways of meeting them; and they must initiate, model and support the various forms of discourse required for learner involvement, learner reflection and appropriate target language use" (p. 155)

Dam (1995) and Little (2009) suggested six procedures the teacher can use in the classroom to develop learner autonomy. First, from the start the teacher uses the target language as the favoured means of communication and also requires her/his learners to do so. Second, the teacher engage his/her learners in a continuous search for good learning activities, which are then shared, discussed, analysed and evaluated with all members of the class in the target language. Third, the teacher provides his/her learners with assistance in formulating their personal learning goals and deciding their own learning activities. These also are discussed,

analysed and evaluated in the target language. Fourth, the learners mostly carry out these activities through collaborative work in small groups. Fifth, the teacher requires the students to keep written records of their learning such as lesson and project plans, useful vocabulary, and any written work they may have produced. And sixth, the teacher engages his/her learners in regular evaluations of their progress both as individuals and as a class, in the target language.

In addition, Little, Hodel, Kohonen, Meijer and Perclová (2007, p. 15) recommend three things for language teachers to do if they want to promote learner autonomy. First of all, teachers must get their learners involved in their own learning, giving them ownership of learning objectives and the learning process. Secondly, teachers must get their learners to reflect about learning and about the target language. Thirdly, they must get their learners engaged in proper use of the target language by modeling and scaffolding the different types of discourse in which they want their learners to become proficient.

### **2.6.2 Learner's roles**

Unlike the traditional classroom, in which control and responsibility are mainly in the hands of the teacher, the locus of control and responsibility when there is learner autonomy reside predominantly in the hands of the individual learner. The learner is portrayed as 'the responsible learner' (Scharle & Szabo, 2000) and 'the aware learner' (Breen & Mann, 1997). According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), responsible learners are those who "accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly" (p. 3). When performing activities, such as doing homework or answering questions in class, responsible learners are not aiming to please the teacher or get a good mark. Rather, they are doing these activities in order to learn something. Responsible learners are also those who

“are willing to collaborate with the teacher and other learners in the learning group for everyone’s benefit” (p. 3). Moreover, responsible learners are those who “consciously monitor their own progress, and make an effort to use available opportunities to their benefit, including classroom activities and homework” (p. 3).

Aware learners, according to Breen and Mann (1997), are those who see their relationship with what is to be learnt, how they will learn and the resources available in order to take control of the learning. With the locus of control in their hands, aware learners have the capacity to learn independently of the educational processes. They make strategic use of their surroundings and available resources through their assessment of their own needs, wants, interests and preferred ways of working (Breen & Mann, 1997). However, this does not mean that the autonomous learner is engaging exclusively in activities outside the class. They are also actively involved in the learning process in the classroom context, collaborating with other learners and the teacher, taking them as precious resources for learning.

It is clear that learner autonomy implicates the traditional roles of both the teacher and learners. The teacher needs to change from someone who is in control of learning to someone who facilitates or makes the learning happen. Learners, for their part, need to change from being passive recipients of taught knowledge to active learning. In a typical classroom, this involves the transfer of responsibility from the teacher to learners. However, the transference of responsibility which has been deeply rooted in the hands of the teacher is not an easy task. For this reason, it is important to assess to the extent to which learners are ready to develop learner autonomy before any interventions take place. The next section describes and discusses different approaches to fostering learner autonomy.

## **2.7 Approaches to fostering learner autonomy**

Benson (2001) classifies six approaches to fostering learner autonomy that have been practised all around the world. They are resource-based, technology-based, curriculum-based, teacher-based, classroom-based, and learner-based, and each focuses on different aspects of control in the learning process. Despite their different foci, the approaches have more similarities than differences, especially in encouraging learners to map out and follow their personal language learning paths to achieve their goals.

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

Resource-based approaches to learner autonomy place emphasis on the provision of opportunities for learners to direct their own learning in self-study, self-access and distance learning. The main instruments for the operation of these approaches are materials and counselling. With the provision of opportunities which involve self-access or self-regulation and resources and counselling for learning, learners can direct their learning (Benson, 2001).

Self-access centers have recently become popular as venues where learner autonomy is promoted. Self-access centers typically provide opportunities for self-access language learning “which may be linked to taught courses but also available to independent users” (Gardner & Miller, 2014, p. 3). A self-access center is seen as a “way of encouraging learners to move from teacher dependence towards autonomy” (Gardner & Miller, 1999, p. 8). To promote learner independence through self-access centers, teachers should provide students with training on how to raise the awareness of themselves and how to control their own learning. In order that this goal can be attained, the teacher must provide support for the learners in setting their objectives, taking into account the needs of the learners and evaluating their progress, and the materials should be easily accessible and learners’ feedback

should be encouraged (Sheerin, 1997). Studies have shown that the learning structure developed in a self-access center leads to student willingness to take responsibility for their learning (e.g. Murray, 2009).

Studies have shown that materials have a significant role to play in the promotion of autonomous language learning in self-access centers (Lee, 1996; McGarry, 1995). Lee (1996), for example, conducted a quantitative study at Hong Kong Polytechnic University to test: 1) whether textbook materials better fulfil cognitive functions and authentic materials better perform affective functions; and 2) if the positive effect on learning produced by materials is dependent not only on the type of material but also on the interaction between the type of material and the type of task. The results of the analysis confirmed her two hypotheses. She recommended a simple cataloguing system, generic guidelines for using authentic materials, and task sheets with students' notes in order to ensure authentic materials are easily accessed by the learners.

However, the use of self-access centers for promoting learner autonomy is not without criticism, particularly in terms of their organisation and activities. Littlejohn (1997), for example, condemned self-access centers for hindering learners' creativity. He explained that the types of tasks and activities learners performed in self-access centers engaged them more in reproductive language use that was limited to the tasks rather than in creative language use. He recommended that there be a reorientation in the types of tasks and activities in order to provide more opportunities for learner autonomy, language use and learning. In addition, the learners should be encouraged to carry out more active and creative roles rather than responsive and reproductive ones.

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

Advancements in technology have enabled learners to learn a language in a variety of ways either with or without the assistance of a teacher. Reinders and White (2011) argue that “[t]echnology has the potential to not only provide access to resources for learning in a superficial sense, but also to offer increased affordances for autonomous learning” (p. 1). Learner autonomy using technology-based approaches has an emphasis on variation in learning opportunities by the use of different forms of technology. Typical forms include Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), eTandem learning, and Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC).

CALL is increasingly recognised as a powerful means of developing learner autonomy (e.g. Benson, 2004, O’Rourke & Schwienhorst, 2003). CALL can foster autonomy by presenting “opportunities for learners to study on their own, independent of a teacher... opportunities for learners to direct their own learning” (Beatty, 2010, p. 11). Beatty goes on to say that although the programs offered by CALL provide learners with only limited opportunities to organise their own learning or tailor it to their special needs, “most CALL materials, regardless of their design, allow for endless revisiting that can help learners review those parts for which they want or require more practice” (p. 12). E-tandem is another way of utilising technology for enhancing learner autonomy (Brammerts, 2003; Brammerts & Calvert, 2003). According to Lewis and O’Dowd (2016), e-tandem learning came from the tradition of tandem language learning broadly practised in many European universities. Tandem learning occurs when “two people with different mother tongues work together to learn from each other” (Brammerts, 2003, translated by Sabine Gläsmann). E-tandem, therefore, “involves two native speakers of different languages communicating together and providing feedback to each other through online communication tools with the aim of



learning the other's language" (Lewis & O'Dowd, 2016, p. 11). According to Little (2003), learner autonomy is built into the learning process right from the initial stage because learners have to exercise autonomous behaviour by making important decisions for their learning. During this process, learners' metacognitive awareness starts developing as they have to reflect, to ponder about their mother tongue, and to consider the target language in order to find the best way to correct their partners' errors.

Research on the use of technology to foster learner autonomy has shown positive results (e.g. Intratat, 2004; Lee, 2011; Wang-Szilas, Berger, & Zhang, 2013). Intratat (2004) undertook a case study in eight universities in Thailand to investigate the problems and hindrances university teachers and students face in using CALL materials in promoting learner autonomy. The results revealed that both teachers and learners appreciated the benefits offered by CALL in learning and teaching. Wang-Szilas et al. (2013) conducted a three year project on e-Tandem exchange course between distant languages – Chinese and French at institutional level – between the Unit of Chinese Studies of the University of Geneva, Switzerland and the French Department of Hubei University, China. At the end of each academic year, the students were asked to complete a formal course evaluation questionnaire and fill in a short self-evaluation form to report on the exchange process after each weekly session of the exchange. Additionally, the students were interviewed at the end of each semester. The results showed that the students' perceived benefits of e-tandem exchange included improving their speaking skills and better understanding the cultures. The students also noted an increased confidence in their use of the target language and the precious experience of learning about the target culture through exchanging with people of their own age. The statistics indicated students' active participation in the online course, especially through the posts in the forums that were open for each session.

Lee (2011) looked at how using combined modalities of asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) via blogs and face-to-face interaction through ethnographic interviews with native speakers supported autonomous learning as the result of reflective and social processes. The study involved 16 American undergraduate students from two study abroad programs in Paris. For the purpose of the study, three types of blogs were created: personal blogs, a class blog and a project blog using a combination of teacher-assigned and free topics. Teacher-assigned topics were aimed to engage students in discussing and debating on cross-cultural issues, whereas free topics gave them a certain degree of freedom in decision-making and personal choice. The results showed that blogs provided students with the opportunity to work independently and reflect upon cross-cultural issues. It was also indicated that different types of task fostered autonomy in different ways. While free topics gave students more control of their own learning, teacher-assigned topics required them to think critically about the readings. The author of the study suggested that well-designed tasks, effective metacognitive and cognitive skills, and the accessibility to the internet were necessary to maximise the potential of blogs for promoting learner autonomy and intercultural communication.

Although technology-based approaches have proven to be a powerful means of promoting learner autonomy, in these approaches the roles of teachers and learning strategies are still important. Regarding this, it is worthwhile to considering Littlemore (2001, p. 43) who cautioned:

- New technologies can be used to encourage different types of independent learning but do not automatically do so; care must be taken not to replace “teacher dependency” with “machine dependency”.
- Learners need to be trained in the strategies required to make the most of the opportunities offered by the new technologies.

- It is important that learners continue to have support from their teachers. They must not simply be left alone with the new technologies.

Given the potential of technologies for language learning and the accessibility of technologies in the context of this study, the opportunity was taken to examine the suitability of such approaches in language learning in Indonesia.

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

Curriculum-based approaches place the emphasis on the negotiation between teachers and learners. These approaches “extend the principles of learning control over the management of learning to the curriculum as a whole” (Benson, 2001, p. 163). In these approaches, learners are encouraged to make decisions about their own language learning process (Cotterall, 2000; Crabbe, 1993). The learners are expected “to make the major decisions concerning the content and procedures of learning in collaboration with their teachers” (Benson, 2001, p. 163). The idea of learner control over the curriculum is manifested through the creation of process syllabuses. In a process syllabus, “the learner participates in the decision-making process and works with other learners and the teacher to decide what will be done in the language class and how it will be done” (Skehan, 1998, p. 262). The fundamental feature of a process syllabus is that teachers and learners can negotiate together and work through the actual curriculum in the classroom. Breen and Littlejohn (2000, p. 29) state:

Just as a conventional syllabus provides a framework for the potential content for teaching, the concept of process syllabus was originally proposed in order to provide a framework for decision-making during teaching and learning in a classroom setting. It distinguishes itself from conventional, content syllabus by identifying classroom decisions as potentials for negotiation whereby teacher and students together can evolve and work through the actual curriculum of the classroom group.

The process syllabus has two versions: a weaker version and a stronger version (Benson, 2001). The weaker version often involves project work, in which learners decide the content, methods of inquiry, and outcomes. In the stronger version, the syllabus is not predefined. Rather, any particular content or approaches to learning are to be negotiated and renegotiated throughout the course.

Project work is defined as “student-centred and driven by the need to create an end-product” (Fried-Booth, 2002, p. 6). According to Fried-Booth, project work is very valuable because students collaborate on a task which they have defined and created for themselves and in doing so develop independence and grow in confidence. The major aim of project-based learning is “to provide opportunities for language learners to receive comprehensible input and produce comprehensible output” (Beckett & Miller, 2006, p. 4). Project work in second or foreign language learning is believed to be one of the best ways of developing learner autonomy, firstly because this approach encourages learners to “approach learning in their own way, appropriate to their own abilities, styles and preferences” (Skehan, 1998, p. 23), and secondly, “this approach can be adapted to almost all levels, ages and abilities and is therefore very suited to large classes with students of mixed abilities. ... Project work is a good way of helping students develop good study skills and to integrate their reading, writing, speaking and listening” (Baker & Westrup, 2000, p. 94).

How project work can be used to promote learner autonomy has been a key theme in a number of studies (e.g. Cunningham & Carlton, 2003; Ramírez, 2014; Nix, 2003; Stephenson & Kohyama, 2003; Villa & Armstrong, 2004). Ramírez (2014) conducted an action research study on promoting learner autonomy through project work in an English for Specific Purposes class at a Colombian regional and public university with environmental engineering

undergraduates. Data were collected field notes, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, students' artifacts, and video recordings provided results that suggested that projects can make students aware of their learning skills by allowing them to work on cooperative and individual tasks. The study also indicated that most learners were aware of self-monitoring and self-evaluation strategies such as evaluating their progress and attempting to understand the reasons behind their mistakes. Furthermore, the study showed how intrinsic motivation implies the desire for accomplishment and knowledge to fulfill a learning goal. Stephenson and Kohyama (2003) designed a project to help students exercise more control of their learning of listening by focusing on out-of-class learning. The project involved 50 freshmen of two listening classes who met twice a week. First, the students were familiarised with the project, then each student was asked to determine his/her own learning goals and choose an activity that would help him/her achieve the goals. Students who chose similar activities were put in the same groups. When a decision on the activity had been made, the students were asked to select materials or resources that corresponded to their goal and the study plans were handed to the teacher. They were also given the opportunity to present to the class what they had done. At the end of the semester the students were asked to complete self-evaluation sheets. The results showed that the students produced adversity of learning goals, interests and activities which could be attributed to the language learning project. The study also displayed students' reasons for choosing their preferred learning activities and this encouraged their motivation and confidence in learning English. The results indicated that the project led to enhanced English language proficiency of the students. Curriculum-based approaches, including project-based learning, could be a great resource in the resource-poor Indonesian context.

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

As discussed previously in this chapter, the role of the teacher is pivotal in learner autonomy, in which his/her role is described as, among others, a counselor, facilitator, and advisor. The teacher-based approaches to autonomy place the emphasis on teacher professional development and on teacher education. It has been suggested in the literature that the development of learner autonomy is dependent upon the development of teacher autonomy (Benson, 2001; Little, 1995, 2007; Smith & Ushioda, 2009; Thavenius, 1999). In other words, the teacher should be autonomous themselves if they want to develop autonomy in their students. As Little (1995) argues, “since learning arises from interaction, and interaction is characterised by interdependence between the teacher and learners, the development of autonomy in learners presupposes the development of autonomy in teachers” (p.175). Furthermore, Thavenius (1999) argues that the development of learner autonomy involves a lot more for the role of the teacher than most teachers are aware of. For her, developing learner autonomy is not just concerned with changing teaching techniques, it is concerned with changing teacher personality (p. 159).

The term teacher autonomy can be used to refer to “the teacher’s ability and willingness to help learners take responsibility for their own learning” (Thavenius, 1999, p. 160). Thavenius further states that awareness is a fundamental concept in both teacher autonomy and learner autonomy. Teachers should not only be cognizant about their students’ learning process but also about the importance of their own role. She then argues that providing teachers with awareness training is one of the ways how teacher autonomy can be developed.

According to Little (1995), it is realistic to expect that teacher education provide prospective teachers with knowledge of such as study of research on second language learning, learning

strategies and classroom discourse. This may equip the teachers with knowledge of the importance of learner autonomy. However, according to Little, a capacity to demonstrate the importance of autonomy is a different thing to a capacity to foster learner autonomy in the classroom. He goes on to say that it is more likely that students would work as independent users of the target language if they have been already encouraged in this direction by their classroom experience and, similarly, language teachers would succeed in fostering learner autonomy if they have been encouraged to be autonomous by their own education. Hence, teacher education should also equip their students with knowledge of practices which are intended to promote learner autonomy. As Little said:

... teacher education should be subject to the same processes of negotiation as are required for the promotion of learner autonomy in the language classroom. Aims and learning targets, course content, the ways in which course content is mediated, learning tasks, and the assessment of learner achievement must all be negotiated; and the basis of this negotiation must be a recognition that in the pedagogical process teachers as well as students can learn, and students as well as teachers can teach. (Little, 1995, p. 180)

Ramos (2006, pp. 193-194) identified six important elements in implementing changes in teacher behaviour as an effort to develop teacher autonomy. The first element is self awareness. Self awareness can lead teachers to a better understanding of themselves as learners and professional and of strengths and weaknesses. The second element is an awareness of what happens around them, to their students, at their work place, in their community, country, and in the world. This awareness, according to Ramos, can lead teachers to better able to identify, for example, their students' needs, goals and competency, make a better contribution to the achievement of standard and a better positioning of their institution and also be proactive, critical and offer ideas that may lead to a better working condition and teaching field. Another important element is responsibility, which is an essential quality that

makes autonomy possible and gives them freedom and empowerment. The fourth element in the development of autonomy is challenges, which can lead teachers to professional development. These can be in forms of discovery of new ideas, decisions to enhance knowledge and skills, or to carry out research, and so forth. The fifth important element is participation and collaboration. Participation and collaboration can take form of negotiation, cooperation, sharing, promoting, listening and respecting others and their ideas. The last element is changing roles, which involves the transformation of teachers' roles in the classroom, from controller to advisor, from instructor to guide from transmitter to observer and listener and from evaluator and judge to researcher.

Vieira (1999) developed a project for training which focused on autonomy. The project attempted to establish a relationship between teacher training and learner training. The underlying assumption of the project is that there is a fundamental connection between reflective teaching and learner autonomy. The aims of the project were twofold: 1) to promote the professional development of EFL teachers within a reflective approach by employing a schema of psychological and methodological preparation for the implementation of a pedagogy for autonomy in the classroom and, 2) to promote the development of learner autonomy in EFL learning by using action-research projects that focused on intrapersonal, interpersonal and process components of language learning. The project involved three university teachers/researchers and a group of school teachers who voluntarily joined the project. The project contained three stages: preparing for innovation, preparing for action research and doing action research/implementing innovation. In the first stage, the teachers were provided with a 30-hour training focusing on their personal theories and practices and on the critical analysis of issues related to autonomy as a pedagogical goal in the field of EFL teaching or learning. In the second stage, thirteen teachers were voluntarily involved in



action-research projects. In the third stage, the same teachers then developed their action-research projects in one of their classes. The results of the project demonstrated that, in regard to the development of learner autonomy, an explicit focus on student learning competence led to students' better understanding of foreign language learning and a more diverse and effective use of learning strategies. On the teachers' side, the results showed that teachers became more and more self-confident, more able to plan and appraise their projects, and more flexible in their teaching approach.

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

Classroom-based approaches to autonomy put the emphasis on the negotiation between teachers and students' over the control and responsibility in the planning and evaluation of classroom learning. The most popular forms of these approaches include portfolios, cooperative learning, and self- and peer assessment. A portfolio is 'a purposeful collection of student work that exhibits the student's efforts, progress, and achievements in one or more areas' (Paulson, Paulson, & Meyer, 1991, p. 60). Studies on the use of portfolios as an approach to promoting learner autonomy have mostly shown positive results (e.g. Chauhan, 2013; Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000; Nunes, 2004).

Chauhan (2013) set up a project with a group of 40 first year students at H M Patel Institute of English Training and Research in the MA (ELT) Programme. As a part of their curriculum, the students were assigned with task of creating their own 'language portfolio'. Prior to the commencement of the project, the students were provided with an orientation workshop in which they were involved to determine the type of framework they would like to have for their portfolio. An analysis of the reflective reports suggested that the portfolios helped the students become autonomous in their learning, raised students' consciousness of

learning styles and interests, and increased interaction within the classroom as they shared their work. Rao (2005) carried out a six month portfolio project with his English class. In the first month, he itemised the objectives of portfolios, matched them with pedagogical goals and integrated them into classroom activities, assignments and course materials. In the second month, Rao familiarised the students with what had been done in the first month so that they could get prepared to work with their portfolios. He then integrated the portfolios into the classroom instruction from the third month to the fifth month and recorded students' progress and performance. In month four, the students were given a time during which they looked at each other's portfolios to provide them with better insight of what made a good language portfolio. In the last month of the term, the students were asked to present their portfolios and to do peer- and self-evaluation of their work. The results of the project suggested that portfolios were useful in fostering learner autonomy in that students had opportunities to take active control of their learning process by way of planning, monitoring, evaluating and reflecting on their English learning. The results also showed that the use of portfolios enhanced interaction among the students and between the students and their teachers.

Cooperative learning has been defined as a learning situation where "students work in groups toward a common goal or outcome, or share a common problem or task in such a way that they can only succeed in completing the work through behaviour that demonstrates interdependence while holding individual contributions and efforts accountable" (Brody & Albany, 1998, p. 8). While it might appear that autonomy and cooperative learning is a contradictory idea in which cooperation imply total interdependency (Tagaki, 2003), cooperative learning provides a valuable experience for fostering autonomous learning: students could get complementary skills in autonomy and cooperation through their interaction (Thomson, 1998). Moreover, the skills required in cooperative learning, such as

problem-solving and negotiating, are also appropriate for autonomous learning. Likewise, the skills required for autonomous learning are needed to get students actively involved in cooperative learning (Thomson, 1998).

Other forms used to promote learner autonomy are self- and peer-assessment. Self-assessment refers to “the involvement of learners in making judgments about their own learning, particularly about their achievements and the outcomes of their learning” (Boud & Falchicov, 1989, p. 529). Dickinson (1987) affirmed that self-assessment is an imperative skill for all language learners particularly for autonomous language learners. Self-assessment enhances a practical understanding of assessment criteria, reflective practice, and integrated learning. Hence, students’ reliance on their lecturers for feedback can be minimised (Freeman & Lewis, 1998). According to Gardner (2000, p. 7), self-assessment assists learners to monitor their degree of success in specific learning tasks. It also provides learners with “personalised feedback on the effectiveness of their learning strategies, specific learning methods and learning materials.” Besides, through self-assessment, learners can discover specific domains in which they need more support and can ask for help from teachers or language counsellors. In addition, if it is managed correctly, self-assessment can support formal assessment requirements although its reliability is questioned.

Peer assessment, on the other hand, refers to a process which involves students to “provide either feedback or grades (or both) to their peers on a product, process, or performance, based on the criteria of excellence for that product or event which students may have been involved in determining” (Falchikov, 2007, p. 132). Engaging students in the process of peer assessment provides students with several benefits. For example, Searby and Ewers (1997) suggest that peer assessment seems to provide a more important motivator to the students to

generate high-quality work compared to the assessment done by the teacher her/himself. Besides, according to Searby and Ewers, peer assessment provides students with the opportunity to take more control over their learning through development of critical analysis of the work of their peers. Moreover, peer assessment “helps to lessen the power imbalance between teachers and students and can enhance the students’ status in the learning process” (Spiller, 2012, p. 11).

Empirical research also suggests that self- and peer assessment are very important in promoting learner autonomy. For example, Thomson (1996) conducted a study with 98 students at the University of New South Wales, Australia. The study investigated the impact of learners’ diversity on the self-assessment process of their Japanese language learning. During the project of self-assessment, the students were involved in three different stages: planning, monitoring, and review. In the first stage, the students were asked to assess their Japanese language and communication skills, set their learning objectives and plan their learning activities and their assessment measures. In the second stage, the students evaluated their progress and made adjustments to their plans. Finally, the students were asked to review their objectives, learning activities and progress, and rate their performance using a scale of 0-10. At the end of the course, a feedback survey was given to the students, and the project was evaluated using the student assessment measures and student feedback, as well as the teacher’s observation. The results showed that, in general, students had a positive attitude towards self-assessment. The self-assessment was successful in introducing the students to self-directed learning, and in making the course more learner-centred. The self-assessment project provided the students with an opportunity to learn what they felt they needed to learn.

Tamjid and Birjandi (2011) conducted a study with 59 intermediate TEFL students at Islamic Azad University of Tabriz. The study explored how self- and peer-assessment, compared to teacher-assessment, could promote Iranian EFL learners' autonomy. The students were divided into two groups, one experimental group and one control group. The students in the experimental group received self-assessment and peer-assessment training, while those in the control group only received teacher assessment. The results revealed that the incorporation of self- and peer-assessment had a role in promoting learner autonomy. From this study it may be deduced that the use of self- and peer assessment in EFL teaching in Indonesia can help students develop their metacognition, which in turn, could lead to independent thinking and learning.

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

Learner-based approaches to learner autonomy focus on changing learners' learning behaviours by providing them with training in the essential skills required to enhance their autonomy and their language learning. Learner strategy training, such as learners' metacognitive knowledge and skills, is one area that many researchers have focused on (e.g. Benson, 2001, 2013; Miceli & Visocnik-Murray, 2005; Ng & Confessore, 2010; Nguyen & Gu, 2013). MacLeod, Butler and Syer (1996) state that learner strategy training is designed to provide support for learners' active management of task engagement and their regulation of cognitive activities fundamental for strategic learning and to build a range of knowledge and beliefs that promote further self-regulation. Trim (1988, p. 3) states:

No school, or even university, can provide its pupils with all the knowledge and the skills they will need in their active adult lives. It is more important for a young person to have an understanding of himself or herself, an awareness of the environment and its workings, and to have learned how to think and how to learn.

Providing learners with metacognitive knowledge and skills for self-regulation of learning is important in the effort to promote learner autonomy. This is because the manifestation of learner autonomy, to some extent, depends on learners' ability to self-regulate their learning (Wenden, 2001). Cohen (1998) points out that providing learners with strategy training can improve their effort to attain their language learning objectives because it encourages them to discover their own directions to success, which in turn promotes learner autonomy and self-direction.

Empirical inquiries have also indicated the importance of learner strategy training in the promotion of learner autonomy. Nguyen and Gu (2013), for example, conducted an intervention study involving 37 students in an experimental group, and 54 students in two control groups at a Vietnamese university. The study explored the effects of strategy-based instruction on the promotion of learner autonomy. An eight-week metacognition training package was incorporated into the academic writing programme of the experimental group. The results of the study indicated that, with intensive instruction, learners would be able to improve their ability to self-regulate for a writing task, and that the self-regulation element of learner autonomy can be taught to students. Strategy-based instruction training yielded obvious benefits including better engagement in writing, increased strategy use, and better learning outcomes. Miceli and Visocnik-Murray (2005) carried out a project on language learning strategy training with first year students of Italian at Griffith University, Australia. Throughout the training phase, student responses were observed in order to find out students' perceptions of the impact of the training on their language learning, and whether learners felt they had enlarged their strategy use repertoire by being given the training. One of the results of the observations was evidence of students' greater willingness to take control of their learning by tackling problems and viewing themselves as the core agent in the learning

process. In general, the analysis conducted throughout the project suggested that the majority of the students regarded the strategy training as beneficial in raising their awareness of existing language learning strategies. The students also perceived that the training had provided them with opportunities to reflect on themselves as learners, and had enlarged their strategy repertoire. Besides, the students felt that they had expanded their variety of techniques to cope with their language learning.

### **2.7.7 Summary**

This section reviewed six different approaches to promoting learner autonomy. Although there are various approaches to the promotion of learner autonomy, there is no single approach which can be considered the most effective. According to Benson (2001), if autonomy entails control over learning management, cognitive process, and the content of learning, it seems likely that the most effective way to promote it is through a combination of approaches. This research attempted to identify whether Indonesian students have preferences for particular approaches and make recommendations are made based on the findings.

## **2.8 Research on beliefs about learner autonomy and out-of-class English learning**

### **2.8.1 Beliefs about learner autonomy**

Since learner autonomy requires a shift of responsibility for both the learner and teacher, it is necessary to gauge learners' readiness for the changes by exploring their beliefs about learner autonomy before any interventions aimed at fostering autonomy are implemented. Beliefs is a fundamental construct in every discipline that deals with human behaviour and learning. Beliefs are a psychological construct that is used to refer to an individual's behaviour in learning (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). All learning behaviour is governed by beliefs and experience, so that understanding learners' beliefs is important as it can reveal whether

learners have positive beliefs that could lead to successful learning, or misconceptions and negative beliefs that could hinder language learning (Horwitz, 1988). In many studies, the term ‘belief’ is often not explicitly defined (Thompson, 1992). According to Pajares (1992, p. 307), the notion of beliefs is a “messy” construct and a vague concept to define. This difficulty, according to Pajares, may, to certain extent, be due to the paradoxical nature and different agendas of scholars. Some researchers regard beliefs as part of knowledge (e.g. Pajares, 1992; Furinghetti, 1996), some think beliefs constitute part of conceptions (e.g. Thompson, 1992), and still others consider beliefs as part of attitudes (e.g. Grigutsch, 1998). However, although no explicit definitions of beliefs are given in many studies, it is presumed that the reader understands what is meant (Thompson, 1992).

In recent years, learner beliefs have been an important focus of attention for many researchers in the field of language teaching and learning (e.g. Benson & Lor, 1999; Peacock, 1999; Matsumoto, 1996; Cotterall, 1995a; Horwitz, 1988). In this field, beliefs about language learning consist of “general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning and about the nature of language teaching” (Victori & Lockhart, 1995, p. 224). According to Benson and Lor (1999), researchers’ interest in learner beliefs about language learning is justified because of the assumption that “learning attitudes and behaviours are conditioned by a higher order of mental representations concerning the nature of language and language learning” (p. 459). In planning for the introduction of autonomy, beliefs are crucial because “the beliefs and attitudes learners hold have a profound influence on their learning behaviour” (Cotterall, 1995a, p. 195). Further, Chan (2001b) asserts that non-productive beliefs and attitudes regarding autonomous learning unquestionably constrain the development of learner autonomy. Moreover, erroneous beliefs will lead to the use of less effective strategies and a mismatch between the students’ and



teachers' expectations. Thus, to succeed in promoting learner autonomy, teachers need to understand how their learners perceive autonomous learning and their responsibilities in learning.

One of the influential studies on learner beliefs about autonomy was conducted by Cotterall (1995a). The study aimed to identify factors underlying learners' beliefs about language learning, and examined the claims made in the language learning literature about each identified factor. Using a 34 item questionnaire administered to a group of 139 adult ESL learners who were enrolled in an intensive English for Academic Purposes course, Cotterall identified six fundamental factors underlying learners' beliefs about language learning which provide insights for learners and teachers to use to build a shared understanding of the language learning process and of the part they play in it. The six factors included: the role of the teacher, the role of feedback from the teacher, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approach to studying. She suggested that learners' beliefs regarding these variables have an impact on students' readiness for autonomy and also provide insight into how learner autonomy can be promoted in language learning. For example, there is a general consensus in the literature that learner confidence, generally associated with the broader concept of 'self-esteem', is closely related with learner academic performance. The present study also attempted to explore if any of the above factors have an impact on the students' readiness for autonomy.

Chan (2001a) conducted a small scale research on learner beliefs about autonomy with 20 second-year language major students on the 'English at the Workplace' course in the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Using a questionnaire, the study explored the learners' attitudes and perceptions of language learning, teacher and learner roles, their learning

preferences and perceptions of learner autonomy. The results revealed strong indications of a highly positive attitude towards autonomous learning. The participants demonstrated that they had clear understanding of the nature of learner autonomy and they were very much aware of its demands. However, it was found that the participants generally had an ambivalent attitude towards the teacher's role. On the one hand, a vast majority said they liked the teacher to explain what and how they were learning. On the other hand, a considerable proportion said that they liked the teacher to give them problems to work on and let them find their own mistakes.

Another study conducted by Chan (2001b) involved 30 first year undergraduates of the Contemporary English Language Course at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The study aimed at identifying students' views relating to autonomous learning through the means of a questionnaire. It specifically explored students' views of autonomous learning and the autonomous learners, their perceptions of the teacher's and their own roles in learning, and their learning preferences. The results showed that although the majority of the respondents agreed that autonomous learning is important and that the majority seemed to be quite aware of the principles and practice of learner autonomy, the respondents considered the teacher's role in language learning as imperative, and they felt that the major decision making should be in the hands of the teacher.

In a similar cultural context, Chan et al. (2002) conducted a large-scale study with a group of tertiary students at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University in Hong Kong. The study explored students' perceptions of their responsibilities and decision-making abilities in learning English, their motivation level and the actual practices of language learning they carried out inside and outside the classroom. A questionnaire was distributed to 508 students and focus

follow-up interviews were conducted with a selected group of students. Their results demonstrated that the students had clear-cut perceptions of the teachers' and their own responsibilities: the teacher was regarded as a central figure in student learning. The results also revealed that, although the students generally believed that they were able to perform certain language-related decisions themselves, they preferred their teacher to be responsible for most areas of their learning.

Several studies have been conducted to assess EFL students' readiness for learner autonomy in the Turkish context. Koçak (2003), for example, conducted a study at Başkent University. A questionnaire was distributed to 186 preparatory school students. The results showed that the respondents viewed the teacher as being more responsible in some areas of learning. However, the respondents also indicated their preferences for sharing the responsibilities equally between themselves and the teacher in some other areas, including in stimulating their interest, identifying weaknesses and strengths, evaluating learning performance, evaluating English lessons, making sure they made progress during English lesson. In a similar context, Üstünlüoğlu (2009) investigated university students' perceived responsibilities and abilities relating to autonomous learning, and the related activities conducted inside and outside the classroom. The data were collected from 320 freshman students and 24 English teachers at a Turkish university using a questionnaire. Eleven of the teachers were native speakers of English and the other 13 were non-native speakers. Follow-up interviews were then conducted with 25 of the students who were included in the sample. The results suggested that a) students surrendered the responsibilities in many areas of learning to their teachers although they perceived that they personally had the ability, and b) teachers took on most of the responsibilities, by perceiving their students were unqualified to fulfil their responsibilities. Somewhat different results, however, came from in Yıldırım's

(2008) study conducted in a similar cultural context. The aim of the study was to investigate students' level of readiness for learner autonomy by exploring students' perceptions of their responsibilities, abilities to behave autonomously in language learning, and the frequency with which the students practised autonomous language learning. The data were collected from 103 first year university students who had been attending an intensive English language course for about seven months. The results suggested that the students seemed to be ready to take responsibility in many areas of learning. The students viewed their abilities to behave autonomously very positively and the majority practised some both inside and outside the class learning activities.

In the Japanese context, Gamble et al. (2012) examined university students' perceptions of their responsibilities and abilities to undertake autonomous English learning, and also what they could do inside and outside the classroom based on students' motivational levels. The data were collected from 399 participants from seven universities using a questionnaire. The results showed that the students across motivational levels – the highly motivated, motivated, and unmotivated – demonstrated the same perceptions of their responsibilities in performing autonomous learning tasks. In general, regardless of motivational levels, the students regarded the teachers as being more responsible for the learning areas relating to class management. However, the students felt that the areas related to assessment and setting learning goals should be shared equally with teachers. Regarding their abilities, on the other hand, highly motivated students showed a tendency to view themselves as being able to be more involved in their own learning than unmotivated students. However, they often did not manifest these perceptions in practice due to a held belief that it was the teacher's responsibility or because they had little confidence to do so.

Razeq (2014) investigated university students' readiness for autonomous learning of English as a foreign language in the Palestinian context. The data were collected from 140 first year university students registered in two English courses using a questionnaire. Twelve of the students participated in interviews. The study assessed learners' readiness for autonomous learning across three dimensions: a) learners' perceptions of their educational responsibilities; b) learners' abilities relating to autonomous learning; and c) the actual autonomous English activities that were practised by the participants while learning English. The results suggested that, as a result of previous educational experiences, the learners put the responsibilities for the success or failure of their language learning on their teachers. However, the participants reported that they had the ability to learn autonomously if given the opportunity to do so.

Farahani (2014) explored learners' perceptions of their readiness to exercise autonomy in the Iranian context. Involving 405 learners studying English at Kish Institute, Farahani collected data using a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and non-participant observations. The results revealed that the students generally held a less positive attitude towards learner autonomy. They viewed their teacher as a leading figure expected to make decisions in most areas of learning. Specifically, the results demonstrated that the students perceived themselves to be mainly responsible for out-of class areas of learning but the teacher as more responsible for methodological areas. However, the students claimed they were ready to share responsibility with their teacher in raising their interest in learning English, making them work harder, and deciding the objectives of English course. In a similar context, Ahmadi (2012) investigated students' perceptions of their autonomous self-access language learning involving 133 English for Specific Purposes' students at the University of Guilan and Azad University of Anzali, Iran. The data were collected using a questionnaire which specifically measured students' readiness for autonomy and self-access learning in terms of their responsibility and ability perceptions in different aspects of language learning. The results

revealed that the students were ready to take responsibility for some areas, such as, identifying weaknesses, working harder, deciding what to learn outside the class, and checking progress outside the class. However, the students were not ready to accept the responsibility for areas such as deciding the objectives of the course, deciding what they should learn next, and choosing activities and materials for learning English. The results also indicated that the students had an average level of ability for managing their learning.

Joshi (2011) conducted a study involving 80 master's level students and 6 teachers from the Department of English Education at Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu. The aim of the study was to explore students' autonomous learning activities and perceptions of their own and their teachers' roles, and how this was seen from the teachers' perspectives. The data were collected using a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. It was revealed in the study that the respondents made good practice of autonomous activities and considered their role as an important factor in learning. Moreover, the teachers also suggested that the students were autonomous in their learning.

In short, there is a range of studies conducted on learner beliefs about, and readiness for, learner autonomy in a number of contexts. However, the findings of these empirical studies are still inconclusive. The findings also indicated Asian students' positive perceptions of learner autonomy, thus confirming previous suggestions (e.g. Aoki & Smith, 1999; Joshi, 2011). Moreover, it is evidence that beliefs are contextually defined and situated. This thesis contributes to the literature on learner autonomy by investigating Indonesian EFL university students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in learning English and their decision-making abilities.

### **2.8.2 Out-of-class English learning**

Out-of-class learning is one mode of learner autonomy practice outside the classroom (Benson, 2007), which is often used to describe “non-prescribed activities that students carry out independently to broaden their knowledge of a subject” (Benson, 2011, p. 9). Out-of-class learning, defined as “the efforts of learners taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class” (Benson, 2007, p. 26), can be self-instruction, naturalistic learning (communication with target language users and texts), and self-directed naturalistic learning (creation of communication opportunities with target language users and texts with the intention of learning the target language) (Benson, 2001).

In recent years, an increasing number of studies into out-of-class English language learning have been carried out. Pickard (1996), for example, investigated the out-of-class language learning activities of German students studying English. He observed that listening to the radio, reading newspapers and novels were the activities the students engaged in most frequently. Hyland (2004) investigated out-of-class learning activities of student teachers in Hong Kong and suggested that while many of the students spent considerable time studying and practising English outside the classroom, much of this time was spent on receptive activities such as listening and reading, rather than speaking. Pearson (2003) obtained similar findings in a study of mainland Chinese students studying English at university level in New Zealand. The top five out-of-class activities the students reported they engaged in involved receptive rather than productive language use, and included listening/watching news on radio or television, independent study in a library, reading books, magazines or newspapers, watching television programs, videos or movies, and listening to music or radio.

In the Hong Kong context, Chan et al. (2002) found that activities relating to communication and entertainment, such as watching movies and television in English and using the internet were the major out-of-class activities adult learners engaged in. In a similar context, Wu (2012) found the most frequent out-of-class learning activities of 324 ESL students included watching films and television, reading, listening to English songs, music and radio channels, formal learning and practising speaking with others. In a study involving 140 first year university students in the Palestinian context, Razeq (2014) found that watching television, listening to songs, and activating prior knowledge while studying were the most frequently practised activities of the students. Shen et al. (2005) investigated the out-of-class English learning activities and other variables of 316 EFL college students in Taiwan. The results revealed that the major out-of-class English learning activities, that is more than half of the students engaged in them, were watching English movies, reading English news online, writing emails in English and studying English online.

