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**Investigating the Language Learning Strategies Employed by  
EFL Learners to Promote Learning Autonomy.  
The Case of: Third Year EFL students at M'sila University.**

**Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Partial fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of Master**

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## **Declaration of Originality**

We hereby declare that this study entitled **“Investigating the Language Learning Strategies Employed by EFL Learners to Promote Learning Autonomy”** is entirely our own work. We certify that it has never been submitted before to any university nor institution neither a part nor the whole of it. Every work reviewed in here is appropriately acknowledged both in-text and in the bibliography. This paper is to be submitted to the English department at M’sila University, Algeria.

## **Dedications**

*In the name of Allah, the most beneficent, the most merciful*

*To the most caring and affectionate ever, the ones who taught me to believe in myself and chase my dreams, the ones who never saved an effort to see me happy, the ones who love me the most, to my dearest Mama “Latoui Karima” and priceless father “Guerniche Nabil”. If I ever fought for success, it is to make YOU proud and today I know you are.*

*To My beloved brothers Abdelrahmane and Acheraf, to whom I wish nothing but happiness and success.*

*To my grandfather’s soul “Guerniche Issa”, may Allah grant you peace,*

*To my Grandparents Tita, Allawa, and Hassina, may you witness more of my success,*

*To my sister Fatima, we may not be sharing the same blood but you have always been the closest to my heart,*

*To all my beloved, ...I dedicate this work.*

*By Guerniche Mariem*

*This work is dedicated to my parents, sisters,  
brothers and dear husband  
for their support and ever endless encouragement*

*By Imane Rezig*

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## **Abstract**

The shift from teacher-centered instruction to learner-focused approach has introduced the concept of autonomous learning. A mass of research has proved the positive impact of students' consciousness and engagement in the learning experience resulting in a more effective and meaningful learning. Language learning strategies are considered a cornerstone in independent learning. For this purpose, the current research is conducted to investigate learners' awareness and perceptions about the importance of sharing responsibility with the class teacher. It also aims at examining their use of strategic learning being more independent. Besides, it attempts to measure their level of learning autonomy. For this purpose, third year EFL students at M'sila University are selected as a sample. In order to answer the study questions and test its hypothesis, we opted for the use of a structured questionnaire of thirty three (33) questions the results of which are collected and analyzed quantitatively. By the end, we found that EFL learners are aware of the significance of autonomous learning reflecting a readiness to take initiative in their own learning. In addition, they employ a number of learning strategies with a high rate for cognitive strategies. Metacognition is less used while social/affective strategies are rarely used. Another significant result is that half of the respondents are semi-autonomous while the other half is transcendent. Concluding, we encourage more related studies for a poor body of research has been established in the field in the Algerian context. We suggest strategy-based instruction implementation as a successful training to improve learning autonomy in Algerian higher education. Concerning students, we highly recommend integrating language learning strategies while learning English. In addition, they need to skip the traditional habits being too dependent on the teacher, rather they have to know their roles as active learners in a modern EFL classroom.

**Key words:** *learning autonomy, language learning strategies, EFL learners, tertiary education.*

## **List of Abbreviations**

AALL: Association for Academic Language and Learning

CBA: Competency-Based Approach

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

ICTs: Information and Communication Technologies

LA: Learning Autonomy

LLSs: Language Learning Strategies

LMD: License Master Doctorate

MCQs: Multiple Choice Questions

SBI: Strategy-Based Instruction

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SL: Second Language

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# General Introduction

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## General Introduction

### 1. Background of the Study

In the past decades, approaching learning required a type of rote-learning system according to which teachers spoon-fed their students. Teachers, in this type of traditional teaching learning approach, often offered students with direct information and instruction they need to fulfill a specific task. These teacher-centered classrooms resulted in students depending on the teacher to do everything for them. However, the language teaching and learning field is subjected to constant change as the world is rapidly revolutionizing in accordance with changes in different domains such as politics, economy, technology... etc. The rise of new ideals of individualization, learner differences, and learners' learning styles inevitably steered the way for teachers to be more considerate of their learners own way of learning, and more importantly, the students themselves being self-directed learners. The concept of autonomous learning came to the forefront as a crucial phenomenon of the 21<sup>st</sup> century learning.

In the Algerian context, this concept was first introduced with the introduction of Competency-Based Approach (CBA) as a result of educational reforms In 2002/2003. According to Holec, learner autonomy is “ to say of a learner that he is autonomous is that he is capable of taking charge of his own learning and nothing more ...to take charge of one's learning is to bear responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects for this learning” (1981, p. 3). This term means that the learners can direct their own learning without the interventions of the teacher in or outside the classroom.

One of the key factors of learner autonomy (LA) promotion is strategic learning. The latter involves direct consciousness of the entire process from the part of the learner being actively engaged in decision-making through mental manipulation of input (cognitive

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strategies) and self-planning, self-monitoring as well as self-evaluation (metacognition). Hence, the more learners use a variety of language learning strategies (LLSs), the more independent they will be. In the Algerian context, few studies have been conducted to investigate LLSs employed by Algerian EFL students working towards higher levels of LA. Mainly, Tabeti (2017) and Hadi (2012) in Mascara University and Tlemcen University respectively. The former found a medium use of LLSs by EFL students while the latter was unsatisfied of the results reached urging both students and teachers to focus more on LLSs training and practice.

### **2. Problem statement**

In recent years, there has been a pressing need to make a shift in the direction of teaching methodology from teacher-based classroom, where the teacher controlled the entire process of learning, to learner-centered learning, where the student took the lead over his own learning and became more active and engaging. The Algerian educational system of higher education emphasizes the importance of learners taking responsibility of their learning. Their underlying principle appears to be supportive of autonomous learning. Theoretically, there have been considerable changes that modernized the educational system to uphold the current educational wave. Yet in practice, students are incapable of making their own decisions concerning their learning, and tend to depend heavily on their teachers (Hadi, 2018). In the end, these learners will face difficulties towards effective learning process. Although the notion of autonomy is revolutionary, it is still not established as a prevalent learning ideology. Moreover, learners who are fully conscious of the importance of autonomy might face obstacles in knowing which strategies to use to promote it. LLSs use and its relation to autonomy have been heavily investigated worldwide and less in Algeria. Little is known; however, about EFL learners' of M'sila University awareness, attitudes and level of LA, as well as their attempts to be more independent through the LLSs implementation.

### **3. Research Aims**

The current study aims to display learners' awareness and readiness to be autonomous. It also sheds light on the extent of which autonomy is implemented in the Algerian University, pointing out the most significant strategies used to fulfill a self-directed learning procedure.

### **4. Research Questions**

This study is guided by the following research questions:

- 1- Are third year university students of EFL aware of the importance of autonomous learning?
- 2- What are the LLSs employed by third year EFL learners in order to foster learning autonomy?
- 3- To what extent are third year EFL learners autonomous?

### **5. Research Hypothesis**

In this piece of research, we have hypothesized that:

- Third year university EFL learners use a variety of LLSs and are autonomous to a certain extent.

### **6. Research Significance**

The importance of this study lies in the fact that there has been a poor ground of studies on language learning strategies use to improve learning autonomy in the Algerian context. The results of this study will be of great help for teachers to adopt new teaching materials that motivate and boost learners towards autonomy along with strategy-based instruction. In addition, students will be fully aware of the significance of self-directed learning alongside with LLSs integration in their educational careers.

### **7. Research Tools and Methods**

This study is descriptive in nature aims at exploring EFL learners' learning autonomy awareness and level in addition to the learning strategies employed by them participating in the learning process. In order to investigate our research hypothesis, we opted for the use of a structured questionnaire designed for third year LMD students at the University of Mohamed Boudiaf, M'sila. It is divided into three main sections. The first consists of four (04) MCQs along with two (02) open questions to gain an understanding of Algerian EFL learners' perceptions about the their roles and their teachers' and their readiness to take control over their own learning. The second section, made up of twelve (12) MCQs, dedicated to investigate learning strategies employed working towards independence in learning. It is noteworthy to mention that the latter is based on O'Malley and Chamot (1990) taxonomy of LLSs. The last section comprises of fifteen (15) MCQs. It attempts to measure LA autonomy among EFL students adopting Nunan's (1997) model. It was administered online via facebook groups. We received sixty (60) responses. Results obtained were displayed in form of tables and figures, mainly pillars and charts. They were analyzed and interpreted quantitatively. The quantitative method helps to collect and analyze data objectively and systematically resulting in more credible findings.

### **8. Research Structure**

As regards the structure of this dissertation, it consists of a general introduction, two chapters and a general conclusion. The general introduction provides the guidelines of this work. It identifies the problem and presents the questions, hypothesis, and methodology used. As for the first chapter, it is theoretical. It introduces the literature review tackling the main ideas and theories about autonomy in learning, language learning strategies and the relationship between them, while the second chapter is practical. It is devoted to the explanation of the research design, the presentation of the data collected from the

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questionnaire, and the interpretation of the findings. In the general conclusion, a summary of the results is provided along with the study limitations, some pedagogical implications for teachers, and suggestions for students.

## **Chapter One: Literature Review**

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## **Introduction**

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) has witnessed a shift from the mainstream teacher-centered approach to the communicatively learner-centered method as the major teaching trend. Thus emphasizing students' centeredness and helping them to take responsibility of their own learning. Modern Tendencies towards stressing the role of students' over the role of teachers in the process of language teaching and learning gave rise to the concept of learner autonomy (LA). The present chapter is theoretical comprising of two sections. The first section attempts to take a deep overview into the concept of learner autonomy. It provides some basic definitions covered by experts in the field, autonomy types, features, levels, conditions, importance as well as teachers' role and learners' perceptions. The second section considers language learning strategies as a powerful tool to develop autonomy among language learners. It further tackles some definitions of LLSs, their main classifications and their relationship with learning autonomy.

## **I. Learning Autonomy**

### ***1.1. History and Origins of the Term***

The term autonomy is difficult to define as it has been viewed from multiple perspectives. It was first discussed and used in fields other than education. In fact, the notion of autonomy is as old as the ancient Greek civilization. According to Online Etymology Dictionary, the Greek word 'auto-nomos' literally means self-law or self-ruling which is congruent with the definition provided by Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010): 1- the freedom for a country, or a region, or an organization to govern itself independently. It is clear then that this term was originally coined in politics. It refers to Greek states' governance that is independent from the control of a higher authority (Benson, 2011).

In moral philosophy, it came to be called personal autonomy (Benson, 2008). Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) generated a new sense for autonomy from a social collective self-ruling to

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individual's freedom. Stuart Mill (1806-1873) was also in favor of a society whose members have the freedom of action and manage their lives making choices based on their own preferences (Benson, 2012). This view is reflected in the second definition of autonomy in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010): 2- The ability to act and make decisions without being controlled by anyone else. The appeal for personal autonomy is justified by philosophers that human beings possess cognitive abilities for reasoning and act accordingly (Benson, 2008). Raz (1986) agrees with this rationale viewing "the free choice of goals and relations as an essential ingredient of individual well-being" (p. 369). Similarly, Aristotle considers individual's liberty and self-sufficiency a key to happiness (Jane, 2001 as cited in Benson, 2008). The shift in meaning from political autonomy to individuality reflects the new tendency moving from "man as product of his society" to "producer of his society" (Janne, 1977 as cited in Holec, 1981, p.1). It is apparent that philosophers believed in the power of individual's liberty in achieving a thrived democratic society.

In order to attain personal freedom, education seems to be the means by connecting the process of learning to life experiences (Little, 1991). Holec (1981) maintains "[education] becomes an instrument for arousing and increasing sense of awareness and liberation in man" (p.1). In turn, the notion of autonomy entered the educational field and became a 'buzz-word' (Little, 1991).