Tamer's (2013) study of 121 students at an English Language Institute in Saudi Arabia showed that watching English movies, listening to English songs, reading English signboards, watching TV in English and using the internet in English were out-of-class activities the students often practised. Similar findings came from Koçak's (2003) study involving 186 preparatory school students at a university in Turkey. In this study, listening to English songs was the most frequent activity undertaken, followed by watching English movies and TV programs, and using the internet in English. In a study of 103 first year English major students in Anadolu University, Turkey, Yıldırım (2008) found comparable patterns of out-of-class activities: students mostly practised English by listening to English songs, reading notices around them, using the internet in English and watching English movies. Inozu, Sahinkarakas and Yumru (2010) carried out their research with 309 first-year students in the



English Language Teaching Department in Adana and Mersin Universities, Turkey. The results were similar to those of the previously mentioned studies. Outside the classroom, students most frequently practised their English doing internet activities, such as e-mailing or chatting, listening to music, watching TV programs and movies, and reading books or magazines. In the Indonesian context, Ardi (2013) conducted a study involving 192 first year university students. The results showed that listening to English songs, watching English movies, asking friends/lecturers/other people when finding difficulties, updating status on social networking sites using English, and accessing English internet sites were the top five out-of-class activities.

In brief, although the studies cited above were conducted in many different contexts, in general they revealed very similar findings: the frequently practised out-of-class activities were concerned with receptive rather than productive language use. The present study expanded research on out-of-class activities by investigating Indonesian EFL students' out-of-class English language learning activities. More than that, it attempted to determine if there was any relationship between students' reported out-of-class activities and their perceptions of responsibilities in learning and their decision-making abilities, a matter that has not been the subject of previous research. This is an important contribution to the field of autonomy in English language learning as out-of-class learning is an especially important characteristics of autonomous learners. This research also examined the differences in the nature of out-of-class activities between female and male students and between English major and non-English major students. Both matters have received limited attention in previous research.

## **2.9 Research on learner autonomy in the Indonesian context**

Although many studies have been carried out in Asian countries, very little empirical research has been done specifically in the context of Indonesia. Wachidah (2001) conducted a case study on students' learning styles and autonomous learning. The study involved 126 students of a Javanese-dominated general high school in Indonesia in a three month period to explore their level of readiness to learn autonomously in the classroom as well as outside the classroom. The study found that although students were quite capable of taking responsibility for their own learning, and had positive attitudes towards autonomous learning, actually doing so was contingent upon the fulfilment of certain conditions. Wachidah (2001, p. 297) pointed out, "*SMU* [senior high school] learners generally have ... little experience in conducting learning autonomy, and I believe that they do not yet have the capacity to make autonomous decisions at the action level (i.e., to determine the steps or procedures to accomplish a task)."

Lamb (2004) examined language learning attitudes and behaviour of EFL learners. The study, involving 12 adolescents in provincial Indonesia during their first year in junior high school, found that younger learners were already learning English independently of their teacher instructions, both inside and outside the formal school classroom. However, Lamb admitted as a weakness of this study that most of the evidence was gathered from a small number of chosen motivated learners. To find out whether averagely motivated students also have some of the autonomous attitudes and behaviour of these learners, further research is needed (Lamb, 2004).

Ardi (2013) conducted research on student autonomy in learning English outside the classroom. The study involved 192 first year students of a private university in Jakarta

completing a 20 item questionnaire consisting of 10 items on autonomous behaviour in five aspects of learning, including: determining objectives of learning, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques, monitoring learning process, and evaluating the process and outcomes of learning, and 10 items on out-of-class English learning activities. The results showed that the students had an average level in both their autonomous behaviour and their out-of-class learning activities.

The above studies have suggested that there is limited research on students' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Indonesian context; one of the studies was conducted in the Javanese context, one in the Jakarta context, and the other in Jambi province focused on a small number of motivated learners. Given the limited research on learner autonomy and the numerous benefits of learner autonomy for language learning, this study sought to extend the existing knowledge on students' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Indonesian context particularly by recruiting a larger number of participants and employing a mixed methods approach. Together these elements of methodology helped increase the generalisability and improve the validity of the findings.

## **2.10 Summary**

To sum up, this chapter reviewed the existing literature on learner autonomy. There was a description and discussion of learner autonomy in language education which covered a brief history, definitions, levels, versions, misconceptions, and the benefits of learner autonomy. There was also a summary of the characteristics of autonomous learners, followed by a discussion of the relationships between learner autonomy and culture, learner autonomy and language proficiency, and learner autonomy and gender. The chapter also discussed the roles of teachers and learners in regard to learner autonomy, and six different approaches to

fostering learner autonomy. In addition, this chapter provided an extensive review of relevant studies on students' beliefs about learner autonomy and out-of-class language learning, which are the main topics of investigation in the present study.

It is apparent from the literature that even though there is no single, accepted definition of learner autonomy, there is wide consensus that learner autonomy necessitates a tremendous shift in learner and teacher roles in the learning process, as well as quite evidently, there must be individual learner's acceptance of responsibility for his or her own learning. The literature has shown that promoting learner autonomy in language learning is very important as it leads to effective learning, increased motivation, enhanced language proficiency, and learners' active involvement in classroom activities as well in activities outside the classroom.

The review of relevant literature shows there are still gaps in our knowledge of student beliefs about learner autonomy. It has been suggested that there are interconnections between beliefs, culture and learner autonomy; however, there is limited information about these relationships because here in the Indonesian context, learner autonomy is still unexplored. Moreover, the findings of the few previous studies are still inconclusive. The present study aimed to help fill some of this knowledge gap by examining student beliefs about learner autonomy and students' readiness to undertake an autonomous learner's role in the Indonesian tertiary EFL context. The study examined students' perceptions of both their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English learning, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English language learning behaviour both inside and outside of class. Additionally, it explored the reasons behind the students' beliefs and practices.

The literature review demonstrated that previous research into autonomous language learning largely focused on describing the students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities, their decision making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities inside and outside the class. Limited attention has been given to the links between these variables or other possible influencing variables such as gender and major of study. To the best of my knowledge, as mentioned already (p. 20), no study has been done that focuses on the relationships between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom, or between students' decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities. Moreover, no research has examined the differences between students doing an English major and those doing a non-English major in their perceptions of their responsibilities in learning, decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the classroom. This study aimed to address these gaps by examining the relationships between EFL students' perceptions and the differences in the perceptions between the students enrolled in an English major and those in non-English majors. In all, the findings from the investigation undertaken in this research provide empirical evidence that enhances our understanding of autonomous language learning and its theoretical underpinnings.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

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#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter outlines the methodology employed to answer the research questions. The chapter starts by introducing the theoretical framework adopted for this study. It then presents the definition, the characteristics, and the types of the mixed methods approach. The rationale for the choice of the mixed methods approach and the sequential explanatory design is provided along with a discussion of the ways the validity was ensured. There is also a brief discussion about the case study as a method because this research was in fact a case study. The next stage describes the sampling of the participants and the sites included in the study. Following the description of the participants is an explanation of the data collection instruments, and the steps in the data collection process. Finally, the data management and data analysis procedures are described and discussed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the mixed methods adopted in this research which is useful for the presentation of results.

#### **3.2 Theoretical framework: Pragmatism**

All research needs a foundation and this is found in the ‘worldview’ or paradigm selected by the researcher (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). According to Creswell (2009), although the chosen paradigm remains mostly implicit in research, making it explicit helps explain why a particular approach is chosen for the research. The current research employed a pragmatic theoretical framework. Pragmatism has been regarded as “a deconstructive paradigm that debunks concepts such as ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ and focuses instead on ‘what works’ as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, p. 713). The adoption of pragmatism as a philosophical foundation of inquiry has largely

been due to its potential to embrace both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Feilzer, 2010; Fishman, 1999; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Maxcy, 2003; Morgan, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). “Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality” but is appropriate to apply to mixed methods research because it enables the researcher to draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research (Creswell, 2009, p. 10). Unlike other paradigms, pragmatism focuses on the consequences of the research, the importance of research question over the methods used, and that multiple data collection methods inform the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Morgan (2007, p. 73) maintains that pragmatic approach is legitimate and valuable. He writes:

For those who wish to promote the combining of qualitative and quantitative methods, this ...[is]... more than just a mechanically superior way to answer research questions... a pragmatic approach not only supports the kinds of research methods that we advocate but also provides a basis for reorienting the field of social science research methodology in the directions that we favor. The great strength of this pragmatic approach to social science research methodology is its emphasis on the connection between epistemological concerns about the nature of the knowledge that we produce and technical concerns about the methods that we use to generate that knowledge. This moves beyond technical questions about mixing or combining methods and puts us in a position to argue for a properly integrated methodology for the social sciences.

Put briefly, this means that for researchers employing a mixed methods approach, pragmatism is the appropriate choice of theoretical framework. It “opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis” (Creswell, 2009, p. 11).

### **3.3 Research approach**

#### **3.3.1 The mixed methods approach**

It has been widely acknowledged over the past few decades that employing either a quantitative or qualitative technique alone in a study leads researchers to miss important segments of a story. Enhanced results are achieved through a mixed methods approach. The mixed methods approach is defined as a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies and is used in order to better understand a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). While the mixed methods approach is still relatively new in applied linguistics research (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009), it is gaining recognition and is considered a legitimate, stand-alone research design in the fields of social sciences in general (Creswell, 2002, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003). Some authors even regard this approach as the third methodological movement (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), as it complements either a quantitative or a qualitative method.

The mixed methods approach can be distinguished from other kinds of approaches in a number of ways. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 5), the core characteristics of this approach include: a) collecting and analysing methodically both qualitative and quantitative data (based on the research questions); b) mixing the two sets of data concurrently, sequentially, or embedding one set of data within the other; c) giving emphasis on one or on both sets of data depending on the nature and purpose of the research; d) employing these procedures in a single study or in multiple phases of a program of study; e) integrating these procedures within philosophical and theoretical approaches and; f) combining the procedures into specific research designs that direct how the study is conducted.



When a researcher decides to employ a mixed method approach, important decisions need to be made in regard to three matters: i.e. timing, weighting, and mixing. Timing refers to the chronological relationship between the quantitative and qualitative methods within a study; that is, the sequence or order of the data collection and analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, 2011). In mixed methods designs, timing can be classified as concurrent, sequential or multiphase combination. Concurrent timing occurs when both the quantitative and qualitative data are collected, analysed, and interpreted approximately simultaneously during a single phase of the research study. Sequential timing occurs when the collection and analysis of one type of data are conducted before the collection and analysis of the other type. Multiphase timing occurs when multiple phases that include sequential and/or concurrent timing over a program of study are implemented (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Weighting refers to the priority a researcher gives to a method during the process of data collection and analysis in the study (Morgan 1998; Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Three possible priority options are open for a mixed methods design: equal priority, quantitative priority, and qualitative priority. The study may give equal priority to both data sets so that both play an equal value in addressing the research problem. The study can alternatively place greater emphasis on the quantitative methods, or it may place greater emphasis on the qualitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). There are many aspects that influence the researcher's decision about priority, including: the purposes of the research, the research question(s), the traditional procedures of other research in the field such as quantitative experimental designs or qualitative case study designs (Morgan, 1998), the audience for the study, the availability of resources, the researchers' relative experience with the two methods and the audiences for the research (Creswell, 2003). In most cases, however, the decision about the emphasis most likely comes from the comfort level the researcher has

with one approach rather than the other (Creswell, Plano Clark, Guttman, & Hanson, 2003). In the sequential explanatory design, for example, the emphasis is usually given to the quantitative approach. This is because the quantitative data are collected in the first phase and often represent the major aspect of the mixed methods data collection process, followed by the minor qualitative component in the second phase of the research (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006; Creswell, 2012). However, researchers may choose to give priority to the qualitative data collection and analysis depending on the study goals, the scope of quantitative and qualitative research questions, and the particular design of each phase (Morgan, 1998).

Mixing refers to the stage or stages where quantitative and qualitative data and results are connected during the research process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell et al., 2003). It is “the process by which the researcher implements the independent or interactive relationship of a mixed methods study” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 66). In mixing, it is important to consider the stage of integration as it can occur at the level of design, data collection, data analysis, or results interpretation. Researchers can also employ four different mixing strategies, namely: (1) merging the two sets of data; (2) making connections between the analysis of one data set and the collection of a second data set; (3) embedding of one type of data within a bigger design or procedure; and (4) using a framework to combine the data sets. The details on the timing, weighting, and mixing that were employed in this study are discussed in Section 3.3.4.

### **3.3.2 Advantages and disadvantages of the mixed methods approach**

The advantages of employing a mixed methods approach in a study are numerous. One of the foremost is that it merges the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research

(Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) and thus provides an in-depth look at context, processes and interactions but also accurate measurement of identified variables (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtler, 2006). There is also stronger evidence to support conclusions drawn because there has been a convergence and corroboration of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A third significant advantage is that the mixed methods approach is practical in the sense that it allows the researcher to harvest the potential of multiple methods to address a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Besides the advantages, the mixed methods research also has several disadvantages that should be considered before finalising a decision on this approach to a research study. Mixed methods research requires knowledge and skills in both quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Lodico et al., 2006) so that the researchers employing this approach should possess a firm foundation in both aspects of the mixed methods approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). However, this disadvantage can be minimised by reading the literature, taking or having training with someone familiar with mixed methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Another disadvantage of mixed methods research is that it is extravagant in terms of the time, resources and effort on the part of the researcher (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Lodico et al., 2006). Thus, it is important for a researcher to consider whether there is sufficient time to collect and analyse two different types of data, whether there are sufficient resources from which to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data, and whether the skills and human resources exist and are available to accomplish the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This was a PhD study, so in-depth analysis and planning of the project meant the researcher could use the mixed methods approach effectively.

### **3.3.3 Major types of mixed methods design**

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) list six major types of mixed methods design most commonly used by researchers. They are: convergent, explanatory, exploratory, embedded, transformative, and multiphase designs (Figure 3.1). The convergent design is employed when concurrent timing is used to execute the quantitative and qualitative designs, equal priority is given to both designs, the designs are kept independent during analysis, and the results are mixed during the final interpretation. The intent of the convergent design is “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p. 122) in order to best understand the research problem. This design is used for the purpose of triangulation of the methods by directly comparing and contrasting the results of the quantitative phase with those of the qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, 2011).

The explanatory design requires two different reciprocal phases beginning with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The overall purpose of this design is to be able to use the qualitative data collected in the second phase to help explain initial quantitative results (Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

The exploratory design works in a similar way to the explanatory design, but it begins with and prioritises the collection and analysis of qualitative data in the first phase followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data in the second phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The purpose of this design is to use the findings obtained in the initial, qualitative phase to help build up and inform the second, quantitative phase (Greene et al., 1989).

The embedded design is one that has both quantitative and qualitative data collected and analysed within a traditional quantitative or qualitative design. That is, it mixes qualitative and quantitative designs. The researcher may add a qualitative module within a quantitative design or vice versa. The addition is made to improve the overall design in some way (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

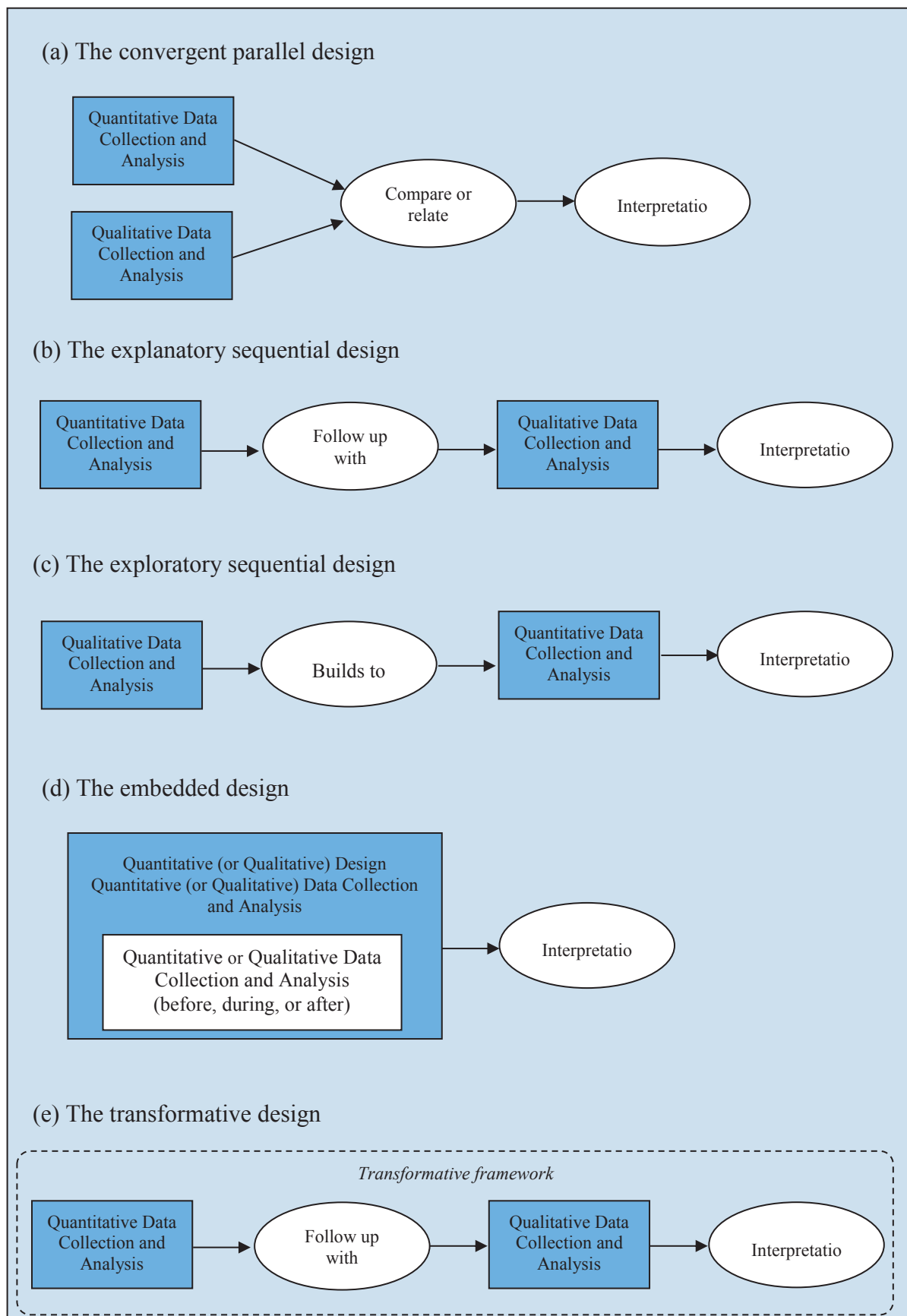
The transformative design is a mixed methods design that the researcher shapes within a transformative theoretical framework. All other decisions such as interaction, priority, timing, and mixing are made within the context of the transformative framework. This framework provides “an orienting lens for the mixed methods design. It informs the overall purpose of the study, the research questions, the data collection, and the outcome of the study. The intent of the framework is to address a social issue for a marginalised or underrepresented population and engage in research that brings about change” (Creswell, 2012, p. 546).

Finally, the multiphase design occurs when both sequential and concurrent designs are combined and applied over a period of time within a program of study that addresses an overall objective. This approach is commonly used in program evaluation where quantitative and qualitative approaches are used over an extended period of time to support the development, adaptation, and evaluation of specific programs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

#### **3.3.4 Rationale for choosing the mixed methods approach and the explanatory design**

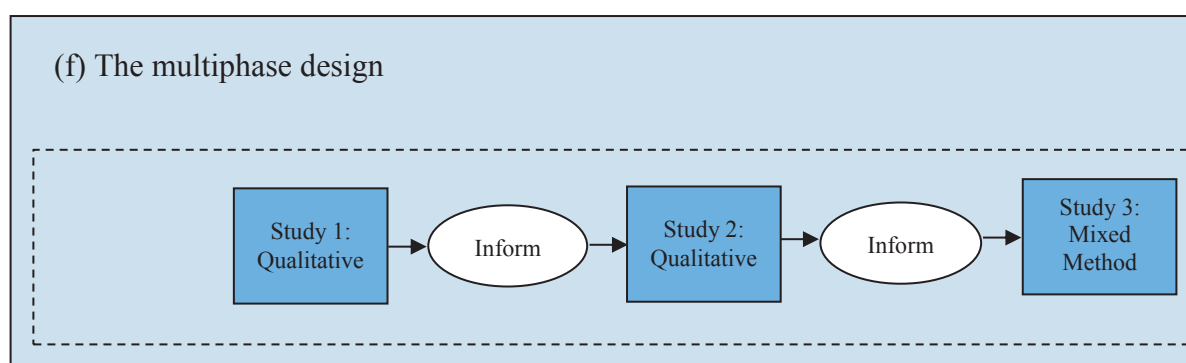
The rationale for choosing the mixed methods approach here is that it allows a thorough analysis of the problems identified in the research questions and provides a thorough understanding of the problems. Employing either a quantitative or qualitative method by

Figure 3.1 Types of mixed methods design



*Continued*

Figure 3.1 Types of mixed methods design (*continued*)



(Adapted from Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011)

itself to examine beliefs and behaviour systems would have been neither adequate nor effective. When used in combination, however, the quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allowed the researcher to take advantage of the strengths of each and embark on a robust analysis of the data for more meaningful findings (Ivankova et al., 2006). Yoshikawa, Weisner, Kalil, and Way (2008, p. 346) contend that in examining belief systems and behaviour, both quantitative and qualitative methods are required, “quantitative methods to understand the prevalence of particular practices, behaviors, and beliefs, and qualitative methods to understand meanings, functions, goals and intentions.”

In previous research on students’ beliefs about learner autonomy, the most commonly used method was the quantitative method (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan, 2001b; Koçak, 2003; Rungwaraphong, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008), and data were mainly collected by means of questionnaires. Since the questionnaire is efficient in terms of time, effort, and financial resources (Dörnyei, 2010), it was also used in this study to obtain a broad portrait of students’ beliefs about learner autonomy, especially students’ perceptions of their teachers’ and their own responsibilities in their English learning, their perceptions of their decision-making abilities, and what they engaged in as their autonomous English learning activities inside and

outside the class. However, to address limitations evident in previous research on learner autonomy, research which mainly employed surveys, and, due to the multifaceted nature of students' beliefs about learner autonomy, an additional qualitative method was adopted to probe the issue further, thus interviews were conducted. The interviews were expected to generate "unique information or interpretation held by the person interviewed" and "a thing" that the researchers were unable to observe themselves (Stake, 2010, p. 95). The final results of this study addressed the research questions as set out in Chapter 1. The answers needed were not only about the beliefs and behaviours of autonomous English language learning, but were expected to provide a deep understanding of the reasons why they held the beliefs and exhibited the behaviours.

In line with the purpose of this study, the sequential explanatory design, which consists of a distinct quantitative phase followed by a qualitative phase, was considered appropriate. The quantitative data and results provided a general account of the research problem, in this case, Indonesian EFL university students' perceptions and practices of autonomous learning. The subsequent qualitative data collected and resulting findings allowed for refinement, elaboration and explanation of the statistical results previously obtained from a more in-depth exploration of the participants' perspectives (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, Creswell, 2003, 2012). This type of design is suitable for research in which the researcher wants the qualitative findings to explain significant, non-significant or unexpected quantitative results (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991). Besides, this design is advantageous due to its "straightforwardness and opportunities for exploration of the quantitative results in more detail" (Ivankova et al., 2006, p. 5).



In the first phase of study, the quantitative (numeric) data were collected through a questionnaire: these were then analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of SPSS. The descriptive analysis was focused on answers to research questions 1, 2 and 3. The inferential statistical analysis provided results for research questions 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. The quantitative results were then used to steer an in-depth qualitative study in exploring the reasons why the participants held the beliefs identified in the quantitative phase and to validate some of the questionnaire responses. In the second phase, the qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews and used to help explain the results of the quantitative phase. The interviews addressed research question 9: What are the reasons behind students' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy?

In terms of weighting, equal value was given to the quantitative and qualitative data. The mixing of the quantitative and qualitative phases occurred both during the data collection and data analysis phases of the study. At the data collection phase, the connection was made while selecting the participants for the second phase of study which was based on the results of the quantitative data analysis. Then, the results from both the quantitative and qualitative phases were mixed in the data analysis. The flowchart of all procedures undertaken for this study is presented in Figure 3.2 which was developed based on a model proposed by Ivankova et al. (2006).

### **3.3.5 Validity of the mixed methods design**

As with any research, the validity of the results from mixed methods research is important. Since mixed methods research produces knowledge generated from the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data, it is also essential to ensure that such knowledge is correct and legitimised (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). In mixed methods research, validity is

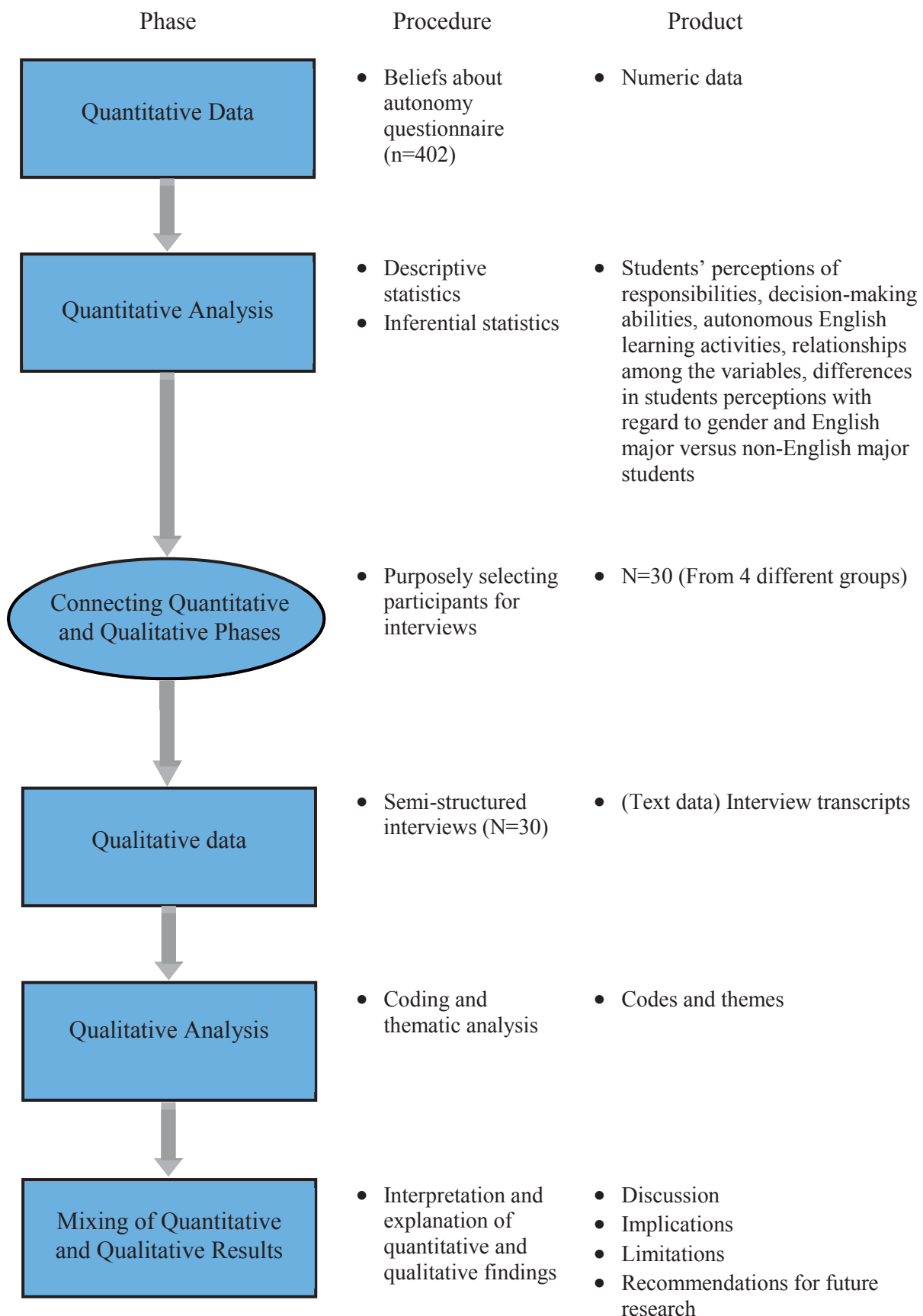
defined as “the ability of the researcher to draw meaningful and accurate conclusions from all the data in the study” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 146). Hesse-Biber (2010) states that the validation process in mixed methods “centers on having the correct mixed methods design and that validation requires having the right *methods elements*. The emphasis on validation does not center on whether or not the research findings from the study are valid” (p. 86).

The matter of validity should be addressed from the standpoint of the mixed methods design chosen for the study and consideration given to potential threats to validity that might arise during the data collection and analysis at each study stage (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). Thus, to avoid or reduce such threats and attain accurate and meaningful results from the integration of the two data sets in a mixed methods study, it is recommended that a researcher design and conduct the study carefully, apply the appropriate procedures systematically in the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study, and integrate the two methods as the mixed methods design prescribes (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009).

Thus, to ensure the merit of the results of this study, some measures were undertaken. Firstly, there searcher followed the steps for conducting the mixed methods research as suggested in the literature (e.g. Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, 2011). The researcher also systematically employed the appropriate procedures both in the quantitative and qualitative components of the study, and followed the methods for integrating the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study as prescribed in the literature.

To minimise the threat to validity with regard to the explanatory design at the stage of data collection, a procedure recommended by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) was followed. The

Figure 3.2 Flowchart of procedures undertaken for the study



first potential validity issue concerned selecting the same or different individuals for the qualitative and quantitative data collection. To minimise the validity threat, the participants for the qualitative phase were chosen from those who were involved in the quantitative phase. Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) call this type of validity ‘sample integration legitimization’, which refers to “the extent to which the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative sampling designs yields quality meta-inferences” (p. 57). The second likely validity concern is that the same sample sizes are used for both qualitative and quantitative data collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The possibility of this threat was reduced by using a large sample size in the quantitative phase and a small sample size in the qualitative phase.

Another possible validity issue, according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), is concerned with “not designing an instrument with sound psychometric (i.e validity and reliability) properties” (p. 148). Some measures were taken into account in this regard for this study. First, the adapted questionnaire had a high reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency coefficient of .91. The content validity of the questionnaire was also established. To assess whether the questionnaire questions were appropriate to the subject intended to be measured and whether this was a sensible way to attain the needed information, the wording of the questionnaire items were examined by my primary and secondary supervisors and then pilot-tested on three non-participants of the study before being employed for the data collection (This is discussed in Section 3.5.1).

With regard to the data analysis stage, a potential threat to validity is concerned with choosing weak quantitative results to follow up in the qualitative phase. This issue was addressed by choosing significant quantitative results to be further explored in the qualitative phase. The participants for the qualitative phase were chosen based on the variations in

degree of their perceptions of responsibilities (on their own, their teacher's and both) and degree in autonomous learning activities (those who performed high frequency of inside and outside the class English learning activities) in the questionnaires.

### **3.3.6 Case study**

As indicated in the Introduction, since this research involved participants from four universities in one province only in Indonesia, it should be treated as case study. According to Yin (2003, p.13), a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.” Case study research “involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e. a setting, a context)” (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). Sturman (1994, p. 61) explains further:

While the techniques used in the investigation may be varied, and may include both qualitative and quantitative approaches, the distinguishing feature of case study is the belief that human systems develop a characteristic wholeness or integrity and are not simply a loose collection of traits. As a consequence of this belief, case study researchers hold that to understand a case, to explain why things happen as they do, and to generalize or predict from a single example requires an in-depth investigation of the interdependencies of parts and of the patterns that emerge.

The need for case studies emerges from “the desire to understand complex social phenomena”: the case study research allows researchers “to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events” (Yin, 2003, p. 2). According to Yin (2003), a case study can be exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory. The exploratory case study is used to investigate situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes. This type of case study is often conducted prior to beginning major research in

order to define the final questions or develop a hypothesis. The descriptive case study is used to describe a complete profile of a phenomenon in the real-life context. The explanatory case study is used to search for answers to a question that seeks to explain the course of events and presumes causal relationships. In other words, it tries to explain how things happened and are related. The case study approach was used in this research as it was considered appropriate to address learner autonomy in the particular context of the province of Jambi, Indonesia. Given the richness of Indonesia's ethnic groups and diversity in cultures, an in-depth investigation of student beliefs in one provincial location for this early study on Indonesian students' beliefs about learner autonomy was most appropriate. Four institutions of higher education within a province were selected to illuminate a situated understanding on learner autonomy. Based on this classification, the present research seemed to fall into both descriptive and explanatory categories. It not only described the phenomenon in its context but also attempted to explain the causation.

### **3.4 Research participants and research sites**

The participants in this study were Indonesian EFL students at four out of approximately 40 higher educational institutions in Jambi Province, Indonesia. The institutions included two institutions of Islamic studies, an institution of administrative studies, and an institution of economics studies. The reasons for choosing these four institutions as research sites were: first, data accessibility as the researcher works at one of these institutions, and second, these institutions responded to the researcher's invitation.

The participants were first year students from the four institutions spread over 20 major fields of study and 41 classes. The total number of the first year students at the four institutions was 1,391 consisting of 670 (48%) males and 721(52%) females. Of the total of 1,391, 402

students were used as the sample in the quantitative phase, consisting of 192 (48%) males and 210 (52%) females. The research aimed to collect as many responses as possible and to obtain a representative sample in terms of majors of study and gender. With regard to size, 402 participants is considered more than adequate for the population of 1,391 EFL students. According to Lodico et al., (2006), populations over 1,000 require about 20% for an appropriate sample and populations of 5,000 or more, samples of 350 to 500 persons are often adequate.

The participating students were about eighteen to twenty years of age, of both genders, and had varied English proficiency. To select the sample in the quantitative phase, both stratified sampling and purposive sampling were used. The stratified sampling was used to select the respondents from the non-English majors of the four institutions. In the stratified sampling, the population was divided into homogenous groups, so that each group consisted of subjects with similar characteristics. The sample was then randomly selected from these groups (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). The rationale for the choice of stratified sampling was to obtain a sample representative of the whole population in terms of both major of study and gender. For this purpose, first the students were divided according to their majors. In order to obtain a representative sample of the whole population in terms of gender, the students from each of the majors were then divided into two groups: male and female. After that, the males and females in each of the majors were randomly selected in accordance with their proportion. The purposive sampling in the quantitative phase was used to include all the students of the English major in the sample. This was intended to address one of the research purposes i.e. to examine if there were differences between the students of the English major and those of non-English majors in their perceptions of their responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class. “In purposive

sampling, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality” (Cohen et al., 2000). The profiles of the students who participated in the quantitative phase of the study are presented in Table 3.1.

Tabel 3.1 Research participant profile for the quantitative phase

No.	Major field of study	Male	Female	Total
1.	English Education	19	33	52
2.	Islamic Counselling	21	21	42
3.	Islamic Education Management	5	4	9
4.	Islamic Education Studies (Institution A)	10	10	20
5.	Arabic Education	3	5	8
6.	Biology Education	19	26	45
7.	Mathematic Education	6	16	22
8.	Islamic Family Law	4	2	6
9.	Islamic Economics	7	5	12
10.	Islamic Economic Law	14	15	29
11.	Islamic Banking	9	12	21
12.	Preaching Management	1	1	2
13.	Qur'an and Interpreting Studies	2	1	3
14.	Islamic Education Studies (Institution B)	4	2	6
15.	Childhood Education	0	8	8
16.	Public Administration	16	17	33
17.	Office Administration	1	1	2
18.	Management Economics	28	17	45
19.	Development Economics	20	8	28
20.	Accounting	3	6	9
Total		192	210	402

In the second phase of the study, 30 out of the 402 participants in the first phase were selected for interviews using stratified purposeful sampling (Patton, 2002). The participants were selected from those who indicated their availability to take part in an interview in the consent forms. The reason for selecting this number was to allow in-depth exploration of the quantitative results. Based on the nature of the sequential explanatory design, the participants were selected based on the questionnaire results. Two criteria were used in selecting the participants, i.e. students’ perceptions of learning responsibilities (those who believed that learning responsibilities should be on their own, their teacher’s and both) and students’ reported autonomous learning activities (frequency of inside and outside the class English



learning activities). Selecting participants who held different degrees of perceptions of responsibility and autonomous learning activities was expected to provide comprehensive coverage and allow the researcher to present multiple perspectives of individuals to “represent the complexity of our world” (Creswell, 2002, p. 194). It allowed the researcher to explain the views of participants with varied perceptions of learner autonomy and autonomous practices.

Regarding the perceptions of responsibilities, 5 interviewees were selected from the students who seemed to prefer having responsibilities over their learning (represented by S in Table 3.2), 6 were those who demonstrated their preference for placing responsibilities on their teachers (T), and 7 were the students who preferred the responsibilities on both their own and their teachers (ST). Regarding the degrees of autonomous behaviour, 7 interviewees were those who reported a frequent engagement in English learning activities both inside and outside the class (H), and 5 were those who reported lower frequency of English learning activities (L). The profiles of the participants in the qualitative phase are presented in Table 3.2.

### **3.5 Data collection instruments**

#### **3.5.1 Questionnaires**

A questionnaire was used to collect the data in the quantitative phase. Questionnaires are “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (Brown, 2001, p. 6). A questionnaire was used in this study due to its efficiency and flexibility: an enormous amount of information can be collected in a very short time by administering a questionnaire to a group of people. Also, the questionnaire is very flexible: it

can be used efficiently with a variety of people, in a variety of situations, targeting a variety of topics (Dörnyei, 2010). Besides being efficient and flexible, the questionnaire offers anonymity because no face-to-face interaction need take place and anonymity “helps to increase the likelihood of obtaining accurate information” in situations when information is sought on sensitive matters (Kumar, 2011, p. 148).

Table 3.2 Research participant profile for the qualitative phase

No.	Pseudonym	Major	Gender	Category
1.	Wulan	English Education	F	S
2.	Zaskia	English Education	F	S
3.	Budi	English Education	M	S
4.	Nirina	Arabic Education	F	S
5.	Ahmad	English Education	M	S
6.	Siska	Biology	F	T
7.	Amanda	Arabic Education	F	T
8.	Putri	Islamic Economics	F	T
9.	Karmila	Islamic Economics	F	T
10.	Kartika	Biology	F	T
11.	Mira	Islamic Education Studies	F	T
12.	Mela	Arabic Education	F	ST
13.	Eko	English Education	M	ST
14.	Andika	English Education	M	ST
15.	Rendi	Islamic Economics	M	ST
16.	Sandi	Biology	M	ST
17.	Romi	Biology	M	ST
18.	Eva	English Education	F	ST
19.	Ayu	English Education	F	H
20.	Shinta	English Education	F	H
21.	Riana	Public Administration	F	H
22.	Damayanti	English Education	F	H
23.	Indri	English Education	F	H
24.	Taufik	English Education	M	H
25.	Mayang	English Education	F	H
26.	Sintia	Biology	F	L
27.	Melani	Arabic Education	F	L
28.	Bambang	English Education	M	L
29.	Rinjani	Arabic Education	F	L
30.	Ranti	Biology	F	L

Despite the numerous advantages, questionnaires also have some disadvantages. One potential disadvantage is their low return rate (Gillham, 2007, Kumar, 2011). However, “the

response rate is not a problem when a questionnaire is administered in a collective situation” (Kumar, 2011, p. 149). Another disadvantage of the questionnaire is its “simplicity and superficiality of answers” (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 7). This is due to the fact that the questions asked are usually simple and straightforward and the amount of time respondents are willing to spend to complete the questionnaire is rather short, thus limiting the depth of the investigation. However, as this study employed a mixed methods approach, the potential simplicity and superficiality of information obtained through the questionnaire were not an issue because more in-depth investigation of the problems was pursued in the interviews.

In this study, a questionnaire adapted from Chan et al. (2002) was used for collecting the quantitative data. This questionnaire was used because it integrated several concepts of learner autonomy suggested in the literature. Besides, this questionnaire had also been used in a number of previous studies (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Farahani, 2014; Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014; Spratt et al., 2002; Tamer, 2013; Yıldırım, 2008) thus improving its validity.