### ***1.2. Learning Autonomy: Towards a Working Definition***

A bulk of research on learning autonomy stretches up from four decades ago (Dickinson, 1987; Little, 1991; Benson, 2001; Hyland, 2004; Benson, 2008). However, the history of the concept in language learning dates back to 1981 when Henry Holec introduced his seminal work entitled "Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning" to the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project. This work remains influential making its author the father of this philosophy (Benson, 2006). Holec (1981) defines learning autonomy as "the ability to take

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charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). He stresses that this capacity "is not inborn but must be acquired by 'natural means' or (as most often happens) by formal learning .i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way" (ibid). Since autonomy is not an innate ability, it can be developed by learners themselves or prompted by schooling. Another key element in Holec's definition is 'to take charge' of learning which entails both awareness of the process and a responsibility (Dam, 2008). In the same line, Dickinson (1994) notes that in order to be an autonomous learner, a degree of responsibility should be exhibited. He interprets responsibility as the ability to take decisions in learning "about the objectives, ways of reaching those objectives, materials, sources of input, activities and so on" (p.4).

Little (1991) provides a wider definition covering the psychological aspect missing in previous works:

Autonomy is a capacity - for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts. (pp. 3-4)

Little (1991) argues that taking responsibility is not restricted to metacognitive awareness from planning, monitoring to reflecting on one's learning. It also includes self-management as well as motivation. Most importantly, he emphasizes that implementing what has been learnt in the classroom in different life contexts is a crucial character of an autonomous learner.

Benson (2001) describes language learning autonomy as the ability to control their goals and the way they meet them. He sets three areas where control is to be exerted: learning management, the cognitive processes and the learning content. According to Dickinson

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(1994), being able to control one's learning and responsible of decision-making holds a sense of freedom and independence. He considers autonomy an attitude rather than a single action. Little (1991) agrees with him pointing that autonomy is a behavior, a mode of learning that involves a considerable degree of freedom. However, Dickinson (1994) accentuates that this freedom does not necessarily result in successful learning for a learner may fail making his decision selecting the wrong option. Success then is tied to correct decisions. If learners are susceptible to failure when behaving independently, they will need a framework within which they will exercise their freedom. Therefore, autonomy is not absolute, but implies some constraints. It is the role of the teacher as to how, why and when to take any decision (Little, 1991; Dickinson, 1994; Benson, 2006, 2012). In addition to be multidimensional, autonomy is affected by some factors of the context. Benson (2016) notes that learner's age, level, goals, background, and environment are critical elements that shape learning autonomy.

It is difficult to cover all the definitions provided for this concept since there is not much consensus on a single unified explanation for it. To clarify what actually autonomy is, Little (1991) prefers to mention what autonomy is not.

### ***1.3. What Autonomy Is Not***

Little (1991) felt the need to eliminate the confusing fallacies that are widespread among educators and researchers. He states five potential misconceptions about learning autonomy.

The term autonomy, for many people, is tied to self-instruction. Often they believe they are synonymous. Dickinson (1987) in accordance with Little defines the latter as a mode of learning which involves the absence of a teacher. Whereas, autonomy is not exclusively to learn without a tutor. In fact, self-instruction may lead to certain degree of learning autonomy, but this is not always guaranteed. In this respect, Little (1991) notes that a learner cannot learn how to learn alone. He, in many cases, needs to work cooperatively with his peers and teacher

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enjoying a remarkable degree of autonomy. He rejects absolute freedom claiming that dependence on a teacher is required in some aspects. Hence, he substituted the term 'independence' by 'interdependence' demonstrating the social dimension of learning. In the same vein, Dickinson (1994) states that autonomy is not linked to the learning setting. It can be in non-formal educational setting as it can be in a normal teacher-authoritative classroom.

Closely related to the first misconception is the belief that in an autonomous learning context, the exertion of a teacher's control creates a sort of redundancy. As long as learners are responsible for their own learning making their own decisions, it is thought that the teacher should not intervene and destroy their autonomy. Dickinson (1994) refutes this misconception arguing that autonomous learning is not contradicted to teacher's control. On the contrary, it "can be very teacher-directed" (p.3). Such belief triggered language teachers' anxiety. Fearing the threat to their role as teachers, many resist developing learning autonomy. Yet, the role of the teacher remains crucial.

Notwithstanding the significant role language teachers play in fostering learner autonomy, the latter is not, as many suppose, a teaching method. Learners are to receive support, guidance and encouragement from their teachers, but this does not make them passive recipients. Little (1991) explains that autonomy is not "something teachers do to their learners; ... it is not the case that development of learner autonomy can be programmed in series of lesson plans" (p. 3). Benson (2001) agrees with the claim noting that teachers cannot impose a particular methodology for there are many ways for language learning. All they can do is to provide options and provide opportunities.

Another confusing presumption is that learning autonomy is always displayed in form of the same recognized behavior. It is certain that the key to distinguish between autonomous and non-autonomous learners is their observable behavior, but factors like age, level, and their

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perception of their own needs shape autonomy differently, i.e. not all learners exhibit their learning autonomy in the same way.

The fifth and last fallacy discussed by Little (1991) is misunderstanding learning autonomy as a steady state that is either achieved by learners or not. Teachers often set their learners into two categories: autonomous learners and ordinary learners. This generated another wrong belief that only certain learners can develop learning autonomy. Since Holec (1981) confirms that it is not an innate capacity, it can be said that all learners can work towards it provided that the right conditions are ensured. It remains a daunting task that is realized in varied degrees. Even the same learner can be highly autonomous in one situation and less, or not at all, in another.

### *1.4. Autonomy-Related Terms in Literature*

In literature, Benson (2006) indicates that learner autonomy is sometimes used interchangeably with other terms. He distinguishes between them stating that “These terms basically describe various ways and degrees of learning by yourself, whereas autonomy refers to abilities and attitudes ... to control your own learning” (p.1). Thus, concepts like ‘self-instruction’ and ‘self-directed learning’ though sharing with learning autonomy the notion of responsibility, they slightly differ from it.

Similarly, Dickinson (1987) and Benson (2001) explain each term to clarify that learner autonomy cannot be synonymous to any of the following:

**Self-Instruction:** It refers to the mode of learning alone. The learner is in charge of his own learning without the intervention of a teacher including the planning, actual learning, and evaluation. Autonomy, on the other hand, can be planned for and fostered by the teacher himself.

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**Individualized Instruction:** It is synonymous to differentiated instruction which means respecting learners' individual differences in planning lessons, setting objectives, selecting materials and activities and assessing learners' achievement.

**Self-Directed Learning:** It is a kind of learning in which learners accept responsibility and initiative in taking decisions concerning their needs, goals, materials as well as learning strategies to be implemented. It can be with the assistance of others or alone.

**Self-Access Learning:** It is the use of the variant available resources and materials to facilitate one's learning. Thanks to the development of technologies mainly digital resources, learners are provided with more opportunities for self-access learning.

**Flexible Learning:** as its name suggests, the learning responsibility is shared between the learner and teacher. The teacher makes the decision about learning materials and activities and leaves a freedom of choice of the what and when for learners. Often, learning goals are rarely discussed.

**Distance Learning:** Refers to the setting of learning. The teacher is normally physically distant from the learners even if he exerts his control via E-mail, phone or online meetings.

**E-learning:** It refers to online learning using technology often the internet. It offers learners enjoyable learning experience regardless of time and place.

**Blended Learning:** It is a mixture of traditional learning in a teacher-authoritative classroom and e-learning via internet and other digital media.

### ***1.5. Is Learning Autonomy Individualistic?***

Dickinson (1993) defines learner autonomy as a capacity of making and implementing all the decisions about the learning process without the need for a tutor. In his definition, he excludes the teacher's and institution's role in prompting autonomy making it purely

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individualistic. Whereas Dam (2003) argues that it can also be cooperative defining it as the “capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others” (p.1).

Likewise, Benson (2016) reveals the shift of research from individualism to the social dimension of autonomy in reference to Vygotsky’s social constructivism as well as Hamilton’s (2005) ‘social cognitivism’. The latter proves that “individual cognition itself, including our sense of self ... emerges from and depends on the social interactions that we are engaged in” (p. 346). Freire (1974) justifying the need for interaction in learning, writes that the human nature implies involvement in relationships with the society and the world. Therefore, some researchers tend to extricate the concept of autonomy from being individualistic. Little (1996), for instance, refutes the claim that autonomy can be developed in isolation. He maintains “as 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. 81).

In a more moderate sense, other scholars make a distinction between two main categories of learner autonomy: individual and group autonomy. Thus, the learner can take full responsibility of his learning as he can work in groups negotiating, interacting and sharing knowledge (Dam 2003; Ushioda 2003). Two different terms are given for the types of autonomy by Littlewood (1999): proactive and reactive autonomy. According to him, proactive autonomy “affirms [learners’] individuality and sets up directions in a world which they themselves have partially created” (p. 75). This kind of autonomy reflects total independence of the learner in regulating his own learning including making decisions about learning objectives, resources, activities and evaluation. While reactive autonomy is “the kind 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” (ibid). He

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points out that reactive autonomy can be considered as a first step towards proactive autonomy; it paves the way for a higher degree of autonomy.

### *1.6. Characteristics of Autonomous Learners*

Holec (1981), Dickinson (1987), Little (1991) and Benson (2001) are the first to define learning autonomy agreeing on a main feature of it which is responsibility. According to them, an autonomous learner is one who is able and willing to manage his own affairs. Holec (1981) explains:

To say of a learner that he is autonomous is to say that he is capable of taking charge of his own learning and nothing more ...to take charge of one's learning is to bear responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning. (p. 3)

Nunan (1995), on his part, mentions some of those aspects: "Learners who have reached a point where they are able to define their own goals and create their own learning opportunities have, by definition, become autonomous." (P. 145). Other scholars went further setting detailed characteristics of autonomous learners (Candy, 1991; Little, 2004; Benson, 2008; Lamb and Reinders, 2008; Vieira, 2009). They can be summarized as follows:

- Identify their needs and know their strengths and weaknesses.
- Set their own goals and objectives.
- Exploit sources and materials well.
- Being active learners in the sense that they take initiative in learning, willing to take charge of their learning, and thus are highly motivated.
- plan for the activities and strategies to be implemented in order to complete the task.
- Monitor their learning checking their progress during the activity and adjusting their strategies if required.
- Reflect on and evaluate their performance after the completion of the task.

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- Think critically and flexibly to solve problems.
- Are willing and capable of lifelong learning.

These are the main important features that non-autonomous learners lack which lead to more successful and effective learning. Benson (2001) adds that learner autonomy is not restricted to the learning setting, but once it is developed, learners will be more successful individuals in their lives noting that “*Autonomous learners are more educated individuals who have the ability to take the charge and contribute not only to their learning process, but also in their social life.*”(p.1).

### ***1.7. Levels of Learner Autonomy***

In the 1990s, many researchers concur on the nature of learner autonomy as being of variant degrees. Learners may be autonomous in a certain learning context and totally dependent on the teacher in another (Benson, 2006). Little (1991) asserts that autonomy is “not a steady state achieved by learners once and for all” (p. 3). Some scholars propose models for autonomy reflecting the levels that a learner can experience working towards full independence.

Nunan (1997) elaborates a five-level model which involves dimensions of the ‘process’ and ‘content’ (p. 195). It consists of five stages starting with ‘awareness’ of the goals and content of the materials in hand in addition to learners’ preferences, abilities, and learning styles. Second, ‘involvement’ in selecting goals and content from a set of options. Third, ‘intervention’ in the learning programme by adjusting and adapting goals and content. Forth, ‘creation’ of one’s own goals, materials, and tasks. Fifth , ‘transcendence’ which means connecting what has been learnt in the classroom to the outside world and ultimately being teachers and researchers. Though his taxonomy has practical implications in the actual process of learning, it is still open to debate for these levels, often, overlap and “learners will move back and forth among levels” (Hsu, 2005, p. 99).

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In 1997, Littlewood suggests another model that comprises of three levels but has broader dimensions. The first stage reflects ‘autonomy as a communicator’ which involves the ability to use language grammar and vocabulary independently to convey personal meanings in different situations along with appropriate use of communication strategies. The second is called ‘autonomy as a learner’ which entails taking responsibility for one’s own learning including setting goals , selecting materials , monitoring learning progress and evaluating the whole process. Lastly, ‘autonomy as a person’ is considered as the highest level of autonomy in which the learner becomes an independent individual not only in learning but also in communicating in real-life situations that is beyond the classroom.

Later, other models have been established (Macaro, 1997; Scharle & Szabo, 2000; Benson, 2001) with slight difference. All of them imply possible advancement from lower to higher degrees of autonomy. In order for this progression to happen, some conditions are to be ensured.

### *1.8. Conditions for Learner Autonomy in Language Classrooms*

The development and success of autonomous classrooms hinge greatly on a number of crucial conditions. Dam (2000) identifies four essential conditions namely:

- 1- A willingness on the part of the teacher to let go, and on the part of the learners to take hold.
- 2- An understanding of what to do and why and how it should be done, this applies to teachers as well as learners.
- 3- An experience-based insight into the learning process for both teachers and learners.
- 4- An atmosphere of security, trust and respect.

According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), raising awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles are the three basic conditions that can hamper or boost the development of learner autonomy in classroom. In the same vein, Lee postulates voluntariness, flexible

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environment, teacher support, and peer support as the main conditions influencing the development of classroom-based learner autonomy (1998).

### *1.9. Autonomy in and out of Classroom*

Autonomy involves "... complete responsibility for one's learning, carried out without the involvement of a teacher or pedagogic materials." (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11), in other words, the teacher is no longer perceived as the midpoint of the classroom by the learner. This shift in the direction of classroom centeredness from teachers-based teaching to learner-focused learning led the notion of autonomy to manifest itself both within classrooms and out of classroom. Benson (2001) positions that " autonomy in language learning focuses not only on out-of-class learning, but also classroom practice, language teachers have a crucial role to play in fostering learner autonomy by taking both out-of-class and classroom perspectives." (p. 11).

Autonomy-focused research is far less interested in learning beyond the classroom. "Out-of-class Learning" also called "naturalistic learning of English", refers to the endeavors learners take to uphold prospects to language learning outside class through utilizing classroom-based language courses (Benson, 2007). In a TESOL Symposium entitled "Learner Autonomy: What Does the Future Hold? Benson, Dam, and Legenhausen (2008) put forward two fundamental realities. First, full accomplishment of L2 learning is scarce whenever L2 learning is exclusive only to the classroom contexts. Second, a vast amount of L2 learning actually occurs outside the classroom. Nevertheless, little is known about out of the classroom world and the kind of learning that takes place in it.

Littlewood (1998) identifies three ways in which autonomy can be demonstrated in the language classroom:

- a- Organizational autonomy support (e.g., students are given freedom to take decisions about classroom management and issues such as time management, exercises order).

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- b- Procedural autonomy support (e.g., offering students choices about the use of different media to present ideas), especially in the presentation of research works such as projects.
- c- Cognitive autonomy support (e.g., affording opportunities for students to evaluate work. Self-correction as well as peer-correction can free students from the command of teachers mainly in evaluation).

Nunan (1996) makes a distinction between "institution focused classroom" and "autonomy focused classroom" i.e. autonomous and non-autonomous classroom. He indicates three stages in both types of learning environments: planning, implementing and evaluating language course.

**Table 1.1**

*A Comparison between Autonomous and Non-Autonomous Classrooms*

Autonomy focused classroom	Institution centered classroom
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Decisions about the course content are made with reference to learners' use of language outside the classroom.</li><li>• Learners are involved in the selection, modification, and adaptation on the content as well as the process of learning.</li><li>• The teacher refers to the learning style preferences of the learner in choosing the methodology of teaching.</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Decisions about the course content are made by the teacher or the institution with no reference to learners' needs.</li><li>• Learners are encouraged to reflect on their learning experiences, and evaluate the opportunities made available in the classroom.</li></ul>

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Note. Adapted from *Towards autonomous learning: Some theoretical, empirical and practical issues*, by D. Nunan, 1996, p.21.

### ***1.10. Why Developing Learner Autonomy ?***

It has been shown that autonomous learning is associated with more positive outcome than classroom guided learning. A number of reasons have surfaced on the motives laying behind the promotion of learner autonomy. Dickinson (1995) lists five reasons for fostering autonomy in a language-learning environment namely: practical reasons, individual differences, educational aims, motivation and learning how to learn foreign languages. Furthermore, Cotterall (1995) classifies three basic reasons for advocating autonomous learning:

- 1- Philosophical reasons: “the individual has the right to be free to exercise his or her own choices, in learning and other areas, and not become a victim ... of choices made by social institutions”. (Crabbe, 1993, p. 443)
- 2- Pedagogical reasons: holds that adults can learn more effectively when they are engaged in making decisions about the pace, sequence, mode and the content of instruction.
- 3- Practical reasons: learners feel more secure and are able to learn efficiently on their own without the involvement of the teacher.

### ***1.11. Learning Autonomy and Language Proficiency***

The Association for Academic Language and Learning, AALL, defines language proficiency as “the ability of students to use the English language to make and communicate meaning in spoken and written contexts” (2007, p.1). Language proficiency is the ability to speak, read, write and comprehend the English language. Abundant number of research has been devoted to investigating the relationship between language proficiency and learner autonomy, and how this latter helps improve and develop the learner’s proficiency level.

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According to Little (2003) “the development of learner autonomy and the growth of target language proficiency are mutually supporting and fully integrated with each other.” (p. 14). Therefore, the ability to foster language proficiency is ascribed to autonomy. Corno and Mandinach (1983) mainly suggested that autonomous learners were learners with high levels of language proficiency and that learner autonomy may possibly develop the language proficiency of learners. In the line with this, Risen berg and Zimmerman (1992) further highlight that high scores would be attained among the high-achieving students with high degree of learner autonomy and low scores are reached by learners with low degrees of learner autonomy. Thus, it is concluded that autonomy could increase and boost academic performance and language proficiency. Hence, both autonomy and proficiency interact and interrelate with each other. In this regard, Ezzi (2018) confirms that “the more autonomous a learner becomes, the more likely s/he achieves high language proficiency” (p. 86).

### *1.12. Problems and Issues with Learner Autonomy*

"Students are now being transformed into autonomous learners assuming more responsibility for their own learning as teachers are becoming facilitators, advising more and lecturing less" (tamer, 2013, p. 9). This shift from traditional learning to learner-centeredness was perplexing and confusing. Notwithstanding the importance of learner autonomy and the existence of several related studies, promoting a learner’s autonomy is faced with a number of challenges. In a study conducted by Alibakhshi (2015), three types of issues are identified; institute-related challenges, learner-related challenges, and teacher-related challenges.

**a- Institute-Related Challenges:** According to Alibakhshi (2015), EFL learners are encountered with some problems that are institution-based in promoting their autonomy. These include: “ignoring the role of learner in the curriculum” (policy makers do not consider learners’ autonomy in selecting the curriculum), “prescribed objectives” (the EFL teachers and students are not involved in making decision

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concerning the course objectives), “prescribed materials” (instructional materials are required to follow the curricula systematically as lesson plans are prearranged likewise), and “prescribed assessment system” (institutions set kinds and contents of the tests that how EFL learners should be evaluated through) (pp. 88-89).

**b- Learner-Related Challenges:** There are a number of learner-related factors that hinder the promotion of learner autonomy. The major learner-related glitches include “Lack of motivation among learners”, “learner dependence on the teacher”, “limited learner exposure to English outside the classroom” since they are unable to learn it by themselves , “learners’ focus on test results”( learners are much more concerned with learning the knowledge and skills sufficient for passing their exams), “limited learner proficiency in English” makes it difficult for teachers to help them become autonomous, “learners’ lack of previous experience of autonomous learning”, “lack of needed materials” as they are introduced to materials inappropriate for them, and Learners’ inability in self-study activities (p. 90-92).

**c- Teacher-Related Challenges:** “Lack of relevant resources for teachers” (the availability of the textbook only rather than other materials), “Lack of teacher autonomy” (teachers are forced to follow the guidelines prescribed to them by administrators and education department therefore they are not free to design the course, set the objectives and select the materials), “Teachers’ fear of losing authority” when they turn to learner-centered approaches, and Teachers’ lack of experience in LA (pp. 92-93).

### *1.13. Teacher’s Roles*

Traditionally, the classroom teacher was considered the main source of knowledge and authority figure. Teachers therefore decided the content to be taught alongside with the way it would be taught. As students are taking more responsibility with their own learning, teachers’

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roles have changed significantly. In the same regard, King (1993) confirms that the teacher's role changed from the 'Sage on the Stage' to the Guide on the Side."(p. 30). Benson (2001) confirms that " language teachers have a crucial role to play in fostering learner autonomy by taking both out-of-class and classroom perspectives" (P.11), hence teachers are required to adopt new roles in order to cultivate learners' autonomy. According to Voller (1997), the teacher can take the role of facilitator, counselor and resource.

**I.13.1. Teacher's Role as a Facilitator** .The teacher plays the role of a helper who makes learning easier and faster. A facilitator provides technical support and psychosocial support into the classroom.

- a- A facilitator offers the technical support by helping learners to plan and carry out their independent learning by means of needs analysis, objective setting, work planning, and materials selection.
- b- A facilitator provides the psychosocial support by being supportive, helping learners to overcome obstacles, being prepared to take part in a dialogue with learners and raising learners' awareness of the importance of independent learning (Voller, 1997).

**I.13.2. Teacher's Role as a Counselor** .The teacher as a counselor role is hypothetically assumed to guide and provide advice to learners in their process of learning. Voller (1997) states that counseling emphasizes on a one-to-one interaction. It is more applicable in individualized learning situations. The role of a counselor is more like a supervisor who helps learners to be more self-directed.

**I.13.3. Teacher's Role as a Resource** .The teacher takes the role of a source when he provides knowledge and expertise necessary for learners (Benson and Voller, 1997). Moreover, Voller (1997) claims that the teacher as a source is the one who is informed enough about the foreign language and the learning materials.

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### *1.14. Learners' Perceptions*

The heightened interest in autonomous learning in EFL classrooms led to the rise of the concept of 'learner perception', which is used interchangeably with learner 'attitude' or 'belief'. Students' learning styles and behaviors are heavily influenced by their perceptions of the learning held. The way learners perceive autonomy differs significantly. Some students may have favorable and positive views toward autonomy, and ultimately demonstrate their readiness to become autonomous learners. Others however, may believe it is impossible for them to take responsibility for their own learning in a teacher-based classroom.

Research on language learners' perceptions and attitudes towards autonomy seems to be scarce, especially in the Algerian context. In a study conducted by Martinez (2008), undergraduate students seemed to perceive autonomy as an alternative and groundbreaking instructional methodology that enables the development of classroom learning. Broady (1996) attempted to examine learners' attitudes to autonomy by conducting a forty-four-item questionnaire with the aim to detect learners' readiness for self-direction, perceptions toward teachers roles and their own roles. Results revealed that learners were self-directed to some extent, had general acceptance of autonomy, and a confidence in their own problem-solving skills. As soon as learners' beliefs and attitudes are discovered, any difficulty in the road of autonomy is overcome.