According to Chan et al. (2002), this questionnaire was developed by incorporating the concepts of learner autonomy suggested by several scholars, among others Deci (1995), Holec (1981), and Littlewood (1999). As already stated in the literature review, Holec (1981, p. 3) defines autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning.” For Holec, to take charge of one’s own learning is to take the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. This includes, for example, establishing the objectives, choosing methods and techniques to be used and evaluating what has been learned (see Chapter 2 for more detail).

In regard to Littlewood's (1999) concept of autonomy, this questionnaire attempted to incorporate the elements of both 'proactive' and 'reactive' autonomy (Chan et al., 2002). Proactive autonomy, according to Littlewood (1999, p. 75), is the form of autonomy by which "learners are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what has been required." Reactive autonomy is "the kind of autonomy which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p. 75).

The original questionnaire consisted of 52 items. For the purpose of the present study, however, it was slightly modified to better suit the purpose and the context of the study. In the adaptation, 1 item was deleted, 2 items were changed, and 1 item was modified (see Table 3.3). The deleted item, item no. 1 in Table 3.3, asked participants to rate their motivation level. This item was deleted because motivation is a complex concept. According to Dörnyei (2001), motivation by definition concerns both human basic dimensions: *direction* and *magnitude* (intensity). It is accountable for the choice of a particular action, the effort spent

Table 3.3 List of adapted items of the questionnaire

No.	Original questionnaire	Adapted questionnaire
1.	How would you describe yourself: <input type="radio"/> Highly motivated to learn English? <input type="radio"/> Well motivated to learn English? <input type="radio"/> Motivated to learn English? <input type="radio"/> Slightly motivated to learn English? <input type="radio"/> Not at all motivated to learn English?	Deleted
2.	Written English letter to penpals?	Watched videos/DVDs/VCDs?
3.	Attended a self-study centre (e.g. CILL)?	Attended meetings in English?
4.	Done assignments which are not compulsory?	Done exercises which are not compulsory?

on it, and the persistence with it. Thus, these aspects cannot be assessed based on 1 question in the questionnaire. For this reason and due to the different focus of the present research, the study of motivation was left for future research. The changing of item no. 2, *Written English letter to penpals?*, was done because this mode of learning appeared to be outdated so question needed to be adjusted. Item no. 3 was changed because a self-study centre was not available in the context where and when this study took place. Item no. 4 was modified to provide a more precise word choice. When translated into *Bahasa Indonesia*, the word ‘exercise’ may be more appropriate than the word ‘assignment’ to refer to a voluntary rather than an assigned activity.

The adapted questionnaire (see Appendix 4a) consisted of 51 items and was divided into three sections: Section 1, consisting of 13 items, focused on whose responsibilities (the teacher’s or the students’) the students believed various aspects of English learning inside and outside the class should be. In this section, students rated their answers on a five-point scale from ‘not at all’ to ‘completely; Section 2, consisting of 11 items, focused on students’ views of their decision-making abilities in learning English inside and outside the class. In this section, the students rated their answers on a five-point scale from ‘very poor’ to ‘very good’. The middle point of the scale was the ‘OK’ category. The study used Chan et al.’s (2002) definition of OK which means ‘just about average’. In the Indonesian version of the questionnaire, ‘OK’ was translated as ‘sedang’, which means ‘average’ in English. Section 3, consisting of 27 items, explored the students’ autonomous English learning activities inside or outside the class which could be considered as manifestations of autonomous language learning behaviour. In this section of the questionnaire, students rated their answers on a four-point scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘often’.

The internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured and found very high, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .91. Before being used for the data collection, the questionnaire was carefully translated into *Bahasa Indonesia*. The translation was proof-read by a language educator in an Indonesian higher education institution who is also very proficient in English and was tried out to three first year students who were not included in the sample. According to Dörnyei (2010, p. 53), a try-out of a questionnaire allows the researcher “to collect feedback about how the instrument works and whether it performs the job it has been designed for” so, based on this information, the researcher can make revisions and fine-tune the finished version of the questionnaire. Oppenheim (1992, p. 47) states “Questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights. In fact, every aspect of a survey has to be tried out beforehand to make sure that it works as intended.” Piloting the questionnaire is also important in helping the researcher see if the participants understand the meaning of the questions in the way that the researcher understands them, to test the time required to complete the questionnaire and to try to identify and eliminate items that will not generate usable data (Phellas, Bloch, & Seale, 2012).

In the try-out, the students took about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. After completing the questionnaire, they were asked if the questions made sense to them. The students were also requested to suggest any rewording which would assist their comprehension. The three students found all the questions were comprehensible. However, they felt that the instruction for the first section in the questionnaire was redundant. The instruction was then reworded according to the students’ suggestions. The instruction for the first section in the draft questionnaire read: *Ketika anda belajar bahasa Inggris di perguruan tinggi ini, tanggung jawab siapa dan seberapa besar tanggung jawab tersebut seharusnya*

*dalam:* (When you learn English at this institution, who has responsibility and to what extent for the following?). The instruction was then simplified and read: *Ketika anda belajar bahasa Inggris di perguruan tinggi ini, tanggung jawab siapakah seharusnya dalam hal-hal berikut?* (When you learn English at this institution, who should take responsibility for the following aspects?).

### **3.5.2 Interviews**

In qualitative research, there are several types of typical data collection methods including observations, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials (Creswell, 2009). For the present study, the interview was chosen to collect qualitative data. The rationale for choosing the interview was that the interview “can provide insights into people’s experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations at a depth that is not possible with questionnaires” (Richards, 2009, p. 187). Besides, the interview would illuminate “subjectively lived experiences and viewpoints from the respondents’ perspective”, and through it, participants can provide “rationales, explanations, and justifications for their actions and opinions” (Tracy, 2013, p. 132).

An interview has been described as a ‘conversation with a purpose’ (Burgess, 1984, p. 102) or ‘professional conversation’ (Kvale, 1996, p. 5), and ‘the gold standard of qualitative research’ (Silverman, 2000, p. 51). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) define interviews as an interchange of views between the interviewer and interviewee(s), conversing about a theme of common interest. The purpose of interviewing is to find out those things that cannot be directly observed such as feelings, thoughts, and intentions as well as behaviour that took place at some previous point of time (Patton, 1980). Cohen et al. (2000) state that the use of interviews in a research study may serve three purposes. Firstly, it may be used as the major

instrument of collecting information that has a direct link with the research objectives. Secondly, the interview may be employed to test hypotheses or to propose new ones, or else as an explanatory means to help identify variables and relationships. And thirdly, the interview may be employed in combination with other methods, which might be used, for instance, to follow up unexpected results, to validate other methods, or to explore more in-depth the motivations of respondents and their motives for responding as they do.

Interviews can be individual or group in nature (Berg, 2001; Cohen et al., 2000). To answer the research question, the individual type of interview was employed in this study. One reason for choosing this type was that it permits “a more detailed pursuit of content information than is possible in a focus group session” (Berg, 2001, p. 115). Although a great deal of data could be yielded through the group interview such as focus groups, less data are produced through this type of interview compared to those obtained through one-to-one type of interview with the same number of individuals (Cohen et al., 2000).

Interviews are classified with respect to their formality and openness. They can be placed on a continuum ranging from unstructured through semi-structured to structured (Nunan, 1992; Richards, 2009). Unstructured interviews are interviews that develop naturally, rather than being guided by a pre-prepared interview guide or list of questions. The aim of unstructured interviews is to explore in as much depth as possible the respondent’s experiences, views, or feelings and, although the interviewer will have topics in mind, the direction of the interview is largely determined by the speaker (Richards, 2009). An advantage of this type of interview derives from the richness of insight it can generate. However, relying exclusively upon the results of unstructured interviews will make valid comparison across informants very difficult (Richards, 2009). Structured interviews, in contrast, are interviews in which all the questions



are written out in advance, often using an interview guide. In this type of interview, “the interviewer is seeking very specific information and trying to collect it in a way that will allow as little variation as possible, so the questions are precisely formulated and designed to elicit responses that can be recorded exactly” (Richards, 2009, p. 184). This type of interview has the advantages of precision and comparability but it has the disadvantages of lack of depth and richness (Richards, 2009). Semi-structured interviews, described as a ‘compromise’ (Dörnyei, 2007), are interviews based on a plan or interview guide, and aim to cover key topics and questions, but are allowed to develop as naturally as possible and not necessarily in the planned order (Richards, 2009).

The semi-structured interview type was chosen for this study to collect in-depth data on students’ beliefs about learner autonomy. One advantage of using the semi-structured interview in a study is that it provides the researcher with an open, relaxed approach to interviewing (Barriball & While, 1994; Drever, 1995). In this type of interview, the researcher “knows what topics need to be covered and to a large extent what questions need to be asked (though this does vary), so a degree of comparison is possible” (Richards, 2009, p. 185) and “the interviewers are permitted (in fact expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared and standardized questions” (Berg, 2001, p. 70). The semi-structured interview was appropriate for providing an understanding of learner autonomy and allowing the interviewer to ask elaboration questions.

The purpose of the interviews in this study was to further explore the results of the quantitative phase to give a better understanding of the reasons behind the held beliefs and practices. The questions asked in the interviews were a selection and elaboration of questions from the questionnaire asked in order to verify some of the answers already obtained and to

answer this study's research questions. Prior to the qualitative data collection, the interview questions were validated (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). To ensure the clarity in the wording, the interview questions were pilot-tested to two non-participants of the study before the collection of the final data.

The interviews were conducted based on a pre-developed set of questions (see Appendix 5a). Aside from this set of questions, I asked additional questions, depending on a participant's responses. This is appropriate for a semi-structured interview, as the interviewer seeks to explore deeper into a matter raised in an interviewee's responses (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Berg, 2001; Richards, 2009).

It should be acknowledged that although self-report instruments such as questionnaire and interview may have validity issues associated with the honesty of responses, they are the most popular and reliable methods for data collection. Efforts have been done to minimise this issue. For instance, prior to the distribution of the questionnaire and prior to the interviews, the participants were requested to answer the questions as honestly as possible. Participants were reminded that the answers to this questionnaire would not affect their study or grades at the university they were studying. As the current study employed the mixed methods design, this enhanced the validity of the responses in the form of triangulation.

### **3.6 Steps of data collection**

#### **3.6.1 Ethics and approvals**

Research that involves human subjects needs to take into account the ethics of the research because it is important to “to determine the moral acceptability or appropriateness of specific conduct and to establish the action that moral agents ought to in particular situations” (Peach,

1995, p. 13). Research ethics not only “helps students, the public, and experimental subjects avoid research-related harm, but also it provides a framework for examining the ends and the goals that research serves” (Shrader-Frechette, 1994, p. 9). Prior to carrying out this study, an ethics approval from the University of Canberra’s Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) was secured. In addition, before the commencement of data collection, approvals were obtained from the four institutions of higher education – in this case, the head of the institutions involved in the research project. To obtain the approvals, I approached each of the heads of the institutions in person. Details of the institutional approval to conduct the research can be found in Appendix 1.

### **3.6.2 The quantitative phase**

Having secured the approvals from the institutions and selected the potential participants, I approached each teacher whose students were included in the sample for their permission to distribute a questionnaire in their classes. In meeting with each of the teachers, I explained the purpose of the study, and emphasised that students’ participation in the study was voluntary. Providentially, all teachers approached gave their permission and expressed their availability to assist in administering the questionnaires to the students. In the meeting, the dates and time for the administration of the questionnaires were agreed: these were at the teachers’ convenience to ensure there was no interference with the teaching and learning process.

Before deciding whether to participate in the study, all the participants were provided with the information form, which explained the purposes and benefits of the study, and gave a general outline of it. Also in the form was information on such as how much time a student might need to complete the questionnaire and interview, confidentiality and anonymity, data

storage, and the right of the participants to decline participation or withdraw at anytime without providing any reasons and without the risk of any consequences. In addition, the students were informed that any information they provided would be kept completely confidential and that all reports of the study would contain no information that referred to individual students (Information and consent forms can be found in Appendix 2a and Appendix 3a respectively).

The students who agreed to take part in the study returned the signed consent forms. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, the participants were requested to complete the questionnaire as honestly as they could and they were informed that the outcomes of the study would provide a better understanding of student beliefs about autonomous language learning so that teachers would become more aware of their responsibilities as probed through students' beliefs. The participants were informed that their answers did not in any way contribute to their course grade. The participants were given instructions on questionnaire completion and questions from the participants were welcomed. This was in accordance with the ethical considerations and ethical application of this research. It took me about one and half months to collect the data from 402 participants spread over 41 classes.

### **3.6.3 The qualitative phase**

The students who were chosen for the interviews based on their availability and the previously explained criteria of selection were contacted to make arrangements and draw up an interview schedule. Prior to the interviews, the interviewees were informed of the purpose of the study. It was emphasised in the explanation that their identity would be kept confidential and anonymous and that they were allowed to withdraw from the interview at any time. They were also requested to be sincere and honest in answering the interview

questions. To avoid miscommunication due to the low English proficiency level of the participants, the interviews were conducted in *Bahasa Indonesia*. Lopez, Figueroa, Connor, and Maliski (2008) suggested that researchers' interviews should be conducted in the participants' preferred language so that they will have a clearer understanding of the issues under investigation. Thus, prior to the data collection, the researcher first translated the interview questions verbatim into *Bahasa Indonesia* (see Appendix 5b).

In order for the interviewees to feel relaxed and comfortable during the course of the interviews, the formality of the interviews was kept as low as possible. An informal interview setting is generally thought to help gain a participant's trust. Open interviews as well are considered useful: "respondents feel more comfortable, can talk freely about their experiences and do not feel urged to touch upon topics they do not want to talk about" (Bilger & Liempt, 2009, p. 123). There was no any pre-existing or instructor-student relationship between the researcher and participants before the data were collected and this provided a supportive and relaxing environment encouraging student participation. Thus, the relationship between the researcher and participants during the interview could be maintained proportionally. Each interview was planned to last about 15 minutes but some of the interviews lasted longer and each interview was audio-recorded as all the participants had consented to this. Due to practical constraints such as time and availability of the participants, nine different sessions took place over four weeks. The interviews were conducted in a quiet classroom made available to the researcher to help maximise the quality of the interviews. Two digital recorders in the form of mobile phones (one was used as the backup for the other) were used.

### **3.7 Data management and analysis**

#### **3.7.1 Data management**

All the information including responses obtained through the questionnaires and interviews were kept in safe and secure storage throughout the project in accordance with the documented ethical procedures. The data obtained through the questionnaire were in form of hardcopies and were kept in a secure storage for reference during the analysis and discussion of results and the researcher was the only person who had access to the copies. To prevent the loss of the data, the hardcopies were also scanned and kept as soft copies. The recordings obtained through the interviews were kept in computer files and were password-locked so the researcher was the only person who had full access to the files. As with the questionnaires, these files were used for reference during the analysis and discussion of the results.

#### **3.7.2 Data analysis**

The data obtained by means of the questionnaires were first organised into a form suitable for analysis. Since the questionnaire items were responses to closed-ended questions, steps proposed by Dörnyei (2010) were followed to process the information. The steps include data check and cleaning, data manipulation, reduction of the number of variables, measurement of data reliability and validity, and statistical analyses. First, I checked the completed questionnaires to make certain that background information, i.e. name, identification number, major field, and gender was provided. I also checked the completeness of each of the questionnaires to make sure there was an answer to every question. The completed questionnaires were then transferred into Microsoft Excel data spreadsheets. The responses were coded using numbers. For gender, 1 indicated 'female' and 2 indicated 'male'. For section 1 of the questionnaire, which aimed to assess students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in several aspects of English language learning, a five point

scale was used, in which 1 represented ‘not at all’, 2 ‘a little’, 3 ‘some’, 4 ‘mainly’, and 5 ‘completely’. A five point scale was also used in section 2, which asked the students to assess their own decision-making abilities, in which 1 indicated ‘very poor’, 2 ‘poor’, 3 ‘OK’, 4 ‘good’, and 5 ‘very good’. For section 3, which asked the students to rate the frequency of inside and outside the classroom English language learning activities, a four point scale was used, in which 1 indicated ‘never’, 2 ‘rarely’, 3 ‘sometimes’, and 4 ‘often’.

The data were then analysed using descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests with the help of SPSS. To address the first, second and third research questions, descriptive statistics including percentage and Confidence Interval (CI) analysis were performed. CI refers to “a range of values, calculated from the sample observations, that is believed, with a particular probability, to contain the true parameter value” (Everitt & Skrondal, 2010, p. 99). It enhanced the validity of the relative frequency values in the findings section. Spearman’s rank correlation analyses were then performed to examine the relationship between students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities, students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class, and students’ perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class (RQs 4, 5, and 6). Mann-Whitney U tests were then performed to examine the differences in students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between female and male students and between the students of the English major and those of non-English majors (RQs 7 and 8).

The data obtained through the interviews were also processed. Creswell (2012, p. 238) asserts “organization of data is critical in qualitative research because of the large amount of

information gathered during a study.” First, the audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. Lopez et al. (2008) suggested that it is important that qualitative interviews be transcribed verbatim in the source language. To facilitate future quotation at the analysis stage, specific conventions in the interview transcripts were used. On the top corner of the first page, the student’s pseudonym and the date of the interview in the first line were written, for example Mayang-18/03/14, meaning that the interview was conducted with a student whose pseudonym was Mayang, on 18 March 2014. The length of the interview was written in the second line, for instance 00:15:10, meaning that the interview took 15 minutes 10 seconds. For consistency, conventions in transcribing the interviews were applied. For example, initial *I* for interviewer (researcher) and *P* for participant was used, each turn was from the beginning to the end was numbered, and longer hesitation morphemes (such as *ehm*, *oh*, *uh*) were transcribed, overlapping speech was transcribed and indicated by double slashes at the beginning and end of the overlap, e.g. 1 *I* //oh, begitu [oh, I see]//. Unclear words or utterances were put in brackets and followed by question mark in the brackets, followed by the respective reasons, e.g. (*tidak jelas? Terlalu bising* [unclear? Too noisy]). A sample interview transcript can be seen in Appendix 6a (English version) and Appendix 6b (Indonesian version). The transcript is included for validation purposes only and no criteria was used in selecting it.

After all the interview data had been transcribed, the transcripts were rechecked to verify that there were no obvious mistakes made during the transcription process. Then, the analysis was conducted in the source language (*Bahasa Indonesia*) using a thematic analysis. The analysis of the qualitative data was used to answer RQ 9 and support, explain or compare RQs 1, 2, and 3. As the name suggests, thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting themes (patterns) within data which minimally organise and describe the data set in



rich detail (Boyatzis, 1998). Clarke and Braun (2013) propose four reasons why thematic analysis is useful as a basic method of analysis of qualitative data. First, thematic analysis can be used for a wide variety of research questions, ranging from those concerning people's experiences or understandings to those regarding the representation and construction of particular phenomena in particular contexts. Second, thematic analysis can be employed to analyse diverse types of data, from secondary sources such as media to transcripts of focus groups or interviews. Thematic analysis is also appropriate for large or small datasets. Lastly, thematic analysis can be relevant to generate data-driven or theory-driven analyses.

The data obtained in the study were analysed following the steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). The first step of was familiarising myself with the data, so that I read through the transcripts repeatedly to achieve immersion and obtain a sense of the whole (Tesch, 1990) searching for meaning and patterns, jotting down in the margins some ideas as they came to mind. After reading and familiarising myself with the data and generating an initial list of points, I generated initial codes from the data. The generated codes identified the features of the data. I identified text segments, placed brackets around them, and assigned a code word or phrase that accurately described the meaning of the text segment. After assigning codes, I made a list of all code words, then grouped similar codes and attempted to identify any overlap and redundancy of the codes. To increase the reliability, all the generated codes were then checked and rechecked by the researcher and his supervisors. After all the data had been coded and collated, I searched for themes. This step involved sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes. This step ended with a collection of candidate themes and all extracts of data that had been coded in relation to them. The next step involved reviewing the themes and refining of a set of candidate themes. The next step, defining and naming the themes, meant identifying

and constructing a concise and informative name for each theme. The last step, writing up the report, began when I had a set of fully worked-out themes as proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). As with the quantitative results, the themes were reported using percentages. The quantitative and qualitative findings were then integrated.

### **3.8 Summary**

This chapter has outlined the methodological framework employed and offered a justification for its appropriateness in this study. It has also explored and explained the quantitative and the qualitative methods used in the study with detail given to the rationale for the choice of, and the challenges in, using the research approach and design, and how the validity of the results was addressed in the study. It has also described the study population and sample size. The data collection instruments, steps of data collection, data management, and data analysis, as well as integration of data have also been explained and discussed.

The theoretical framework employed in the current research was pragmatism. Aligning with the theoretical framework, the mixed methods sequential explanatory design was chosen to achieve the purpose of the study. First, a questionnaire was employed in the quantitative phase to collect the data to obtain opinions from a large number of students from four higher educational institutions. Secondly, interviews were conducted with selected participants in the qualitative phase to collect in-depth data on students' beliefs about learner autonomy. Four higher educational institutions in Jambi province in Indonesia were involved in the study so a case study approach was deemed appropriate. In line with the nature of the sequential explanatory design, the quantitative data were collected and analysed, and this was followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The mixing of the quantitative and qualitative data occurred both in data collection and data analysis phases. Data analysis was

conducted for each set of data. Descriptive and inferential statistics analyses were employed in the quantitative data and the thematic analysis was applied to the qualitative data. The findings of the quantitative phase are presented in the next chapter and the findings of the qualitative phase in Chapter 5.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE**

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#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter reports on the results of the quantitative data analysis. It consists of eight major sections. The first three are organised in accordance with the sequence of the questionnaire and the remainder are based on inferential statistics. The sections are: students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning (4.2); students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities (4.3); students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class (4.4); the relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities (4.5); the relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class (4.6); the relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class (4.7); differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on gender (4.8); differences in the students' perceptions of responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students taking an English major and the students of a non-English major (4.9).

#### **4.2 Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities**

The first research question aimed to describe the students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities with regard to their English language learning. This question was addressed in the first section of the questionnaire, which consisted of 13 items on which the students rated their perceptions of the responsibilities on a five-point scale from 'not at all' to

‘completely’. Table 4.1 displays the percentages of students’ responses for each item of the questionnaire. In general, the students regarded their teachers as being more responsible for their learning than they were. As can be seen in Table 4.1, student responses to almost all of the items clustered in the ‘mainly’ category of the scale: more than 40% of the students chose this category in 9 out of 13 learning areas. Also, some 20% of the students chose the ‘completely’ category in several of these learning areas. The nine areas are:

- Stimulating students’ interest in learning English (51.99% ‘mainly’ and 21.89% ‘completely’)
- Making sure they make progress during lessons (50.75% ‘mainly’ and 14.18% ‘completely’)
- Evaluating their learning (50.75% ‘mainly’ and 22.39% ‘completely’)
- Making them work harder (44.03% ‘mainly’ and 16.17% ‘completely’)
- Evaluating their course (42.54% ‘mainly’ and 23.63% ‘completely’)
- Identifying their weaknesses in English (42.29% ‘mainly’ and 15.17% ‘completely’)
- Deciding what they should learn next in the English lessons (41.29% ‘mainly’ and 27.86% ‘completely’)
- Deciding the objectives of your English course (41.04% ‘mainly’ and 23.38% ‘completely’)
- Choosing what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons (41.04% ‘mainly’ and 25.62% ‘completely’)

Table 4.1 Students' perceptions of their teacher's responsibilities

No.	Learning areas	Completely		Mainly		Some		A little		Not at all	
		%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
1.	Making sure you make progress during lessons	14.18	[0.11, 0.18]	50.75	[0.46, 0.56]	28.86	[0.24, 0.33]	5.97	[0.04, 0.08]	0.25	[0.00, 0.01]
2.	Making sure you make progress outside class	4.23	[0.02, 0.06]	22.14	[0.18, 0.26]	38.56	[0.34, 0.43]	25.12	[0.21, 0.29]	9.95	[0.07, 0.13]
3.	Stimulating your interest in learning English	21.89	[0.18, 0.26]	51.99	[0.47, 0.57]	18.16	[0.14, 0.22]	6.22	[0.04, 0.09]	1.74	[0.00, 0.03]
4.	Identifying your weaknesses in English	15.17	[0.12, 0.19]	42.29	[0.37, 0.47]	25.62	[0.21, 0.30]	13.43	[0.10, 0.17]	3.48	[0.02, 0.05]
5.	Making you work harder	16.17	[0.13, 0.20]	44.03	[0.39, 0.49]	26.37	[0.22, 0.31]	11.94	[0.09, 0.15]	1.49	[0.00, 0.03]
6.	Deciding the objectives of your English course	23.38	[0.19, 0.28]	41.04	[0.36, 0.46]	23.63	[0.19, 0.28]	10.2	[0.07, 0.13]	1.74	[0.00, 0.03]
7.	Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	27.86	[0.23, 0.32]	41.29	[0.36, 0.46]	22.64	[0.19, 0.27]	6.72	[0.04, 0.09]	1.49	[0.00, 0.03]
8.	Choosing what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	19.15	[0.15, 0.23]	39.05	[0.34, 0.44]	24.88	[0.21, 0.29]	12.94	[0.10, 0.16]	3.98	[0.02, 0.06]
9.	Deciding how long to spend on each activity	14.18	[0.11, 0.18]	33.08	[0.28, 0.38]	28.11	[0.24, 0.33]	18.16	[0.14, 0.22]	6.47	[0.04, 0.09]
10.	Choosing what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	25.62	[0.21, 0.30]	41.04	[0.36, 0.46]	23.13	[0.19, 0.27]	8.46	[0.06, 0.11]	1.74	[0.00, 0.03]
11.	Evaluating your learning	22.39	[0.18, 0.27]	50.75	[0.46, 0.56]	20.65	[0.17, 0.25]	4.48	[0.02, 0.07]	1.74	[0.00, 0.03]
12.	Evaluating your course	23.63	[0.19, 0.28]	42.54	[0.38, 0.47]	22.89	[0.19, 0.27]	7.96	[0.05, 0.11]	2.99	[0.01, 0.05]
13.	Deciding what you learn outside class	7.71	[0.05, 0.10]	21.64	[0.18, 0.26]	29.85	[0.25, 0.34]	22.39	[0.18, 0.27]	18.41	[0.15, 0.22]

In addition, more than 50% of students said that their teachers should be the ones mainly responsible for ‘choosing what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons’ (39.05% ‘mainly’ and 19.15% ‘completely’) and just below 50% thought teachers mainly responsible for ‘deciding how long to spend on each activity’ (33.08% ‘mainly’ and 14.18% ‘completely’).

In contrast, as regards students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, there were only three areas for which a considerable number of the students indicated that they personally should take more responsibility. The areas are: stimulating their interest in learning English (49.50% ‘mainly’ and 16.17% ‘completely’), making them work harder (43.53% ‘mainly’ and 22.64% ‘completely’), and evaluating their learning (42.04% ‘mainly’ and 10.45% ‘completely’) (see Table 4.2). As can be seen in Table 4.2, more students chose the ‘some’ category of the scale in many areas of learning: in fact, more than one third of the students chose this category in 9 out of the 13 areas of learning. In addition, for almost all of the items, only some 10% of the students or less chose the ‘completely’ and less than 30% chose the ‘mainly’ categories. Similarly, for almost all tasks, only 20% or fewer students thought they had little or no responsibility. This suggests that the students preferred their teachers take responsibility for these areas but it also indicates that students recognised that they should take some responsibility for their learning process. Additionally, both Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 display a narrow Confidence Interval (CI) for all questions thus strengthening the validity of the findings.

Table 4.2 Students' perceptions of their own responsibilities

No.	Learning areas	Completely		Mainly		Some		A little		Not at all	
		%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
1.	Making sure you make progress during lessons	11.44	[0.08, 0.15]	39.80	[0.35, 0.45]	36.82	[0.32, 0.42]	11.69	[0.09, 0.15]	0.25	[0.00, 0.01]
2.	Making sure you make progress outside class	10.95	[0.08, 0.14]	24.88	[0.21, 0.29]	36.57	[0.32, 0.41]	24.63	[0.20, 0.29]	2.99	[0.01, 0.05]
3.	Stimulating your interest in learning English	16.17	[0.13, 0.20]	49.50	[0.45, 0.54]	23.13	[0.19, 0.27]	10.45	[0.07, 0.13]	0.75	[0.00, 0.02]
4.	Identifying your weaknesses in English	10.45	[0.07, 0.13]	29.35	[0.25, 0.34]	35.82	[0.31, 0.41]	22.39	[0.18, 0.27]	1.99	[0.01, 0.03]
5.	Making you work harder	22.64	[0.19, 0.27]	43.53	[0.39, 0.48]	21.39	[0.17, 0.25]	10.95	[0.08, 0.14]	1.49	[0.00, 0.03]
6.	Deciding the objectives of your English course	12.19	[0.09, 0.15]	30.85	[0.26, 0.35]	33.08	[0.28, 0.38]	19.40	[0.15, 0.23]	4.48	[0.02, 0.07]
7.	Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	7.96	[0.05, 0.11]	27.36	[0.23, 0.32]	32.09	[0.27, 0.37]	24.88	[0.21, 0.29]	7.71	[0.05, 0.10]
8.	Choosing what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	7.21	[0.05, 0.10]	25.87	[0.22, 0.30]	33.33	[0.29, 0.38]	26.12	[0.22, 0.30]	7.46	[0.05, 0.10]
9.	Deciding how long to spend on each activity	7.46	[0.05, 0.10]	26.87	[0.22, 0.31]	33.58	[0.29, 0.38]	24.88	[0.21, 0.29]	7.21	[0.05, 0.10]
10.	Choosing what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	7.21	[0.05, 0.10]	22.89	[0.19, 0.27]	34.33	[0.30, 0.39]	24.88	[0.21, 0.29]	10.70	[0.08, 0.14]
11.	Evaluating your learning	10.45	[0.07, 0.13]	42.04	[0.37, 0.47]	28.36	[0.24, 0.33]	16.42	[0.13, 0.20]	2.74	[0.01, 0.04]
12.	Evaluating your course	10.45	[0.07, 0.13]	29.10	[0.25, 0.34]	35.82	[0.31, 0.41]	21.14	[0.17, 0.25]	3.48	[0.02, 0.05]
13.	Deciding what you learn outside class	19.40	[0.15, 0.23]	26.87	[0.22, 0.31]	26.87	[0.22, 0.31]	19.90	[0.16, 0.24]	6.97	[0.04, 0.09]



### 4.3 Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities

The second research question, addressed in the second section of the questionnaire, aimed to explore students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities in a range of English learning activities. In this section of the questionnaire, the students again rated their perceptions on a five-point scale from 'very poor' to 'very good'. Table 4.3 displays the percentages of students' responses to each item of the questionnaire.

From Table 4.3, it is evident that most of the students' responses congregate in the 'OK' and 'good' categories of the scale: ten out of the eleven items in this section of the questionnaire were chosen by more than 30% of the students. Specifically in the 'good' category, the top five activities rated by the students are: choosing learning objectives in class (48.01%), choosing learning material in class (42.79%), choosing learning activities in class (41.04%), evaluating your course (39.05%), and evaluating your learning (38.31%). In the 'OK' category, the top five activities rated are: choosing learning activities outside class (50.00%), deciding how long to spend on each activity (49.00%), choosing learning objectives outside class (48.26%), choosing learning materials outside class (46.27%), and choosing learning activities in class (43.03%). The table also shows that more than 20% of the students rated their abilities as 'very good' in *evaluating their learning* (22.39%) and *choosing learning objectives in class* (20.15%). Interestingly, only small percentages of the students rated their abilities in any of the activities as 'poor' or 'very poor'. For example, no (0%) students rated their ability in choosing learning activities in class as 'very poor' and only 1.49% said that they were 'poor' in this activity.

Table 4.3 Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities

No.	Learning areas	Very good		Good		OK		Poor		Very poor	
		%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
1.	Choosing learning activities in class	14.43	[0.11, 0.18]	41.04	[0.36, 0.46]	43.03	[0.38, 0.48]	1.49	[0.00, 0.03]	0	[0.00, 0.00]
2.	Choosing learning activities outside class	11.69	[0.09, 0.15]	29.60	[0.25, 0.34]	50.00	[0.45, 0.55]	7.71	[0.05, 0.10]	1.00	[0.00, 0.02]
3.	Choosing learning objectives in class	20.15	[0.16, 0.24]	48.01	[0.43, 0.53]	29.60	[0.25, 0.34]	1.99	[0.01, 0.03]	0.25	[0.00, 0.01]
4.	Choosing learning objectives outside class	9.95	[0.07, 0.13]	32.09	[0.27, 0.37]	48.26	[0.43, 0.53]	8.21	[0.05, 0.11]	1.49	[0.00, 0.03]
5.	Choosing learning materials in class	16.67	[0.13, 0.20]	42.79	[0.38, 0.48]	36.07	[0.31, 0.41]	4.23	[0.02, 0.06]	0.25	[0.00, 0.01]
6.	Choosing learning materials outside class	6.97	[0.04, 0.09]	34.58	[0.30, 0.39]	46.27	[0.41, 0.51]	9.45	[0.07, 0.12]	2.74	[0.01, 0.04]
7.	Evaluating your learning	22.39	[0.18, 0.27]	38.31	[0.34, 0.43]	33.33	[0.29, 0.38]	5.22	[0.03, 0.07]	0.75	[0.00, 0.02]
8.	Evaluating your course	16.42	[0.13, 0.20]	39.05	[0.34, 0.44]	38.81	[0.34, 0.44]	4.48	[0.02, 0.07]	1.24	[0.00, 0.02]
9.	Identifying your weakness in English	18.41	[0.15, 0.22]	31.34	[0.27, 0.36]	37.31	[0.33, 0.42]	10.95	[0.08, 0.14]	1.99	[0.01, 0.03]
10.	Deciding what you should learn next in your English lesson	13.68	[0.10, 0.17]	35.82	[0.31, 0.41]	41.29	[0.36, 0.46]	7.96	[0.05, 0.11]	1.24	[0.00, 0.02]
11.	Deciding how long to spend on each activity	8.21	[0.05, 0.11]	34.83	[0.30, 0.40]	49.00	[0.44, 0.54]	6.72	[0.04, 0.09]	1.24	[0.00, 0.02]

#### **4.4 Students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class**

The third part of the questionnaire in addressing the third research question asked the students to indicate the frequency with which they had voluntarily engaged in English learning activities outside and inside the class in the last academic year; this response was regarded as an indication of autonomous language learning behaviour. Table 4.4 shows the percentages of the students' responses for items probing their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.

Table 4.4 shows that for 4 out of the 22 activities identified, more than 40% of the students reported that they 'often' engaged in them: specifically these are listening to English songs (63.43%), watching English movies (61.49%), watching videos/DVDs/VCDs (45.77%), and watching English TV programs (43.28%). There were a number of activities in which a considerable number (more than 30%) of the students reported that they 'sometimes' engaged. The activities are: 'reading grammar books on your own' (54.74%), 'practising using English with friends' (38.06%), 'reading English notices around you' (36.57%), 'doing exercises which are not compulsory' (36.07%), 'watching English TV programs' (33.58%), 'noting down new words and their meanings' (33.08%), 'using the internet in English' (32.84%), 'doing English self-study in a group' (31.09%).

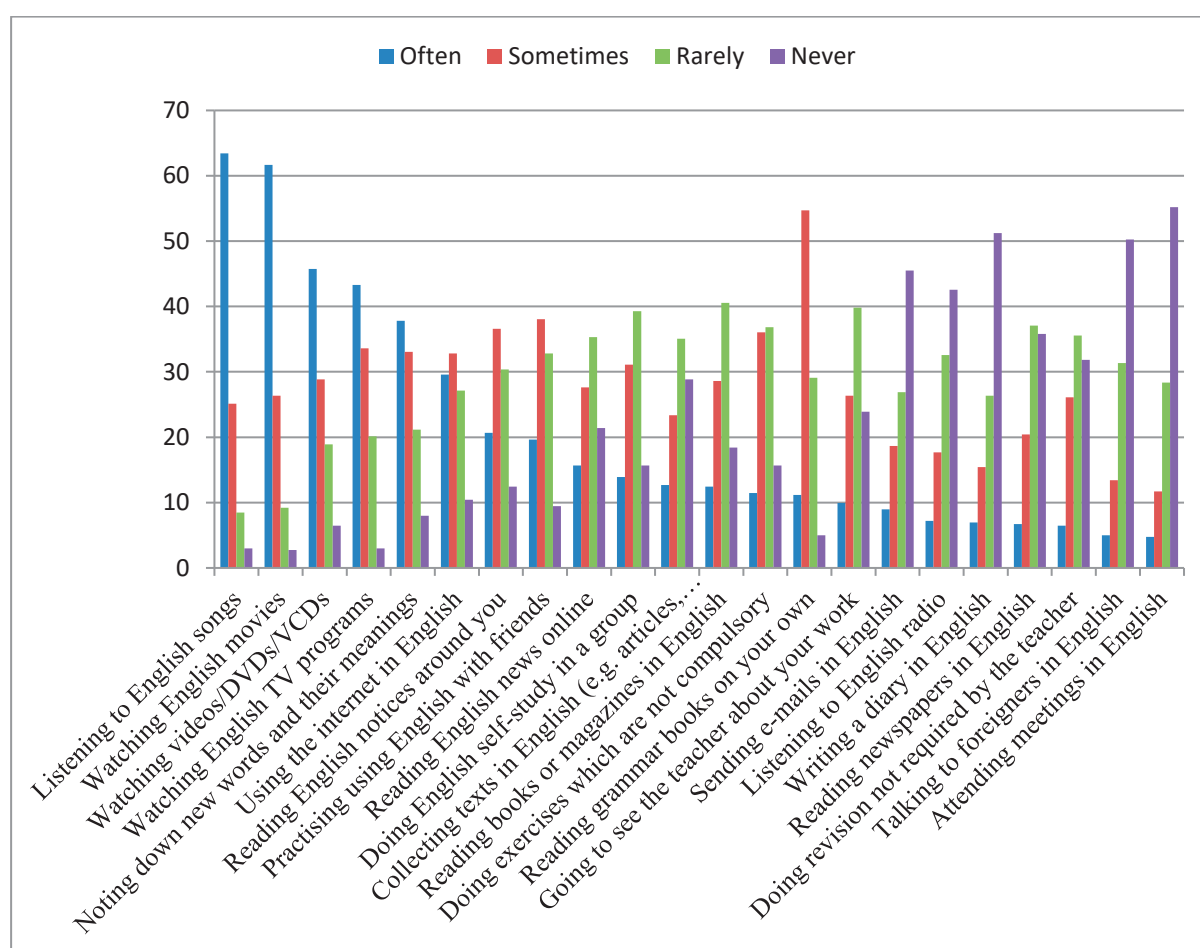
Also, there were a number of activities less practised by most of the students. The activities that a considerable number (more than 30%) of the students said they 'never' practised include: attending meetings in English (55.22%), writing a diary in English (51.24%), talking to foreigners in English (50.25%), sending e-mails in English (45.52%), listening to English radio (42.54%), reading newspapers in English (35.82%), and doing revision not required by the teacher (31.84%). Table 4.4 has CIs which are quite narrow thus indicating acceptable validity to the strength of the responses.