Another study conducted by Chan (2001), was meant to identify learners' perceptions of learner autonomy. This study triggered learners' views concerning four main areas including language learning motivations, perception of the teacher and learner roles, learning styles and preferences, and perceptions of autonomous learning. Results of the study have shown that the learners were aware of their and the teachers' different roles, they demonstrated autonomy as they held positive attitude towards it.

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### *1.15. Summary*

Though the notion of learner autonomy is gaining increasing popularity in the field of language teaching, it is still open to debate (Benson, 2007). What has gained widespread consensus among scholars is summarized by Sinclair (2000) as follows:

- 1- Autonomy is an ability.
- 2- It involves learner's willingness to hold responsibility for his own learning.
- 3- This ability and willingness is not inborn but rather, acquired.
- 4- Full autonomy is an idealistic target.
- 5- Autonomy is of variant degrees.
- 6- Autonomy is not stable even for the same learner. It varies from one situation to another.
- 7- Autonomy is not related to a setting where a learner has to be independent.
- 8- In order to develop learning autonomy, learners are required to be aware of the learning process including reflecting on it and decision-making.
- 9- Fostering autonomy is not only related to teaching strategies.
- 10- Autonomy can be practiced both in and out of classroom.
- 11- Autonomy can be individual as well as cooperative.
- 12- Autonomy exceeds education having political and psychological dimensions.
- 13- Autonomy is viewed differently across cultures.

### **II. Learning Strategies**

In order to facilitate the use and practice of tasks and classroom activities, EFL learners opt for a number of techniques, plans and procedures called "language learning strategies" (LLSs). Language learning strategies prioritize the task of fostering and developing learners' sense of independence and autonomy. This notion has been defined and identifies by many scholars who, in their definitions of the concept, emphasize on what learners' actually do to achieve self-directedness and autonomy in languages learning. The works and studies of many

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researchers, assuming that learning strategies lead directly and necessarily to fostering autonomy both inside and outside the classroom environment, have documented the intimate association of learner autonomy to the concept of learning strategies.

### *II.1. Definitions*

The increasing attention to learner-centeredness triggered wider interest in language learning strategies (LLSs, henceforth) (Nyikos and Oxford, 1993). Oxford (1990) defines Learning Strategies as: “ Specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable and more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations ” (p. 8). He maintains that those actions are “employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information” (Ibid).

On their part, Schumaker and Deshler (1992) note that a learning strategy is the individual’s way of organizing and using a particular set of skills, in order to learn content, or to accomplish other tasks more effectively in school as well as in non-academic settings. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) , Mayer (1988) , O’Malley and Chamot (1990) agreed on describing them as any thought or behavior a learner manifests in order to process information including decoding, storing, and learning language.

### *II.2. Are Learning Strategies Conscious or Unconscious?*

Cohen (2003) defines learning strategies as “The conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language” (p. 280). A key word in his definition is the consciousness of using these strategies. However, the nature of LLS is perceived differently by researchers who questioned whether the learner is aware of choosing a certain strategy or it is a random choice (Anderson, 2005). Cohen (1994, 2003) and many other scholars express clearly in their definitions of LLSs that they are basically conscious. Cohen (1994) asserts that consciousness is what distinguishes learning strategies from non-strategic processes and that LLS entail the

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ability to make choices which makes it impossible to implement them unconsciously. Anderson (2005) adds that “Learning Strategies are conscious actions that learners take to improve their language learning” (p. 5). While a few other scholars such as Kachru (1985) agree that these strategies are used subconsciously by second language learners.

### *II.3.Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies*

Great agreement has been achieved by researchers on the main features that characterize language learning strategies (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Cohen, 1990, 1994; O’Malley and chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996). Oxford (1990) stated a number of basic characteristics that are generally accepted. She states that LLSs are of the following features:

**II.3.1. Problem Orientation.** LLSs are the tools used to solve a problem (to accomplish a task, meet an objective and attain a goal). Different strategies are applied for different purposes. For an instance, reasoning or guessing strategies are used to understand a passage. Memory strategies are used to remember the acquired information. Affective strategies are used to help the learner relax or gain greater confidence for profitable learning.

**II.3.2. Action Basis.** LLSs enhance learning through various actions akin to taking notes, setting up for a language task, self-evaluation and guessing logically. The actions performed by the learners are naturally influenced by the learners’ general traits such as learning style, motivation and aptitude.

**II.3.3. Involvement.** LLSs promote meta-cognitive functions like planning, reflecting, evaluating, in addition to emotional and social functions. Thus, they are not restricted to cognitive functions. It involves both cognitive and meta-cognitive aspects. Therefore, the emphasis would eventually become more balanced, because language learning is indisputably an emotional and interpersonal process as well as a cognitive and meta-cognitive affair.

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**II.3.4. Degree of Observability.** LLSs are hard to be observed. It is possible to observe several aspects of cooperating, a strategy in which a learner works with others to achieve a learning goal. But the act of making mental associations, an important, memory strategy is highly impossible to scrutinize. Thus, examining the strategies used by the learners is very difficult.

**II.3.5. Level of Consciousness.** Several researchers reveal that LLSs are always conscious actions. The modern uses of these strategies reflect conscious efforts to take control of their learning. However, after a certain amount of practice and efforts, learning strategies can become automatic like any other skill or behavior.

**II.3.6. Flexibility.** LLSs are flexible as they are not always found in predictable sequences or in precise patterns. Learners change the strategies depending upon the contexts.

Some of the above mentioned characteristics have been criticized such as LLSs' consciousness and flexibility (Cohen, 2003; Bialystok, 1985; Dansereau, 1985). Other scholars add other characteristics. LLS can be helpful or deleterious, according to how the learner selects and uses them (Abraham and Vann, 1987). LLSs may differ depending on the scope of the task to be accomplished (Dansereau, 1985). Oxford (1990) also mentions that LLSs are influenced by some factors.

### ***II.4. Factors Influencing Strategies Choice***

Learners' choice of language learning strategies is not random; it is rather influenced by multiple physical, mental and psychological factors. Oxford (1982) asserts that factors such as degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, sex, nationality, learning style, personality traits, motivation level and the purpose behind learning the language have an impact on the selection of these strategies.

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### *II.5. The Importance of LLSs Use*

Several scholars (Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1990) assert that LLSs are crucial tools for developing both communicative and linguistic competences. They; therefore, help them become good language users as clearly put by Hatch (1983) "The basic communicative competence is largely concerned with the strategies the learners use" (p.74). Moreover, LLSs boost and facilitate learning through assisting unsuccessful learners with the appropriate mechanisms to plan for and manage their learning effectively (Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Brown, 1994; Cohen, 1990; Chamot, 1999). Chamot et al. (1999) consider sufficient knowledge and strategic use of these strategies as the key to learning any foreign language as they lead to active, highly motivated, organized and self-directed involvement in the learning experience. They describe them as "Means of fostering learner autonomy" (p. 8). Gaining knowledge about LLSs is not only beneficial to learners but it also encourages EFL teachers to plan their lessons and curriculum designers to design activities taking into consideration LLSs explicit and implicit teaching into consideration to be part of the learners' repertoire so that they start to use them independently becoming better learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1994; Cohen, 1998; Murat, 2000; Griffiths & Parr, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

### *II.6. Good Vs Poor Learners*

During the process of FL/SL learning, each learner employs different language learning strategies. These strategies are directly related to the notion of successful/unsuccessful learners. Scafaru and Tofan (2006) confirm that students who have shown their ability to use different learning strategies and to choose the appropriate strategy to fulfill a certain task are considered to be more successful than those who have a limited variety of strategies in their repertoire and do not use them strategically. On his part, Ellis (1997) states that successful learners tend to use a wider variety of strategies than unsuccessful learners do. Furthermore,

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the right selection of strategies by learners influences their behavior and personality, increases their motivation to learn and improves their self-confidence.

### ***II.7. Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies***

In 1970's, researchers (Rubin, 1975; Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco, 1978) have shown great interest to language learning strategies. They have attempted to identify the techniques followed by successful second language learners. In 1980's and 1990's, this field gained more attention as scholars have shifted towards categorizing these strategies.

**II.7.1. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) Classification.** O'Malley and Chamot (1990) develop three types of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, and social / affective strategies.

#### ***II.7.1.1. Metacognitive Strategies***

Metacognitive Strategies, often referred to as "thinking about thinking", are methods used by students to reflect on and regulate the learning process. This involves organizational planning, selective attention, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-management. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have given them special emphasis stating that "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their accomplishments and future learning direction" (p. 8).

#### ***II.7.1.2. Cognitive Strategies***

Cognitive Strategies refer to mental manipulation or transformation of materials or tasks, intended to enhance comprehension, acquisition, or retention. This involves grouping, note-taking, summarizing, resourcing, inferencing, deduction, translation ... etc.

#### ***II.7.1.3. Social /Affective Strategies***

Social/Affective Strategies refer to using social interactions to assist in the comprehension, learning, or retention as well as the mental control over personal affect that interferes with learning. This includes asking for clarification, cooperation, self-talk, and self-stimulation.

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**II.7.2. Oxford's (1990) Classification.** Oxford (1990) suggests the classical taxonomy that consists of 62 strategies classified under six headings. They are differentiated under two streams, Direct and Indirect Strategies. However, the two groups work complementarily supporting learning.

### ***II.7.2. 1. Direct Strategies***

Direct learning strategies are a set of mental processes that influence foreign language learning directly. They are cognitive, mnemonic, and compensatory strategies. They are beneficial to learners in terms of information storage, understanding and using language structures and lexis even when there is a gap in knowledge, and retrieving and producing the newly learned items .

**a) Cognitive Strategies:** Involve practicing, sending and receiving messages, reasoning and creating structure for input and output. An example of them is linking new learned information to previously existing knowledge through establishing cognitive connections such as using advanced organizers and concept mapping.

**b) Mnemonic Strategies:** Similar to memory strategies. They involve associating new items to prior knowledge through the use of visual and/or acoustic cues like images, formula, sounds or verse. They may even be associated to motion or touch to facilitate storing and retrieving information for communication.

**c) Compensatory Strategies:** When a learner faces difficulty in communication due to limited knowledge, he uses compensation strategies. This means making use of context and personal experience to solve the problem through guessing meaning of words to interpret data. They can also be used in production to convey the meaning alternatively.

### ***II.7.2.2. Indirect Strategies***

Indirect learning strategies are used for general management of learning and do not affect learning directly. They are metacognitive, affective, and social.

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**a) Metacognitive Strategies:** They go beyond the cognitive mechanism. They control and coordinate learning through planning the process efficiently, organizing learning to obtain maximum benefit from the effort spent, and evaluating own achievements at the end.

**b) Affective Strategies:** Learning is affected by internal factors like emotions, motivation, attitude, and values; therefore, language learners should control their feelings by understanding themselves, eliminating negativity, and strengthening positivity. Three strategies are set in this group: lowering one's anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking one's emotional temperature.

**c) Social Strategies:** Language is used in communication which is not an individual phenomenon; rather, it occurs between people. Hence, collaboration with people ameliorates learning. It brings a group spirit and thus, raises self-esteem and self-confidence. It is opposed to competition that creates anxiety and fear of failure. Asking questions to clarify meaning is also a useful way to decode meaning of unfamiliar word. In addition to empathizing with people which develops the ability to understand and accept people's viewpoint along with a good cultural understanding.

### ***II.8. Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) and Autonomy***

Language learning strategies are the techniques that students use to facilitate their learning, behave independently, and assume responsibility for their own learning. In this regard, Rubin (1987) maintains that learning strategies are “what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning.” (p.19). Language learning strategies have proved their effectiveness in fostering learner autonomy since they are “Techniques used by learners to help make their learning be more effective and to increase their independence and autonomy as learners.” (Carter and Nunan, 2001, p. 223). According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986), strategies are used to “affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which

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the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or interacts new knowledge” (p. 315) which will automatically lead to the enhancement of learner autonomy and their sense of self-directness.

In keeping with Weinstein and Mayer’s claim, Oxford (2001) points out that language learning could be facilitated through the appropriate use of learning strategies and that “All language learning strategies are related to the features of control, goal-orientedness, autonomy and self-efficacy... Learning strategies help learners become more autonomous.”

Wenden (1998) puts forward five general strategies to assist language learners towards successful autonomous learning:

- **Directed attention:** when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task.
- **Selective attention:** paying attention to specific aspects of a task.
- **Self-monitoring:** checking one’s performance while on the task.
- **Self-evaluation:** appraising one’s performance in relation to one’s own standards.
- **Self-reinforcement:** rewarding oneself for success. (Wenden, 1998, p.54)

### *II.9. Fostering Learning Autonomy through Strategy-Based Instruction (SBI)*

#### **a. Strategy Training**

Language learning strategies play a fundamental role in the promotion of learner autonomy. Therefore, learners should be encouraged and trained to use different kinds of strategies to take control of their own learning. Experts in the field use the terms “strategy training”, “learner training”, “learner development” and “learning to learn” to refer 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).

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As stated by Cohen (2000) "Strategy training can help to exert learners' efforts to achieve learning goals in that it inspires students to seek their own shortcuts to success, and thus it enhances learner autonomy and self-regulated learning." (p.67). This training aims at assisting learners to know how to learn efficaciously and utilize specific strategies properly and independently of teachers' involvement .i.e. becoming autonomous.

Three major goals for strategy training could be recognized:

- a) To explicitly instruct learners why, when, and how learning strategies can be used to promote their foreign language learning.
- b) To help learners explore methods that they can take to learn the target language more effectively, and at the same time to encourage learners to self-regulate their learning.
- c) To cultivate learner autonomy by offering learners opportunities to select appropriate strategies without constant prompt from their teachers. (Wang, 2016)

### **b. Approaches to Foster Learner Autonomy**

Benson (2001) identifies six approaches that essentially support the development of autonomy:

- 1) Resource-based approaches emphasize students' independency and assuming responsibility of their own learning by using resources at their disposal.
- 2) Technology-based approaches emphasize independent interaction with varied educational technologies.
- 3) Learner-based approaches are concerned with the direct production of behavioral and psychological changes in the learner by emphasizing the concept of learner training.
- 4) Classroom-based approaches provide learners with the opportunity to take control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning and assessment. These approaches include cooperative learning, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and out-of-class learning.

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- 5) Curriculum-based approaches give rise to the idea of engaging students in decision making as regard to the curriculum and syllabus design.
- 6) Teacher-based approaches accentuate the role of the teacher and teacher education in assuming responsibly of fostering learners' autonomy.

### **c. Strategy-Based Instruction**

Ze-sheng (2008) indicates that a strategy-based instruction is:

A learner-centered approach to teaching that has two major components: firstly, students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks; secondly, strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks. The first of these components has often stood alone as the approach when strategies are included in the language classroom. (p.1)

It is evident that there are two types of strategy-based learning. Chamot (2004) claims that explicit strategy-instruction concerns itself with developing students' strategy awareness, strategic thinking demonstrated by teachers, students' practicing of new strategies, their self-assessment of the strategies used, and students' production of new tasks through transferring strategies. Implicit strategy learning is manifested in the use of checklists and/or interviews; the embedding of strategies within L2 learners pedagogy and subsequent implicit practice; the utilization of various compensatory techniques to help students overcome their weaknesses instantly; and the introduction of various strategy textbooks as part of content-centered approach (Oxford's model, 1983).

Ze-sheng (2008) assures that "strategic instruction is a process that involves teaching students to read using procedures used by good readers, to write using approaches used by good writers, and to solve problems using techniques used by good problem solvers."(p. 1) in

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other words, SBI aims to assist learners make their learning more effective by taking responsibility of their own learning.

Chamot's (2004) designs a strategy-based instruction model for helping learners with their learning, which have been revised.

**Table 1.2**

*A Comparison between Two Models of a Strategy-Based Approach*

Stages	Chamot's Model (2004)	Revised Model
One	The teacher decides which strategies to use based on the group needs, the type of practice opportunities to give the students; and follow-up activities.	The teacher presents a short snappy task using an eye-catching format, followed by questions and answers to elicit information and to check comprehension.
Two	The teacher considers the needs of the teaching group in relation to particular learning tasks.	Learners work in pairs on a focused task. Using think-aloud protocols, learners decide on the strategies to use in exploratory talk.
Three	The teacher undertakes an initial presentation of a new strategy, including a brief statement about why the strategy is important and how it is expected to assist students.	In case they need to know how to pronounce words, learners use an online translation engine to seek a model, practice the model either by repeating, chanting, singing or tapping the rhythm of the words for memorisation, and then assess one another, providing feedback.

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Four	The teacher models the strategy using think-aloud protocols, demonstrating the steps involved in approaching and completing the language task.  The teacher plans for immediate practice.  The students practice the new strategies in class and are asked to reinforce learning through a piece of homework.	Learners show one another what they are able to do with the language learnt with a focus on learning outcomes.
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Note. Adapted from *Developing a strategy-based instruction approach to teaching and learning modern languages to train ab-initio Primary PGCE trainees*, by M. Moya, 2014.

### Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter is a brief review of the main works and perspectives on learning autonomy and language learning strategies. First, it sheds light on the most influential literature about the concept of learning autonomy in foreign language teaching and learning. This notion is originally political and philosophical and started to gain popularity among language teaching scholars and educators since 1990s. Yet, no single explanation was reached; it has been viewed from different standpoints which makes it open to future research. Still, most researchers agree on the main characteristics of autonomous classrooms, the required conditions to prompt learning autonomy in EFL classes and the reasons behind fostering this capacity as an attempt to achieve more successful learning. Moreover, they ensured that autonomous learners have better opportunities to develop a higher level of proficiency. The term is associated with some problems and issues especially when full and semi autonomy is concerned. Teacher's role in light of learners taking responsibility of their

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own learning is often viewed as threatened. Second, this chapter deals with language learning strategies. It involves their definitions, importance, and taxonomies. By the end, it reveals the importance of LLSs knowledge and strategic use in developing learning autonomy including cognition, metacognition and socioaffective strategies. As a result, learners should be taught both implicitly and explicitly to use different LLSs by the teacher. This kind of training is known as Strategic-based instruction. It proved its effectiveness towards more autonomous language learners.

### Chapter Two: Field Work

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III.1. Students' Perceptions and Awareness

III.2. Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies

III.3. Measuring Learners' Autonomy

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### **Introduction**

This chapter is practical. It is allocated to the research design and data presentation, analysis, and interpretation. It presents the overall approach that underpins this study. It provides an image of the context and participants of this research. In addition, it discusses the instrumentation used to collect data from the sample as well as the procedures of data analysis and interpretation. Besides, it contains the presentation of the findings reached through the questionnaire. This part aims at determining the LLSs used by Algerian EFL learners at M'sila University to develop learning autonomy. The results are approached quantitatively and displayed in form of diagrams .Then, they are interpreted in relation to the literature review provided in the first chapter. By the end of this chapter, a summary of the results is made in reference to the research questions and hypothesis.

### **I. Research Design**

#### **I.1. Methodology of Research**

This research is descriptive in nature as it attempts to explore learning autonomy among Algerian EFL learners as well as the language learning strategies followed by them developing it. For this purpose, we opted to follow the quantitative method to assure credibility in reporting the findings. We selected this method to analyze data gathered from the questionnaire responses in form of statistics as stated by Brown (1989) quantitative data is information “gathered using those measures which lend themselves to being turned into numbers and statistics” (p. 231). Babbie (2010) views this method as objective measurement of pre-existing numerical data to generalize it across a group of people. The quantitative method enables us to generalize the results obtained to the whole population.

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### **I.2. Population and Sampling**

This investigation was conducted in the Department of Letters and English Language at Mohamad Boudiaf University, M'sila. From a larger population to which we wish to generalize the results of this study, English students of Third year (LMD), we randomly selected a representative sample that contains 60 participants. We chose third year because at this level, they normally have developed a certain level of learning autonomy and are able to use, at least, some LLSs.

### **I.3. Instrumentation**

The questionnaire used in this research comprises of thirty three (33) questions that are organized under three main sections. The first section is entitled "Students' Perceptions and Awareness" and it includes six (6) questions. Two of them are open-ended questions while four of them are in form of multiple choice questions (MCQs). The second section is dedicated to the core of this research. It is made up of twelve (12) MCQs investigating the LLSs used by our participants in order to promote their learning autonomy. The suggestions were based on O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) taxonomy of LLSs. The last section, made up of fifteen (15) MCQs based on Nunan's (1997) model, seeks to discover students' level of learning autonomy. Due to time constraints and the spread of Covid 19, the questionnaire was administered online. It was posted on Facebook groups On Sunday, 08th Mai, 2022. We obtained feedback from 60 students.

### **I.4.Procedures of Data Analyses**

In order to interpret the questionnaire findings, we selected the quantitative method. The fact that almost all of the questions are closed-ended that provided us with numerical data, we analyzed the results in terms of numbers and percentages. Besides, two open-ended questions are analyzed quantitatively.



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a foreign language. Only three of them answered that they do not know but no one claimed that it is not important.

4- Autonomous learners are successful learners, I:

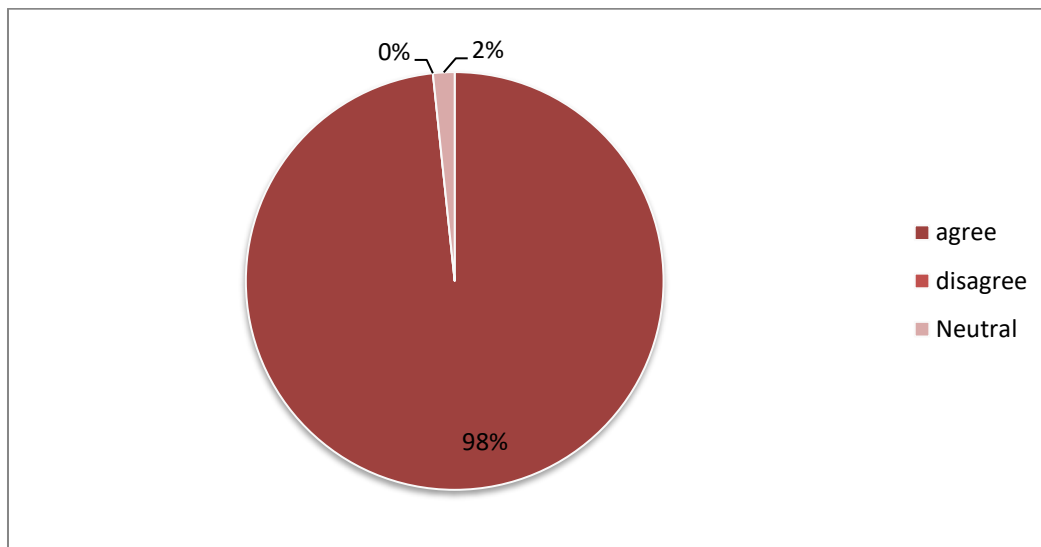
a- Agree

b- Neutral

c-Disagree

**Figure 2.2**

*Students' views on the Role of Autonomy in Successful FL Learning*



Students were given the statement 'Autonomous learners are successful learners' in which almost all (98%) of them agreed on it viewing autonomy as a key to success in learning a foreign language. No one disagreed while one student (02%) preferred to stay neutral.