Table 4.4 Students' learning activities outside the class

No.	Activities	Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
		%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI
1.	Reading grammar books on your own	11.19	[0.08, 0.14]	54.73	[0.50, 0.60]	29.10	[0.25, 0.34]	4.98	[0.03, 0.07]
2.	Doing exercises which are not compulsory	11.44	[0.08, 0.15]	36.07	[0.31, 0.41]	36.82	[0.32, 0.42]	15.67	[0.12, 0.19]
3.	Noting down new words and their meanings	37.81	[0.33, 0.43]	33.08	[0.28, 0.38]	21.14	[0.17, 0.25]	7.96	[0.05, 0.11]
4.	Reading English notices around you	20.65	[0.17, 0.25]	36.57	[0.32, 0.41]	30.35	[0.26, 0.35]	12.44	[0.09, 0.16]
5.	Reading newspapers in English	6.72	[0.04, 0.09]	20.40	[0.16, 0.24]	37.06	[0.32, 0.42]	35.82	[0.31, 0.41]
6.	Sending e-mails in English	8.96	[0.06, 0.12]	18.66	[0.15, 0.23]	26.87	[0.22, 0.31]	45.52	[0.41, 0.50]
7.	Reading books or magazines in English	12.44	[0.09, 0.16]	28.61	[0.24, 0.33]	40.55	[0.36, 0.45]	18.41	[0.15, 0.22]
8.	Watching English TV programs	43.28	[0.38, 0.48]	33.58	[0.29, 0.38]	20.15	[0.16, 0.24]	2.99	[0.01, 0.05]
9.	Listening to English radio	7.21	[0.05, 0.10]	17.66	[0.14, 0.21]	32.59	[0.28, 0.37]	42.54	[0.38, 0.47]
10.	Listening to English songs	63.43	[0.59, 0.68]	25.12	[0.21, 0.29]	8.46	[0.06, 0.11]	2.99	[0.01, 0.05]
11.	Talking to foreigners in English	4.98	[0.03, 0.07]	13.43	[0.10, 0.17]	31.34	[0.27, 0.36]	50.25	[0.45, 0.55]
12.	Practising using English with friends	19.65	[0.16, 0.24]	38.06	[0.33, 0.43]	32.84	[0.28, 0.37]	9.45	[0.07, 0.12]
13.	Doing English self-study in a group	13.93	[0.11, 0.17]	31.09	[0.27, 0.36]	39.30	[0.34, 0.44]	15.67	[0.12, 0.19]
14.	Watching English movies	61.69	[0.57, 0.66]	26.37	[0.22, 0.31]	9.20	[0.06, 0.12]	2.74	[0.01, 0.04]
15.	Writing a diary in English	6.97	[0.04, 0.09]	15.42	[0.12, 0.19]	26.37	[0.22, 0.31]	51.24	[0.46, 0.56]
16.	Using the internet in English	29.60	[0.25, 0.34]	32.84	[0.28, 0.37]	27.11	[0.23, 0.32]	10.45	[0.07, 0.13]
17.	Doing revision not required by the teacher	6.47	[0.04, 0.09]	26.12	[0.22, 0.30]	35.57	[0.31, 0.40]	31.84	[0.27, 0.36]
18.	Collecting texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels, etc.)	12.69	[0.09, 0.16]	23.38	[0.19, 0.28]	35.07	[0.30, 0.40]	28.86	[0.24, 0.33]
19.	Going to see the teacher about your work	9.95	[0.07, 0.13]	26.37	[0.22, 0.31]	39.80	[0.35, 0.45]	23.88	[0.20, 0.28]
20.	Attending meetings in English	4.73	[0.03, 0.07]	11.69	[0.09, 0.15]	28.36	[0.24, 0.33]	55.22	[0.50, 0.60]
21.	Watching videos/DVDs/VCDs	45.77	[0.41, 0.51]	28.86	[0.24, 0.33]	18.91	[0.15, 0.23]	6.47	[0.04, 0.09]
22.	Reading English news online	15.67	[0.12, 0.19]	27.61	[0.23, 0.32]	35.32	[0.31, 0.40]	21.39	[0.17, 0.25]

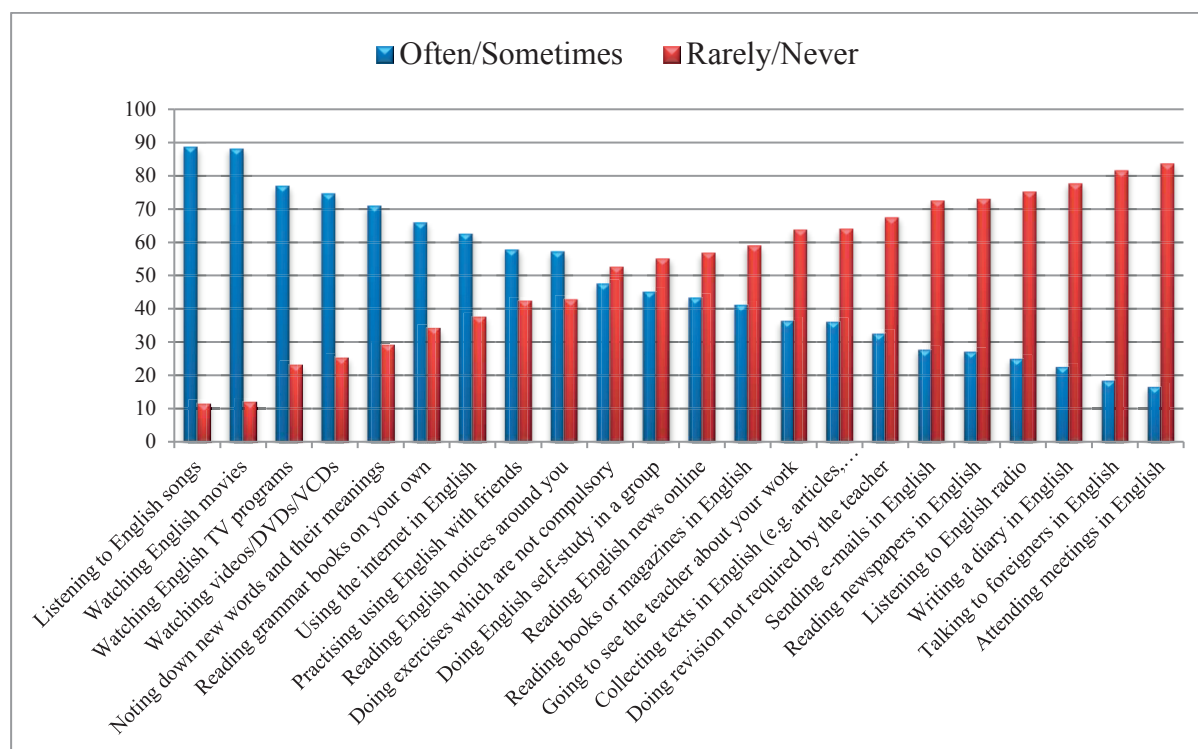
In addition, there were a number of activities which more than one third of the students said that they ‘rarely’ practised. These are: reading books or magazines in English (40.55%), going to see the teacher about their work (39.80%), doing English self-study in a group (39.30%), reading newspapers in English (37.06%), doing exercises which are not compulsory (36.82%), doing revision not required by the teacher (35.57%), reading English news online (35.32%), collecting texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels, etc.) (35.07%), listening to English radio (32.59%), practising using English with friends (32.84%), talking to foreigners in English (31.34%), reading English notices around you (30.35%). The frequency with which the students practised out-of-class activities is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Students’ out-of-class English learning activities



In Figure 4.2 below, the ‘often’ and ‘sometimes’ categories and ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ categories are combined to illustrate the more and less frequently practised activities respectively for ease of viewing.

Figure 4.2 Out-of-class English learning activities more and less practised by the students



As shown in Figure 4.2, 9 out of 22 activities appeared to be more frequently (‘often’ or ‘sometimes’) practised by more than half of the students. Meanwhile, there were 13 activities which were infrequently (‘never’ and ‘rarely’) practised by more than half of the students.

In regard to inside the class learning activities (see Table 4.5), the results reveal that out of the five activities listed in the questionnaire, there were three activities which were widely practised by the students. The activities are:

- asking the teacher questions when you don’t understand (49.75% ‘often’ and 34.83% ‘sometimes’)
- noting down new information (47.01% ‘often’ and 32.34% ‘sometimes’)

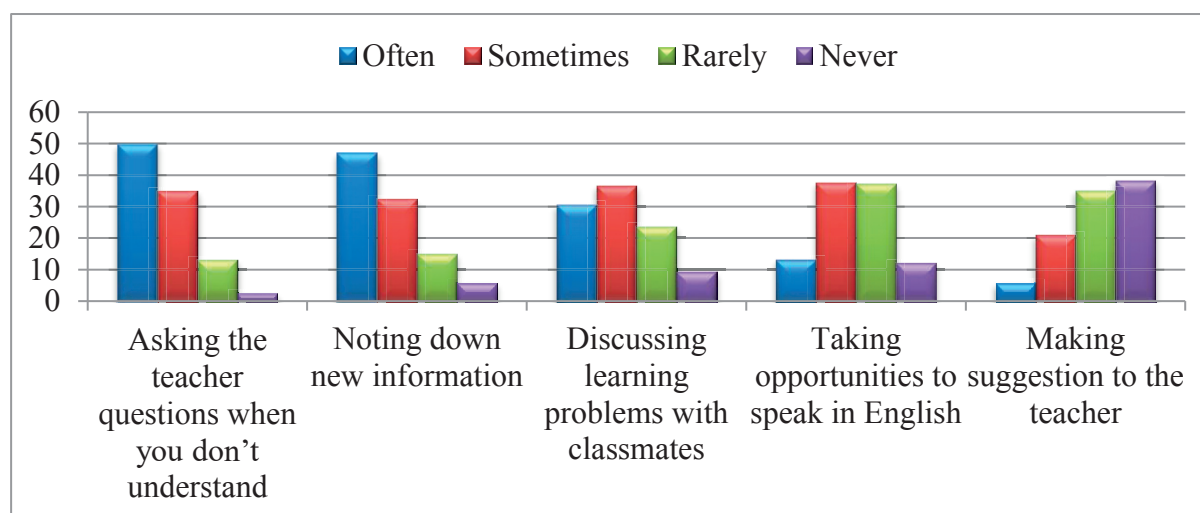
- discussing learning problems with classmates (30.60% ‘often’ and 36.57% ‘sometimes’)

However, there was one activity much less practised by the majority of the students; few made suggestion to the teacher, as indicated by the the 38.31% who chose the ‘never’ and another 35.07% who chose the ‘rarely’ category of the scale. Figure 4.3 illustrates the students’ inside the class activities in graph.

Table 4.5 Students’ learning activities inside the class

No.	Activities	Often % 95% CI	Sometimes % 95% CI	Rarely % 95% CI	Never % 95% CI
1.	Asking the teacher questions when you don’t understand	49.75 [0.45, 0.55]	34.83 [0.30, 0.40]	12.94 [0.10, 0.16]	2.49 [0.01, 0.04]
2.	Noting down new information	47.01 [0.42, 0.52]	32.34 [0.28, 0.37]	14.93 [0.11, 0.18]	5.72 [0.03, 0.08]
3.	Making suggestion to the teacher	5.72 [0.03, 0.08]	20.90 [0.17, 0.25]	35.07 [0.30, 0.40]	38.31 [0.34, 0.43]
4.	Taking opportunities to speak in English	13.18 [0.10, 0.17]	37.56 [0.33, 0.42]	37.31 [0.33, 0.42]	11.94 [0.09, 0.15]
5.	Discussing learning problems with classmates	30.60 [0.26, 0.35]	36.57 [0.32, 0.41]	23.63 [0.19, 0.28]	9.20 [0.06, 0.12]

Figure 4.3 Students’ learning activities inside the class



#### 4.5 The relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities

The fourth research question aimed to examine the relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities in learning English. To address this question, a Spearman's rank correlation analysis was performed. As shown in Table 4.6, Spearman's rho indicates the presence of a moderate positive relationship between these two variables,  $r_s = .35$ ,  $p < .005$ , two tailed,  $N = 402$ .

Table 4.6 Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities

	Responsibilities vs Decision-making abilities
Correlation Coefficient	.350(**)
<i>p</i> -value	.000
N	402

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

#### 4.6 The relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class

Spearman's rank correlation analysis was also conducted to examine whether students' perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their autonomous English learning outside the class (RQ 5). The results (see Table 4.7) also indicate a moderate positive correlation between these two variables,  $r_s = .35$ ,  $p < .005$ , two tailed,  $N = 402$ .

Table 4.7 Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning outside the class

	Responsibilities vs Activities outside the class
Correlation Coefficient	.351(**)
<i>p</i> -value	.000
N	402

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



#### 4.7 The relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class

Another Spearman's rank correlation analysis was performed to examine the relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. As shown in Table 4.8, Spearman's rho indicates the presence of a weak positive relationship between these two variables,  $r_s = .24$ ,  $p < .005$ , two tailed,  $N = 402$ .

Table 4.8 Spearman's rank correlation between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class

	Decision-making Abilities vs Activities outside the class
Correlation Coefficient	.235(**)
<i>p</i> -value	.000
N	402

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

#### 4.8 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender

Three different Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to examine if female ( $n=210$ ) and male ( $n=192$ ) students differed in their perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning English, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. The results show no significant difference in the level of perceptions of their responsibilities between female students (Mean rank = 208.84,  $n = 210$ ) and male students (Mean rank = 193.48,  $n = 192$ ),  $U = 18619.500$ ,  $z = -1.325$  (corrected for ties),  $p > .05$ , two tailed (see Table 4.9). The results also show no significant difference in the level of perceptions of decision-making abilities between female students (Mean rank = 202.74,  $n = 210$ ) and male students (Mean rank = 200.15,  $n = 192$ ),  $U = 19900.000$ ,  $z = -.224$

(corrected for ties),  $p > .05$ , two tailed (see Table 4.10). Similarly, there is no significant difference in the level of practice of autonomous out-of-class activities between female students (Mean rank = 209.82,  $n = 210$ ) and male students (Mean rank = 192.40,  $n = 192$ ),  $U = 18412.500$ ,  $z = -1.502$  (corrected for ties),  $p > .05$ , two tailed (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.9 Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities depending on gender (N=402)

	Responsibilities
Mann-Whitney U	18619.500
Female mean rank	208.84
Male mean rank	193.48
z-score	-1.325
p-value	.185

Table 4.10 The Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities depending on gender (N=402)

	Decision-making abilities
Mann-Whitney U	19900.000
Female mean rank	202.74
Male mean rank	200.15
z-score	-.224
p-value	.823

Table 4.11 Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their autonomous English learning activities outside the class regarding gender (N=402)

	Activities outside the class
Mann-Whitney U	18412.500
Female mean rank	209.82
Male mean rank	192.40
z-score	-1.502
p-value	.133

#### 4.9 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between students of an English major and students of a non-English major

The eighth research question aimed to examine whether there were any differences between the students doing an English major and the students doing majors other than English in their perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning English, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class. To address these questions, three different Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results show that the responsibility perception level of the English major students (Mean rank = 251.11,  $n = 52$ ) is significantly higher than that of the non-English major students (Mean rank = 194.13,  $n = 350$ ),  $U = 6520.500$ ,  $z = -3.303$  (corrected for ties),  $p < .05$ , two tailed (see Table 4.12). It is also evident that the level of practice of out-of-class activities of the English major students (Mean rank = 256.84,  $n = 52$ ) is significantly higher than that of the non-English major students (Mean rank = 193.28,  $n = 350$ ),  $U = 6222.500$ ,  $z = -3.682$  (corrected for ties),  $p < .05$ , two tailed (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.12 Mann-Whitney U test results of the differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities regarding majors of study (N=402)

	Responsibilities
Mann-Whitney U	6520.500
English major mean rank	251.11
Non-English major mean rank	194.13
z-score	-3.303
p-value	.001

Table 4.13 Mann-Whitney U test results of the students' autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on major of study (N=402)

	Activities outside the class
Mann-Whitney U	6222.500
English major mean rank	256.84
Non-English major mean rank	193.28
z-score	-3.682
p-value	.000

Table 4.14 below presents the differences between the students of the English major and students of a non-English major in their autonomous English learning activities outside the class for each item of the questionnaire.

Table 4.14 Mann-Whitney U test results of students' autonomous English learning activities outside the class in regard to major of study for each item

No.	Activities	Major	Mean Rank	<i>U</i>	<i>Z</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.	Reading grammar books on your own	E NE	230.01 197.26	7617.500	-2.107	.035
2.	Doing exercises which are not compulsory	E NE	233.83 196.70	7419.000	-2.269	.023
3.	Noting down new words and their meanings	E NE	241.71 195.53	7009.000	-2.820	.005
4.	Reading English notices around you	E NE	244.63 195.09	6857.000	-3.004	.003
5.	Reading newspapers in English	E NE	212.15 199.92	8546.000	-.749	.454
6.	Sending e-mails in English	E NE	208.28 200.49	8747.500	-.481	.631
7.	Reading books or magazines in English	E NE	235.22 196.49	7346.500	-2.362	.018
8.	Watching English TV programs	E NE	247.77 194.63	6694.000	-3.294	.001
9.	Listening to English radio	E NE	212.85 199.81	8510.000	-.803	.422
10.	Listening to English songs	E NE	246.32 194.84	6769.500	-3.493	.000
11.	Talking to foreigners in English	E NE	210.98 200.09	8607.000	-.688	.491
12.	Practising using English with friends	E NE	257.59 193.17	6183.500	-3.930	.000
13.	Doing English self-study in a group	E NE	231.13 197.10	7559.500	-2.074	.038
14.	Watching English movies	E NE	229.01 197.41	7669.500	-2.118	.034
15.	Writing a diary in English	E NE	247.44 194.67	6711.000	-3.328	.001
16.	Using the internet in English	E NE	209.18 200.36	8700.500	-.533	.594
17.	Doing revision not required by the teacher	E NE	237.34 196.18	7236.500	-2.506	.012
18.	Collecting texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels, etc.)	E NE	242.71 195.38	6957.000	-2.861	.004
19.	Going to see the teacher about your work	E NE	195.81 202.35	8804.000	-.398	.690
20.	Attending meetings in English	E NE	239.50 195.85	7124.000	-2.813	.005
21.	Watching videos/DVDs/VCDs	E NE	214.15 199.62	8442.000	-.901	.368
22.	Reading English news online	E NE	211.10 200.07	8601.000	-.665	.506

As can be seen in Table 4.14, the English language out-of-class activities of the students doing an English major were significantly higher than those of students not taking English as their major in fourteen out of twenty two activities. However, even in seven of the eight activities in which the differences were not significant, the levels of the out-of-class activity of the students of the English major were still higher than those of the students of a non-English major.

With regard to students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities, however, the results show no significant difference in the level of perceptions of decision-making abilities between the students of an English major (Mean rank = 179.34, n = 52) and the students of non-English majors (Mean rank = 204.79, n = 350),  $U = 7947.500$ ,  $z = -1.477$ ,  $p > .05$ , two tailed.

Table 4.15 Mann-Whitney U test results of the students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities regarding majors of study (N=402)

	Decision-making Abilities
Mann-Whitney U	7947.500
English major mean rank	204.79
Non-English major mean rank	179.34
z-score	-1.477
p-value	.140

#### 4.10 Summary of quantitative findings

The results of the quantitative phase suggest that the students regard the teacher as someone who should take primary responsibility for many aspects of their English language learning. The students prefer that their teacher take the lead in these activities although they feel that they themselves have reasonably good decision-making abilities. While it appears the majority of the students undertake proactive activities inside the class, it also seems that they prefer receptive to productive activities for out-of-class activities. The top five out-of-class activities 'often' practised by the students are *listening to English songs*, *watching English*

*movies, watching videos/DVDs/VCDs, watching English TV programs, and noting down new words and their meanings.* The results of the Spearman's rank correlation tests indicate a moderate relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities, a moderate relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class, and a weak relationship between their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. The results of Mann-Whitney U tests reveal no significant difference between female and male students in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, or their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. The results also reveal no significant difference between the students of an English major and the students of a non-English major in their perceptions of their decision-making abilities. However, there were significant differences between the students of the English major and students of the non-English majors in their perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside of class. The details of the quantitative findings are presented in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 The details of quantitative findings

Research Question	Data Analysis	Results
1. How do Indonesian EFL university students perceive their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning?	Descriptive statistics: Percentage	In general, the students give major responsibilities to their teachers for many areas of their English learning. However, there are three areas in which the students indicate they should also be more responsible for: stimulating their interest in learning English, making them work harder, and evaluating their learning.
2. How do the students perceive their decision-making abilities in English language learning?	Descriptive statistics: Percentage	In general, the students view their decision-making abilities positively. Most student responses cluster in the 'OK' and 'good' categories of the scale, followed by the 'very good' category of the scale.

*Continued*

Table 4.16 The details of quantitative findings (*Continued*)

3. To what extent do students engage in autonomous language learning activities inside and outside the class?	Descriptive statistics: Percentage	<p>The students engage in some autonomous English learning activities both inside and outside the class.</p> <p>Inside the class:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More widely practised activities: asking the teacher questions when you don't understand, noting down new information, and discussing learning problems with classmates</li> <li>• Less practised activity: making suggestion to the teacher</li> </ul> <p>Outside the class:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The top five activities 'often' practised by the students: listening to English songs, watching English movies, watching videos/DVDs/VCDs, watching English TV programs, and noting down new words and their meanings.</li> <li>• The top five activities 'never' practised by the students: attending meetings in English, writing a diary in English, talking to foreigners in English, sending e-mails in English, listening to English radio.</li> </ul>
4. Do students' perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their decision-making abilities?	Inferential statistics: Spearman's rank correlation	Spearman's rho indicates the presence of a moderate positive relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities.
5. Do their perceptions of their own responsibilities relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class?	Inferential statistics: Spearman's rank correlation	Spearman's rho indicates the presence of a moderate positive relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.
6. Do their perceptions of their decision-making abilities in learning English relate to their autonomous English learning activities outside the class?	Inferential statistics: Spearman's rank correlation	Spearman's rho indicates the presence of a weak positive relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.
7. Are there any statistically significant differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender?	Inferential statistics: Mann-Whitney U tests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no significant difference between female and male students in their perceptions of their own responsibilities.</li> <li>• There is no significant difference between female and male students in their perceptions of their decision-making abilities.</li> <li>• There is no significant difference between female and male students in their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.</li> </ul>

*Continued*

Table 4.16 The details of quantitative findings (*Continued*)

<p>8. Are there any statistically significant differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students of an English major and the students of non-English majors?</p>	<p>Inferential statistics: Mann-Whitney U tests</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a significant difference between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors in their perceptions of their own responsibilities.</li> <li>• There is no significant difference between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors in their perceptions of their decision-making abilities.</li> <li>• There is a significant difference between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors in their autonomous English learning activities.</li> </ul>
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## CHAPTER 5

### RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE PHASE

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#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the qualitative phase of the study which aimed at exploring the students' beliefs about, and reported practices of learner autonomy. In this qualitative phase, a total of 30 students participated in face to face interviews with the researcher. The profile of the interviewees can be seen in Chapter 3, Table 3.2. The interviews covered questions that aimed to further explain the perceptions the students held, identified in their responses to the questionnaire of the quantitative phase, that had been previously administered. This chapter consists of 11 sections: Indonesian EFL students' understanding of the concept of learner autonomy (5.2); their perceptions of the benefits of learner autonomy in English language learning (5.3); their perceptions of the locus of responsibilities in student learning (5.4); their opinions about characteristics of autonomous language learners (5.5); students' perceptions of their autonomous behaviour (5.6); factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy (5.7); what students expected teachers to do to help them become autonomous (5.8); language learning activities in which the students engaged outside the class (5.9); their opinions of the importance of out-of-class learning activities for students in learning English (5.10); summary of qualitative findings (5.11); and integration of quantitative and qualitative findings (5.12).

#### 5.2 What does learner autonomy mean to the students?

The first question of the interview asked the students what learner autonomy means to them. This question was asked to explore the concept of learner autonomy the students held. A vast majority (70%) of the students defined learner autonomy as *independent learning*. When

asked to elaborate on this, most said that learner autonomy implies being entirely free from the teacher. For example, Sandi, Rinjani, and Nirina all agreed that autonomous learning means students learn on their own without guidance and instruction from the teacher.

Learner autonomy is when someone learns by themselves ... that is, learning without guidance and instruction from teachers. (Sandi)

Learner autonomy is learning independently without involvement from the teacher. Unlike primary or secondary students, university students should not be very dependent on the teacher in their learning... they should make efforts by themselves, they should be more active searching their own learning materials instead of waiting for the teacher to provide the materials for them. (Rinjani)

In my opinion, learner autonomy is how we learn without help from teachers, that is, how we strive for learning by ourselves. (Nirina)

The other 30% of the students covered a variety of other views in their responses. Learner autonomy was described as *the ability to learn on one's own without help from others*, *self-awareness to learn by oneself*, and *initiative to find ways of learning*. Kartika, for example, defined learner autonomy as the ability to learn without help from the teacher or others. She said, 'Learner autonomy is someone's ability to learn on their own either inside or outside the class.' For Eko, learner autonomy was seen as one's self-awareness to carry out learning outside the class. He said, 'For me, learner autonomy is someone's self-awareness to learn beyond formal learning, or in the other words it is self-initiated learning outside the class which is consciously done by oneself.' Putri had a different view on the term, she said 'Eh, in my opinion, learner autonomy is how a student finds his/her own ways to get knowledge without guidance from the teacher. They search for learning resources by themselves, for example by searching the internet, reading books and so forth.'

Despite the general agreement that autonomous learning is being totally free from the help of the teachers, there were 4 students (13%) who believed that autonomous learning may involve the teacher or other people, especially when they are needed in the process of learning. Ranti said, 'For me, learner autonomy is learning independently. However, if we have problems, we can ask for help from friends or teachers.' In a similar vein, Andika stated, 'Autonomous learning means students make their own effort to learn but there are times when they need help from others.'

Taufik and Sintia explained that autonomous learning may involve studying together in a group beyond the classroom. Taufik expanded this saying, 'autonomous learning is not only when someone studies on his own without others, but it can also be learning together in a group outside class. This way, when we do not understand, we can ask for help from those who know more about the subjects being learned.' Sintia offered a similar opinion commenting, 'Besides learning in the classroom, we can also, for example, learn at home or study in groups without teachers.'

From the extracts above it is evident that most of the interviewed students viewed learner autonomy more as an action than a capacity to take control of the action. Many of the students also regarded independent learning as being totally free from the help of the teacher but there a few students who thought that learner autonomy could entail interdependence, where the students could learn with the help of the teacher or learn together with others.

### **5.3 The benefits of learner autonomy in learning English**

Question 2 asked students' for their views on whether learner autonomy was important in learning English and what benefits it could offer the students. All but one student asserted that

learner autonomy plays an important role in English learning and there was obvious agreement among the students that learner autonomy has several potential advantages for English language learning.

One of the benefits of learner autonomy, mentioned by 7 (23%) of the interviewed students, was that it practically *compensates for time and resource scarcity* in the classroom: it is necessary for students in order to make them become proficient in the language. In other words, engaging in autonomous language learning activities outside the class gives students access to learning resources they can use to get the knowledge and skills they want. For example, Nirina, Taufik, Zaskia, Indri, and Riana all agreed that autonomous learning is of practical benefit due to the time and resource constraints of their present classroom. This is described in the following quotations.

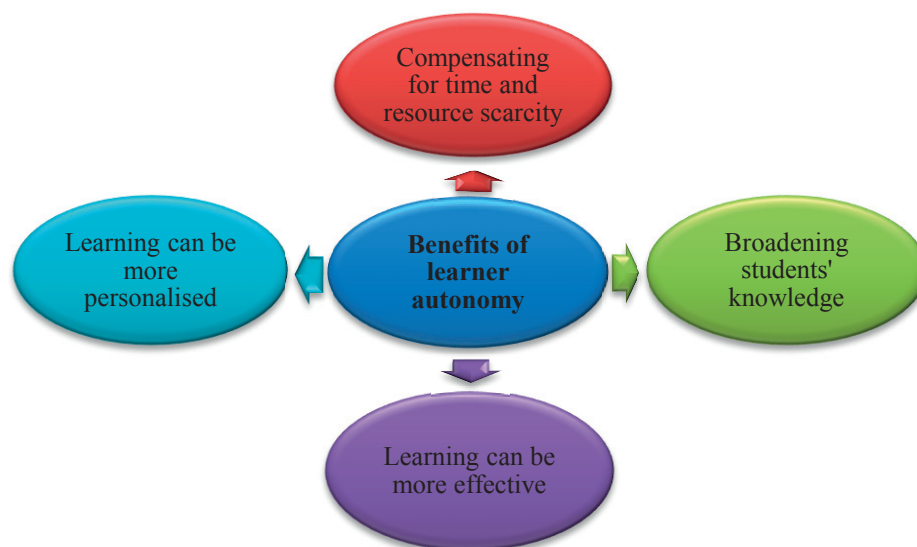
In the classroom, the time allocated for English learning is limited while outside classroom learning allows us to search for things we want to know. For example, we can search for them in the library or anywhere, like on the internet. So, autonomous learning outside the class is very important as we have a lot of time that can be used for learning. (Nirina)

Learner autonomy is absolutely important. We will not always get what we need if we rely solely on the teachers. The teachers will not always be available to teach what we want to learn. They only provide materials for the whole classroom. So we need to extend our learning beyond the classroom. (Taufik)

When you learn by yourself, you can learn what you want to learn while when you learn in the classroom you will not get all what you want to know. (Indri)

One reason why learner autonomy is important in learning English is that sometimes we need long time to understand the subject matter. (Riana)

Figure 5.1 Benefits of learner autonomy



Another benefit of learner autonomy reported by 7 (23%) of the students was that autonomous learning can *broaden students' knowledge*. This was expressed by Zaskia and Romi in the following.

When we learn in the classroom, we will only get very little but when we do autonomous learning outside the class, whether by guidance from the teacher or by our own efforts, God willing, we will get more knowledge. (Zaskia)

It is sometimes difficult to understand the lesson when learning English together with classmates. For me, learning individually at home or taking English course outside the institution seems more effective to me and these can also broaden our knowledge and add what we have got from the lessons in the classroom. (Romi)

Another benefit of learner autonomy mentioned by 5 (17%) of the interviewed students was that *learning can be more effective* when students take control of their own learning. Mela and Mayang, for example, shared a similar opinion about this. According to Mela, lessons will be more easily remembered when they are frequently practised. In a similar vein, Mayang said that learning is not effective when students rely merely on the teacher.

One reason why learner autonomy is important is that learning is more effective when you take control of your own learning. I mean, especially when learning English, it will be easier for you to remember the lessons when you continually practise them. (Mela)

It is not effective if we rely merely on the teacher. The teacher only teaches according to the curriculum. It is very important when we have finished our learning in the classroom, we can continue our learning outside the class such as at home, in the library, and so on'. (Mayang)

Some students mentioned that learner autonomy is important because *learning can be more personalised*. Nirina, for example, said, 'Out-of-class learning allows us to learn what we want to learn.' A similar remark was expressed by Indri who said, 'Classroom learning is so limited that not all that we desire to learn can be achieved. By learning autonomously outside the class, we will get more and we can learn what we want.'

It is clear from the students' responses noted above that learner autonomy is regarded as an important aspect in language learning. The reasons for its importance are seen to be its valuable effects on a student learning in terms of timing, effectiveness and learning resources. Firstly, learner autonomy can compensate for the limited time and resources available in the classroom learning. Secondly, learning can be more effective when students take control of their own learning. Thirdly, learning autonomously can broaden their knowledge. Fourthly, learning can be more personalised when students take control of their own learning. It is interesting to note that, although the four benefits of learner autonomy were mentioned by the students from different groups, *compensating for time and resource scarcity* was chiefly mentioned by the groups that preferred to take responsibilities on their own, and that reported a high frequency of out-of-class learning activities in the questionnaire.

#### **5.4 The locus of responsibilities in student learning**

The third question was concerned with the locus of responsibilities in the areas of learning. Students' responses to this question fell into three categories: some said that the responsibilities should be more on the students, some suggested the responsibilities should be more on the teacher, while the others believed that both the teacher and the students should equally share responsibilities. Shinta and Sintia, for example, preferred that the responsibilities be on the students themselves. For them, university students should not depend on the teacher. Shinta said, for example, 'As a university student, I would say the students themselves should be more responsible for their learning. They are not primary or secondary school students anymore so they have to make their own effort.' Similarly, Sintia held this view too, commenting, 'As university students, we should not always depend on the teacher.' Melani had a different opinion from that of Shinta and Sintia. She preferred that the teacher to be more responsible for English language learning than the student. Her view was, 'I think both on the teacher and students but more on the teacher because it is his/her responsibility to teach the students.' Others, however, said that both the teacher and student should be responsible for student learning. Andika, for example, commented, 'I would say fifty-fifty. If students can't do it properly the teacher can help them.' Wulan noted, 'There should be cooperation between the teacher and students, for example students can make suggestions to the teacher about how they prefer to learn. So, there should be an agreement between them.'

Some of the students, however, distinguished between inside and outside the class learning. There was a general agreement among the students that the teacher should be responsible for learning that took place inside the class and the students themselves should take the responsibility for learning done outside the class. Damayanti, for example, commented, 'I

would say the teacher should be responsible for classroom learning because it should correspond to the syllabus.’ In a similar vein, Mira said, ‘The students do not know the syllabus so the teacher should be responsible for telling the students and planning the learning.’ Nirina had a very similar opinion. She said, ‘In the classroom, the responsibility should be mostly on the teacher, they should set the goals of learning. But outside the class, it depends on the students themselves.’ Eko agreed with Nirina. He added, ‘In formal education, the responsibility should be on the teacher, for example for providing materials and evaluating the learning but finding more materials outside the class and searching for more knowledge should be the responsibility by the students themselves.’

A similar opinion was expressed by the majority of the students in regard to the matter of whose responsibility it should be to choose the materials for learning. Putri, for instance, explained, ‘For the classroom learning, the materials should be provided by the teacher because they should be the continuation of what has been learned and understood by learners... For outside of class learning... I would choose the materials myself so I can determine where I can start. I will leave the materials that I find difficult to understand.’ Budi agreed with Putri saying, ‘Choosing the materials for classroom learning is the teacher’s responsibility because the materials should correspond to the curriculum, but the students should be responsible for choosing materials for their out-of-class learning.’ A similar thinking was expressed by Sandi also. Regarding out-of-class learning, Sandi said, ‘It is their own learning, they are the ones who will have the benefits of what they have learned so they should choose the materials themselves.’ Sintia reasoned in a similar way saying, ‘Well, university students are supposed to be autonomous, not just wait until the teacher provides the materials for them.’ These students seem to be suggesting maturity was expected to be a part of learner autonomy. The students’ responses regarding the locus of responsibilities in



choosing the materials both in the classroom and outside the class were mostly consistent with the answers they had given in the questionnaires, when it was noted that the teachers were supposed to choose the materials in the classroom while the students themselves should choose the materials for their out-of-class learning.

While agreeing that the materials should be selected by the students themselves, Rendi added the thought that it would be better if the students consulted their teacher beforehand. He said, 'At least the students should consult their teacher when they choose the materials so the teacher can advise them what they need to learn referring to their progress.' A similar opinion was expressed by Wulan when she said:

It depends but it would be better if the teacher negotiated with the student on how they preferred to learn. There should be an agreement on such as what methods the students prefer the teacher to use. The most important thing the teacher should consider is how the students can enjoy, and not feel tense in the teaching and learning process. (Wulan)

One of the questions that was asked in the interviews related to evaluation of learning. Fifteen (50%) of the students in the interviews agreed that learning evaluation should be carried out by the teacher. The reason mostly mentioned by the students was that students have no expertise in evaluating their learning.

The students have no expertise to evaluate... I mean, they do not know what to evaluate. The teacher knows what aspects of student learning should be improved. (Kartika)

I would say it is the teacher who should evaluate student learning. This is because evaluation should be done by someone who is competent in the field... Evaluation will be more effective when it is done by someone who has sound knowledge of the field. (Ahmad)

Well, we cannot evaluate ourselves if we don't know whether we did it right or wrong. I think the teacher knows more about whether his/her students are progressing or not in their learning. (Ayu)

Another reason mentioned was that the teacher should evaluate students' learning because the teacher is the one who is responsible for the learning thus he/she should also be responsible for the evaluation. This opinion was expressed by Eko when he said:

I think evaluating the students' learning should be 80% on the teacher and 20% on the students. The reason is that the teacher is the one who should be responsible for the learning so that they should also evaluate student learning. This is to understand the extent to which the materials taught have been understood by the students. (Eko)

Eleven (37%) of the interviewed students, however, believed that the evaluation of their learning should be done by themselves. Budi, for example, said 'Because we learn by ourselves, we should do the evaluation by ourselves. If we know what mistakes we made in our previous study, we can improve them in our next learning.' Mayang agreed that evaluation should be done by the student themselves. For her, 'University students should not be spoon fed like secondary school students. The teacher only initiates the learning, it is the students' responsibility to continue their learning and find more.' It may be interesting to note that while most of the responses noted above were consistent with their answers in the questionnaire, both Budi's and Mayang's responses contradicted the answers they gave in the questionnaire where they indicated that the student and teacher should share equally in evaluating student learning.

The remaining 4 students (13%) held that evaluating student learning should be carried out by both the teacher and the student. Confirming what they had answered in the questionnaires,

Rendi and Indri agreed that there should be collaboration between a student and the teacher in the evaluation. According to Rendi, a student needs the teacher to get involved in the evaluation because the teacher knows the student learning style. For Indri, students need to collaborate with the teachers in the evaluation because the students do not know if they are progressing well in their learning.

Well, the students can evaluate their own learning but it would be better if they collaborated with the teacher. This would allow them to get feedback from the teacher. The teacher usually knows their students' learning styles so that she/he can guide the students about what they need to work on. (Rendi)

Evaluation should be done by both students and the teacher. Many students do not know whether they have achieved what is expected so the teacher should be involved in the evaluation. (Indri)

In short, the students' responses regarding the locus of responsibilities in their learning fell into three groups: those who preferred the responsibilities to be in the hand of the teacher, those who preferred the responsibilities to be in the hand of the students themselves, and those who believed that the responsibilities should be shared between the teacher and student.

It can be deduced that the students had clear views on who should be responsible for choosing learning materials used in the classroom and those made use of outside the class. The teacher should be responsible for choosing the materials for classroom learning because the materials should be in accordance with the curriculum. However, for out-of-class learning the students should be responsible for choosing learning materials because it is their own learning. Moreover, although student responses regarding the responsibilities for evaluation varied, there was a general consensus that the teacher's role is very important. The principal reasons given for why the teacher should be responsible for evaluating student learning were because students have no expertise to evaluate their learning, and the teacher is the one who is

responsible for student learning. The student responses above confirm the preferences for the location learning responsibilities that were indicated in the questionnaire, that is the majority of the students preferred that the teacher be responsible for choosing learning materials in their English lessons and also for evaluating their learning.

### **5.5 Characteristics of autonomous language learners**

When asked about the characteristics of autonomous language learning, the students offered a range of responses. Twenty (67%) of the interviewed students agreed that autonomous learners are *active* in their learning. Autonomous learners are those who are energetic and actively participate in classroom activities. They also seek information outside the class and use different kinds learning resources, such as a library and the internet. Zaskia and Mella, for example, noted that active students are those eager to ask questions and who engage in other kinds of activities for learning purposes. They are eager to search for knowledge beyond the classroom and they practise their English with their friends. The following quotations illustrate the characteristics of autonomous students as being ‘active’.

*Zaskia*

I : Well, what do you think the characteristics of autonomous learners are?

P : Uhm.. autonomous learners are... not dependent on the teacher.

I : Uhm not dependent on the teacher?

P : They are active.

I : In what ways?

P : They are active in learning, asking questions, or doing other activities.

I : Well, besides the mentioned activities, what else do autonomous learners usually do?

P : Uhm, they search for knowledge out there to broaden their knowledge so that they appear to be smarter than those who are not autonomous who are merely dependent on the materials given by the teacher.

Mela

I : Well, what do you think the characteristics of autonomous learners are? What do they usually do?

P : They are usually active in the classroom... they are active in their learning, for example, they frequently ask questions in a discussion. They are also very responsive when the teacher or their classmates ask questions. (Mela)

Mayang added, 'Autonomous learners are active in searching for knowledge. They do not depend merely upon the lessons given by the teacher but they search for it outside such as on the internet or in the library.' A similar idea was given by Eko when he said, 'Autonomous learners are active. When they are on campus, they will usually go to the library if they do not have class. Outside the campus, they may search for knowledge on the internet or other sources.'