4- In an EFL classroom:

a-The teacher is responsible for the learning process.

b- The learner is responsible for the learning process.

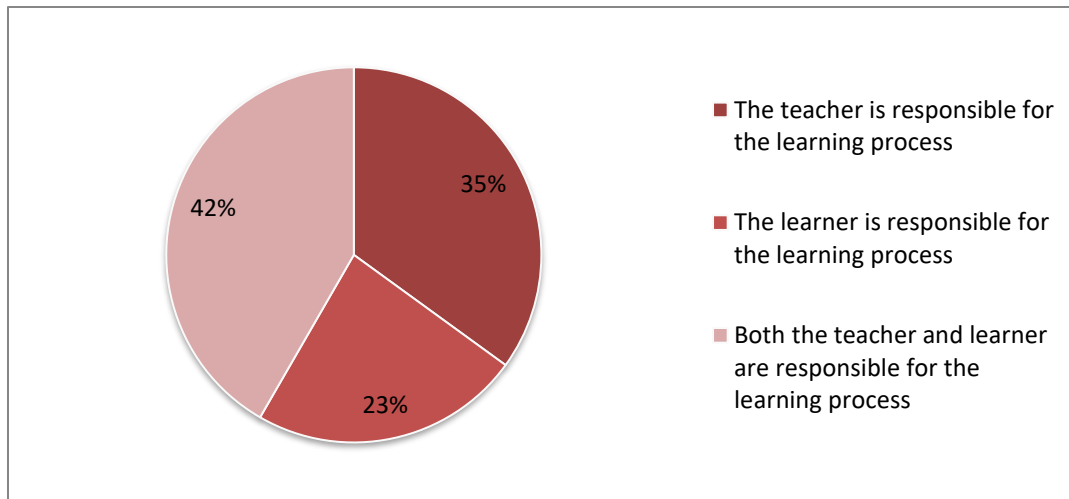
c- Both the teacher and learner are responsible for the learning process.

**Figure 2.3**

*Students' Views on the Responsibility for the Learning Process*

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Our participants were given three choices to select among in order to decide whose responsibility is to take control of the learning process inside the classroom. Some of them (42%) believe that the responsibility for the learning process should be shared between the teacher and learner. Others (35%) prefer to rely on the teacher to control and manage their learning. Whereas only few of them (23%) think that they should take charge of their own learning without any help from the teacher.

5- In the EFL classroom,

My role is to:

My teacher's role is to:

This question aims at understanding how foreign language learners think of their role and their teacher's. Their answers reflect their perceptions as well as their everyday practices. Our participants mentioned that their role is to follow the teacher's guidance, follow his instructions, do their homeworks, prepare lessons at home before coming to the classroom, participating in class, and asking clarification from the teacher in case of any misunderstanding. While they consider their teacher as a resource of information, the responsible for planning lessons, motivating them, and simplifying language rules and items for them to grasp.

6- In order to develop a high level of proficiency in English, I:

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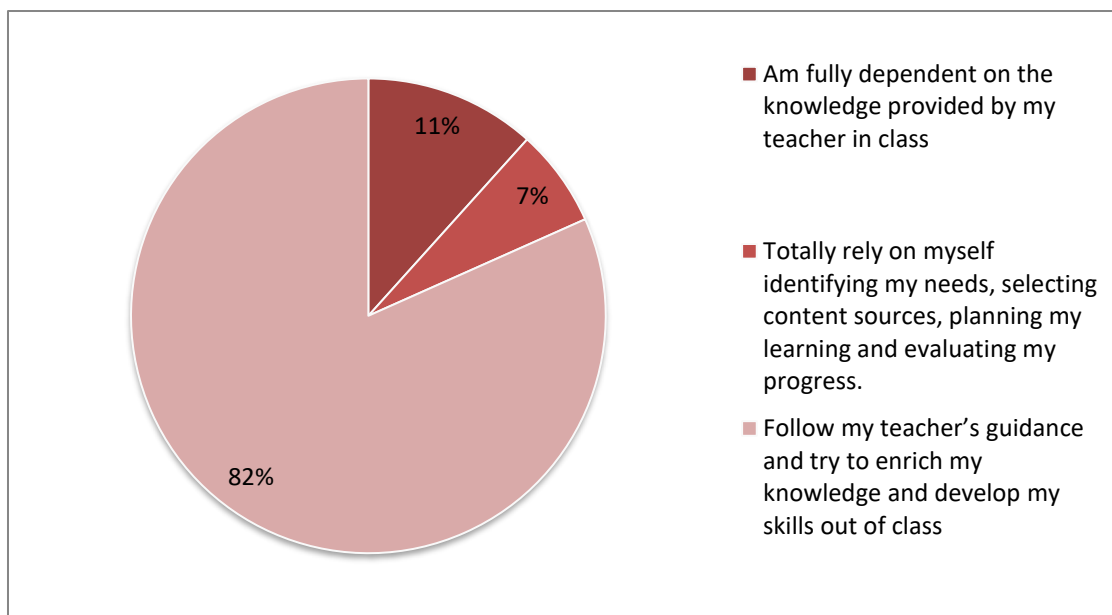
a- Am fully dependent on the knowledge provided by my teacher in class.

b- Totally rely on myself identifying my needs, selecting content sources, planning my learning and evaluating my progress.

c- Follow my teacher's guidance and try to enrich my knowledge and develop my skills out of class.

**Figure 2.4**

*Students' Responses about the Degree of Dependence on Their Teacher While Learning*



Our participants were required to select one of three choices regarding their degree of dependence on their teacher to learn the English language. Figure 04 reveals that the majority (82%) of the students tend to consider their teacher as a crucial guide along with working on themselves enriching their knowledge and developing their skills out of class. They reflect a shared responsibility between the learner and the tutor during the teaching/learning process. While some of them (11%) are fully dependent on their teacher without any attempt to be involved in taking decisions concerning their own learning. Only few of them (07%) who are fully-autonomous identifying their needs, selecting content sources, planning their learning and evaluating their progress.

### II.2. Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies

Which learning strategy do you use while learning English: (you can select more than one option)

#### A) Cognitive

1- Note taking

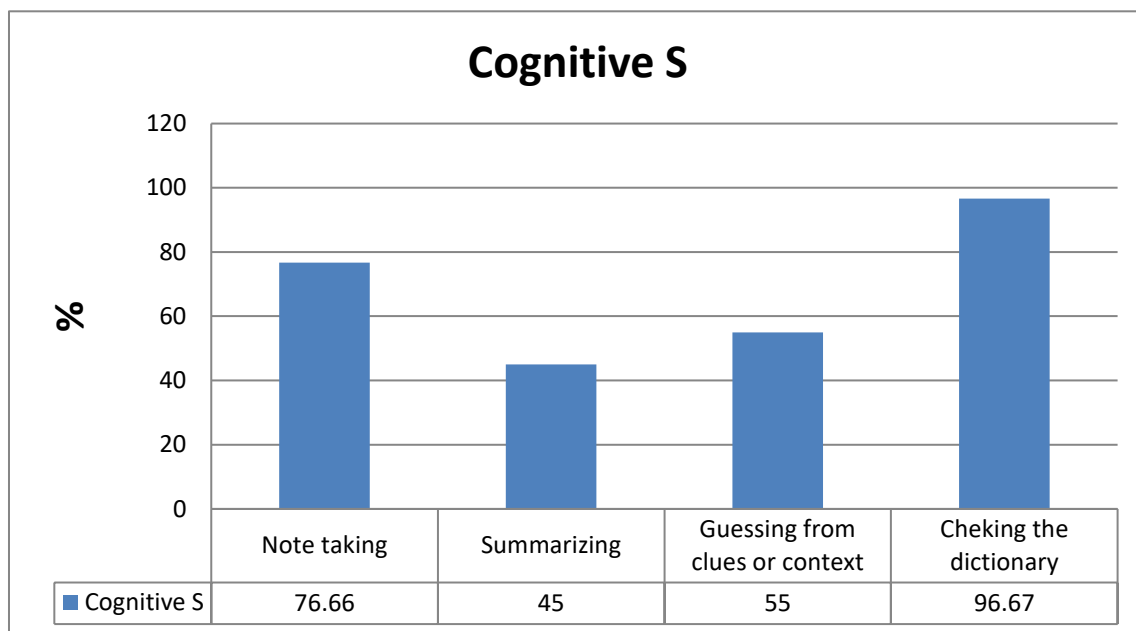
2- Summarizing

3- Guessing from clues or context

4- Checking the dictionary

**Figure 2.5**

*Students' Responses on Their Use of Cognitive strategies*



The figure above illustrates that almost all students (96.67%) are likely to check the dictionary whenever they encounter an English word they do not know. Many of them (76.67%) also tend to take notes of main ideas, details or rules while learning English. More than half of the participants (55%) do use the guessing strategy. In order to interpret a newly-met English word, they make use of the context and available clues decoding its meaning. It

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seems that the least cognitive LLS, from the provided options, employed by our participants is summarizing. Only (45%) of them use this technique.

### B) Metacognitive

5- Planning (goals, activities and materials)

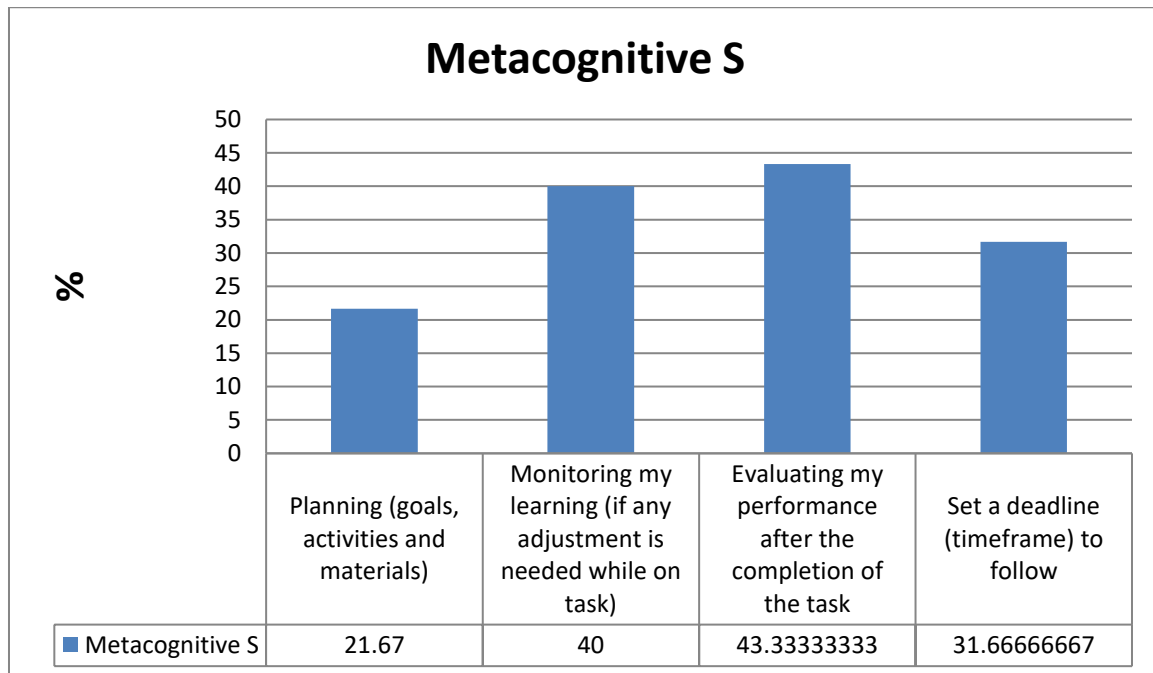
6-Monitoring my learning (if any adjustment is needed while on task)

7-Evaluating my performance after the completion of the task

8-Set a deadline (timeframe) to follow

**Figure 2.6**

*Students' Responses on Their Use of Metacognitive Strategies*



According to figure 2.6, it seems that the metacognitive strategy that is used the most by the participants (43.33%) is evaluating their progress. They evaluate their performance after the completion of the task. While 31.66% of them adopt the strategy of setting deadlines before starting the work. They prefer to have a timeframe within which they organize their learning. 40 % of them, believe in the importance of monitoring their progress while on task so as to make any modification if necessary. While the least used metacognitive LLS by the

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participants is planning. Only few of them (21.67%) plan for their learning earlier setting their goals and objectives and selecting suitable activities and materials.

### C) Social/Affective

9- Asking for clarification in case of a conversation

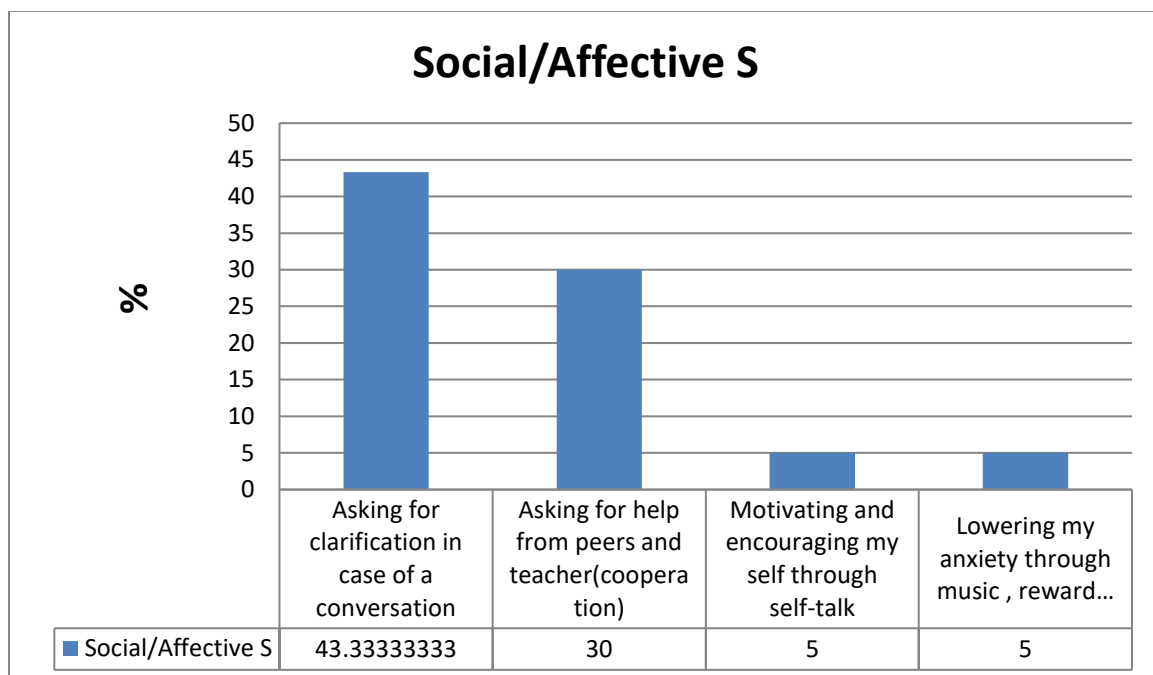
10- Asking for help from peers and teacher(cooperation)

11- Motivating and encouraging myself through self-talk

12-Lowering my anxiety through music , reward...

**Figure 2.7**

*Students' Responses on Their Use of Social/Affective Strategies*



As revealed in figure 2.7 above, the most frequently used strategy by the participants is asking for clarification in case of a conversation (43.33%). Many students tend to explicitly ask for the meaning of words they could not decipher from their interlocutor. Some of them (30%) do not hesitate to call for assistance from other people to understand a word or a rule In English, be it from their colleagues, friend or teacher. The previous two strategies are social. While the affective aspect of learning seems to be disregarded. Only 5% of the participants

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encourage themselves through self-talk, increase their motivation and lesson their anxiety through music or rewards.

**Table 2.1**

*Students' Use of Cognitive, Metacognitive and Social/Affective LLSs*

LLSs Category	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Social/ Affective
Users Percentage %	68.33%	34.16%	20.83%

From table 2.1, it is apparent that cognitive language learning strategies are the most frequently used by students (68.33%). Metacognition is less employed. Only 34.16% of them think about their own thinking and are conscious of their learning of the English language. While the social and affective aspects are neglected by most of the respondents. Only 20.83% of them use some techniques from this class of LLSs.

### II.3. Measuring Learners' Autonomy

**Table 2.2**

*Students' Level of Autonomy Based on Nunan's Model (1997)*

Level	Learner's action	Yes, I do (%)	No, I don't (%)
<b>1-Awareness</b>	1-1-I can identify the objectives and goals of different lessons and activities.	88.33	11.67
	1-2- I know my abilities, strengths and weaknesses.	100	00
	1-3-I know my dominant learning styles and preferred strategies.	96.67	3.33
<b>2-Involvement</b>	2-1- I can choose objectives and goals from a range of options according to my needs.	81.67	18.33
	2-2- If I am offered a range of learning strategies, I am able to select the appropriate ones.	95	5
	2-3-If I am given the opportunity to select an activity among some other activities, I can do it easily.	90	10

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	3-1- I can adjust learning goals set by the teacher.	51.67	48.33
<b>3-Intervention</b>	3-2- I can modify tasks and activities provided by the teacher.	41.67	58.33
	3-3- I can adjust task strategies set by the teacher.	48.33	51.67
	4-1- I can set my learning objectives according to my needs by myself.	38.33	61.67
<b>4-Creation</b>	4-2- I can create my learning plan and manage my time effectively.	60	40
	4-3- I can select learning strategies according to my abilities and task requirements without the intervention of the teacher.	50	50
	5-1- I often relate what I am learning to the outside world, for example, chatting via social media successfully.	70	30
<b>5-Transcendence</b>	5-2- I am able to plan for, manage, and evaluate my learning independently beyond the classroom.	41.67	58.33
	5-3- At this level, I can teach others EFL and conduct a research in my field.	20	80

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The table above demonstrates that the majority of students are aware of their own learning. 88.33% of them can easily recognize the objectives and goals of the ongoing lesson or activity set by the teacher. All of them said that they know their abilities, strengths and weaknesses. While 96.67% of them claimed that they know their dominant learning styles and preferred strategies. In addition, most of the participants can be involved in the process of teaching/learning English. 81.67% of them can select objectives and goals from a range of options provided by the teacher according to their needs. 95% of them are able to select the appropriate learning strategies if they are offered a range of them. 90% of them can select the appropriate activity from a set of activities among other activities developed by the teacher. Whereas, nearly half of the participants can actively and decisively intervene in learning the English language though with the presence of the teacher. 51.67% of them can modify

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learning goals already set by the teacher. 41.67% of them can adjust tasks and activities designed by the teacher. 48.33% of them can substitute the learning strategies provided by the tutor by others to solve a problem or complete a task. While many students are able to create their own aims, materials, activities and manage their learning fully independently without any intervention from the part of the teacher. 38.33% of them are capable of determining their learning objectives according to their needs without the assistance of a teacher. Creating a learning plan and managing time effectively seems to be effortless for 60% of them. Half of them (50%) can decide on the appropriate learning strategies that match with their abilities and task requirements without the teacher's interference. Transcendence, however, is the pinnacle of Nunan's (1997) learning autonomy hierarchy which involves the highest level of human consciousness. At this stage, the learner is said to be able to take full charge of his own learning, connect what he learns to the outside world and can help others learn the EFL. 70% of the participants often relate what they are learning to their real life, such as successful use of English to communicate via social media. Many of them (41.67%) are able to plan for, manage, and evaluate their learning independently beyond the classroom. Whereas teaching others EFL or conducting a research in the field of EFL seems more challenging for many. In fact, no more than twenty percent (20%) of students can do so.

**Table 2.3**

*Student's Degree of Autonomy*

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<b>Stage</b>	<b>Awareness</b>	<b>Involvement</b>	<b>Intervention</b>	<b>Creation</b>	<b>Transcendence</b>
<b>Percentage%</b>	95%	88.89%	47.22%	49.44%	43.89%

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According to table 2.3, it is evident that our participants have distinct levels of autonomy. Almost all of them (95%) are aware of their learning. Most of them (88.89%) can easily get involved in the teaching/learning process. However, less than a half (47.22%) can

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actively intervene in what has been implemented by the teacher. While nearly half of them (49.44%) can be said to reach the creation stage. The last level represents full autonomy and it is reached by 43.89% of our sample which is considered highly positive for the university.

### **III. Data Analysis**

#### **III.1. Students' Perceptions and Awareness**

This section aims at investigating learners' perceptions and awareness of the notion of learner autonomy. The first question revealed that they hold more or less the same understanding of the concept. They mentioned the learner's responsibility and engagement in his own learning which is congruent with Holec's (1981) definition of the term as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). However, almost all of them referred to the setting where autonomy can be exercised such as outside of class and home, in addition to the idea of the absence of a teacher which are rejected by Little (1991) under the heading "What Autonomy Is Not" (p.3). He confirms that learners can be autonomous inside the classroom while might take full control over their learning, yet fail due to making inaccurate decisions. Besides, Little (1996) emphasized the central role teachers play in promoting learning autonomy stating that "in formal educational contexts learners do not automatically accept responsibility for their learning, teachers must help them to do so" (p. 76).

As figure (2.1) demonstrates, the majority of students (95%) are aware of the significance of being autonomous in order to succeed in learning the English language. Candy (1991) calls for developing learner autonomy for "When learners are involved in making choices and decisions about the content and the mode of what they are studying, learning is more meaningful, and thus, effective" (p. 24). In the same line, Dickinson (1987) explains how autonomous learning can be more effective and meaningful noting that being actively engaged in learning increases one's motivation. Similarly, almost all of our participants (98%) agreed on the claim that autonomous learners are successful as shown in figure (2.2). Risen

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berg and Zimmerman (1992) have conducted a research investigating the impact of learning autonomy on learners' performance. By the end, they firmly established that autonomous learners are highly likely to achieve higher levels of proficiency.

Figure (2.3) demonstrates our participants' views on whose responsibility is to take control of the learning process inside the classroom. Some of them (42%) believe that the responsibility for the learning process should be shared between the teacher and learner. In fact, learners' responsibilities are different from those of the teacher. Besides, learning how to learn cannot be accomplished without the aid and guidance of the teacher. Little (1991) stresses the crucial role of the teacher in prompting autonomy substituting the notion of independence by interdependence. Others (35%) prefer to rely on the teacher to control and manage their learning. This can be interpreted as the lowest level of autonomy, if any. It can be due to lack of motivation, lack of self-confidence, ignorance of LLSs including metacognition, lack of awareness of the importance of autonomy in learning or even the teacher's practices (not leaving any room for involvement which is a feature of traditional teaching). Whereas only few of them (23%) think that they should take charge of their own learning without any help from the teacher. They may enjoy higher levels of autonomy.

The fifth (05) question seeks to unveil students' opinions on their role as learners and their teacher's. They mentioned that their role is to follow the teacher's guidance, follow his instructions, do their homeworks, prepare lessons at home before coming to the classroom, participating in class, and asking the teacher for clarification in case of any misunderstanding. While they consider their teacher as a resource of information, the responsible for planning lessons, motivating them, and simplifying language rules and items for them to grasp. It is clear that the participants are aware enough of their role in and out of the classroom. They believe that they need to be involved in learning. They also highly value their teacher's role. They consider him a guide, a source and a prompter. It is indeed the 21<sup>st</sup> century's trend of

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teaching/learning. The teacher is no more the pivotal point in learning but a facilitator, a gate-keeper. Instead of spoonfeeding students, it is recommended to teach them how to learn as Galileo Galilei says “you cannot teach a man anything; you can help him find it within himself” (as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 23).