Besides being active, autonomous learners were also described as *being more knowledgeable*: this was mentioned by 6 (20%) of the interviewed students. Kartika, Eva and Karmila thought that this characteristic can be reflected through students' performance in the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Karmila said, 'autonomous learners have broader knowledge and are smarter. They usually know what to do when being asked by the teacher.' According to Kartika, autonomous learners are more knowledgeable than non-autonomous learners in that 'They usually know the materials that they are going to be taught. In learning, they are smarter than their classmates; for instance, they are able to answer questions asked by the teacher.' In a similar vein, Eva said, 'Autonomous learners are more knowledgeable than their classmates. If the teacher asks questions to the class, autonomous learners usually give quick responses. They are superior compared to those who are not autonomous.'

Another characteristic of autonomous learners mentioned by 6 (20%) of the students was *showing initiative*. Rinjani said, ‘Autonomous learners have self-initiative to learn and they do additional practice outside the class with their friends.’ In a similar vein, Indri noted, ‘They do not only rely on learning materials given by the teacher but they search for the materials for themselves from various resources.’

Five (17%) of the students mentioned that autonomous learners *make use of every opportunity to practise their English*. For example, Eko said, ‘Well..., I think autonomous learners will make use of every opportunity they have to engage in learning activities outside their formal education.’ Andika, Mela, and Taufik also remarked on the use autonomous learners make of their time outside the class to do learning in forms such as reading books and practise speaking with their friends.

Autonomous learners usually read books in their spare time. (Andika)

An autonomous learner often practises their English with their friends outside the class. (Mela)

In their spare time on campus, autonomous learners like to get together with their friends talking about English lessons or practising their speaking. (Taufik)

Autonomous learners were also described as those who are *more curious* and *critical* than others. Riana said, ‘Autonomous learners always have high curiosity in learning. They ask questions when they do not understand, give examples, and sometimes give suggestions. They are also more critical in the classroom.’ Rendi felt that, ‘Autonomous learners usually have many collections of books. This makes them more critical than their classmates because they know better.’

From the above quotations, it seems that the students view autonomy positively. They describe autonomous learners as those who are involved in their learning, who make use of every opportunity to practise their English, they are more knowledgeable, show initiative, and are more curious and critical in their learning.

### **5.6 Students' perceptions of their autonomous behaviour**

Question five asked the students about their perceptions on whether they themselves were autonomous or not in learning English. A vast majority of the students said that they were not autonomous, others believed they were fairly autonomous, and only three out of the 30 students interviewed believed that they really were autonomous in their learning. However, all the students said that they wanted to become autonomous or more autonomous learners. Some students also stated that they had tried to practise autonomous learning outside the class but found it hard to learn English without assistance from the teacher. The interview responses given by the students were in line with the responses they gave in the questionnaire. Those who claimed that they were not autonomous had previously indicated a low frequency of out-of-class learning in the questionnaire and those who claimed that they were already autonomous had indicated a high frequency of out-of-class learning except for one student.

When asked why they were not autonomous, a number of reasons were identified. *Lack of capacity to learn autonomously* was one of the most mentioned reasons. Andika said, 'I don't know how autonomous learning should be done.' Mella, Riana, and Sandi shared similar reasoning to Andika but added that they needed the teacher to teach them how to learn autonomously. Riana commented, 'I don't have the capacity to learn autonomously, I still need to learn from those who are more able than me.'

Another reason some of the students gave was that *English is hard to learn*. Sintia, Ranti, and Amanda, for example, said that they did not engage in autonomous learning because they found English a difficult language to learn. In Sintia's word: 'Frankly speaking, for me English is very hard to learn. Unlike Bahasa Indonesia, English words are pronounced differently compared to how they are written.' Amanda found English grammar difficult. She said, 'One reason why I do not learn autonomously is that English is very difficult, especially its tenses.' A similar concern was articulated by both Sandi and Rendi. They thought that English is a difficult language so that they needed guidance from the teacher. Lack of *interest in English* was another reason mentioned. For example, Ranti and Rinjani commented:

*Ranti*

I : Do you think you are an autonomous learner in learning English?

P : I think I am not autonomous yet because I don't really like English.

I : You don't really like English? Why?

P : I think English is very hard to learn.

I : In what way do think it is hard?

P : It is hard to understand. It reads differently from how it is written.

I : How about its grammar?

P : Yeah, that's another problem I think.

*Rinjani*

I : Do you think you are autonomous?

P : I don't think so.

I : Why do you say so? Have you practised English learning outside the class?

P : Seldom. I am not interested in learning English.

I : Why are you not interested in learning English?

P : (laughing)... I just don't like English. I have tried to learn, like memorising vocabulary, but I find it very difficult, especially the pronunciation.

*Time shortage* is another reason some of the students mentioned for not practising autonomous learning. Eko, for example, said he was very busy after class because he had to



work. He explained, 'I would say that I am not an autonomous learner. I have very limited time because I have to work after class.' Similarly, Bambang said that he had limited time outside the class but he did not use the time for working. Rather, he spent much after class time being involved in some off-campus social activities. He said, 'one reason why I am not autonomous in learning English is that I am quite busy outside. I am active in the activities of social organisations outside the campus.' For Melani, most of her time after class was used for helping her parents doing housework. However, she tried to learn English if she had spare time. She said, 'Well, although I am very busy at home doing house work, I sometime study English if I have spare time in my busy days.'

Another reason for not engaging in autonomous learning was that there was limited learning resources available. This point was made by Budi who commented, 'Learning materials, such as books, are really limited'. On this same matter, Eva remarked:

I have tried to learn English, for example, studying in a group with friends, studying alone at home like reading books and looking up difficult words in the dictionary. But, because the availability of books is limited, this can be a constraint for me. Also, it is very hard for me to find a friend who wants to discuss, study together and so on. (Eva)

Interestingly, only a small minority believed they were autonomous in their learning. Putri, who believed that she was already autonomous, said that learning English autonomously is easier than learning with guidance from the teacher:

- I : ... Do you consider yourself as an autonomous English language learner?  
P : Outside the class, God willing I can learn English by myself. I feel learning with a guidance is difficult. I found that learning English on my own is easier.  
I : Ehm, do you think that you are autonomous already?  
P : I think I am but I don't know what others think of me.  
I : Oh, I see. Have you tried to learn autonomously outside the class?

P : Yes, I have tried. Compared to other subjects, I prioritise English more although I am not good at English. I really like English. I learn English for example by translating English song lyrics. By so doing, I can more easily remember the vocabulary.

I : Well. Do you want to be more autonomous?

P : Oh, sure. As you know that English is an international language. I think everyone wants to improve their English.

Zaskia also believed that she had already undertaken autonomous learning. She said that although she did not have a class on campus, she often came and attended other classes.

I : Do you think you are an autonomous learner in learning English?

P : I think I am.

I : Can you elaborate this?

P : I really like English. You know, when I don't have a class, I often come to campus and go to other classes.

I : You go to other classes?

P : I mean, with a friend of mine, I often attend other classes in the English major. We just sit and follow the lesson. I find it enjoyable and we can get new knowledge because the classes are taught by different teachers. This way, we can also compare how the students from different classes learn English.

Except for the few who claimed that they were autonomous, the majority of students described themselves in the interview as non-autonomous learners. The reasons given were lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties in learning English, lack of interest in English, time shortage outside the class, and shortage of learning resources.

### 5.7 Factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy

When asked to name the factors that hindered the development of their autonomous English learning activities out of the class, the interviewed students gave various answers. These reflected the answers given in the last question. The most mentioned (53%) reason was the *shortage of learning resources*. For example, Zaskia said, 'The number of books available in the campus library or in the nearby bookstore is very limited. Most of the available resources are only English dictionaries.' A similar barrier was noted by Mayang, Nirina, and Damayanti. According to Maya, the campus library was so small and had only a very limited number of books for English learning purpose. She also said that she could hardly find English books in the book stores around the town. Besides acknowledging the limited availability of English books, Kartika added that limited access to digital resources such as computers and the internet was an impediment for her to develop as an autonomous learner.

Eleven (37%) of the students said that an *unsupportive learning environment* was among the factors that hindered them from developing their autonomous English learning activities. Rendi mentioned the people around him, for example. He said, 'If your friends do not practise autonomous learning, you will also tend not to do so.' Karmila named new technology as one factor that prevented her from being autonomous. She said, 'Sometimes I spend too much time playing with the internet and mobile phones, so I do not have time to learn.' Mayang said that when she was at home, she often had the intention to learn English but at the same time she had to help her parents to do housework.

*Time shortage* was another factor mentioned by 10 (33%) of the students in the interviews. Zaskia indicated this in her remark, 'Sometimes I am very busy at home helping my parents doing housework so that I don't have enough time to learn.' A similar reason was expressed

by Indri, ‘Sometimes I have made schedules to learn but there is so much work to do at home, I have to do housework.’ Under the same circumstance, Siska said that she is a married woman, thus she has limited time to learn at home. Sandi pointed out that he spent most of his time after class involved in off-campus social organisations. He said, ‘I am very busy after class, I am active in some off-campus social organisations.’

Another factor reported by 4 students (13%) was *lack of financial support*. Romi and Wulan, for example, suggested that learning outside the class would incur costs. Romi said, ‘I do not have enough money to buy books and access the internet.’ Wulan said, ‘For me, the first hindrance is the financial factor. To learn outside the class we need facilities and resources such as computers and books.’ A similar challenge was expressed by Kartika.

*Lack of interest* was another factor reported by 3 students (10%) to be hampering the development of learner autonomy. Ranti said that one reason she has lacks interest is that she just does not like English. Meanwhile, Eva, however, related her lack of interest to her friends’ attitudes towards English.

I feel so lazy to read English books... Even sometimes I don’t attend the English classes (laughing). The very reason is that I do not like English. I am not interested in learning English. (Ranti)

My motivation to learn English is down when I see that my friends show no interest in learning English. (Eva)

Various answers were also given when the students were asked about the factors that supported the development of learner autonomy. *Willingness to succeed* was noted with the highest frequency, by 18 (60%) of the students. Mella remarked, ‘Well, as a grown-up I should be autonomous... (laughing). I want to succeed and I want to finish my study as early

as possible.’ Ayu said, ‘I want to be good at English so that I can speak with foreigners, sing in English and I also have an ambition to go abroad.’ Damayanti also had a similar opinion, saying that she had an ambition to master English and to go abroad. She commented, ‘I really want to be able to speak English well... Also, I have an intention to go abroad’. Mayang related her autonomous learning to a success academically. She commented, ‘It is natural that when we learn we want to get the highest marks among our friends. When we see a friend gets the highest marks, we will try to achieve the same.’ A point to note here is that the above students all had different majors and varied perceptions of responsibilities in their questionnaire responses.

Eleven (37%) of the interviewed students mentioned that a factor that encouraged them to develop their autonomous learning was *please their parents*. Riana said, ‘I learn English because my parents expect me to be an English teacher.’ Taufik remarked, ‘I should make use of my time to study because my parents have spent much money to pay for my study.’ In a similar vein, Mayang said, ‘I think family is the main reason. My parents work hard to pay for my study so I have to pay their hard work back by studying seriously, this may make them happy.’ It is interesting to note that in this culture parents play an important role in their children’s education. It is usually the parents’ responsibility to pay for their children even during higher education degrees.

Another factor, mentioned by 7 students (23%), was *supportive environment*. Putri and Rendi for example, indicated that their friends or peers played an important role in their autonomous learning development.

... if I have friends who are good at English, I also feel motivated to learn. I also have a brother who can speak English. He always encourages me to speak with

him using English. For me, environment is a very important influencing factor.  
(Putri)

I am encouraged to learn English when I see my classmates can speak English well. This is one of the factors which increase my interest to learn autonomously.  
If they can I can. (Rendi)

*Willingness to broaden their knowledge* is another factor that encourages the students to proceed with autonomous English learning activities. Siska said, ‘I learn autonomously because I want to get more knowledge and become better at English’. Eko said, ‘I am aware that I have limited knowledge so if I have time I will use it to learn autonomously to broaden my knowledge.’

It can be concluded that students had the interest to learn but generally lacked the resources and a supportive environment. The factors that hindered and supported the development of learner autonomy were internal, that is dependent on the individual or, external, driven by social context. In regard to hindering factors, lack of interest in learning English was internal while shortage of learning resource, unsupportive learning environment, time shortage, and lack of financial support were external factors. Regarding the factors that supported the development of autonomy, a willingness to succeed, a willingness to broaden their knowledge, and a desire to make their parents happy can be classified as internal, while supportive environment was an external factor. It is interesting to note that the hindering factors tended to be more external. In contrast, the internal factors outweighed the external ones as factors that support the development of learner autonomy. A summary of the factors provided by the students which hindered or supported the development of learner autonomy is presented in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Factors that hinder and support the development of learner autonomy

Factors that hinder the development of learner autonomy		Factors that support the development of learner autonomy	
Internal	External	Internal	External
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of interest</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shortage of learning resources</li> <li>• Unsupportive learning environment</li> <li>• Time scarcity</li> <li>• Lack of financial support</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Willingness to succeed</li> <li>• Making their parents happy</li> <li>• Willingness to broaden knowledge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supportive environment</li> </ul>

### 5.8 What teachers should do to help students become autonomous

Almost all the interviewed students agreed that teachers played an important role in helping them to develop their autonomy. When asked what they believed teachers could do to help with this development, 20 (67%) of the students said that the teacher should always *motivate the students*. Mayang said, for example, ‘Ehm... in my opinion, teachers can help students by motivating them to extend their learning beyond the formal teaching in the classroom.’ Rinjani expanded this idea: ‘If the students are always motivated by the teacher, they might to some extent change their attitude toward English which can lead to the increase of their interest in learning English. If the teacher only teaches, there may not be changes in a student attitude.’ A similar opinion was also expressed by Siska. And then, according to Amanda, in the classroom the role of the teacher is not only as a knowledge transmitter, he/she could be ‘a motivator, ... a friend, a tour guide, someone who is very close to students.’ When asked how the teacher can motivate the students, Siska remarked ‘The teachers can motivate them by sharing their English learning experiences in the class.’ According to Riana:

Motivation is not only given in words, but teachers can also do it by varying their teaching methods which may encourage students to learn such as by using media in teaching or doing various activities such as listening, reading, and speaking, not merely doing the same activity in every class.

What this shows is that motivation and enthusiasm from the teacher can trigger students' motivation.

More than half (18 or 60%) of the students said that teachers should *assign students tasks* that help them develop their autonomous behaviour. Zaskia, for example, stated that giving students tasks is important as it would encourage the students to learn. She said, 'Ehm... I think the teacher should assign students tasks to do... If the teachers only talk in their teaching, some students may not pay attention seriously but if they assign the students tasks, the students will have to work on them.' When asked what kinds of tasks the teacher should assign, various answers were given. Mela, Nirina, Kartika, and Damayanti, for example, all agreed that students should be given different tasks so that they cannot copy each other's task. Mela said, 'The most important thing is that each student gets different tasks to do so they will do them on their own. In other words, they cannot copy the work of others.' Similarly, Damayanti remarked, 'Giving students individual tasks would train students to be independent in their learning and minimise the possibility of copying other students' work.'

Sandi, however, had a different view about this. He said, 'I think it would be better if tasks are given in groups. When one student does not understand, others can help to explain.' Eva did not agree with Sandi. She said:

In my opinion, tasks should be assigned individually. If the students are asked to work in a group on a particular topic, for example, I am sure that not all individuals in the group will get involved to find solutions. Usually only one or two students are active in a group. If task are assigned individually, each student will be responsible for their own task.

These comments suggest that the students expect teachers to provide guidance in assisting students to learn autonomously, whether students are involved in individual or group tasks.



Another suggestion a small number (9 or 30%) of students made was that the teacher should *provide students with training in autonomous learning*. Andika said, ‘The teacher should teach the students how to engage in autonomous learning and explain individual steps the student can take in their learning.’ Rinjani had a similar opinion about this. She said, ‘The teacher can give examples of the methods used by successful language learners. This way, the students may get an idea of how to learn effectively.’

The students’ responses above indicate an enthusiasm to learn autonomously. This was expressed in their rich and useful suggestions about what the teacher could do to help students become autonomous in their learning. Motivation, individual and group tasks, and training were three key tasks the students regarded as aspects the teacher should pay attention to in order to help their students develop autonomous behaviour in learning English.

### **5.9 Language learning activities in which the students engaged outside the class**

Out-of-class learning is defined as “the efforts of learners taking classroom-based language courses to find opportunities for language learning and use outside class” (Benson, 2007, p. 26). The results of the interviews revealed that 19 students (63%) reported that an activity in which they often engaged outside the class was *listening to English songs*. These results confirm those obtained in the questionnaire which indicated listening to music was the highest rated activity.

When asked whether the activity was done more for the purpose of learning or just for fun, some of the students said that they did it for both, others said it was more for fun, and the rest claimed that they did it more for learning. Shinta for example, said that she listened to the music more for learning than for fun. Specifically, she listened to English music for learning

vocabulary. She said, 'I usually translate the lyrics of the song I listen to. Listening to music frequently will allow me remembering the lyrics easier.' Similarly, Putri listened to music for learning purposes rather than for mere pleasure but her focus was on learning pronunciation. She said:

Besides practising my speaking, I often listen to English music and memorise the lyrics. From songs there are some words that are difficult to pronounce by Indonesian people. But if you listen to the words repeatedly, you will get used to their pronunciations. (Putri)

Kartika and Ahmad, on the other hand, said that they listen to the music for pleasure rather than a learning purpose. Kartika stated, 'I often listen to English songs but just for fun. I just listen and enjoy the songs, never translate the lyrics.' A similar sentiment was that of Ahmad. He said, 'Well, initially I just listen to English songs for fun only. I like singing along too.'

Other activities which the students reported engaging in outside the class included *reading English books and magazines* (10 students or 33%), *using the internet in English* (9 students or 30%), *memorising English vocabulary* (9 students or 30%), *watching TV in English* (7 students or 23%), *watching English movies* (7 students or 23%), practising speaking (7 students or 23%), *reading English grammar books* (6 students or 20%), and *peer/group learning* (4 students or 13%). Most of these activities were also reported in the questionnaire as the activities that were frequently practised by the students.

#### **5.10 The importance of out-of-class learning activities for students in learning English**

Although most of the students claimed that they did not engage in a variety of English learning activities outside of class, all (100%) of the interviewed students acknowledged that out-of-class learning is important in language learning. When asked what benefits they could gain from out-of-class learning, the students gave a variety of responses. Interestingly, the

answers were similar to those they mentioned for the benefits of learner autonomy. *Lots of time available* was the most (37%) mentioned benefit of out-of-class learning. As Mayang mentioned, the time allocated for English teaching in the classroom is very limited. Thus, out-of-class learning seemed to offer unlimited time to learn and practise her English. She said:

Learning out of the class is very important as we have very limited time learning in the classroom. Two contact hours a week is not enough to learn English. At home we have lots of time to learn and practise our English. (Mayang)

*Broadening knowledge* was the second most frequent answer, given by 10 (33%) students. Wulan, for example, thought, ‘When doing out-of-class learning, you will get more than what you learn in the classroom.’ Similarly, Eva felt that, ‘Out-of-class learning is definitely beneficial. You will learn more when you learn out of the class compared to when you only learn in the classroom.’

Six students (20%) said that out-of-class learning was of benefit to them because the *learning can be more effective*. Taufik and Rinjani expressed this opinion as follows:

Learning outside the class is more effective for me. I can understand more easily than learning in the classroom. Besides, the teacher teaches only a little knowledge to students, the students need to find the rest themselves. (Taufik)

Unlike classroom learning, outside the class learning allows us to practise our English more, so the lessons will be more easily understood’ (Rinjani)

Another benefit of out-of-class learning mentioned was that *learning can be more personalised* in out-of-class learning activities. For example, Nirina said, ‘We have a lot of time out of the class that we can use to learn and practise our English. While in the classroom the lessons are more structured, outside the class allows us to learn anything we want to know.’

### **5.11 Summary of qualitative findings**

This section presented the results of the interview data analysis obtained in the second phase of the study and covered the beliefs the students held about learner autonomy. These included students' perceptions of 1) the concept of learner autonomy; 2) the benefits of learner autonomy in English language learning; 3) the locus of responsibilities in student learning; 4) characteristics of autonomous language learners; 5) their autonomous behaviour; 6) the factors that hinder and support the development of learner autonomy; 7) what teachers should do to help students become autonomous; 8) the English language learning activities the students engage in outside the class; 9) the importance of out-of-class learning activities for students' English language learning.

The results suggest that the students in the present study lacked understanding of learner autonomy that included a role for the teacher: the teacher was excluded from their definitions of learner autonomy. Despite the fact that the students acknowledged the benefits of autonomous learning and were aware of what characterises autonomous learners, they claimed that they were not autonomous in their English language learning. Among the reasons for not engaging in autonomous learning included: lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties in learning English, lack of interest in English, time shortage, and learning resource shortage. The students were also aware of a number of hindering and supporting factors in the development of learner autonomy. While the hindering factors were external in nature and included environment, time, and resources, the supporting factors were related to internal factors such as a willingness to succeed and broaden their knowledge as well as a willingness to please their parents. To help students develop their autonomy, the students acknowledged that the role of the teacher is pivotal. The students offered suggestions on what the teacher could do to develop student autonomy. These included motivating students,

assigning appropriate tasks and providing students with training. The details of the qualitative findings are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 The details of qualitative findings

Aspects of learner autonomy	Identified themes
Definition of learner autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Independent learning</li> <li>• The ability to learn on one's own without help from others</li> <li>• Self-awareness to learn by oneself</li> <li>• Initiative to find ways of learning</li> </ul>
The benefits of learner autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Compensating for time and resource scarcity</li> <li>• Broadening students' knowledge</li> <li>• Learning can be more effective</li> <li>• Learning can be more personalised</li> </ul>
The locus of responsibilities in student learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There were ambivalent responses as regards the locus of responsibilities over student learning. The students were divided into three groups: Some said that the responsibilities should be more on the students, some suggested the responsibilities should be more on the teacher, while the others believed that both the teacher and the students should share equal responsibilities.</li> <li>• There was a general agreement that the teacher should take the responsibility for inside the class learning while the students should be responsible for outside the class activities.</li> <li>• The majority believed the teacher should be responsible for evaluating their learning because: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Students have no expertise to evaluate their learning</li> <li>- The teacher is the one who is responsible for the learning</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Characteristics of autonomous learners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Active</li> <li>• More knowledgeable</li> <li>• Showing initiative</li> <li>• Making use of every opportunity to practise their English</li> <li>• More curious and critical</li> </ul>

*Continued*

Table 5.2 The details of qualitative findings (*Continued*)

Reasons for not being autonomous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of capacity to learn autonomously</li> <li>• Difficulties in learning English</li> <li>• Lack of interest in English</li> <li>• Lack of time</li> <li>• Lack of learning resources</li> </ul>
Factors that hinder and support the development of learner autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hindering factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The shortage of learning resources</li> <li>- Unsupportive learning environment</li> <li>- Lack of time</li> <li>- Lack of financial support</li> <li>- Lack of interest</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Supporting factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Willingness to succeed</li> <li>- Interest in pleasing their parents</li> <li>- Supportive environment</li> <li>- Willingness to broaden knowledge</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
What teachers should do to help students become autonomous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivate the students</li> <li>• Assign appropriate tasks</li> <li>• Provide training on autonomous learning</li> </ul>
Learning activities in which the students engage outside the class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening to English music</li> <li>• Reading English books and magazines</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Using the internet in English</li> <li>• Memorising English vocabulary</li> <li>• Watching TV in English</li> <li>• Watching English movies</li> <li>• Practising speaking</li> <li>• Reading English grammar books</li> <li>• Peer/group learning</li> </ul>
Benefits of out-of-class learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lots of time available</li> <li>• Broadening knowledge</li> <li>• Learning can be more effective</li> <li>• Learning can be more personalised</li> </ul>

## 5.12 Integration of quantitative and qualitative findings

The results of the quantitative phase of the present research suggest that the students had a clear picture of the teacher's and their own responsibilities. The teacher was regarded as

someone who should take responsibilities for many aspects of their learning. Although the students felt that they had reasonably good decision-making abilities, they preferred that their teacher take responsibility in many areas. In regard to the students' decision making abilities, most of the students' responses congregated in both the 'OK' and 'good' categories of the scale.

The inferential statistical analysis results indicated that the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and decision-making abilities significantly affected their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. There were no significant differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class in terms of gender. Also, there was no significant difference in students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities when divided according to major of study. However, there were significant differences in students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on whether they were doing an English major or a non-English major of study.

The quantitative results also revealed that, while the majority of the students appeared to undertake activities outside the class, most of the 'often' practised activities appeared to be receptive rather than productive activities. The activities listed in the questionnaire that the students claimed they 'often' practised outside the class were 'listening to English songs' (63.43%), 'watching English movies' (61.49%), 'watching videos/DVDs/VCDs' (45.77%), and 'watching English TV programs' (43.28%). A considerable number of the students also reported that they 'sometimes' engaged in other activities such as reading grammar books on their own, practising using English with friends, reading English notices around them, doing

exercises which were not compulsory, watching English TV programs, noting down new words and their meanings, using the internet in English, and doing English self-study in a group. There were also a number of activities which appeared to be less practised by most of the students. The activities that a considerable number of the students said that they ‘never’ practised were: attending meetings in English (55.22%), writing a diary in English (51.24%), talking to foreigners in English (50.25%), sending e-mails in English (45.52%), listening to English radio (42.54%), reading newspapers in English (35.82%), and doing revision not required by the teacher (31.84%). The interviewed students confirmed these results and even went further to claim that they did not consider themselves very autonomous learners.

The results of the qualitative phase helped triangulate and explain the results obtained in the quantitative phase. Although the students in the interviews indicated that they engaged in several learning activities outside the class, the majority felt they were not autonomous. The reasons offered by the students for not exercising autonomous learning included lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties in learning English, lack of interest in English, time shortage, and learning resource shortage. On the locus of responsibilities in student learning, there were differing responses among the interviewed students. In general, the students indicated that the teacher should be responsible for learning inside the class while the students should be responsible for learning outside the class. Among the reasons for their preference for teacher responsibilities were that the teacher was someone responsible for student learning and that the students had limited capability to do the actions, for example, in evaluating their learning. Additionally, the reason for students’ preference for teachers’ responsibility for classroom learning was that learning should be in accordance with the curriculum.



Another important issue that emerged in the interview was that, generally, the students lacked understanding of the concept of learner autonomy. Most viewed learner autonomy as synonymous with independent learning without the help from the teacher. However, the students believed that learner autonomy should benefit them in a number of ways, including ‘compensating for time and resource scarcity’, ‘broadening knowledge’, and ‘learning can be more effective and more personalised’. The students also named some characteristics of autonomous learners: being active, being more knowledgeable, showing initiative, making use of every opportunity to practise their English, and being more curious and critical.

It also emerged in the interviews that a shortage of learning resources, unsupportive learning environment, lack of interest, time scarcity, and lack of financial support are seen as the impediments to the development of learner autonomy. To help them develop their autonomy, the students regarded the role of the teacher as very important. Motivating the students, assigning tasks to the students, and providing training on autonomous learning were thought to be the types of effort teachers could make to help their students be autonomous. In addition, the students acknowledged that out-of-class learning is very important as it has a number of benefits, including: lots of time available, can broaden knowledge, and learning can be more effective and more personalised.

In short, the qualitative findings appeared to confirm the quantitative findings but they also provided a more elaborate understanding of the quantitative results. Moreover, they painted a positive picture of the Indonesian students’ readiness for learner autonomy in the Indonesian context.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

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#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a discussion of the major findings that emerged from the quantitative and qualitative data analyses that were presented in the previous chapter. It is organised into sections which directly address the research questions. The first section following the introduction (6.2) provides a discussion of findings as regards research question 1, i.e. how Indonesian EFL university students perceive their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning. The next section (6.3) is a discussion of the findings relating to research question 2, i.e. how the students perceive their decision-making abilities in English language learning. Research question 3, to what extent the students engage in autonomous language learning activities inside and outside the class, is discussed in section 6.4. Section 6.5 sets out a discussion of the findings concerning research questions 4, 5, and 6 of the present study, i.e. the interrelationships among students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class. Section 6.6 is a discussion of the answers to research question 7 so is concerned with the differences in student perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class depending on gender. The next section, 6.7, offers a discussion of the findings relating to research question 8, i.e. differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors. Then, section 6.8 is a discussion of the reasons behind the students' beliefs about and practices of learner autonomy. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the main findings of this research (6.9).

## **6.2 Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities**

The first research question asked about students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in English language learning. The findings show that the students viewed their teachers as central figures in their English learning, that is, they preferred their teachers to take on the responsibilities in many areas of their learning. These results corroborate those achieved in a number of studies conducted on a similar topic in non-Western contexts, for example Chan (2001b) and Chan et al. (2002) in Hong Kong, Farahani (2014) in Iran, Koçak (2003) and Üstünlüoğlu (2009) in Turkey, Razeq (2014) in Palestine, Rungwaraphong (2012) in Thailand, and Tamer (2013) in Saudi Arabia.

Of thirteen major areas of learning listed in the questionnaire, nine were areas for which a considerable number of the students preferred their teachers to take more responsibilities. The activities are: stimulating their interest in learning English, making sure they make progress during lessons, evaluating their learning, making them work harder, evaluating their course, identifying their weaknesses in English, deciding what they should learn next in the English lessons, deciding the objectives of the English course, and choosing what materials to use to learn English in the English lessons. In these matters, it is evident from the students' responses that there was a strong inclination towards teacher dominance over their learning. This tendency seems to fall in line with suggestions made about Asian learners namely that they are apt to have a strong orientation towards acceptance of teacher power and authority in the classroom (e.g. Chan 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Evans, 1996; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Jones, 1995; Littlewood, 1999; Triandis, 1995, Webster, 1988). However, when asked similar questions in the interviews, the students gave varied responses. Some of the students said that the responsibilities should lie mainly with the teacher, some others said they should lie mainly with the students, while the rest believed that both the teacher and the students should share

equal responsibilities. However, there was a general agreement that the interviewed students preferred the teacher to take principal responsibility for inside the class learning while the students should be the ones most responsible for outside class activities.

The strong inclination towards teacher dominance revealed could be due to the students' previous learning experience. Much of the literature suggests that teacher-centred pedagogy (Azra, 2002; Bjork, 2005; Buchori, 2001; Darmaningtyas, 2004; Siegel, 1986) and rote learning (Ajisuksmo & Vermunt, 1999; Bjork, 2005) have long been common practice in the Indonesian context. There is a general consensus (e.g. Crumly, Diettz, & d'Angelo, 2014; Garrett, 2008; Rogers & Frieberg, 1994; Shor, 1992; Wolk, 1998) that with the teacher-centred instruction method, students' self-expression, creativity, and responsibilities are less encouraged. As a result, it is thought the learners tend not to take responsibility for their own learning during their formal education.

In the literature it is also suggested that Indonesian students, like students in many other countries in Asia, are passive, shy, and quiet students (Exley, 2005). In the classroom context, the teacher is often described as someone with authority who acts as the master of the class, the transmitter of knowledge, and the planner of learning activities. Or, as Milner (1996, p. 92) writes: in Indonesia the teacher is "the student's superior in the classroom – an authority figure to whom the student must defer, in the classroom – and outside it – the teacher's authority is absolute." The teacher is seen as "the fountain of knowledge – while knowledge is viewed as a more or less a fixed set of facts to be transmitted and digested by thirsty learners, later to be regurgitated in tests" (Lewis, 1997, p. 14). These beliefs and the practices that come from them seem to continue to operate in the Indonesian context despite changes in the curricula and policies that promote learner centredness and communicative language teaching.

This typical teacher-centred teaching and learning style could be attributed to certain philosophical and cultural values existing in the wider Indonesian society. Dardjowidjojo (2001) provides a helpful description of how daily life values of most ethnic groups in Indonesia influence classroom atmosphere:

For most ethnic groups in Indonesia, there is this philosophy which in Javanese is called *manut lan miturut* - a cultural value which states that the yardstick for judging whether a child is good or bad is the degree of obedience shown to h(is/er) parents... Parents set up the norms to which the children are expected to adhere. We do not encourage our children to express their views, especially those that are different from their elders'. ...The parental guidance is extended to the classroom. A guru [teacher] to us is a school-time parent. (S)he must, therefore, be *digugu* (trusted that what (s)he says is right) and *ditiru* (imitated) - a teacher is a figure whom we must trust and whose behavior we must follow. The implication of this outlook is two-pronged: a teacher is to provide and a student to accept the classroom materials... Since a child is to agree with h(is/er) parents (*manut*) and to obey them (*miturut*), it would be culturally beyond our imagination to have a class where the students “determine the objectives, define the contents and progression, select methods ...” etc. (pp. 314-315)

In this respect, Wachidah (2001, p. 127) may be right when he points out:

... it is not easy to encourage autonomous behaviour (i.e. to incite them to perform independently, creatively, critically, and with initiative, and so on), particularly in teacher-fronted classroom activities for the reason that it may not be easy to change a pattern of classroom discourse that is laden with important cultural implications for both the teacher and the student.

Changing the role of the learner and that of the teacher in the classroom “takes us deep down into our fundamental values and traditions which, whether we realize it or not, have shackled our ways of thinking and behaving” (Dardjowidjojo, 2001, p. 314). The cultural values and

beliefs are deeply ingrained into the Indonesian population and any changes may take time to be implemented.

Despite the strong preference for the teacher taking responsibility in many areas of learning, there was obvious agreement among the students responding to the questionnaire that in some areas of learning the responsibilities should be more in their hands: that is, in *stimulating their interest in learning English, making them work harder* and *evaluating their learning*. This information, combined with that obtained from the interview responses, indicates there is student agreement on responsibility sharing with their teachers in these matters. These results are in line with the results revealed in a number of previous studies conducted in different contexts. For example, Farahani's (2014) study in the Iranian context revealed that the students tended to share the responsibilities with their teachers in *stimulating student interest in learning English and making them work harder*. Chan et al.'s (2002) study in the Hong Kong context found that *making them work harder* was one of the areas that the students indicated they themselves were more responsible for. It may be worth noting that two of these areas are motivation related rather than methodology related areas. In light of this, it is worthwhile to consider Palfreyman's (2003) suggestion that, although working with a teacher is sometimes regarded as compromising autonomy, "collaboration has come to be seen in a more positive light, as an important component of learner autonomy" (p. 4).

It is worth noting that the students' responses with regard to *evaluating their learning* in the questionnaire somewhat contradicted the responses they gave in the interviews: in the interviews the majority of students believed that evaluation should be performed by the teacher. According to the students, the teacher should have this responsibility because, firstly, they felt that they did not have expertise to evaluate their own learning, and secondly, the

teacher is the one who is responsible for students' formal learning so that she/he should also be responsible for evaluating the learning. This matter needs to be explored further in future research.

### **6.3 Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities**

The results indicated that the students had positive views about their decision-making abilities in regard to English learning activities both for inside and outside the classroom. To be specific, most of the students' responses congregated in either the 'OK' or 'good' categories of the scale; ten of the eleven items listed in the questionnaire were chosen by more than 30% of the students. Some students even rated their abilities as 'very good'. Only a small number of the students rated their ability as 'poor' or 'very poor'. These results are similar to those achieved in other studies conducted in non-Western countries or contexts such as in Hong Kong, Turkey, Palestine, and Saudi Arabia (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Razeq, 2014; Tamer, 2013; Üstünlüoğlu, 2009; Yıldırım, 2008) in which the respondents viewed their decision making abilities positively. Student's perceptions of their decision-making abilities were also explored in the interviews by asking examples of the areas of learning decisions as listed in the questionnaire.

It is interesting to note that although the students believed that they had reasonably good decision-making abilities in almost all of the activities, more students seemed to consider that they were better in their abilities in regard to inside class activities compared to outside the class activities; that is, more students chose the 'good' or 'very good' categories compared to those who chose the 'OK' category. The inside the class activities include choosing learning objectives (48.01% 'good' and 20.15% 'very good'), choosing learning material (42.79% 'good' and 16.67% 'very good'), and choosing learning activities (41.04% 'good' and 14.43%

‘very good’). These results were surprising considering the nature of the teaching and learning practice in the Indonesian context, as aforementioned, is very teacher-centred. It is usually the teacher who is responsible for the classroom teaching and learning processes such as providing materials, choosing learning activities and deciding learning objectives. By comparison, for outside class activities, more students chose the ‘OK’ than ‘good’ or ‘very good’ categories of the scale. The activities are: choosing learning activities (50.00%), choosing learning objectives (48.26%), and choosing learning materials (46.27%). These results corroborate the results obtained in other studies even when conducted in different cultural contexts (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Farahani, 2014; Yıldırım, 2008).

The students’ positive views of their decision-making abilities for both inside and outside could be because their age and maturity have developed their understanding of learner autonomy and helped them feel confident to exercise these autonomy related activities. As Grow (1991, p. 127) maintains, “Self-direction,... is partly a personal trait analogous to maturity.” With the knowledge that the students had positive perceptions of their decision-making abilities, the teacher could use this to further their language learning and at the same time reinforce these abilities by employing more autonomy-oriented activities in the classroom and encouraging students’ engagement in more learning activities outside the class. Given that the students might expect teacher encouragement, they could be guided as a first step into autonomous activities.

#### **6.4 Students’ autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class**

The third research question was concerned with language learning activities the students engaged in outside and inside the class. The results of the present study reveal that out of 22 out-of-class learning activities, 9 were activities with which more than half of the students



said they ‘sometimes’ or ‘often’ practised. However, of these activities, only 4 were ‘often’ practised by more than 40% of the students, including *listening to English songs* (63.43%), *watching English movies* (61.49%), *watching videos/DVDs/VCDs* (45.77%) and *watching English TV programs* (43.28%). These results are consistent with the results achieved in a number of studies conducted in different contexts (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Koçak, 2003; Pearson, 2003; Razeq, 2014; Spratt et al., 2002; Tamer, 2013) which have generally highlighted some similar out-of-class activities frequently practised by a majority of the students; most of the activities involved receptive rather than productive activities. However, more than half of the students reported that they ‘often’ or ‘sometimes’ *note down new words and their meanings*, *read grammar books on their own* and *practise using English with friends*. Importantly, these activities are concerned with more productive language compared to the four activities mentioned above which are receptive and seem to be for entertainment purposes. The students’ engagement in these second types of activities may indicate that the students have demonstrated they do make in fact some deliberate efforts to engage in activities for learning purposes.

It is interesting to note from the results that the four activities that were ‘often’ practised involve the use of technology. These results confirm the results obtained by Ardi (2013) in a study conducted in the Jakarta context, Indonesia, in which it was found most of the widely practised activities were related to the use of technology. It appears that the advancements of technology have provided the students with access to a variety of English programs and have facilitated their engagement in language learning without the presence of a teacher. This was confirmed in the interviews; the students clearly took advantage of the ease of access to technology for language skill practice and this was not only for entertainment purposes.

A number of advantages in using technology for autonomous language learning have been suggested in the literature. One is that technology enables “opportunities for students to use language in authentic contexts. Such activities encourage students to strive for autonomy in the target language” (Kessler, 2009, p. 79). Quite evidently, the use of technology for out-of-class language learning is a means of enhancing students’ exposure to the target language by providing opportunities for language practice in different contexts (Lai, Yeung, & Hu, 2015). Further, Reinders and White (2011, p. 1) argue, “Technology has the potential to not only provide access to resources for learning in a superficial sense, but also to offer increased affordances for autonomous learning.” According to Yumuk (2002), technology such as the Internet can promote learners’ control over their learning in that it can encourage the learners to choose the most up to date, useful and applicable materials and decide how to make the most of them for their learning. This active involvement with their learning allows language learners to understand that learning is not a process that is completely controlled by teachers. Rather, it is a process in which decisions can be actively made by the students themselves.

Despite the apparent advantages, previous research has suggested that students lack a good understanding of how available technologies can be used effectively for language learning purposes (e.g. Kennedy & Miceli, 2010; Lai & Gu, 2011; Lai et al., 2015). Therefore, it may be important for teachers to consider providing students with support on how to make the most of such resources for effective English learning. In this respect, Littlemore (2001) argues:

New technologies can be used to encourage different types of independent learning but do not automatically do so; care must be taken not to replace “teacher dependency” with “machine dependency”...Learners need to be trained in the strategies required to make the most of the opportunities offered by the new technologies ... It is important that learners continue to have support from their teachers (p. 43).

Researchers have suggested various types of support that teachers can provide to encourage students' use of technology for out-of-class autonomous language learning activities. Lai (2014), for example, identified five ways teachers influenced learners' autonomous use of technology for language learning outside the class: (1) encouraging students' use of technological resources in their out-of-class language learning activities, (2) recommending specific technological resources that students could use for their out-of-class learning, (3) providing guidance on how to use technological resources for language learning, (4) using technological resources in the classroom, and (5) assigning students the homework that involves the use of technological resources. Lai et al. (2015) noted that students had high expectation that teachers would provide support on how to locate, choose and utilise technological resources for language learning purposes. The teachers were also expected to recommend various technological resources and share metacognitive and cognitive strategies for effective use of technological resources. In short, the role of teachers in supporting students' autonomous use of technology for out-of-class learning could be in forms of encouragement, recommendations on which resources to use, tips on how to use the resources, advice on metacognitive and cognitive strategies, using technology in the classroom, and assigning homework involving the use of technological resources.

The results of this study also show that there were 13 activities in which more than half of the students said that they 'never' or 'rarely' practised. Of these, there were 7 in which more than one third of the students said they 'never' practised: *attending meetings in English* (55.22%), *writing a diary in English* (51.24%), *talking to foreigners in English* (50.25%), *sending e-mails in English* (45.52%), *listening to English radio* (42.54%), *reading newspapers in English* (35.82%), and *doing revision not required by the teacher* (31.84%). A considerable number of the students also indicated that they 'rarely' read books or magazines in English (40.55%), went to see the teacher about their work (39.80%), and read newspapers in English

(37.06%). One reason why some of the activities were ‘never’ or ‘rarely’ practised could be due to the limited access to the resources in students’ living environment. For instance, the students are unlikely to find foreigners in their daily life with whom they can practise their English in this Indonesian context. They also have limited access to resources such as English newspapers or radio programs. These results corroborate the results obtained by Lewis (1997) in a study in the Indonesian context where talking to foreigners and reading English newspapers were among the least practised activities in some regions due to limited accessibility to these resources. Of note here is that the present study was conducted in two regencies in one of the many provinces in Indonesia where access to the resources such as English radio, English newspapers, and foreigners are scarce. The low frequency of participation in other activities such as *attending meetings in English*, *writing a diary in English*, *sending e-mails in English*, *reading books or magazines in English*, and *going to see the teacher about their work* may indicate that these learning activities are also not a common part of students’ learning experiences in this context. In the interviews when the students were asked the reasons why they did not engage in autonomous learning, they mentioned, for example, *English is hard to learn*, *lack of interest in English*, and *time scarcity outside the class*. These reasons are discussed in more detail in section 6.8.5.

In regard to inside of class activities, the majority appeared to engage most in three out of the five inside the class activities that were listed in the questionnaire. The activities were *asking the teacher questions when you don’t understand* (49.75% ‘often’ and 34.83% ‘sometimes’), *noting down new information* (47.01% ‘often’ and 32.34% ‘sometimes’), and *discussing learning problems with classmates* (30.60% ‘often’ and 36.57% ‘sometimes’). These results show that the students do take some initiative in most of the inside the class activities, which is promising with regard to their attitudes to learning. In this respect, Littlewood’s (1999)

notion of *reactive autonomy* should be considered, in which learners will regulate the activities once the direction has been set. In other words, the students will get involved in the activities when the activities have been initiated by the teacher or the curriculum. As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, Littlewood (1999, p. 75) distinguishes between two levels of self-regulation: proactive autonomy and reactive autonomy. Proactive autonomy refers to circumstances where “learners are able to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques and evaluate what has been required.” Here, learners create their own agenda for learning which “affirm their individuality and sets up directions which they themselves have partially created.” Reactive autonomy, on the other hand, is “the kind of autonomy which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal”. For many writers, according to Littlewood (1999), proactive autonomy is the only type that counts. However, the concept of reactive autonomy is also useful to consider in educational contexts because it may be either a beginning step towards proactive autonomy or even a goal on its own right. Really, it should be categorised with the Oxford’s (2003) *technical version* of autonomy. According to Oxford, the technical version of autonomy puts the emphasis on “the situational condition under which learner autonomy may develop” (p. 81). The conditions often refer to ‘other-created’ rather than those initially created by the learner, and the context “consists of literal surroundings, such as a self-access center, a classroom, a home setting, or a travel environment” (p. 81).

Contrary to the above, however, a considerable number of the students indicated that they ‘never’ (38.31%) or ‘rarely’ (35.07%) made suggestions to the teacher. This result is similar to that of Chan et al. (2002) in a study in the Hong Kong setting. This is not surprising considering that the cultural values in this context do not encourage students to express their

views. In this respect, it may be worthwhile to consider the arguments suggesting that classroom practice is very much a reflection of wider society's practices (e.g. Bowers, 1987; McKay, 1992). The classroom, according to Bowers (1987, pp. 8-9), "is a microcosm which, for all its universal magisterial conventions, reflects in fundamental social terms the world that lies outside the window." In other words, the classroom is not a domain in isolation. Rather, it is part of a wider domain whose community members are also the members of larger domain outside it who practise certain values. Thus, it "to a large extent determines not only what is to be learned, but also how it is to be learned" (McKay, 1992, p. 47). According to Wachidah (2001), the held values substantially affect the particular pattern of students' behaviour in teacher-led classroom activities. Hence, students' reluctance in expressing their ideas may result from their unwillingness to be considered blatantly critical, which opposes the cultural and social values. Littlewood (1999) suggested that the people who defer to differences in power and authority feel that "privilege and status differences are to be expected" and "communication patterns should reflect power and status differences" (p. 81). Iskandar (1998, p. 3) may be right when he suggests that education in Indonesia is generally seen as the process of "knowledge acquisition rather than either development of the whole person, or teaching and learning for intended and pre-specified learning outcomes"; teachers are regarded as knowledgeable persons and students are no more than knowledge receivers. As a result, making suggestions, asking argumentative questions or challenging the teachers is likely to be regarded as culturally inappropriate and not typically expected behaviour.

However, if teachers want to improve students' autonomous ability, they could encourage this behaviour in the classroom and give students opportunities to get involved in the decision-making process in regard to their learning so they feel they are part of the learning process, rather than being merely knowledge receivers. This would also give the opportunity to

students to have their say as to how they want to learn. As Chan (2001b) suggests: “When students cannot learn the way we teach them, we have to help them to find ways of doing their own learning” (p. 285).

#### **6.5 The relationships among students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class**

Research questions 4, 5, and 6 were concerned with the relationships between students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. While a number of studies have investigated these three variables, many have mainly focused on students’ perceptions. Very few studies have examined the relationships between the three variables. For example, three studies, i.e. Ahmadi (2012), Spratt et al. (2002), and Yıldırım (2008), looked at the relationship between the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their decision-making abilities. No studies have been done on the relationship between the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their autonomous learning activities outside the class and between their perceptions of decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. The present study was therefore: a) one of the very few studies that examined the relationship between the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their decision-making abilities, b) the first study that examined the relationship between the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning and their autonomous learning activities outside the class and, c) the first study that examined the relationship between students’ perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.

The results of a Spearman's rank correlation analysis indicated that there was a moderate positive relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities. This means that the greater the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, the greater their perceptions of their decision-making abilities, or vice versa. These results are similar to the results of previous studies (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008) which found a significant relationship between students' perceptions of their responsibilities and their decision-making abilities.

The results also indicated a moderate positive relationship between students' perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning English and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. In other words, the higher students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, the more frequently the student engages in autonomous English learning activities outside the class, or vice versa. A positive relationship was also found between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. However, the relationship between these two variables was weak. Knowing that positive links exist is important for teachers so that they can help students become more responsible in their learning by designing learning activities that can improve students' responsibilities as well as encourage students to engage in learning activities outside the class.

#### **6.6 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender**

The results revealed that there were no significant differences in the perceptions of the responsibilities, decision-making abilities and practices of autonomous English learning activities outside the class between female and male students. Similar results regarding this



variable were also obtained in studies done in different cultural contexts (e.g. Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014). In Koçak's (2003) study, it was found that there were no significant differences in students' perceptions of responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender. Razeq's (2014) study also found that there were no significant differences between female and male students in their perceptions of their decision-making abilities. However, the results of the current research contradict those achieved by Varol and Yilmaz (2010) as regards out-of-class activities, which showed that there were significant differences between female and male students in their autonomous learning activities outside the class in favour of females.

#### **6.7 Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors**

Despite the many studies on the students' perceptions of their responsibilities in English language learning, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous learning activities, none has examined whether there are any differences in these perceptions between the students of an English major and the students of non-English majors. The results of the Mann-Whitney U tests carried out for this study indicated that the level of the perception of the responsibilities and also autonomous English learning activities of the students of the English major were significantly higher than those of the students of non-English majors. With regard to students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities, however, the results showed no significant difference in the level of perceptions of decision-making abilities between the students of an English major and the students of non-English majors. This suggests, first that both groups of students had confidence in their abilities to engage in autonomous learning. It is also suggested that the students of the English major accept more responsibilities and engage more in autonomous English learning activities outside the class than do the other

group. One possible explanation is that, unlike the students of non-English majors, the students of English major are expected to have stronger motivation to learn English as they have chosen the career of English language teacher. English major students were students enrolled in a teaching degree which was preparing them to be English teachers. Thus, they assume greater responsibilities in their English learning compared to those of non-English majors. In this respect, it may be important to consider Locke and Latham's *goal-setting theory* (e.g. Locke & Latham, 1994) that states that human action is stimulated by purpose, and for action to happen, “goals have to be set and pursued by choice” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 120). According to Locke (1996), one of the requirements for goals to be effective drives for action is that they be built through free choice and commitment. The goals, according to Dörnyei, are regarded as “the 'engine' to fire the action and provide the direction in which to act” (p. 120). In this respect, while for non English majors, the subject of English was a compulsory part of their degree, for English major, it was a personal choice or drive. This personal interest in the language might have fuelled their engagement in out of class learning activities and their adoption of taking more responsibilities towards their learning.

## **6.8 Reasons behind students' beliefs about and practices of learner autonomy**

The interview questions aimed to elaborate some of the questionnaire items and explain the questionnaire findings.

### **6.8.1 Students' understanding about the concept of learner autonomy**

The first question of the interview asked the students what learner autonomy means to them. Its purpose was to explore the understanding of learner autonomy the students held. The results revealed that a vast majority (70%) of the students defined learner autonomy as *independent learning*, and most of these students agreed that the concept of learner autonomy

means learning in isolation and entirely free from the teacher. The following section includes quotations taken from the results chapter that describe students' agreement on the concept.

Learner autonomy is when someone learns by themselves ... that is, learning without guidance and instruction from teachers. (Sandi)

Learner autonomy is learning independently without involvement from the teacher. Unlike primary or secondary students, university students should not be very dependent on the teacher in their learning... they should make efforts by themselves, they should be more active searching their own learning materials instead of waiting for the teacher to provide the materials for them. (Rinjani)

In my opinion, learner autonomy is how we learn without help from teachers, that is, how we strive for learning by ourselves. (Nirina)

Similar responses were obtained in several other studies conducted in different contexts (e.g. Chan, 2001).

From the quotations above, it is evident that in their definitions of autonomy, the students excluded the role of the teacher, which is a key element of the definition of learner autonomy provided in the current literature. According to Palfreyman (2003), although the term independence is often used synonymously with autonomy, and independence from a teacher is often regarded as a noticeable sign of autonomy, current researchers suggest that a key element of the construct is that students are able to work independently but in negotiation and with support from teachers. Interactions with others and interdependence are two elements that should not be neglected in the concept. Several decades ago, Breen and Candlin (1980) highlighted the interdependence of the teacher and other learners as part of a communicative process where all parties "actively share the responsibility for learning and teaching" (p. 99). This social view of autonomy is based on the *Social Interactionism* point of view, which

suggests that people do not learn in isolation but they learn through interactions with others (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Little (1996, p. 211), the notion of collaborative learning through social interaction is fundamental for learner autonomy because it allows the development of reflective and analytic skills in learners, which “depend on the internalization of a capacity to participate fully and critically in social interactions.” Social strategies, especially cooperating with others belong to the most important learning strategies language learners use which encourage positive interdependence and mutual support, and are proven to have given significant benefits to language learners (Oxford, 1990).

Further, Palfreyman (2003, p. 4), draws attention to the individualistic connotations of learner autonomy that have led some writers to put emphasis on the importance of interdependence, or, “the ability of learners to work together for mutual benefit, and to take shared responsibility for their learning.” Little (1991) argues “Because we are social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; our essential condition is one of interdependence. Total detachment is a principal determining feature not of autonomy but of autism” (p. 5). In a similar vein, Hughes (2001, p. 5) argues:

If students are to develop independence, they need to be given the space in which to act as autonomous learners, they need freedom. However, this does not mean that to develop independent learning skills students simply need to be abandoned. Rather, a safe learning structure needs to be constructed that provides training, support and guidance from tutors and peers through the experience.

In view of this thinking, it can be inferred from the students’ responses that there was a lack of understanding about the concept of learner autonomy among the students; the concept was viewed as solitary learning excluding the role of the teacher. The social aspect is an important element in the current research’s definition of the concept of learner autonomy (e.g. Breen &

Candlin, 1980; Dam, 1995; Hughes, 2001; Little, 1996). The students' understanding of the concept of learner autonomy may be best illustrated as what Lamb (2008) refers to as a "visible, external manifestation of learner autonomy", in contrast to "a more internal, less visible construction of autonomy, in which *autonomous* learning involves a *capacity* for taking control, a knowledge of *how* to learn as well as the motivation *to* learn" (p. 271). The students' perspectives can be usefully categorised into the technical version of autonomy. In this version, according to Oxford (2003), autonomy is best described by Dickinson's (1987) definition, that is, the circumstance in which learners are totally responsible for setting and implementing the decisions concerning their learning. In full autonomy, all of the learning process is carried out without the investment of a teacher, an institution, or specifically prepared materials.

### **6.8.2 The benefits of learner autonomy in English language learning**

The students in the present study indicated a high level of agreement about the importance of learner autonomy in English learning. Among the benefits mentioned were *autonomous learning can compensate for time and resource scarcity in the classroom, learning can be more effective when students take control of their own learning, learning autonomously can broaden student knowledge, and learning can be more personalised when students take control of their own learning.*

There was an obvious agreement among 23% of the interviewed students that autonomous learning *compensates for time and resource scarcity* available in the classroom. In other words, engaging in out-of-class autonomous learning activities was believed to provide them with plenty of time and access to learning resources they could use to get the knowledge and skills they wanted. These views are in accordance with Richards' (2015) conclusions with

regard to the benefits of engaging in out-of-class learning activities. He believes, “Out-of-class activities offer a wider range of affordances for language use and second language acquisition than are generally available in the classroom. They can provide opportunities for learners to: ... have extended contact with English... make use of multimodal sources of learning” (p. 19).

The students’ comments indicating the insufficient availability of time and resources in the classroom to support their learning needs can be explained here. In the Indonesian context, time and resource scarcity have been suggested as among the factors that contribute to the ongoing problem of English teaching (Musthafa, 2001). In high schools and universities (non-English majors), the time allocated for English instruction is no more than four hours a week and the classroom is poorly resourced, as indicated by Lamb (2002, pp. 36-37):

For the majority of adolescents in developing countries, as in the developed world, school is intended to be the primary site of foreign language learning. But school classrooms obviously differ widely in the extent to which they support the learning of language. In Indonesian junior and senior high schools, pupils learn English for up to six years, but lessons are only four hours per week, take place in poorly resourced classes of 40 students or more, and may be taught by a teacher whose own L2 competence is limited.

The results also confirm the literature indications that time and resource constraints are among the reasons to promote learner autonomy (e.g. Cotterall, 1995b; Crabbe, 1993). As suggested by Cotterall (1995b), “a teacher may not always be available to assist. Learners need to be able to learn on their own because they do not always have access to the kind or amount of individual instruction they need in order to become proficient in the language” (p. 220). As for learning resources, Crabbe (1993) contends that the required resources may not be provided by society to all its members in every area of learning. Thus, learners need to be able

to provide for their own learning needs, either individually or cooperatively, so as to get the knowledge and skill they desire.

Another benefit of learner autonomy mentioned by another 23% of the students in this study was that *autonomous learning can broaden students' knowledge*. In other words, extending learning outside the class allows students to get more knowledge apart from what they obtain in the classroom. This corroborates the comments made by the students when they were asked to name the factors that support the development of learner autonomy, one of which was *to broaden their knowledge*.

*Learning can be more effective* when students take control of their own learning was another contribution of learner autonomy the students included. Students suggested that autonomous learning helped them to understand the lessons easier and provide them with the opportunity to find learning techniques which are effective for them. In addition, the students mentioned that *learning can be more personalised* if they take charge of their own learning. In this respect, the students specifically noted that out-of-class learning allows them to achieve what they want to learn. These findings confirm the benefits of learner autonomy identified in the literature (e.g. Crabbe, 1993; Dam, 1995; Little, 1991) where it is suggested that learning will be more effective and focused when one is in charge of his own learning. The findings also confirm Indonesian students' understanding and recognition of the importance of learner autonomy and this knowledge provides fertile ground for pedagogical interventions.

### **6.8.3 Characteristics of autonomous language learners**

There was obvious agreement among the interviewed students that autonomous learners possess a number of determining characteristics. A good majority (67%) agreed that

autonomous learners are *active* in their learning. Autonomous learners are those who are energetic and actively participate in classroom activities. They also seek information outside class and use different kinds of learning resources. Active students are also eager to search for knowledge beyond the classroom and practise their English with their friends. The students (20%) also considered autonomous learners to be *more knowledgeable*. The students highlighted that this characteristic can be seen through students' performance in the classroom. Autonomous learners usually know the materials that they are going to be taught, are smarter than their classmates and are able to answer questions asked by the teacher. These results confirm Dam's (1995) belief that an autonomous learner is "an active participant in the social processes of classroom learning", an "active interpreter of new information in terms of what s/he already and uniquely knows" and "knows how to learn and can use this knowledge in any learning situation s/he may encounter at any stage in his/her life" (p. 102). The students' comments covered a characteristic of autonomous learners noted by Dickinson (1993): Dickinson wrote that autonomous learners can identify what is going on and understand what is being taught.

Some (20%) of the students also mentioned that autonomous learners *show initiative* to learn both inside and outside the class. They do not merely wait for their teacher to give them learning materials to learn but instead, search for them from various resources themselves. About 17% of the interviewed students agreed that autonomous learners *make use of every opportunity to practise their English*. They engage in a variety of out-of-class learning activities, for example, reading books in their spare time and practising English with their friends. Autonomous learners were also described as those who are *more curious* and *critical*. They ask questions when they do not understand, they give examples, and sometimes they give suggestions.



All the characteristics of autonomous learners that were identified by the students in the present study have been revealed in previous studies (e.g. Chan, 2001a, 2001b). However, as with the students' understanding of the concept of learner autonomy, most of the characteristics of autonomous learners suggested by the students appeared to be more related to external observable behaviour rather than internal qualities that might encourage or motivate them to perform the actions. The literature has made clearly evident that the characteristics of autonomous learners not only consist of external observable behaviour but also internal qualities of an individual. Dickinson (1993), for example, identified five characteristics of autonomous learners, i.e. having a good understanding of what is being taught, are capable of setting their own learning objectives, are able to select and put appropriate strategies into practice for effective learning, having the capacity to monitor the use of these learning strategies, and are capable of self-assessing and monitoring their own learning. Breen and Mann (1997) suggested eight characteristics of autonomous learners, most of which are also more related to internal qualities than external observable behaviours. The qualities include: the learners' stance (their relationship with what to learn, how to learn, and what resources are available) the desire to learn, a robust sense of self (not tend to be deteriorated by any negative assessment of them or their work made by other people involved in the learning process), metacognitive capacity, management of change, independence, a capacity to negotiate, and a strategic engagement with learning.

This suggests that the students who participated in this study seemed unaware that there were personal factors that affected their ability to learn autonomously.

#### **6.8.4 Students' perceptions of their autonomous behaviour**

Although the questionnaire results indicated that the students did engage in some out-of-class activities, the majority of the students admitted that they were not autonomous learners in the interviews. This needs to be seen in the light of their limited understanding of learner autonomy. There was an obvious conformity among them regarding the reasons why they did not practise autonomous learning. *Lack of capacity to learn autonomously* was one of the most mentioned reasons among the interviewed students and there was obvious agreement that they needed guidance from the teacher. Some of the students also commented that for them *English is hard to learn*. This perceived difficulty of English clearly influenced their attitude towards English and made them not interested to learn it. For a number of students, *time shortage outside the class* was regarded as another constraint to engaging in autonomous learning. Despite the fact that an enormous amount of time is available after class, a number of students were using it for other activities including work commitments, social organisation, and doing housework and so did not have time left to learn English. Another reason offered by students for not engaging in autonomous learning was that there were *limited learning resources available*. In this respect, the students mentioned few hard copy books and a lack of interest from friends in studying together. Evidently, peer learning and group work are conditional upon other students' interest and motivation.

Despite the above mentioned problems, however, all the interviewed students indicated that they wanted to be autonomous or more autonomous learners. To achieve this, the role of the teacher is pivotal as a means of assisting students to deal with the problems. While some of the problems such as the shortage of time and learning resources are conditional on external factors, students' lack of capacity to learn autonomously, lack of interest and difficulties experienced in learning English can be addressed in the language learning classroom.

Providing the students with training in autonomous learning behaviours and motivating them are important initial steps that the teacher could take to support the students in developing their learner autonomy.

It is important to note here that, although the majority of the students in the interviews said that they were not autonomous, two students claimed that they did actually engage in out-of-class autonomous learning. One of these students made an attempt to study autonomously because she thought that learning English on her own was easier than learning with the guidance of the teacher. The other claimed that she often attended other English classes on campus that she was not enrolled in. She said she could get new knowledge from these classes as the classes were taught by different teachers. These students' comments corroborate their answers in the questionnaire in which they both rated their out-of-class autonomous learning quite high. These results indicate that, although the majority did not practise autonomous learning, there was a small minority who were determined to learn and find learning opportunities, even where learning resources are scarce. In light of this, Lamb (2002) may be correct when he claims, "Where learning opportunities are scarce, only those students most determined to learn the language actually seek them out and benefit from them" (p. 46).

#### **6.8.5 Factors that hinder and support the students' development of learner autonomy**

While a number of studies have been done to explore students' beliefs about learner autonomy, very few of these, if any, have attempted to identify both the hindering and supporting factors to the development of learner autonomy. The present research is one study to explore the possible factors that hinder and factors that support the development of autonomy in learning English as a foreign language in Indonesia. The results of the interviews revealed that there were a number of factors that hinder and a number that support the

students' development of learner autonomy. Both the hindering and the supporting factors fell into two categories, intrinsic and extrinsic.

Regarding the hindering factors, the most mentioned (53%) was the *shortage of learning resources*. The students remarked that the availability of English books both in the library and nearby bookstores was very limited. They also had limited access to digital resources in their homes, through computers and the internet. Researchers have suggested that learning resources are an important element in learner autonomy. Dickinson (1987) believed that for learner autonomy to be exercised, the required materials need to be made available in a center such as school library where learners can have access to them. Thus, adequate accessible learning materials are of importance to support students to develop their autonomous learning. Zhao and Chen (2014) showed that materials play a pivotal role in developing and breeding learner autonomy, predominantly because they motivate learners for their English study. As for the digital resources, although Internet network was available in the research site when the data were collected, it was not available to all learners in their homes.

Another hindering factor, one mentioned by 37% of the students, was an *unsupportive learning environment*. One of the unsupportive environmental factors was associated with friends' or peers' negative attitudes and behaviour towards English: such attitudes discouraged the participants from working autonomously. This matter was also identified in Lamb's (2002) study in a similar cultural context: a respondent suggested that he failed to learn English because of his unsupportive friends. In regard to this, Lamb (2002) wrote, "as if the possibility of his English learning depended on a joint agreement among his friends to do so" (p. 43). Other unsupportive environmental factors mentioned by the students included the negative effect of new technology, doing housework, and helping family members.

*Time shortage* was another factor mentioned by 33% of the interviewed students. The reasons for have a shortage of time are similar to the answers in the previous question: the students were occupied helping parents do housework, being married women, and involved in social organisations. This suggests that the limited time is more due to the students' environmental factors than the work load they carry in their educational institutions. It may be interesting to note that although some of the students suggested that they had the intention to study after class, they had to help their parents do housework. It is very common in the Indonesian context to find that children, especially women, are supposed to help their parents with in-house related work. Also, a large body of literature has suggested that students' marital status influences their autonomy (e.g. Derrick, Rovai, Ponton, Confessore, & Carr, 2007; Kashefian-Naeeni & Riazi, 2011). For example, Kashefian-Naeeni & Riazi (2011) found that marital status affected students' autonomy in that those students who were single not only obtained higher indexes of learner autonomy in comparison with married ones, but they could also get better results in self-assessment which is one of the underlying factors of autonomy.

Also, some students reported that *lack of financial support* was a hindering factor in undertaking autonomous learning. It was suggested that learning outside the class would incur costs such as the cost of buying books and gaining internet access. Lack of access to the internet may be a challenge for students in not so wealthy families. Teachers in such environment should make a bigger effort and provide a variety of resources for their students. Aside from the above factors, a small number (11%) of the students mentioned *lack of interest* in English learning. Some of these students noted that their peers' lack of interest was a demotivating factor for them.

Based on the above responses, it appears that the factors that hinder the development of learner autonomy are more extrinsic than intrinsic in nature. Only a small percentage of the respondents named *lack of interest*, an intrinsic factor, as a hindrance to developing autonomy. An enormous body of literature has suggested that environmental factors, such as peers, parents, and other social variables, are important determiners of students' motivation and self-regulated behaviour (e.g. Harvey & Chickie-Wolfe, 2007; Jackson, MacKenzie, & Hobfoll, 2000; Kagitcibasi, 1994; Littlewood, 1999; Scharle & Szabo, 2000; Wentzel, 1993, 1998, 1999; Wentzel & Watkins, 2002). Harvey and Chickie-Wolfe (2007, pp. 24-25), for example, point out that although independent learning is considered as resulting from individual goals and behaviours, it is essentially socially mediated. Self-regulation "implies that *internal* forces regulate behavior, but the ability to self-regulate is predicated upon *environmental variables* (social, physical, and economic) that are not universally available." Jackson et al. (2000, p. 282) explain this further:

Individuals may actively seek out support and maintain relationships as a way to maximize their own personal resources and increase adaptive functioning. In so doing, relationships derived from social support can provide beneficial resources for individuals, such as affection, advice, and money, that may enhance their ability to self-regulate. People depend upon and use others within their social network to accomplish goals, and cannot readily isolate themselves from their environment. Hence, self-regulation is an interdependent, social process.

As regards the support factors, *willingness to succeed* was noted by the highest number (60%) of students. The students indicated that they had high motivation to master English and had ambition to go abroad. A number also mentioned that their autonomous behaviour was affected by their *willingness to broaden their knowledge*. This suggests that motivation is an integral factor that influences student autonomy. In terms of Gardner and Lambert's (1972) types of motivation, the students' responses constitute expressions of both integrative and

instrumental motivation. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 41), integrative motivation refers to “a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community.” Instrumental motivation, by comparison, is related to “the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary.” In this respect, Ushioda (2014, p. 34) made note that:

Traditionally, reasons why people learn particular languages have been classified as instrumental or integrative orientations, reflecting either pragmatic goals (such as enhancing one’s employment prospects) or more cultural and social goals (such as seeking contact and friendship with target language speakers).

Dörnyei (2005, pp. 105-106) identifies three components as part of the construct of L2 motivation, which he identifies as *L2 Motivational Self System*: the *Ideal L2 Self* (the L2 specific aspect of one’s ideal self), the *Ought-to L2 Self* (the attributes that one believes one ought to possess), and *L2 Learning Experience* (situation-specific motives associated with the immediate learning environment and experience). The Indonesian students’ motivation to learn English can be conceptualised as being part of the *Ideal L2 Self*. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009, pp. 3-4), the ideal self “refers to the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess”, that is the representation of personal hopes, aspirations or wishes.

Besides these two factors, *to please their parents* was a motive mentioned, this time by 37% of the students. A sense of obligation to their parents due to the financial support received from them was strong for Indonesian university students. It is interesting to note that, in most, or even in all, Indonesian ethnic groups, parents play an important role in their children’s education. The students continue to be dependent on their parents in many aspects of life including financial, even during their education at university. Thus, it is very common in this

context that parents are among the reasons for students to be motivated to succeed in their education. A gratitude and responsibility towards their parents due to their financial dependency and emotional connection present strong incentive for the students. The results of the present study are in line with Wentzel's (1998) early study which indicated that perceived support from parents predicted students' academic goal orientations. It appears from the comments made in the interviews that the students related their willingness to learn to their parents' expectations and the support they provide for them, especially financial support. Ideally, parents should also provide their children with other kinds of home-based support to improve their children's learning. According to Harvey and Chickie-Wolfe (2007), this could be in form of a positive relationship, supportive beliefs and provision of learning opportunities. This cultural element needs to be further investigated in the Indonesian context and, perhaps teaching and learning may need to be reconciled with family needs.

Another frequently (23%) mentioned factor was *supportive environment*. Putri and Rendi for example, indicated that their friends or peers had an important role in the development of their autonomous learning. This seems to confirm what was noted in regard to hindering factors earlier. The students' responses confirm Harvey & Chickie-Wolfe's (2007) view that the social group to which students belong has an effect on academic effort, habits, motivation, and time spent on academic work. "Friends can provide one another with academic support, make learning more pleasurable, and increase one another's desire to succeed academically" (p. 25). Given students' acknowledgment of their peers' roles in the development of their autonomous behaviour, teachers could encourage what Lave and Wenger's (1991) called *community of practice*. In such community, learners as newcomers participate peripherally in the community with the old members, in this case it would be autonomous and proficient students. Later they become full participants of the community. This interaction, according to



Oxford (2003), can only occur if the old members are “willing to provide insider knowledge, cultural understandings, practice, and strategies to newcomers.” (p. 87). Thus, the old members play a significant role in helping the newcomers “to gain the strategies, meanings, and artifacts needed to enter the community of practice” (p. 88).

It may be worth mentioning here that students’ responses in regard to the support factors were similar to those achieved in Lamb’s (2002) study that was conducted in a similar context; the respondents mentioned, among others, willingness to succeed, their parents and friends as part of their inspiration for learning English.

With reference to the results revealed in the present study, it appeared that while both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to the hindering and supporting factors, it is noteworthy that the hindering factors tend to be extrinsic and, in contrast, the supporting factors tend to be intrinsic. Perhaps in the Indonesian context, both extrinsic and intrinsic factors should be considered when attempting to foster learner autonomy.

#### **6.8.6 What teachers should do to help students become autonomous**

It was revealed that almost all the interviewed students indicated that teachers play an important role in promoting learner autonomy. There was obvious agreement among the students regarding what teachers can do to help them become autonomous. Motivating, assigning tasks, and providing training in autonomous learning were among the themes emerging from the interviews. This empirical evidence is consistent with the results obtained in other studies (e.g. Chan, 2001b; Xu and Xu, 2004) and validates the suggestions in the literature about the role of teachers in promoting learner autonomy (e.g. Xu, 2015; Zhuang, 2010).

A considerable number (67%) of the students suggested that teachers should always motivate them in order to help them develop learner autonomy. The students thought that teacher motivation could lead to students' positive attitude towards English. Continuous motivation from the teacher might, at least to some extent, change students' attitudes toward English which, in turn, might lead to an increase in their interest in learning English. It was suggested that the way the teacher motivates can be done by sharing their past experiences in learning English or by varying their teaching methods to include such as using teaching media or doing a variety of different activities. These comments indicate the importance of the teacher role in creating a motivating atmosphere and thus encourage student motivation. This is in line with what Daniels (2010) said: "Teachers cannot *make* someone motivated, but they *can* create motivating learning environments" (p. 25). When teachers create motivating learning environments, students perform better and achieve at higher levels (Easton, 2008). A teacher's style of teaching and the use of particular teaching strategies are among teacher-associated components that can be used to influence and motivate learners (Dörnyei 1994).

It is widely accepted that motivation is a key to student success in second or foreign language learning, and that motivation has a direct positive link with autonomous learning (Spratt et al., 2002; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dickinson, 1995; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Liu, 2015; Pu, 2009; Fukuda, Sakata, & Takeuchi, 2011; Garcia & Pintrich, 1996; Ushioda, 1996). Ushioda (1996) asserted that "without motivation, there is no autonomy" (p. 40) and she believed that "the establishment of principles for developing effective motivational thinking" is an essential aspect of learner autonomy (p. 3). Oxford and Shearin (1996) maintained that motivation is a fundamental determinant of the extent to which learners are actively involved in learning a second or foreign language. As with their capacity for autonomy, learners' motivation must be viewed as "an intrinsic part of human nature, yet one which needs supportive interpersonal

interactions and an optimal learning environment in order to grow in positive ways” (McCombs, 1994, p. 59). However, it is important to note that a number of researchers (e.g. Spratt et al., 2002; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dickinson, 1987, 1995; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Ushioda, 1996) have suggested that it is autonomy that leads to motivation. Claims have been made that increasing the degree of learner control will boost the degree of self-determination, by which means overall motivation in the development of learner autonomy increases (Dickinson, 1987). Further, Dickinson (1995, pp. 173-174) in his article concluded that “There is substantial evidence from cognitive motivational studies that... enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning successes or failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control.” The direction of the relationship, however, is a matter of some dispute. Wlodkowski (2008) maintains that motivation both leads to and results from learning. He states, “Motivation is important not only because it apparently improves learning but also because it mediates learning and is a consequence of learning as well” (p. 6). The results of the present study seem to support the idea that motivation precedes autonomous actions, that motivation is a precondition for autonomy, so that teachers in the Indonesian context should also make efforts to enhance students’ motivation. In this regard, Spratt et al. (2002) suggest:

... teachers in the classroom may wish to reexamine their approaches to teaching autonomous practices. This is not to say that learner autonomy should no longer be a goal of teaching. In a learning context that necessitates life-long learning and increasingly calls for distance learning, autonomy must surely remain an important aim. However, one way to encourage autonomy may be to develop students’ motivation to learn (pp. 262-263).

In addition to motivating the students, *assigning students tasks* was another theme which was mentioned by 60% of the students in the interviews. Zaskia, for example, stated that giving

students tasks is important as it encourages the students to learn. She commented, 'If the teachers only talk in their teaching, some students may not pay attention seriously to learning but if they assign the students tasks, the students will have to work on them.' These comments suggest that it is students' preference for an engaging and communicative language classroom environment which triggers students' interest and, in turn, assists in developing learner autonomy.

The importance of tasks in the attempt to promote learner autonomy has been suggested in the literature. Mechraoui, Mechraoui, and Quadri (2014), for example, suggested that tasks have several principal advantages in English language learning: tasks encourage cooperative learning, encourage learners to make decisions concerning their learning process and to take an active role in the process, teach life-long learning skills, and encourage peer teaching and self assessment. These are important aspects for developing learner autonomy. Teachers may start with task assignment as the first step toward encouraging their students' self-development.

However, the students' responses indicated ambivalence when students were asked about the types of tasks the teacher should assign. A number thought that the teacher should assign a different task to each student in order to prevent students from copying each other's task. The student responses also suggested that asking students to work in groups would not be effective as most of the students then might not get involved in the task: it is not unusual for only one or two students to be active in a group. If tasks are assigned individually, each student would be responsible for their own task. It is interesting to note that the student responses suggest that copying others' work is common practice in this context, so that group work would not be an effective way to encourage individual student involvement in learning. Thus, assigning

different individual tasks would be a better option as a means of encouraging students to work on their own in any effort of promoting learner autonomy. The students' comments also suggest that, although Indonesian students are pictured as those who have strong inclination towards collectivism (Adiningrum & Kutieleh, 2011; Bowen, 1996; Sardjono, 2006), they preferred to work alone when it comes to learning. This learning preference was also identified in Lamb's (2002) study in the Indonesian context. This finding also made clear that students, at least some students, had a genuine willingness to develop learner autonomy.

Another suggestion the students made regarding what teachers can do to help them develop autonomy was by *providing them with training in autonomous learning*. The students indicated their preference for having teachers give examples of strategies used by successful language learners so that they could understand how to learn effectively. These comments seem to indicate that the students lack an understanding of how they can exercise autonomous learning, a matter explained previously in this chapter. In this respect, it may be worthwhile to consider Harvey and Chickie-Wolfe's (2007) statement, "While some students seem to know instinctively how to learn independently, most need to be taught both strategies and methods to implement these strategies" (p. 1). The need for providing students with training to learn within the constraints of the Indonesian context has been suggested by Lewis (1997, p. 19) who conducted a study on Indonesian students' learning styles. He states, "For teachers of Indonesian students, what is evident ... is the importance that should be placed on developing students' learning styles and strategies through appropriate educational interventions, including strategy training."

Many researchers have demonstrated that learner training is important in any effort to help students become autonomous (e.g. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; MacLeod, Butler & Syer, 1996;

Wenden, 1998). One significance of learner training is that it helps learners consider the factors that affect their learning, and also seek the learning strategies that best suit them so that they may become more effective learners and take on more responsibility for their own learning (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). Learner training also supports learners' active management of task engagement, their regulation of cognitive activities, and their building of a range of knowledge that further promotes self-regulation (MacLeod, Butler & Syer, 1996). According to Dickinson (1993), if the notion of learner autonomy implies the ability to take on more responsibility for learning, the ability must entail both strategies and confidence. Thus, training learners to act strategically and develop their confidence would enhance the efficiency of the autonomous learning process.

All in all, despite the seemingly high expectations the students place on the role of the teacher, the comments from the students indicate that promoting learner autonomy in this context is not impossible. The students' inclination to work alone when they are given appropriate tasks is a good starting point in the effort to promote learner autonomy. However, because motivation is a fundamental factor that influences students' readiness for autonomy (Spratt et al., 2002; Liu, 2015), it is important to find ways to motivate the students prior to training them to be autonomous.

## **6.9 Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed the findings of the present study in relation to existing literature about learner autonomy in English language learning. With respect to RQ 1, the students in this study viewed their teachers as central figures in their English learning; that is, the teachers were seen as being responsible for many areas of their learning. These results corroborate the results of a number of similar studies conducted in non-Western contexts. Out of thirteen

major areas of learning listed in the questionnaire, there were nine in which a considerable number of the students felt that their teacher should be ‘mainly’ responsible for. This strong tendency towards teacher dominance in student learning seems to confirm propositions made about Asian learners that there is a strong orientation towards acceptance of teacher power and authority in the classrooms; in this context, then, the orientation could be attributed to students’ previous learning experience in which teacher-centred pedagogy and rote learning had been a common practice.

The results also confirm the results achieved in a number of previous studies (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Razeq, 2014; Tamer, 2013; Üstünlüoğlu, 2009; Yıldırım, 2008) in regard to their positive views of decision-making abilities. Regarding the out-of-class activities, the results showed that the majority of the students frequently engaged in such activities as listening to English songs, watching English movies, watching English TV programs, watching videos/DVDs/VCDs, noting down new words and their meanings, reading grammar books on their own, and using the internet in English. These results are consistent with the results achieved in a number of studies conducted in the Asian and European contexts (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014) which have highlighted some similar frequently practised out-of-class activities.

The results of the Spearman’s rank correlation analyses indicate that: a) there was a significant relationship between the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities and their perceptions of their decision-making abilities. These results are consistent with the results of some previous studies (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008), b) there was a significant relationship between students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities in learning English and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class, c) there was a

significant relationship between students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class.

The results of Mann-Whitney U tests indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between female students and male students in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, or their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. Some of these results corroborate the results achieved in similar previous studies (e.g. Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014). Independent sample tests were also conducted to examine if there were any significant differences in these three variables depending on whether students were doing an English major or non-English majors. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, and in their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. However, there was no significant statistical difference between the students doing an English major and the students of non-English majors in terms of their perceptions of their decision-making abilities in their English learning.

This study investigated students' understanding about learner autonomy. It was found that Indonesian EFL university students lacked a complete understanding of the concept of learner autonomy, a concept that incorporates a role for the teacher in their learning as is the widely accepted view in current research. In their thinking the teacher role was excluded from the definition of learner autonomy. In fact, most students interviewed defined learner autonomy as *independent learning*, in which students learn in isolation without the help from the teacher. Despite this poor understanding of the concept, the students indicated a high level of agreement about the importance of learner autonomy in their English learning. The students



suggested that autonomous learning can compensate for time and resource scarcity that constrains learning in the classroom. They also believed that when students take control of their own learning, the learning can be more effective and personalised. In addition, learning autonomously can broaden student knowledge. The benefits mentioned by students confirm what other researchers have found regarding benefits and have reported in the literature (e.g. Cotterall, 1995b; Crabbe, 1993; Dam, 1995; Little, 1991; Musthafa, 2001).

The students differed in their views on the locus of responsibilities in some areas of learning. For instance, many of the respondents agreed that it is the teacher's responsibility to choose the materials for their classroom learning but the students themselves should be responsible for choosing the materials for out-of-class learning. These results corroborate the results of similar previous studies (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Üstünlüoğlu, 2009; Yıldırım, 2008). In the matter of evaluating student learning, there was obvious agreement among the majority of the interviewed students that it is the responsibility of the teacher. The reasons for this were that students lack expertise in evaluating their own learning, and the teacher is the one who is responsible for the formal classroom learning so he/she should also be responsible for evaluating student learning. However, some suggested that evaluation should be done by the students themselves, with the remainder believing that the responsibility should be equally shared between student and the teacher. These views suggest differences in learning philosophy but also a growing acceptance of independent student learning.

The students were in obvious agreement that autonomous learners possess certain characteristics, including: being active, being more knowledgeable, showing initiative, making use of every opportunity to practise their English, and being more curious and critical. These characteristics of autonomous learners are similar to characteristics identified in

previous studies (e.g. Chan, 2001a, 2001b) and the results confirm the characteristics of autonomous learners suggested by other researchers (e.g. Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1993). Despite an awareness of the characteristics of autonomous learners, a vast majority of the students explained that they were not autonomous learners. The students suggested a number of reasons for their non-autonomous behaviour, including: lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties in learning English, lack of interest in English, limited time outside the class, and the shortage of learning resources.

The results identified a number of factors that acted as hindrances and others that supported the development of students' learner autonomy. These generally fell into two categories – intrinsic and extrinsic. Among the mentioned hindering factors were *shortage of learning resources, unsupportive learning environment, shortage of time, lack of financial support, and lack of interest*. On the other hand, *willingness to succeed, to please their parents, supportive environment, and willingness to broaden knowledge* were the factors perceived to support the development of learner autonomy. It can be deduced from the responses that the hindering factors tended to be extrinsic rather than intrinsic and, in contrast, the supporting factors seem to be more intrinsic than extrinsic. On the students' perceptions of the teachers' roles in promoting learner autonomy, there was a general consensus that teachers should motivate, assign tasks, and provide training to help them develop their autonomous behaviour. This empirical evidence corroborates the results obtained in previous studies (e.g. Xu and Xu, 2004) and validates the suggestions in the literature that teachers have a role in promoting learner autonomy. In the next chapter, a summary of the main findings is given and then recommendations are made specifically in regard to the Indonesian context.

## CHAPTER 7

### CONCLUSION

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*“The illiterate of the 21st century  
will not be those who cannot read and write,  
but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn.”*

— Alvin Toffler (*The Quotations Page*, n.d.)

#### 7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented a discussion of the principal findings of the study. This chapter serves as the conclusion of the study. It first summarises how this research was conducted (7.2). It then provides a summary of the major findings (7.3). Next, the practical implications of the study are described (7.4). Then there is an acknowledgment of the limitations of the study (7.5), and with reference to the findings and limitations, recommendations for future research are made (7.6).

#### 7.2 Overview of the project

As the literature review showed, learner autonomy is an important contributor to more effective learning (e.g. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Little, 1991) increased motivation (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), enhanced language proficiency (e.g. Apple, 2011; Dincer et al., 2012; Karatas et al., 2015), and learners’ active involvement in classroom activities (Dam, 1995; Dincer et al., 2012; Rao, 2005). However, there has been debate amongst researchers over the applicability of the concept of learner autonomy in any cultural context. Some suggest that autonomy is a Western concept, and inappropriate for the Asian context, while others believe that autonomy is universal in nature and applicable to any culture. It has also been argued that learner autonomy has different manifestations, and its

implementation is influenced by the cultural context in which the learning takes place and the culture of the society to which the learner belongs. In the Indonesian context, learner autonomy has been proposed as a useful means to improve EFL language development. To contribute to the discussion on this matter and research in the field, the current research sought to investigate beliefs about learner autonomy among Indonesian university students, using a case study. The results of this study provide insights into Indonesian students' readiness for learner autonomy and help raise our understanding of the intricacies of the beliefs Indonesian students hold. They also provide answers on the ways these beliefs might shape their actual autonomous behaviour.

As indicated in Chapter 1, there were 9 research questions addressed in the present study. To search for the answers to these questions, a mixed methods approach, and specifically a sequential explanatory design, was adopted, which made it different from many previous studies which were mainly quantitative (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan, 2001b; Koçak, 2003; Rungwaraphong, 2012; Yıldırım, 2008). One of the advantages of using the mixed methods approach in a single study is that it combines the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) thus it provides both an in-depth look at context, processes, and interactions and an accurate measurement of attitudes and outcomes (Lodico et al., 2006).

In the first (quantitative) phase of the study, 402 first year students from four institutions of higher education in Jambi Province, Indonesia, completed a questionnaire; from these students 30 were selectively recruited for the interviews of the second (qualitative) phase. The reason for choosing Jambi province was for data accessibility purpose, as the researcher works at one of these institutions. Also, a case study approach was utilised because it was

deemed appropriate for addressing the large population of Indonesia and for providing focused results. In accordance with the nature of the sequential explanatory design, the quantitative data were collected and analysed first, followed by the collection and the analysis of the qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses using SPSS were conducted for the quantitative data, and a thematic analysis, following the steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006), was employed to analyse the qualitative data. A summary of the major findings of this study is presented in the following sections.

### **7.3 Summary of major findings**

#### *Students' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities (RQ 1)*

The results demonstrate that Indonesian EFL university students view their teachers as central figures in their English language learning. In other words, they prefer their teachers to take on responsibilities for student learning in many areas. These results were consistent with those revealed in similar studies conducted in non-Western contexts, for example in the studies of Chan (2001b) and Chan et al. (2002) in Hong Kong, Farahani (2014) in Iran, Koçak (2003) and Üstünlüoğlu (2009) in Turkey, Razeq (2014) in Palestine, Rungwaraphong (2012) in Thailand, and Tamer (2013) in Saudi Arabia. In the interview, however, the students gave responses which showed an ambivalence with regard to the locus of responsibilities in their learning. Some said that the responsibilities should be more on the teacher, others said they should be more on the students, while the remainder believed that both the teacher and the students should share equal responsibilities. There was general agreement among the interviewed students, however, that teacher should take more responsibility for inside the class learning while the students should be more responsible for outside the class learning activities.

The students' strong inclination towards teacher control in their learning as revealed in the questionnaire results seems to conform with suggestions made about Asian learners that they are inclined towards acceptance of teacher power and authority in the classrooms (e.g. Chan 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Evans, 1996; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Jones, 1995; Littlewood, 1999; Triandis, 1995, Webster, 1988). This is perhaps explained by the fact that the students have been used to the teacher-centred pedagogy and rote learning, which have long been common practice in the Indonesian context (Azra, 2002; Bjork, 2005; Darmaningtyas, 2004; Siegel, 1986). To some extent, the teacher-centred pedagogy has roots in the philosophical and cultural values existing in the wider Indonesian societies, where children are not encouraged to express their views, especially views that oppose their elders' (Dardjowidjojo, 2001). In the school context, according to Dardjowidjojo, the teacher is regarded as a school-time parent, that is, as "a figure whom we must trust and whose behavior we must follow" (p. 315). This, to a large extent, may be a reason why Indonesian students have been described as passive, shy, and quiet learners (Exley, 2005). Another explanation might be associated with students' lack of knowledge and ability to take the responsibilities, and the acknowledgment of and expectations about their teacher expertise, as also confirmed in the follow-up interviews. Despite the strong preference for teacher control, there was obvious agreement among the students on the importance of sharing the responsibilities with their teachers in three areas, specifically *making them work harder*, *stimulating their interest in learning English*, and *evaluating their learning*. Interestingly, in the interviews, most of the students reported preferring teachers to evaluate their learning. This contradiction needs to be further investigated in future research.

### *Students' perceptions of their decision-making abilities (RQ 2)*

The results revealed that most students viewed their decision-making abilities positively both for inside and outside the class. These results corroborate the results of other studies conducted in various countries or contexts such as Hong Kong, Turkey, Palestine, and Saudi Arabia, and Iran (e.g. Ahmadi, 2012; Chan 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Farahani, 2014; Razeq, 2014; Tamer, 2013; Üstünlüoğlu, 2009; Yıldırım, 2008). These positive views could be attributed to students' age and maturity, which may have been a means of developing their understanding of learner autonomy and helped them feel confident to exercise autonomy related activities.

One interesting point to note is that more students seemed to consider that they were better in their abilities for inside the class activities than for outside the class activities: more students chose the 'good' or 'very good' categories for inside the class activities and the 'OK' category for outside the class activities. These results were surprising considering that the nature of the teaching and learning practice in the Indonesian context is very teacher-centred: the teacher is responsible for all classroom teaching and learning process such as providing materials, choosing learning activities and deciding learning objectives. These results corroborate the results obtained in other studies in different contexts (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Farahani, 2014; Yıldırım, 2008).

### *Students' autonomous English learning activities outside and inside the class (RQ 3)*

The students indicated that they did engage, at least to some extent, in autonomous English learning activities outside the class. Of 22 out-of-class learning activities, 9 were activities 'sometimes' or 'often' practised by more than half of the students, and 4 of these were indicated as 'often' practised by more than 40% of the students; they are *listening to English*

*songs, watching English movies, watching videos/DVDs/VCDs, and watching English TV programs.* These results are consistent with the results achieved in a number of studies conducted in different contexts (e.g. Chan et al., 2002; Koçak, 2003; Pearson, 2003; Razeq, 2014; Tamer, 2013) which have generally highlighted some similar out-of-class activities frequently practised by a majority of the students; most of the activities involved receptive rather than productive activities. Interestingly, all four activities involve the use of technology, which were similar findings to those achieved in Ardi's (2013) study in the Indonesian context. This may indicate how the advancements of technology have provided access to various English programs and have facilitated student language learning taking place without the presence of a teacher. Thus, it is imperative for teachers to consider providing the students with training on how to make the most of such resources for English language learning in Indonesia.

The results also showed that more than half of the students 'often' or 'sometimes' noted down new words and their meanings, read grammar books on their own and practised using English with friends. It is important to note that these activities are concerned more with productive functions compared to most of the above mentioned activities that are receptive and for entertainment purpose, such as listening to English songs, watching English movies, English TV programs, videos/DVDs/VCDs. The students' engagement in these types of activities may indicate that students do make deliberate efforts to learn English.

On the contrary, the 13 other activities were less practised by the majority of the students. Of these activities there were 7 'never' practised by more than one third of the students, i.e. *attending meetings in English, writing a diary in English, talking to foreigners in English, sending e-mails in English, and listening to English radio.* There were also a number of



activities that a considerable number of the students indicated that they ‘rarely’ practised; among others these were: *reading books or magazines in English*, *went to see the teacher about their work*, and *read newspapers in English*. The low frequency of practice in some of the activities could be due to the scarcity of resources around the students’ environments, such as foreigners and English radio. The low frequency in other activities such as *attending meetings in English*, *writing a diary in English*, *sending e-mails in English*, *reading books or magazines in English*, and *going to see the teacher about their work* may indicate that these learning activities are not a common part of students’ learning experiences in this context. Besides, and this was indicated in the interviews, this low frequency of autonomous practice could be attributed to several other factors including the challenging nature of English, students’ lack of interest in English, limited time outside the class, and shortage of learning resources.

In regard to inside the class activities, the majority of the students claimed that they ‘sometimes’ or ‘often’ practised three out of the five activities included in the questionnaire. They are *asking the teacher questions when you don’t understand*, *noting down new information*, and *discussing learning problems with classmates*. This could be attributed to what Littlewood (1999) called ‘reactive autonomy’, a situation in which learners will regulate the activities once the direction has been set, or, the students will get involved in the activities once they have been initiated by the teacher or the curriculum. According to Littlewood (1999), although proactive autonomy has been suggested as the only type that counts, the concept of reactive autonomy is useful to consider in educational contexts because it may be a beginning step towards proactive autonomy or a goal in its own right. Moreover, this evidence of the students taking some initiative in some inside the class activities is promising with regard to their attitudes to learning autonomously.

However, in regard to inside the class activities, the vast majority of students indicated that they ‘never’ or ‘rarely’ made suggestions to the teacher. This result is similar to those achieved in Chan et al.’s (2002) study in the Hong Kong setting. This could be that this kind of learning style is not common practice for these students, which may be attributed to the culture existing in a context where expressing views, especially those that are different from their elders’, is regarded as culturally inappropriate behaviour (Dardjowidjojo, 2001). Hence, the teachers intending to develop students’ learner autonomy could do well to encourage this behaviour in their classroom. However, care must be taken when introducing these ideas in the classroom as some of them may be opposed to, and considered inappropriate in, this context given the culture of respect towards teachers. Teachers may need to allow a transition period and encourage negotiation with students.

*Relationships among students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class (RQs 4, 5, and 6)*

A Spearman’s rank correlation analysis revealed that there was a moderate positive relationship between students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities and their decision-making abilities (RQ 4). This means that the greater the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, the greater their perceptions of their decision-making abilities, or vice versa. As for RQ 5, similarly, the analysis revealed a moderate positive relationship between students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. In other words, the higher the students’ perceptions of their own responsibilities, the more frequently they reported engaging in English learning activities outside the class, or vice versa. A positive but weak relationship was also found between students’ perceptions of their decision-making abilities and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class (RQ 6), which also indicates that the greater the students’ perceptions of their decision-making abilities, the more frequently they engage in English

learning activities outside the class, or vice versa. Knowledge of these positive links is important for teachers to have so that they can help students become more responsible in their learning by designing autonomy-supportive activities in the classroom and encouraging students' engagement in out-of-class learning activities.

*Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class with regard to gender (RQ 7)*

To search for answers to RQ 7, three different Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The analyses demonstrated that there were no significant differences between females and males in their perceptions of their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, and their autonomous English learning activities outside the class. Similar results regarding the differences between some of these variables were found in previous similar studies in different cultural contexts (e.g. Koçak, 2003; Razeq, 2014) but were contradictory to some other similar studies (e.g. Varol & Yilmaz, 2010). Due to the inconclusive results, further research may be needed in this area.

*Differences in the students' perceptions of their own responsibilities, decision-making abilities, and autonomous English learning activities outside the class between the students of the English major and the students of non-English majors (RQ 8)*

The results of Mann-Whitney U tests indicated that the levels of the perceptions of the responsibilities and autonomous English learning activities of the students doing an English major were significantly higher than those of the students of non-English majors. Conversely, in regard to students' perceptions of decision-making abilities, it was found that the level of the decision-making abilities of the students of the non-English majors was higher than that of the students of English majors. However, the difference was not significant.

This suggests that the students doing an English major tend to accept more responsibilities in their English learning. It may be that, unlike the students of non-English majors, the students of an English major are expected to have a strong motivation for learning English as they chose the career of English language teachers, and thus they assume greater responsibility for their English learning compared to those of non-English majors. As mentioned in the previous chapter, motivation is an essential determinant of the extent to which learners are actively involved in learning a second and foreign language. This confirms Locke and Latham's *goal-setting theory* (e.g. Locke & Latham, 1994) asserting that human action is stimulated by purpose, and for action to happen, “goals have to be set and pursued by choice” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 120). This is one of the novel findings of this research, as this has not been reported in other studies. It would be interesting for future researchers to probe the English major students’ learning preferences and motivation and find out the reasons behind the differences between their preferences and those of other students.

#### *Reasons behind students’ beliefs and practices on learner autonomy (RQ 9)*

One important finding indicated in the interviews was that, in general, the students had a limited understanding of the concept of learner autonomy. Most of the students defined learner autonomy as independent learning and associated it with learning in isolation and entirely free from the help of the teacher. The students clearly excluded the role of the teacher in their definitions of learner autonomy but it is a key element in the definitions of learner autonomy provided in the current literature (e.g. Breen & Candlin, 1980; Dam, 1995; Hughes, 2001; Little, 1996). Coupled with their cultural tendency not to ask their teachers for guidance, it explains their limited effort in undertaking out-of-class activities. This suggests that teachers can begin by developing a closer relationship with the students and encouraging

student involvement in the classroom. They could also introduce strategies and tasks fostering learner autonomy. These suggestions will be discussed in more detail in Section 7.4.

Almost all of the students regarded learner autonomy as an important element for facilitating English learning. The students believed that they would benefit from learner autonomy in a number of ways, particularly: compensating for time and resource scarcity, broadening knowledge, and more effective and personalised learning. Some of these findings confirmed the benefits of learner autonomy identified in the literature (e.g. Crabbe, 1993; Dam, 1995; Little, 1991). The students also mentioned the characteristics of autonomous learners, that are among others: being active, being more knowledgeable, showing initiative, making use of every opportunity to practise their English, and being more curious and critical. Some of the suggested characteristics are in line with suggestions on this matter made in the literature (e.g. Chan, 2001a, 2001b; Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1993).

A vast majority of the interviewed students indicated that they were not autonomous. This was attributed to a number of reasons which included: a lack of capacity to learn autonomously, difficulties experienced in learning English, lack of interest in English, limited time outside the class, and shortage of learning resources. Despite these problems, however, all of the interviewed students claimed that they wanted to be autonomous or more autonomous learners. Thus, the role of the teacher is pivotal in helping the students to deal with these problems. Although some of these problems are influenced by external factors, some other problems, such as the students' lack of capacity to learn autonomously, lack of interest, and difficulties experienced in learning English can be addressed by the teacher in the classroom. Providing training on autonomous learning and motivating the students would be important preliminary steps for the teacher to take as a way to support students' learner

autonomy development. Such training will be further discussed in the practical implications section.

Although the majority of the students in the interviews said that they were not autonomous, a few students claimed that they often engaged in out-of-class autonomous English learning activities. This may indicate that there are a few students who are determined to learn and find learning opportunities, despite the many challenges. This was anticipated in light of Lamb's (2002) comment that: "Where learning opportunities are scarce, only those students most determined to learn the language actually seek them out and benefit from them" (p. 46).

The interviews also revealed factors that hinder and support the development of students' learner autonomy. These provide useful suggestions for teachers to utilise in the classroom. Among the mentioned hindering factors were: shortage of learning resources, unsupportive learning environment, time scarcity, lack of financial support, and lack of interest. The shortage of learning resources was found to be related to the limited availability of learning materials such as books and digital resources, for example computers and the internet, which, according to Zhao and Chen (2014), play a pivotal role in autonomy, predominantly when it comes to learners' motivation for English study. The learning environment factors that were not supportive but rather hindrances were associated with the influence of a student's peers or friends with negative attitudes and behaviour towards learning English, which could also discourage them from working autonomously. Other hindrances in the environment were the negative influences of technology, such as excessive playing on games and the internet, doing housework, and helping family members. The time scarcity is also, to some extent, an environment factor as it refers to students' commitment to helping parents, being a married woman, and involvement in out of campus social organisations. The lack of financial support

was associated with the fact that out-of-class activities would incur cost such as the buying of books and getting access to the internet. Finally, the lack of interest was to some extent influenced by peers' lack of interest in English which was found to de-motivate the participants. The students' responses corroborate a large body of literature that suggest environmental factors are important determiners of students' motivation and self-regulated behaviour (e.g. Harvey & Chickie-Wolfe, 2007; Jackson et al., 2000; Kagitcibasi, 1994; Littlewood, 1999; Scharle & Szabo, 2000; Wentzel, 1993, 1998, 1999; Wentzel & Watkins, 2002). Self-regulation "implies that *internal* forces regulate behavior, but the ability to self-regulate is predicated upon *environmental variables* (social, physical, and economic) that are not universally available" (Harvey & Chickie-Wolfe, 2007, pp. 24-25). "...People depend upon and use others within their social network to accomplish goals, and cannot readily isolate themselves from their environment. Hence, self-regulation is an interdependent, social process" (Jackson et al., 2000, p. 282).

In terms of supportive factors, the students mentioned *willingness to succeed*, *to please their parents*, *willingness to broaden knowledge*, and *supportive environment*. *Willingness to succeed* was associated with students' high motivation to master English and an intention to go abroad. The students' practice of autonomous English learning was also affected by their *willingness to broaden their knowledge*. *To please their parents* was related to the students' sense of obligation to pay back their parents' support, including financial, with their success. Another factor mentioned was *supportive environment* such as friends or peers. It has been acknowledged in the literature that the social group where students belong has an effect on academic effort, habits, motivation, and time spent on academic work. "Friends can provide one another with academic support, make learning more pleasurable, and increase one another's desire to succeed academically" (Harvey & Chickie-Wolfe, 2007, p. 25).

It is evident that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to hindering and supporting the development of learner autonomy. However, the hindering factors tended to be extrinsic rather than intrinsic and, in contrast, the supporting factors seem to be more intrinsic than extrinsic. This suggests that in the Indonesian context, both extrinsic and intrinsic factors should be considered in any attempts to promote learner autonomy.

On the matter of students' perceptions of the teachers' roles in promoting learner autonomy, there was a general consensus that teachers should motivate students, assign tasks, and provide training to help the students develop their autonomous behaviour. This empirical evidence corroborates the results obtained in studies in the Asian, especially the Chinese context (e.g. Dişlen, 2011; Xu, 2015; Xu and Xu, 2004; Yan, 2004) and validates the suggestions made in the literature about the role of teachers in promoting learner autonomy. The students highlighted that continuous motivation from the teacher might, at least to some extent, change their attitudes and increase their interest in learning English. The way the teacher motivates can be done by sharing their own English learning experiences or by varying their teaching methods such as by using teaching media or doing a variety of different activities. This corroborates what Daniels (2010) said, namely that teachers cannot make their students motivated but they can create motivating learning environments. This is also related to Dörnyei's (1994) statement suggesting that a teacher's style of teaching and the use of particular teaching strategies are among teacher-associated components that influence learners.

As for the types of tasks the teacher should assign, the students gave ambivalent responses. The majority agreed that the teacher should assign a different task to each student in order to prevent students from copying each other's task. The students also indicated that working in



groups would not be effective as most of the students might not get involved doing the group task. If tasks are assigned individually, each student is responsible for their own task. It is interesting to note that the student responses suggest that copying others' work is common practice in this context. Group work therefore would not be an effective way to encourage individual student involvement. The students' comments also suggested that, although Indonesian students are pictured as those who have strong inclination towards collectivism (Adiningrum & Kutieleh, 2011; Bowen, 1996; Sardjono, 2006), they preferred to work on their own when it comes to learning. This learning preference was also identified in Lamb's (2002) study in a similar context. This means that students had strong willingness to become independent language learners and the teachers need to take into account these constraints if they are to assist the students.

On learner training in autonomous learning, the students indicated their preference for examples of strategies used by successful language learners. This may indicate the students' lack of understanding of autonomous learning. The need for providing students with training in the Indonesian context has been suggested by Lewis (1997, p. 19) who conducted a study on Indonesian students' learning styles. He wrote: "For teachers of Indonesian students, what is evident ... is the importance that should be placed on developing students' learning styles and strategies through appropriate educational interventions, including strategy training." The purpose of the following section then is providing recommendations for the Indonesian context.

An example of the nature of learning opportunities aimed to foster learner autonomy was described by Cotterall and Murray (2009, p. 36) in the context of their research conducted at an English for Academic Purposes program at a university in Japan. In the program, the

students were required to take a course whose main objectives were to give students opportunities to develop their language proficiency aspects which they feel they need to improve, and to develop their metacognitive knowledge and skills. To meet these objectives, the students were asked to design and perform their learning plans. First, the students improved their language skills by working directly with language materials. Second, the students were provided with instruction in learning strategies in mini-lessons at the beginning of each session. This was done to ensure that the students possessed the necessary knowledge and skills to use the materials effectively and efficiently. Third, portfolios played a crucial role in the management, monitoring, and assessment of learning, in which students kept evidence of learning and other evidence derived from their efforts to design and implement self-assessment strategies. Fourth, the students were continuously encouraged to carry out self-assessment, with final grades determined through a process of collaborative evaluation in accordance with a rubric of performance criteria. Finally, instructors adopted the role of facilitators of learning and language advisors rather than taking the role of ‘teacher’.

## **7.4 Practical implications**

Based on the findings of this study, a number of suggestions can be made for the introduction and potential of learner autonomy at the university level in the Indonesian context.

### **7.4.1 Learner training**

Given that the teacher has an important role to play in the effort to promote learner autonomy, focusing on what the teacher can do to help students develop their autonomy is imperative. What this study reveals is students lack understanding of the concept learner autonomy, which calls for teachers’ attention to the need for helping the students to first understand and then develop their autonomy. However, it should be acknowledged that shifting control from the

teacher to the students whose learning styles have been deeply rooted in teacher-centred pedagogies and rote learning practices is not an easy task. A gradual transition may be needed to make them aware of the benefit of learner autonomy, recognise their beliefs and abilities in the process, and allow them to take responsibilities. Little (2007, p. 26) indicates “Learner autonomy is the product of an interactive process in which the teacher gradually enlarges the scope of her learners’ autonomy by gradually allowing them more control of the process and content of their learning.” Hence, learner training, used interchangeably with strategy training or learning-to-learn training (Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007), is needed as an intermediary phase during which control is gradually transferred from the teacher to students.

Learner training refers to “the learning activities organized to help language learners improve their skills as learners; includes learning to use strategies; knowledge about the language learning process; and attitude and development to support autonomous use of the strategies and knowledge; learner education” (Wenden, 1991, p. 163)

Wenden (1998) suggests that learner training should aim primarily to help learners attain the three self-directed language learning skills referred to in adult education – planning, monitoring and evaluating. The contents of learner training should address the know-how for learning and strategies for managing learning; it could also be expanded to two sets of skills or strategies: metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are used in the management of learning which, in fact, is another term for the three self-directed language learning skills. Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, are psychological steps or procedures that are employed in the processing of learning. According to Wenden, these strategies “enable learners to deal effectively with language input by enabling them to (1) attend to incoming information (2) comprehend what they attend to (3) store this new learning in long

term memory so that (4) retrieval is facilitated” (p. 5). Such training can bring about change and develop students’ awareness of self development.

Various models of learner training have been developed to help learners learn (e.g. Chamot & O’Malley, 1986, 1987, 1996; Cohen, 1998; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Grow, 1991; Rubin & Thompson, 1994). Chamot and O’Malley (1986, 1987, 1996) proposed a model they labelled *The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach* (CALLA). With this model, lessons consist of both teacher-directed and learner-centred activities, in which each of the lessons is divided into five stages: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion activities.

#### *Stage 1 Preparation*

The preparation stage aims to facilitate students’ awareness of their prior knowledge of a topic and the strategies they are already employing for the accomplishment of a task. This stage assists students in developing their metacognitive awareness of the relations between their own mental processes and effective content and language learning. Once the students’ prior knowledge about both content and learning strategies is identified, the teachers can then identify students’ instructional needs. This was one of the suggestions made by the students and it is highly appropriate in this context. The learning strategies most generally trained in this stage include elaboration (students recall prior knowledge), advance organisation (students preview the lesson), and selective attention (students focus on key vocabulary and concepts to be introduced in the lesson).

### *Stage 2 Presentation*

The focus of this stage is on conveying new information to students, including new concepts, new language, and new strategies. One example of how the teacher conveys new information to students is by modeling their own language and use of the strategy by thinking aloud. This type of modeling helps students envisage themselves working successfully on a similar task. The learning strategies trained in this stage include: selective attention while listening or reading (attending to or scanning for key ideas), self-monitoring (checking one's degree of comprehension), inferencing (guessing meaning from context), elaboration (relating new information to prior knowledge), note taking, imagery (imagining descriptions or events presented), and questioning for clarification.

### *Stage 3 Practice*

This stage provides the opportunity for students to employ new information actively, practise oral and written academic language, and apply learning strategies with a classroom activity. In this phase, the learning strategies commonly trained are: self-monitoring, organisational planning (planning how to develop an oral or written report or composition), resourcing (using reference materials), grouping (classifying concepts, events, and terminology), summarising, deduction (using a rule to understand or produce language or to solve a problem), imagery (making sketches, diagrams, charts), auditory representation (playing back mentally information presented by the teacher), elaboration, inferencing, cooperation, and questioning for clarification. These strategies can assist with the development of autonomous skills.

#### *Stage 4 Evaluation*

In this stage, students have the opportunity to evaluate their success, which leads to the development of the metacognitive awareness of their learning processes and achievements. This self-evaluation stage can emphasise students' understanding of the lesson's content, their awareness of their own language use, their judgments of the strategies that have helped them, or any blend of lesson components. Examples of activities that can be used in this stage include debriefing discussions, learning logs containing records of what the students have learned and the results of their learning strategy applications, checklists of content, language, and strategies used, and open-ended questionnaires where students express views about lesson and practice activities. Learning strategies commonly practised in this stage are: self-evaluation, elaboration, questioning for clarification, cooperation, and self-talk (assuring oneself of one's ability to accomplish the task).

#### *Stage 5 Expansion*

In this stage, students transfer new strategies to new contexts. They are given opportunities to think about the new concepts and skills they have learned, assimilate them into their existing knowledge frameworks, apply them in real world contexts, and continue to develop academic language. This stage also allows students to practise higher order thinking skills such as inferring new applications of a concept, analysing the components of a learning activity, drawing parallels with other concepts, and evaluating the value of a concept or new skill. In the expansion activities of a CALLA lesson, any combination of learning strategies appropriate to the activities can be practised. "By this stage, the goal of learning strategies instruction has been accomplished, for students have become independently strategic and are able to reflect on and control their own learning" (Chamot and O'Malley, 1996, p. 270).

Teachers in the Indonesian context can develop a range of tasks for students to apply outside the class.

Another model of learner training was given by Grenfell and Harris (1999), consisting of a cycle of six steps of learning strategy instructions. The six steps are: awareness raising, modeling, general practice, action planning, focused practice, and evaluation. Awareness raising aims to encourage learners to reflect on the learning process. In this step, the students complete a task, and then are asked to identify the strategies they used. In the second step, the teacher models other strategies that are less familiar to the students and discuss the value of the new strategies. In the next step, general practice, the students practise completing a task using a new strategies. The fourth step, action planning, is concerned with goal setting and monitoring. The students are asked to set their goals and identify which strategies are most appropriate to them. In step five, focused practice, the students perform their individual action plan. Explicit clues to use particular strategies are faded out step by step until the students are reminded to employ the strategies they previously identified. The aim of this is that the students “should reach a stage where they have successfully internalised the strategies and can draw on them automatically, without prompting from the teacher” (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 80). The last step, evaluation, is the step where the teacher and students establish whether the strategies have been incorporated and can be used effectively. If the anticipated progress has been made, a new cycle of action plan can commence with a new focus (Grenfell & Harris, 1999). After all, strategy training is an example of process-based objectives which are necessary for learner language development (Richards, 2001).

It is imperative that teachers utilise these models in directing strategy training in the Indonesian EFL classroom if teachers are to assist students to be successful independent

language learners. Teachers should also be made aware of the students learning styles and preferences in order to enable them to motivate students and design activities appropriate for the students' circumstances.

#### **7.4.2 Teacher Training**

There has been general acceptance that incorporating strategy training into a language curriculum involves fundamental changes in teachers' attitudes and habits. This is particularly important for the Indonesian context where teachers have been considered 'authorities' and managers in the classroom. According to Wenden (1998), one of the most important changes requires teachers to learn to put emphasis on learning rather than teaching and to see themselves as co-responsible for the learning process with the learner. Among the new roles that a teacher should consider adopting are resource person, facilitator, expert sharing secrets of learning with their learners, catalyst, helper, and ideas or rational person. These new roles, according to Wenden, will necessitate teachers being able, motivated and informed. Thus, like their learners, they will need to revise their understanding of teaching and learning so need to be provided with attitudinal and methodological training.

As mentioned already in the literature review, the development of learner autonomy is dependent upon the development of teacher autonomy. In other words, teachers should be autonomous themselves before they can give training to their students. As Little (2007, p. 27) points out:

First, 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 secondly, that in determining the initiatives they take in the classroom, teachers must be able to exploit their professional skills autonomously, applying to their teaching those same reflective and self-managing processes that they apply to their learning.



Therefore, an awareness of the need to provide organised, well-informed strategy training would lead the teachers who have inadequate knowledge on strategy training to update their knowledge and skills either through self-study or professional development programs.

In the institutions of higher education, especially in the English teaching programs, training on learner autonomy should be given to pre-service teachers. In this respect, trainee teachers should be provided with the skills to promote autonomy in the learners and be given first-hand experience of learner autonomy in their training (Little, 1995). If teachers are to take this task seriously, pre-service courses need to employ and introduce pre-service teachers to communicative and learner-centred methods, focusing on lifelong learning skills. As Little (1995) proposed:

... teacher education should be subject to the same processes of negotiation as are required for the promotion of learner autonomy in the language classroom. Aims and learning targets, course content, the ways in which course content is mediated, learning tasks and the assessment of learner achievement must all be negotiated. (p. 180)

In other words, besides training, pre-service teachers should be provided with the opportunity to experience learner autonomy themselves before they train their prospective students to become autonomous learners.

Additionally, the information on how to prepare and implement strategy training can also be propagated through professional development workshops and seminars facilitated by the institutions.

### **7.4.3 Recommendations for classroom and teaching materials**

Besides this learner and teacher training, there are several measures that teachers can take in the classroom to assist students in the development of learner autonomy.

It should be acknowledged that setting up subjects specifically allocated to strategy training is more desirable to give thorough training to help students become autonomous. This is especially true for students in the English language major, as they are prepared to be English teachers. Rigorous training not only would enhance their autonomous ability for their own learning as pre-service teachers but also enhance their professional development giving them knowledge and skills they could apply in their teaching in the future. However, if integrating strategy training into teaching materials is the only choice, adopting learner-centred approaches along with the strategy training would be required for attempting to promote learner autonomy in the classroom. According to Chamot (1994), strategy training integrated with pedagogical tasks, means students could be trained to use one or more cognitive strategies for a specific classroom task as opposed to having separate strategy instruction. In this respect, the training, according to Wenden (1998), is supplementary to language instruction. “The strategies are included in the syllabus to facilitate the doing of language learning task that contributes to the achievement of the objectives of the language instruction” (p. 12).

The students in the interviews voiced their concerns about unengaging classroom activities and lack of motivation. It is important that teachers employ a range of innovative techniques and materials in the classroom to nurture students’ interest and increase student motivation for learning. Teachers could integrate a variety of authentic and semi-authentic tasks, and also communicative tasks such as discussions, games, and role plays to encourage student

collaboration and participation. This can be expected to gradually lead to students taking more active roles and responsibility in the classroom and develop their own individual strategies of learning autonomously. Teachers could also talk about the concept of learner autonomy in the classroom and generate discussions that allow the students to contribute to their understanding of learner autonomy.

The students in the interviews recommended that teachers assign several out-of-class tasks to students. This could include a portfolios/an e-portfolio of learning activities that could be part of students' assessment. Teachers could also utilise self- and peer-assessment activities outside the class as this has the potential to boost student confidence, encourage their involvement, responsibility, reflection, and deep approach to learning, and provide them with the opportunity for formative assessment (Orsmond, 2004; Spiller, 2012).

The results in this study highlighted students' engagement in digital resources and social media. The advances of technology provide an abundance of resources that could be utilised by teachers to promote English language learning outside the class. Teachers could, for example, employ a Facebook page or chat room to enable students to interact with their teachers and peers about the learning that takes place in the classroom. Drawing the students' attention to the benefits of the internet and technology would be a step toward increasing their motivation in language learning and discovering a range of online resources that would likely trigger students' excitement and interest, which in turn would lead to autonomous learning.

Since social interaction is an integral part in the development of learner autonomy (Harvey and Chickie-Wolfe, 2007; Little, 1991; Oxford, 2003), teachers should encourage more social interaction and collaboration among students either inside or outside the classroom or both.

Interaction could also be pursued through social media or digital resources such as through English language learning groups on social media or e-tandem language learning, in which two speakers of different mother tongues communicate and give feedback to each other via online communication means with the purpose of learning each other's language (Lewis & O'Dowd, 2016).

### **7.5 Limitations of the study**

As with any research, it is important to acknowledge that this study has some limitations. The first limitation is the fact that the study involved a small number of institutions of higher education and the participating institutions were located in only one of the provinces in Indonesia. The inclusion of more universities from different geographical areas could have increased the representativeness of the study and may have increased the generalisability of the findings.

Secondly, the data of the present study were collected through student reporting, especially questionnaire and interviews. While this is a limitation, the careful design of the study, the piloting of the instruments prior to the main data collection and the mixed methods design of this research contributed to the validity of the findings. Collecting data employing other types of instruments such as observations, learner diaries, classroom recordings, and portfolios could have given more detailed information about the students' autonomous English learning realities.

Third, as the quantitative data was exclusively based on questionnaires, we also have to acknowledge that there was a possibility of students' fraudulence or self-overrating when completing the questionnaires. However, efforts were made to diminish such possibility by

advising the participants prior to the distribution of the questionnaire to complete the questionnaire as truthfully as possible.

## **7.6 Recommendations for future research**

Despite the limitations, the present study provides a better understanding of EFL university students' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Indonesian context. Moreover, it has identified the following potential lines of inquiry that future research should explore.

1. The study involved only a small number of institutions of higher education located in a province in Indonesia. It is recommended that future research include a bigger range of universities from different geographical areas in Indonesia to increase the level of representativeness of the study and to provide a more comprehensive picture of Indonesian university students' beliefs about learner autonomy.
2. The data of the present research were gathered only from students learning English. Future research should investigate English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy, which will provide information on teacher readiness to promote learner autonomy.
3. The data of the present research were gathered through a questionnaire and interviews. Future research should employ additional data collection instruments such as observation, learner diaries, classroom recordings, and portfolios to offer a more detailed picture of students learning realities.
4. The quantitative part of this study examined learner autonomy as it relates to two variables: gender and major of study. Future research could usefully explore the relationships between learner autonomy and other variables such as geographical areas, proficiency levels, socio-economic background, and personality traits to give a better picture of the factors that potentially affect learner autonomy.

5. Future research may extend its scope to younger students such as those of junior and senior high school to give a better understanding of students' perspectives on learner autonomy. More information on this topic could assist efforts to promote learner autonomy, implement appropriate tasks and strategies to promote it as early as possible.

## **7.7 Conclusion**

This study investigated EFL university students' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Indonesian context. It is one of the very few, if not the first, systematic inquiry that investigated students' beliefs about learner autonomy in this context, with the intention of providing a reflection of their readiness for autonomous learning. This study also extended previous research on students' readiness to developing learner autonomy, especially in the Asian context. It directly addressed the debate about autonomy being culturally conditioned by suggesting that Indonesian students had a willingness and interest in developing learner autonomy, despite the cultural traditions. The results of this study revealed that the Indonesian students viewed their teachers as being responsible for many areas of learning even when they had positive views about their decision-making abilities. The results also demonstrated that the students did engage in autonomous English learning activities outside the class to some extent. However, many of the activities frequently exercised by the majority of the students were associated more with receptive language skills than productive skills. The results are explained by the cultural elements of teaching, which expect students to respect the teachers' roles. The results also indicated that the students in the present study had a lack of understanding of the concept of learner autonomy; they excluded the role of the teacher from the definition of learner autonomy. A vast majority viewed learner autonomy as learning independently, in isolation and without help from the teacher. This misconception may have

affected their perceptions of their readiness and their levels of learner autonomy. The students also acknowledged the benefits of autonomous learning and were aware of the characteristics of autonomous learners. Attributed to a number of problems, the students claimed in the interviews that they were not autonomous in their English language learning. However, all of the students indicated their willingness to be autonomous or more autonomous learners. The study also identified a number of factors that hinder and support the development of learner autonomy as well as students' expectations of what the teacher can do to help them develop their autonomy. These factors formed the basis for offering recommendations for the teaching and learning context.

The evidence that the students did engage, to some extent, in autonomous language learning and had a willingness and interest to develop their autonomy suggests that learner autonomy may not be only a Western concept, but one that can be beneficial for Indonesian students. An investigation into students' beliefs such as the present study is an important initial step in attempts to promote autonomy as it provides information on students' perspectives and learning realities as regards autonomous learning. The results of the study have practical implications for teachers, curriculum designers, learners, and the institutions. The information probed in this study has helped raise awareness of students' beliefs and expectations and, in so doing may provide important considerations for the teachers before they attempt to implement any interventions to promote learner autonomy.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Institutional approval to conduct research

**The Chairman**  
*Name of institution*

Date:

### RE: Approval to Conduct Research

Dear Sir,

The purpose of this letter is to request your approval to conduct a research study at your institution. The research I wish to conduct is part of my doctoral degree at University of Canberra, Australia. This research will be conducted under the supervision of Assistant Professor Eleni Petraki. The aim of the research is mainly to investigate the Indonesian university students' beliefs about learner autonomy and their practice of autonomous English language learning inside and outside the classroom. It is expected that the findings of the study will contribute to our understanding of students' readiness for learner autonomy and guide any planned pedagogical innovations in the Indonesian context.

If you grant me with approval to conduct this research at your institution, I will recruit a number of first year students of all majors in your institution to complete a questionnaire and then I will interview several selected students. I will also involve English teachers at your institution in contacting and recruiting the students as well as administering the questionnaire. The data collection will be conducted from December 2013 to June 2014.

Students' participation in the research is voluntary. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire and interviews, I will distribute consent forms to be signed by the students if they agree to participate in the research. The confidentiality of all information provided by potential participants will be assured. Personal identities of students and your institution will be kept confidential and anonymous. I will endeavour to conduct this research with minimal disruption to the classes and at the students' and teachers' convenience.

If you approve this request, please kindly sign in the provided space below. Otherwise, you could submit a signed approval letter with your institution letterhead.

Should you need any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me at my email address [daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au](mailto:daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au) or my supervisor's email address [Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au](mailto:Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au)

Yours faithfully,

Daflizar  
PhD candidate  
TESOL/Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra

I grant approval to Daflizar to conduct the research project at this institution.

---

Signature and name of chairman

---

Date

## **Participant Information Form –Students**

### **Project Title**

An investigation into Learner Beliefs about Autonomous Language Learning in the Indonesian Tertiary EFL Context

### **Researcher**

Daflizar (u3014135)

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Email: [daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au](mailto:daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au)

### **Supervisor**

Assistant Prof Eleni Petraki

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Ph: +61 (0)2 6201 5219

Email: [Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au](mailto:Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au)

### **Project Aim**

The aim of this project is to investigate the Indonesian university students' beliefs about learner autonomy in English language learning and examine how their beliefs relate to their autonomous language learning practice inside and outside the classroom.

### **Benefits of the Project**

The findings of this study will provide a better understanding of Indonesian university students' beliefs about autonomous language learning. Thus, teachers will become more aware of their responsibilities as probed through students' beliefs so that any attempts to promote learner autonomy could be carefully considered based on the students' learning realities.

### **General Outline of the Project**

The study consists of two phases. In the first phase, I will explore: 1) the students' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in their English language learning; 2) their ability to behave autonomously in English learning; 3) their actual practices of autonomous language learning inside and outside the classroom. I will also examine whether students' beliefs about their own responsibilities and their ability to behave autonomously relate to their autonomous learning practice inside and outside the classroom. In the second phase, I will explore further the reasons behind students' beliefs and practices on learner autonomy inside and outside the classroom.

### **Participant Involvement**

If you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked complete a questionnaire about your beliefs about learner autonomy (i.e. your perceptions of your own and your teachers' responsibilities in learning English, your ability to behave autonomously, and your actual

practices of autonomous language learning inside and outside the classroom). The completion of the questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes.

You may later be contacted for an interview with the researcher at a time that is convenient to you. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes and will be audio-recorded with your permission. In the interview, you will be asked questions regarding learner autonomy and your practices of autonomous language learning inside and outside the classroom.

Participation in the research is completely voluntary. You may decline participation or withdraw at any time without providing any reasons and your decision will not bring about any penalty. There are no foreseeable risks involved in this study. Great care will be taken to reduce your possible discomfort, such as boredom and tiredness.

### **Confidentiality**

Any information you will provide if you participate in this study will be kept completely confidential. My supervisors and I are the only persons who will have access to the information you provide. The outcomes of the research will be provided in a report and/or presented at conferences. However, your personal identity and institutions will be kept confidential and will never be identified in all these reports.

### **Anonymity**

The information collected in the research will be presented anonymously. All reports of the research will contain no information that refers to individual students. Your name and institutions of origin will be given pseudonyms and codes.

### **Data Storage**

All information obtained in this study will be securely stored on a password-protected computer during the project, and then be retained at the University of Canberra for a five-year period after the completion of the research. The information, according to university protocols, will then be destroyed to ensure that the information is no longer usable.

### **Ethics Committee Clearance**

The project has been approved by the University of Canberra's Human Research Ethics Committee.

### **Queries and Concerns**

If you have queries and concerns about the research, please do not hesitate to contact me as the researcher or my primary supervisor, whose contact details are mentioned at the top of this form.

## Appendix 2b: Participant Information Form (Indonesian version)

### Lembar Informasi Peserta – Mahasiswa

#### Judul Penelitian

Kajian Keyakinan Mahasiswa tentang Pembelajaran Bahasa secara Mandiri dalam Konteks Bahasa Inggris sebagai Bahasa Asing pada Perguruan Tinggi di Indonesia

#### Peneliti

Daflizar (u3014135)

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Email: [daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au](mailto:daflizar.daflizar@canberra.edu.au)

#### Pembimbing

Assistant Prof Eleni Petraki

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Telp.: +61 (0)2 6201 5219

Email: [Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au](mailto:Eleni.Petraki@canberra.edu.au)

#### Tujuan Penelitian

Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk mengetahui keyakinan mahasiswa perguruan tinggi di Indonesia tentang kemandirian belajar dalam mempelajari bahasa Inggris dan untuk mengetahui bagaimana hubungan keyakinan mahasiswa dengan praktek belajar bahasa secara mandiri didalam dan diluar kelas.

#### Manfaat Penelitian

Hasil penelitian ini akan memberikan pemahaman yang lebih baik tentang keyakinan mahasiswa perguruan tinggi di Indonesia tentang pembelajaran bahasa secara mandiri. Dengan penelitian ini, dosen akan menjadi lebih sadar akan tanggung jawab mereka sebagaimana dicerminkan melalui keyakinan mahasiswa sehingga setiap upaya untuk mengembangkan kemandirian belajar dapat dipertimbangkan dengan cermat berdasarkan realitas belajar mahasiswa.

#### Gambaran Umum Penelitian

Penelitian ini terdiri dari dua tahap. Pada tahap pertama, saya akan menggali:

- 1) persepsi mahasiswa tentang tanggung jawab mereka dan dosen dalam belajar bahasa Inggris;
- 2) kemampuan mahasiswa untuk bertindak mandiri dalam belajar bahasa Inggris;
- 3) praktek pembelajaran bahasa secara mandiri di dalam dan di luar kelas.

Saya juga akan melihat apakah persepsi mahasiswa tentang tanggung jawab dan kemampuan mereka untuk bertindak mandiri berhubungan dengan praktek belajar mandiri mereka di dalam dan di luar kelas. Pada tahap kedua, saya akan menggali lebih jauh alasan-alasan di balik keyakinan mahasiswa dan praktek pembelajaran secara mandiri di dalam dan di luar kelas.

#### Keterlibatan Partisipan

Jika anda setuju untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini, anda akan diminta untuk mengisi angket mengenai keyakinan anda tentang kemandirian belajar (yaitu, persepsi anda tentang tanggung jawab anda sendiri dan dosen anda dalam belajar bahasa Inggris, kemampuan anda untuk bertindak mandiri, dan praktek pembelajaran bahasa secara mandiri di dalam dan di luar kelas). Pengisian angket ini akan memakan waktu sekitar 30 menit.



Mungkin nanti anda akan dihubungi lagi bila anda bersedia untuk diwawancarai di waktu luang. Wawancara akan memakan waktu sekitar 30 menit dan akan direkam atas persetujuan anda. Dalam wawancara tersebut akan ditanyakan hal-hal yang berhubungan dengan kemandirian belajar dan praktek pembelajaran bahasa secara mandiri di dalam dan di luar kelas.

Keikutsertaan anda dalam penelitian ini bersifat sukarela. Anda berhak menentukan untuk tidak berpartisipasi atau mengundurkan diri kapan saja tanpa memberikan alasan apapun dan keputusan anda tidak akan membawa sanksi apapun. Tidak ada resiko terkait keikutsertaan anda dalam penelitian ini. Saya akan sangat berhati-hati dalam pengumpulan data untuk mengurangi ketidaknyamanan yang mungkin muncul, seperti kebosanan dan kelelahan.

### **Kerahasiaan**

Setiap informasi yang anda berikan jika anda berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini akan benar-benar dijaga kerahasiaannya. Hanya saya dan pembimbing saya yang akan memiliki akses terhadap informasi yang anda berikan. Hasil penelitian ini akan disajikan dalam bentuk laporan dan/atau dipresentasikan dalam konferensi. Namun, identitas pribadi dan lembaga anda akan dirahasiakan dan tidak akan teridentifikasi dalam semua laporan tersebut.

### **Anonimitas**

Informasi yang dikumpulkan dalam penelitian ini akan dilaporkan secara anonim. Semua laporan penelitian ini tidak akan berisi informasi yang mengacu kepada mahasiswa secara individual. Nama dan lembaga asal anda akan diberikan nama samaran dan kode.

### **Penyimpanan Data**

Semua informasi yang diperoleh dalam penelitian ini akan disimpan dengan aman dalam komputer yang diberi *password* selama proses penelitian, dan kemudian disimpan di *University of Canberra* untuk jangka waktu lima tahun terhitung semenjak selesainya penelitian ini. Informasi tersebut kemudian akan dihilangkan untuk memastikan bahwa informasi tersebut tidak dapat digunakan lagi.

### **Persetujuan Komite Etik**

Penelitian ini telah disetujui oleh Komite Etik bidang Penelitian Manusia *University of Canberra*.

### **Pertanyaan dan Konsern**

Jika anda membutuhkan informasi lebih lanjut dan konsern tentang penelitian ini, anda dapat menghubungi saya atau pembimbing utama saya. Detail kontak kami ada dibagian atas formulir ini.

## Appendix 3a: Participant consent form (English version)

### Consent Form – Students

#### Project Title

An investigation into Learner Beliefs about Autonomous Language Learning in the Indonesian Tertiary EFL Context

#### Consent Statement

I have read and understood the information about the research. I understand that my participation in the research is voluntary and I may withdraw from the research at any time without penalty.

I also understand that if I have any questions about the research during the undertaking of the research, I may contact Daflizar (the researcher) or Eleni Petraki (primary supervisor), whose contact details are in the information form.

Please indicate whether you agree to participate in each of the following parts of the research by putting a cross in the relevant box.

- ☐ Completing a questionnaire (First phase)
- ☐ Participating in an interview with the researcher (Second phase).

Name: .....

Student Identification Number: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

*Note: After the completion of the research, your institution will be provided with a copy of the research report if you wish to read the results of the research.*

## Appendix 3b: Participant consent form (Indonesian version)

### Lembar Pernyataan Persetujuan – Mahasiswa

#### Judul Penelitian

Kajian Keyakinan Mahasiswa tentang Pembelajaran Bahasa secara Mandiri dalam Konteks Bahasa Inggris sebagai Bahasa Asing pada Perguruan Tinggi di Indonesia

#### Pernyataan Persetujuan

Sayatelah membaca dan memahami informasi tentang penelitian ini. Saya memahami bahwa keikutsertaan saya dalam penelitian ini bersifat suka rela dan saya dapat mengundurkan diri dari penelitian ini kapan saja tanpa sanksi apapun.

Saya juga memahami bahwa jika saya memiliki pertanyaan tentang penelitian ini selama proses penelitian, saya dapat menghubungi Daflizar (peneliti) atau Eleni Petraki (pembimbing utama), yang detail kontaknya terdapat dalam lembar informasi peserta penelitian ini.

Silakan beritanda centang (✓) dalam kotak dibawah ini untuk menunjukkan dalam tahap mana saja anda setuju untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini.

- ☐ Mengisi angket (Tahap pertama)
- ☐ Berpartisipasi dalam wawancara dengan peneliti (Tahap kedua)

Nama: .....

Nomor Mahasiswa: .....

Tanda Tangan: .....

Tanggal: .....

*Catatan: Setelah selesai penelitian, institusi anda akan diberikan salinan dari laporan penelitian jika anda ingin membaca hasil penelitian ini.*

## Appendix 4a: Questionnaire (English version)

### Research Questionnaire

#### Part I

This part contains questions about some of your background information related to this study. The information collected from this part will be used only for data analysis purposes. It will not appear in the report of the results of the study.

Student Name: ..... Major: .....

Student Identification Number: ..... Sex (Please tick): ☐ Male ☐ Female

#### Part II

This part contains questions about your views of learner autonomy and your English learning practices inside and outside the classroom.

#### A. RESPONSIBILITIES

(Please tick both “Yours & Your teacher’s” boxes).

When you’re taking English classes at this institution, whose responsibility should it be to:

			Not at all	A little	Some	Mainly	Completely
1.	Make sure you make progress during lessons	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Make sure you make progress outside class	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Stimulate your interest in learning English	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Identify your weaknesses in English	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Make you work harder	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Decide the objectives of your English course	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Decide how long to spend on each activity	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	Evaluate your learning	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Evaluate your course	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	Decide what you learn outside class	a. Yours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		b. Your teacher’s	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## B. ABILITIES

(Please tick the appropriate boxes).

If you have the opportunity, **how well** do you think you would be at:

	Very poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very good
14. Choosing learning activities in class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Choosing learning materials in class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Evaluating your learning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Evaluating your course	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Identifying your weakness in English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lesson	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## C. ACTIVITIES

(Please tick the appropriate box).

In this last academic year, **how often** have you:

Outside class	often	Sometimes	rarely	never
25. read grammar books on your own?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. done exercises which are not compulsory?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. noted down new words and their meanings?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. read English notices around you?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. read newspapers in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. sent e-mails in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. read books or magazines in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. watched English TV programs?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. listened to English radio?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. listened to English songs?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. talked to foreigners in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. practiced using English with friends?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. done English self-study in a group?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. watched English movies?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. written a diary in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. used the internet in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. done revision not required by the teacher?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. collected texts in English (e.g. articles, brochures, labels, etc.)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. gone to see the teacher about your work?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. attended meetings in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. watched videos/DVDs/VCDs?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. read English news online?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Inside class	often	Sometimes	rarely	never
47. asked the teacher questions when you don't understand?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. noted down new information?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. made suggestion to the teacher?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. taken opportunities to speak in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. discussed learning problems with classmates?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## Appendix 4b: Questionnaire (Indonesian version)

### Angket Penelitian

#### Bagian I

Bagian ini berisi pertanyaan tentang informasi latar belakang anda yang berhubungan dengan penelitian ini. Informasi ini hanya akan digunakan untuk tujuan analisa data dan tidak akan ditampilkan dalam laporan hasil penelitian ini.

Nama: ..... Program Studi: .....

Nomor Induk Mahasiswa: ..... Jenis Kelamin: ☐ Laki-laki ☐ Perempuan

#### Bagian II

Bagian ini berisi pertanyaan-pertanyaan mengenai pandangan anda tentang kemandirian belajar dan praktek belajar bahasa Inggris anda di dalam dan di luar kelas.

#### A. TANGGUNGJAWAB

(Berilah tanda centang (✓) baik dalam kotak 'Anda' maupun 'Dosen anda').

Ketika anda belajar bahasa Inggris di perguruan tinggi ini, menurut anda tanggung jawab siapakah seharusnya dalam hal-hal berikut?

			Tidak sama sekali	Sedikit	Beberapa	Banyak	Seluruhnya
1.	Memastikan anda membuat kemajuan belajar selama pelajaran	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Memastikan anda membuat kemajuan belajar diluar kelas	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
3.	menumbuhkan minat anda dalam belajar bahasa Inggris	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
4.	mengidentifikasi kelemahan anda dalam bahasa Inggris	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
5.	membuat anda bekerja lebih keras	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
6.	menentukan tujuan program pembelajaran bahasa Inggris anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
7.	menentukan apa yang seharusnya anda pelajari berikutnya dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
8.	memilih kegiatan apa yang akan digunakan untuk belajar bahasa Inggris dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris Anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

9.	menentukan berapa lama anda menghabiskan waktu pada setiap kegiatan	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
10.	memilih bahan yang akan digunakan untuk belajar bahasa Inggris dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
11.	mengevaluasi belajar anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
12.	mengevaluasi program belajar anda	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
13.	menentukan apa yang anda pelajari di luar kelas	c. Anda d. Dosen anda	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

## B. KEMAMPUAN

(Berilah tanda centang (✓) dalam kotak yang sesuai).

Jika anda memiliki kesempatan, seberapa bagus kemampuan anda dalam:

	Sangat Buruk	Buruk	Sedang	Bagus	Sangat Bagus
14. memilih kegiatan belajar di dalam kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. memilih kegiatan belajar di luar kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. memilih tujuan belajar di dalam kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. memilih tujuan belajar di luar kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. memilih materi belajar di dalam kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. memilih materi belajar di luar kelas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Mengevaluasi belajar anda	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. mengevaluasi program belajar anda	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Mengidentifikasi kelemahan anda dalam bahasa Inggris	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. memutuskan apa yang harus anda pelajari berikutnya dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris anda	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. menentukan berapa lama anda menghabiskan waktu pada setiap kegiatan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## C. AKTIVITAS

(Berilah tanda centang (✓) dalam kotak yang sesuai).

Dalam tahun akademik ini, seberapa sering anda:

Di luar kelas	Sering	Kadang-kadang	Jarang	Tidak pernah
25. membaca buku tata bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. mengerjakan latihan-latihan bahasa Inggris yang tidak wajib?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. mencatat kosa kata baru bahasa Inggris dan artinya?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. membaca pemberitahuan berbahasa Inggris disekitar anda?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. membaca surat kabar berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. mengirim <i>e-mail</i> dalam bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. membaca buku-buku atau majalah-majalah berbahasa	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Inggris?					
32.	menonton acara-acara TV berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33.	mendengarkan radio berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34.	mendengarkan lagu berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35.	berbicara dengan orang asing dalam bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36.	praktek menggunakan bahasa Inggris dengan teman?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37.	melakukan belajar bahasa Inggris secara mandiri dalam kelompok?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38.	menonton film berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39.	menulis <i>diary</i> dalam bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40.	menggunakan internet dalam bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41.	melakukan revisi yang tidak ditugaskan oleh guru?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42.	mengumpulkan teks-teks berbahasa Inggris (seperti artikel, brosur, label, dll)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43.	menemui guru untuk mendiskusikan tugas bahasa Inggris anda?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44.	menghadiri pertemuan-pertemuan dalam bahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45.	menonton video/DVD/VCD berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46.	membaca berita <i>online</i> berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Di dalam kelas		Sering	Kadang-kadang	Jarang	Tidak pernah
47.	bertanya kepada guru apabila anda tidak mengerti?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48.	mencatat informasi baru?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49.	memberi saran kepada guru?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50.	mengambil kesempatan untuk berbahasa Inggris?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51.	berdiskusi tentang masalah-masalah belajar bahasa Inggris dengan teman sekelas?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



## **Appendix 5a: Interview questions (English version)**

### **Interview questions**

1. What is your understanding of ‘learner autonomy’ in English language learning?
2. Do you think learner autonomy plays an important role in English language learning? Why? Why not?
3. Who do you think should be responsible for the following areas of learning?  
e.g. choosing what materials to learn inside and outside the class, making sure you make progress inside and outside the class, evaluating your learning, etc. (This question aimed to elaborate questionnaire items).
4. What do you think, are the characteristics of an autonomous learner?
5. To what extent do you consider yourself an autonomous learner? Explain your answer.
6. Do you want to be an autonomous/more autonomous learner?
7. What are the factors that hinder the development of learner autonomy?
8. What are the factors that support the development of learner autonomy?
9. What can the teacher do to help students to become autonomous/more autonomous?
10. Do you engage in English learning activities outside the classroom? What are they? How often?
11. Do you think out-of-class activities contribute to English language learning? Why? Why not?

## **Appendix 5b: Interview questions (Indonesian version)**

### **Pertanyaan wawancara**

1. Apa yang anda ketahui tentang 'kemandirian belajar' dalam mempelajari bahasa Inggris?
2. Menurut anda, apakah kemandirian belajar berperan penting dalam belajar bahasa Inggris? Mengapa? Mengapa tidak?
3. Tanggung jawab siapa seharusnya dalam hal-hal berikut ini?  
Contoh: memilih materi untuk dipelajari didalam dan diluar kelas, memastikan anda membuat kemajuan didalam dan diluar kelas, mengevaluasi belajar anda, dll.  
(Pertanyaan ini bertujuan untuk mengeksplorasi item-item yang ditanyakan didalam angket).
4. Menurut anda, apa saja ciri-ciri dari seorang pembelajar yang mandiri?
5. Apakah anda merasa diri anda seorang pembelajar yang mandiri? Jelaskan jawaban anda.
6. Apakah anda mau menjadi seorang pembelajar yang mandiri/lebih mandiri?
7. Apa saja faktor yang dapat menghambat dalam mengembangkan kemandirian belajar?
8. Faktor apa saja yang dapat mendorong dalam mengembangkan kemandirian belajar?
9. Apa yang dapat dilakukan oleh guru untuk membantu mahasiswa untuk menjadi mandiri/lebih mandiri?
10. Apakah anda belajar bahasa Inggris di luar kelas? Apa saja kegiatan yang anda lakukan? Seberapa sering?
11. Menurut anda apakah kegiatan-kegiatan belajar di luar kelas bermanfaat bagi pembelajaran bahasa Inggris? Mengapa? Mengapa tidak?

## **Appendix 6a: A sample interview transcript (English version)**

Putri-19/03/2014

Total length of the interview: 00:17:59

I : Well. Today we are going to talk about learner autonomy in learning English. What do you know about learner autonomy?

P : Eh, in my opinion, learner autonomy is how a student finds his/her own ways to get knowledge without guidance from the teacher. They search for learning resources by themselves, for example by searching the internet, reading books and so forth.

I : OK. Do you think learner autonomy plays an important role in learning English?

P : Yes sir. I think learner autonomy plays a very important role in learning English compared to when a student learns from the teacher. For me myself, I feel that English is difficult to understand. Everyone uses their own methods to understand English.

I : So it plays a very important role in learning English. Well now, what do you think the characteristics of autonomous learners are?

P : The characteristics of autonomous learners?

I : Yes. What do autonomous learners do compared those who are not autonomous?

P : Eh, well. I think someone who is autonomous in learning English would very often say something in English spontaneously. She/he also enjoys everything related to English//Yes//for example English songs, movies and so on. So, someone who really doesn't like English would only learn English in the classroom. They would not try to learn it outside the classroom.

I : Oh, I see. So autonomous learners would learn on their own outside the class and search for learning resources?

P : Also being interested in English, sir.

I : Being interested English. Well, in learning English, who do you think should be responsible for determining the objectives of your learning program?

P : Eh, for me, actually that is my responsibility to determine the objectives.

I : What about choosing learning materials, is it the teacher's or your own responsibility?

P : For the classroom learning, the materials should be provided by the teacher because they should be the continuation of what has been learned and understood by students.

I : Well, that's for inside the class learning. What about for outside the class learning?

- P : For outside the class learning? //he eh// I would choose the materials myself so I can determine where I can start. I will leave the materials that I find difficult to understand.
- I : Oh, I see. How about evaluating your learning? Whose responsibility should it be?
- P : Eh, evaluating my learning should be done by my teacher so he/she can see the progress of the learning.
- I : Including for outside the class learning?
- P : Frankly speaking, I have never done an evaluation for my outside the class learning.
- I : Ehm, haven't you? Well. Do you consider yourself as autonomous English language learner?
- P : Outside the class, God willing I can learn English by myself. I feel learning with a guidance is difficult. I found that learning English on my own is easier.
- I : Ehm, do you think that you are autonomous already?
- P : I think I am but I don't know what others think of me.
- I : Oh, I see. Have you tried to learn autonomously outside the class?
- P : Yes, I have tried. Compared to other subjects, I prioritise English more although I am not good at English. I really like English. I learn English for example by translating English song lyrics. By so doing, I can more easily remember the vocabulary.
- I : Well. Do you want to be more autonomous?
- P : Oh, sure. As you know that English is an international language. I think everyone wants to improve their English.
- I : OK. As you may be aware, there are factors that influence the development of learner autonomy. What do you think the factors that hinder the development of learner autonomy?
- P : Hindering factors? Ehm. (silent) The factors that hinder...
- I : Let me give you an example. Some people do not have sufficient time to learn outside the class. What about you?
- P : For me, time is not a problem at all. I even take it as a supportive factor sir. I have sufficient time to learn outside the class. I have time for example to learn from the internet, but I rarely use the internet because it costs money. I also need to buy books if I want to learn from books.
- I : Do you think cost is a hindering factor?
- P : Not really sir. If we have the intention of learning English, we can use other learning resources, for example, we can learn from the surrounding people who can speak English. There are many other learning resources.

- I : Now what do you think of the factors that support the development of learner autonomy?
- P : Well, I think one factor is surrounding environment, sir. For example, if I have friends who are good at English, I also feel motivated to learn. I also have a brother who can speak English. He always encourages me to speak with him using English. For me, environment is a very important influencing factor.
- I : I see. Are there any factors from inside yourself that support the development of your autonomy?
- P : One factor from inside is a strong willingness to be like the people out there, outside Indonesia, who speak English.
- I : Alright. Do you think the teacher has an important role in helping students to become autonomous?
- P : Eh, to some extent they are helpful but only in terms of giving guidance and directions in the classroom, for instance, outside the class you should do that, you should do this.
- I : OK. So, what could the teacher do to help their students become autonomous?
- P : Eh, in my opinion the teacher can, for example, ask students to form small English study groups so that they can learn English more intensively in the groups.
- I : Asking students to form English study groups. What else can they do?
- P : Eh, they can give their students books. I mean, the teacher asks their students to study the books. The teacher then asks the students to make a presentation about what they have learned from the books.
- I : Oh I see. So the teacher plays an important role in making students become autonomous. OK. Do you think that the teacher should motivate the students?
- P : Ehm, giving motivation is very important sir. Students learn when the teacher delivers the materials but they may not continue their learning outside the classroom. So by motivating, they may gradually change.
- I : OK. Well, do you engage in outside the class activities aimed to learn English?
- P : Yes sir.
- I : Can you give me some examples?
- P : The most frequently activity I practise is speaking. I often get together with those who can speak English, ehm, for example senior students. I join their company in order to be able to practise speaking although it's difficult. But if I often listen to them, so I can be better involved in their interactions.
- I : Do you often practise this?
- P : Often sir. We often meet in an organisation.

- I : Oh I see. Any other activities you do to learn English besides practising with you friends?
- P : Besides practising my speaking, I often listen to English music and memorise the lyrics.  
From songs there are some words that are difficult to pronounce by Indonesian people.  
But if you listen to the words repeatedly, you will get used to their pronunciations.
- I : Any other activities you engage in for English language learning purposes?
- P : Eh, I also learn vocabulary from a dictionary and read books.
- I : English grammar books?
- P : Ehm.
- I : Do you use the internet to learn English?
- P : Yes sir.
- I : What do you usually do on the internet?
- P : I often use Google translate. For example, when I do not know how to say something in English, I will translate the sentences using Google translate. Besides, I often open websites that use English, so I try to translate them although sometimes the translations are not accurate.
- I : Are there any specific English learning websites you visit?
- P : Eh, no sir. I haven't found one.
- I : Oh I see. Well, do you think that engaging in out of class learning is important in learning English?
- P : Of course sir. Because what I learn outside the class for English language purposes can support my English learning. In that way I can follow teaching and learning process with the teacher better//I see//if I have a bit of knowledge that I have learned outside the class, I could apply it in the classroom.
- I : OK, I think that's all. Thanks for your time.

## **Appendix 6b: A sample interview transcript (Indonesian version)**

Putri-19/03/2014

Total waktu wawancara: 00:17:59

- I : Baik, pada hari ini kita akan membicarakan tentang kemandirian belajar dalam mempelajari bahasa Inggris. Apa yang anda ketahui tentang kemandirian belajar?
- P : Eh, kalau menurut saya, kemandirian belajar itu bagaimana seorang mahasiswa atau siswa itu menemukan cara tersendiri untuk bisa mendapatkan ilmu tersebut tanpa adanya bimbingan dari guru ataupun dari dosen. Mahasiswa itu sendiri yang mencari sumber belajarnya, misalnya dengan mencari di internet, atau buka-buka buku, dan lain sebagainya.
- I : OK. Menurut anda, apakah kemandirian belajar berperan penting dalam belajar bahasa Inggris?
- P : Iya pak. Kalau menurut saya sendiri kemandirian belajar bahasa Inggris itu memang sangat berperan penting dibandingkan seorang mahasiswa atau siswa itu belajar langsung dengan gurunya. Kalau dari saya sendiri, ketika saya belajar bahasa Inggris itu pak, saya tuh susah untuk memahami gitu, jadi orang tuh punya cara tersendiri untuk memahami dan mengerti.
- I : Jadi berperan penting dalam belajar bahasa Inggris ya. Nah, menurut anda apa saja ciri-ciri orang yang mandiri?
- P : Ciri seorang yang mandiri dalam belajar?
- I : Ya. Apa yang mereka lakukan dibandingkan dengan mereka yang tidak mandiri?
- P : Eh, gini pak. Kalau, eh, kalau seorang yang mandiri dalam belajar bahasa Inggris itu dia itu akan lebih sering dengan spontannya mengeluarkan kata-kata berbahasa Inggris, menyukai hal-hal yang berbau Inggris //Ya// misalnya dari lagu, dari film dan lain sebagainya. Jadi, kalau seseorang yang benar-benar tidak menyukai bahasa Inggris itu, dia hanya tahu bahasa Inggris ya ketika belajar, tapi kalau di luar ya tidak lagi, seperti itu.
- I : Oh begitu ya. Jadi mereka berusaha untuk belajar mandiri di luar kelas dan mencari bahan-bahan untuk belajar?
- P : Dengan menyukainya juga bisa pak
- I : Menyukai bahasa Inggris, gitu ya. Nah, di dalam belajar bahasa Inggris tugas siapa seharusnya dalam menentukan tujuan program belajar anda?
- P : Eh, kalau dari saya sendiri itu sebenarnya memang saya yang harus menentukan.
- I : Kalau memilih materi untuk dipelajari, tugas dosen atau mahasiswa?

- P : Kalau untuk materi dalam kelas, itu jelas dari dosen sendiri pak. kalau dosen masuk, jelas dosen yang akan memberikan materi tergantung dari apa yang telah dipelajari dan dipahami oleh mahasiswanya.
- I : Ya. Nah, kalau di dalam kelas ya? Kalau untuk belajar di luar kelas siapa yang mesti memilih materinya?
- P : Kalau di luar kelas?//he eh//Kalau dari saya sendiri ya saya yang menentukan, dari mana saya memulai, gitu pak dari mana yang saya anggap saya bisa untuk mempelajarinya ya dimulai dari situ. Kalau tidak bisa ya saya tinggalkan dulu yang itu.
- I : Oh gitu ya. Kalau mengevaluasi belajar bahasa Inggris anda, tugas siapa?
- P : Eh, kalau yang mengevaluasi belajar itu dari dosen saya sendiri yang melihat sejauh mana perkembangannya dalam berbahasa Inggris gitu pak.
- I : Termasuk yang di luar kelas?
- P : Kalau yang di luar kelas, jujur kalau saya sendiri tidak pernah tidak pernah melakukan evaluasi.
- I : Ehm gitu ya. Nah menurut anda, apakah anda sudah merasa seorang yang mandiri dalam belajar bahasa Inggris?
- P : Kalau di luar pak, insya Allah saya sudah bisa dengan sendirinya belajar bahasa Inggris pak. Saya tuh lebih susah dibimbing gitu pak. Jadi saya tuh lebih mudah saya sendiri kalau belajar bahasa Inggris, bukan yang lain.
- I : Ehm, apakah anda merasa sudah mandiri?
- P : Saya sendiri sih sudah, tapi kalau penilaian yang lain saya tidak tahu pak
- I : Oh ya. Tapi di luar kelas anda berusaha untuk belajar bahasa Inggris nggak?
- P : Saya berusaha. Kalau bahasa Inggris itu, dibandingkan mata kuliah yang lain saya tuh lebih mengutamakan bahasa Inggris, walaupun ya tidak jago bahasa Inggris pak. Tapi memang sangat menyukai. Dan caranya dengan misalnya kan ada lagu gitu, saya translate-kan, dengan mentranslate-kan kata-kata itu, kata-kata bahasa Inggris itu semakain mudah saya ingat.
- I : Nah, anda mau nggak menjadi orang yang lebih mandiri lagi?
- P : Oh, tentu pak. Apalagi bahasa Inggris tuh kan bahasa internasional jadi menurut saya siapapun orang ya pasti tentu ingin lebih mendalami yang namanya bahasa Inggris itu.
- I : OK. Nah, di dalam belajar bahasa Inggris khususnya dalam mengembangkan kemandirian belajar, kan ada faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi. Nah menurut anda apa saja faktor yang menghambat untuk mengembangkan kemandirian belajar itu?
- P : Faktor yang menghambat? Ehm. (diam) faktor yang menghambat...



- I : Saya berikan contoh. Sebagian nggak punya waktu yang cukup untuk belajar diluar kelas. Nah kalau anda bagaimana?
- P : Kalau menurut saya sendiri sih waktu itu tidak menghambat pak. Tapi malahan, yang menunjang pak. misalnya itu, kan saya tidak selalu bisa buka internet, seperti itu pak. Bukan karena waktunya, tapi karena memang eh, kalau buka internet itu kan mesti pakai biaya itu kan dan kalau buku, harus beli buku pak.
- I : Jadi biaya termasuk faktor penghambat?
- P : Tapi tidak terlalu menghambat pak karena kalau kita mau, dengan orang di sekeliling kita yang bisa bahasa Inggris juga kan bisa. Sumber belajar banyak
- I : Nah sekarang apa saja faktor yang mendorong seseorang untuk mandiri?
- P : Nah itu tuh lingkungan, lingkungan yang, gimana pak, lingkungan sekeliling yang, misalnya saya berteman yang juga menyukai bahasa Inggris. Jadi dengan itu saya akan lebih termotivasi untuk belajar bahasa Inggris. Sekarang tuh punya kakak yang bisa berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris. Kalau pas ngomong sama kakak tuh harus berbahasa Inggris gitu. Jadi tuh lingkungan itu sangat mempengaruhi.
- I : Nah kalau faktor dari dalam diri anda, apa yang mendorong anda untuk mandiri?
- P : Itu pak, keinginan yang sangat kuat, saya tuh ingin seperti orang-orang di luar sana gitu pak yang di luar Indonesia yang menggunakan bahasa Inggris.
- I : Nah dari segi guru atau dosen, berperan tidak dalam membantu siswa menjadi mandiri?
- P : Eh, kalau dosen itu sedikit membantu, lebih ke bagaimana dosen itu membimbing dan membantu kami tuh hanya di lokal itu saja, kalau di luar itu cuma memberikan beberapa arahan misalnya kalau di luar itu seperti ini, seperti ini.
- I : OK. Jadi apa yang bisa dilakukan oleh dosen untuk membuat mahasiswa mereka mandiri?
- P : Eh, kalau menurut saya itu misalnya dengan meminta kepada mahasiswanya untuk membuat suatu kelompok seperti itu pak, bagaimana dalam kelompok yang isinya sedikit itu, bisa mengetahui bahasa Inggris itu secara lebih mendalam lagi gitu pak.
- I : Jadi dosen mengarahkan siswa untuk membuat kelompok belajar bahasa Inggris ya? Selain itu apa lagi yang bisa dilakukan oleh dosen untuk membuat mahasiswa mereka mandiri?
- P : Eh, dengan memberikan buku-buku, seperti ini pak, dosen itu memberikan buku kepada siswanya nanti siswanya harus mempelajari buku itu, setelah siswa itu mempelajari buku itu, maka siswa itu akan mempresentasikan lagi kepada dosen tersebut apa yg telah mereka pelajari.

- I : Oh ya. Jadi memang dosen berperan penting dalam hal untuk menjadikan mahasiswa lebih mandiri ya. Ok. Apa perlu juga dosen misalnya memberikan motivasi kepada mahasiswa?
- P : Ehm, kalau soal motivasi itu tuh perlu sekali pak. Karena memang kalau ketika dosen atau guru itu menyampaikan materi, pas itu memang belajar, tapi mungkin di luarnya nggak gitu pak. Mungkin kalau dikasih motivasi-motivasi pasti lambat laun akan berubah.
- I : OK. Nah ada nggak kegiatan-kegiatan yang anda lakukan di luar kelas untuk tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris?
- P : Ada pak
- I : Contohnya apa?
- P : Contohnya kalau yang paling sering itu belajar speaking. Saya sering ngumpul dengan mereka yang bisa berbahasa Inggris misalnya senior-senior. Tuh kumpul disitu tuh bagaimana saya bisa mempraktekkan speaking dengan mereka. Meskipun susah pak, tapi kalau semakin sering saya dengar nanti kan saya juga ikut-ikutan.
- I : Itu sering anda lakukan?
- P : Sering pak. sering ketemu di organisasi.
- I : Oh begitu ya. Kalau kegiatan lain apa selain mempraktekkan bahasa Inggris dengan temen-temen tadi?
- P : Selain mempraktekkan bahasa Inggris, kalau saya sendiri itu pak dengan lagu itu tadi pak, dengan menghafal lagu itu, gini ya pak, dari lagu-lagu itu ada kata-kata yang susah untuk diucapkan, kalau orang Indonesia mengucapkannya kan susah. Jadi kalau lagu itu diulang-ulang-ulang nanti kan juga semakin mudah, terbiasa.
- I : Nah selain itu, ada lagi nggak kegiatan yang anda lakukan untuk tujuan belajar bahasa Inggris?
- P : Saya juga belajar kosa kata dari kamus, buka-buka buku.
- I : Buka buku buku tata bahasa itu?
- P : Ehm
- I : Anda menggunakan internet juga nggak untuk belajar bahasa Inggris?
- P : Iya pak
- I : Apa yang biasa anda buka di internet?
- P : Di google translate itu kan kalau misalnya memang ingin mengucapkan sebuah kalimat tapi tidak bisa nanti saya translate-kan di google translate, dan kalau itu saya sering

membuka apa, website-website itu kan isinya bahasa Inggris. Jadi saya berusaha untuk mentranslate-kan sendiri meskipun tidak terlalu tepat

I : Ada nggak misalnya situs-situs yang anda kunjungi khusus dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris itu?

P : Eh, kalau yang itu sih nggak pak, tidak menemukan

I : Oh begitu ya. Nah menurut anda apakah kegiatan-kegiatan belajar di luar kelas bermanfaat bagi belajar bahasa Inggris anda?

P : Oh tentu pak. Karena yang, yang saya lakukan di luar kelas untuk, untuk eh, bisa belajar bahasa Inggris itu, itulah yang menunjang saya agar bisa mengikuti proses belajar bahasa Inggris bersama dosen dengan lebih baik gitu pak. Kalau ada yang dari luar kan saya sudah tahu sedikit demi sedikitnya, nanti bisa diaplikasikan.

I : OK, saya kira cukup demikian. Terima kasih atas waktunya ya.