Figure (2.4) represents the degree of dependence of the participants on their teacher to learn the English language. It reveals that the majority (82%) of the students tend to consider their teacher as a critical guide along with working on themselves enriching their knowledge and developing their skills out of class. They reflect a shared responsibility between the learner and the tutor during the teaching/learning process. It can be said that they are autonomous learners taking decisions about their own learning under the supervision of their teacher. Dickinson (1994) asserts that autonomy is not contradicted to teacher’s control. On the contrary, it “can be very teacher-directed” (p. 3). While some of them (11%) are fully dependent on their teacher without any attempt to be involved in taking decisions concerning their own learning. Only few of them (07%) who are fully-autonomous identifying their needs, selecting content sources, planning their learning and evaluating their progress.

### **III.2. Learners’ Use of Language Learning Strategies**

This section is designed to shed light on the language learning strategies employed by EFL students so as to foster their level of learning autonomy. It is noteworthy to mention that it is based on O’Malley and Chamot’s (1990) taxonomy. Figure (2.5) exhibits students’ responses on their use of cognitive strategies. It illustrates that almost all students (96.67%) are likely to check the dictionary whenever they encounter an English word they do not know. Marckwardt (1973) emphasizes the role of dictionaries stating that “dictionaries often supply information about the language not found elsewhere” (p. 369). It means that they are effective tools that can be used by the learner independently. In this respect, Gu (2003) clarifies that dictionary-use strategy boosts learner’s autonomy since it provides him with clarifications

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about unfamiliar words needless teacher's interference. Many of them (76.67%) also tend to take notes of main ideas, details or rules while learning English. Brazeau (2006) explains the importance of this strategy noting that it actively engages students in collecting information and organizing thoughts which results in more self-dependent learners. It also allows them to plan for and manage their learning as well as proceeding learning outside of school. Hence, it can be a bridge that connects what has been learnt in class to the world beyond it. Moreover, Kiewra (1989) believes that note-taking helps involve students and activate their cognitive mechanisms of receiving, deciphering, synthesizing and constructing information. Furthermore, more than half of the participants (55%) do use the guessing strategy. Read (2000) claims that "the most important strategy is inferring the meaning from information available in the text itself. Inferencing is a desirable strategy because it involves deeper processing that is likely to contribute to better comprehension of the text as a whole" (p. 53). Using context clues to decode unfamiliar words is a fruitful strategy that allows the learner to discover and learn new words regardless the setting and without the help of a teacher. It seems that the least employed cognitive LLS, from the provided options, by the respondents is summarizing. Only (45%) of them use this technique. Like the previous strategies, summarizing aids prompting learner autonomy for it is a complex operation which requires active processing of input including decoding, analyzing, integrating, and generating information.

Figure (2.6) displays students' responses on their use of metacognition. It seems that the metacognitive strategy that is used the most by the participants (43.33%) is evaluating their progress. Self-assessment is an influential technique that enlightens the learner about his performance including his strengths and problems after fulfilling an activity. Thus, he will be able to make adjustments later or search a remedy. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) concur on the importance of self-evaluation arguing that assessing one's own linguistic and

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communicative competence enhances learning autonomy and makes learning more effective. While some of them (31.66%) tend to set deadlines to organize their work. Having a timeframe helps finishing the work on time. It has a direct influence on learning planning and management. Besides, it fuels learner's motivation and determination to complete the task. 40% of them believe in the importance of monitoring their progress while on task so as to make any modifications if necessary. Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Reder, 1996; and Hacker, Dunlosky, & Graesser, 1998, highlight the important role of monitoring in learning. It allows learners to decide on their performance and hence, regulate their study. While the least used metacognitive LLS by the participants is planning. Only few of them (21.67%) plan for their learning earlier setting their goals and objectives and selecting suitable activities and materials. Learners without a clear plan are learners without a destination. A well-defined plan is the benchmark of success. In the same vein, Rubin and Thompson (1982) advise learners to follow planning strategies to self-manage and regulate their learning which leads to more successful and more autonomous learners. The respondents may not be aware of the necessity of planning for they might not be exposed to such a strategy by the teacher.

Figure (2.7) reveals students' responses on their use of social/affective strategies. It shows that the most frequently used strategy by the participants is asking for clarification in case of a conversation (43.33%). Many students tend to explicitly ask for the meaning of words they could not decipher from their interlocutor. Some of them (30%) do not hesitate to call for assistance from other people to understand a word or a rule In English, be it from their colleagues, friend or teacher. The previous two strategies are social which means that those students might be extrovert learners. While more than half of them do not follow these strategies which can be justified by a shy introvert personality. While the affective aspect of learning seems to be disregarded. Only 5% of the participants encourage themselves through self-talk, increase their motivation and lessen their anxiety through music or rewards. It can

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be interpreted as lack of awareness of the psychological aspect of learning whose impact is accentuated by Scovel (1978) in his seminal work “The Effect of Affect on Foreign Language Learning” stating that affective factors like low motivation and anxiety can cause mental blocks in learning.

From table (2.1), it is apparent that cognitive language learning strategies are the most frequently used by students (68.33%). Williams and Burden (1997) describe cognitive strategies as “mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information” (as cited in Blažková, 2011, p. 23). It is the mental manipulation of information including input decoding, storage, and retrieval as Oxford (1990) points out that cognitive strategies are “used for forming and revising internal codes and receiving and producing messages in the target language” (p. 71). Most learners tend to take notes, summarize, guess from context and check the dictionary as direct involvement in learning. It can be interpreted as high levels of awareness from the part of the participants in which they hold responsibility for their learning. Metacognition is less employed. Only 34.16% of them are conscious of their learning of the English language. In fact, metacognition has a direct impact on learning. It is process-oriented rather than product-oriented involving learners thinking of their own thinking. It is highly recommended to teach students how to learn since they are basically the ones doing the learning. Nyikos and Oxford (1993) agree on this mentioning that: “learning begins with the learner” (cited in Griffiths, 2003, p. 14). Additionally, O’Malley et al. (1985) confirm that “students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction and ability to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions” (cited in Blažková, 2011, p. 67). While the social and affective aspects are neglected by most of the participants. Only 20.83% of them use some techniques from this class of LLSs. It corroborates Celik and Toptas (2010) study that found that their Turkish EFL learners perceived the social strategies as the least preferred strategy category. O’Malley and Chamot

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(1990) stress the role of social and affective strategies. They maintain that the former assists learners with the environment where to practice the learnt items of language while the latter provides the psychological support required to learn.

All in all, LLSs are directly linked to learning autonomy. Oxford (1990) defines them as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, ... more self-directed, ...” (p. 8). Similarly, Thornbury (2006) considers them as “techniques or behaviors that learners consciously apply in order to enhance their learning” (p. 115). In parallel, Weinstein and Mayer (1986) describes them as “the behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process” (p. 315). From the definition, it is clear that LLSs are conscious actions that allow the learner to be involved in learning making decisions and thus, sharing responsibility with the teacher. From the results reached, our participants do use multiple strategies especially cognitive and metacognitive techniques so as to be more independent and self-directed learners. However, some students remain disadvantaged lacking the awareness and/or ability to employ distinct LLSs, if any. It is the responsibility of the teacher to teach them the different LLSs and how and when to use them for implementing the wrong LLS can result in a failure. Cohen (1998) emphasizes the impact of the strategic use of learning strategies stating that “The element of choice is important here because this is what gives a strategy its special character. These are also moves which the learner is at least partially aware of, even if full attention is not being given to them”(p. 4).

### **III.3. Measuring Learners’ Autonomy**

This section is dedicated to exploring learner autonomy level of third year English students at M’sila University. A fifteen-statement section built on Nunan’s (1997) framework was designed. Table (2.2) demonstrates that the majority of respondents (88.33%) are able to

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recognize the objectives and goals of the current lesson or activity provided by the teacher. Knowing the objective of the lesson gives a clear image of what to do and what is required from them. All of them can identify their abilities, strengths and weaknesses. Also, almost all of them (96.67%) know their dominant learning styles and preferred strategies. It means that the majority of students (95%) are aware of their own learning. Nunan (1997) states that students at this level “are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using ... [and] identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles / strategies”(p. 195). In addition, 81.67% of them can select objectives and goals from a range of options provided by the teacher according to their needs. 95% of them are able to select the appropriate learning strategies if they are offered a range of them. 90% of them can select the appropriate activity from a set of activities designed by the teacher. This reveals that most of the participants (88.89%) can be involved in the process of teaching/learning English. In this regard, Nunan (1997) describes the second stage of autonomy stating that “Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer”, he maintains “Learners make choices [about the whole process] among a range of options” (ibid). Whereas, nearly half of the participants (51.67%) can modify learning goals already set by the teacher. 41.67% of them can adjust tasks and activities designed by the teacher. 48.33% of them can substitute the learning strategies provided by the tutor to solve a problem or complete a task. It can be said, then, that nearly half of the sample can actively intervene in learning the English language taking decisions regulating their study. It is the third level of autonomy which is explained by Nunan (1997) as the stage where “Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning program...[and]... tasks” (ibid). The next level is creation. At this stage, students are able to create their own aims, materials, activities and manage their learning fully independently without the help of a teacher. According to table (2.3), nearly half of respondents (49.44%).

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has reached this level. Table (2.2) reveals that 38.33% of the participants are capable of determining their learning objectives according to their needs without the aid of a teacher. Creating a learning plan and managing time effectively is an effortless task for 60% of them. Half of them (50%) can decide on the appropriate learning strategies that match with their abilities and task requirements without the interference of the teacher. The last category involves the following three points. 70% of the participants often relate what they are learning to their real life, such as successful use of English for communication. Many of them (41.67%) are able to plan for, manage, and evaluate their learning independently beyond the classroom. Whereas teaching others EFL or conducting a research in the field of EFL seems more challenging for many. In fact, no more than twenty percent (20%) of students can do so. It is the last and highest level of learning autonomy called transcendence which is synonymous to full autonomy. At this stage, “Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond” and they eventually “become teachers and researchers” (ibid). Among our participants, 43.89% are said to be fully autonomous/ transcendent (table 2.3). It is the role of the teacher to support the other half to become more self-directed learners. Benson (2001) agrees noting that “language teachers have a crucial role to play in fostering learner autonomy by taking both out-of-class and classroom perspectives.” (p. 11). Referring to the previous section, teaching language learning strategies which is often called strategy-based instruction (SBI) is one of the fruitful tools to accomplish this task.

### **IV. Summary of Results**

Data drawn from the analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire revealed many results. The first section was devoted to investigating learners’ perceptions and awareness of learner autonomy. The findings indicate a general consensus among respondents on the connotation of the concept of LA. All of them referred to the notions of learner’s

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independence, control, responsibility, involvement and ability to take decisions about his own learning. However, like many FL/SL learners as well as teachers, they hold a popular misperception confining LA meaning to out-of-class learning excluding the teacher's role. Little (1991) and Dickinson (1987) invalidate such misconceptions reassuring language teachers that the new trend of LA does not contradict their job. Further, it is found that most participants are aware of the importance of autonomy in learning which is considered the first step towards LA. Likewise, most of them agree on the claim that LA is a key to language learning success. Yet, only a few of them view learning as a shared responsibility between teachers and students. Some of them think they can develop their linguistic and communicative competence needlessly a prompter. Asked about their roles and their teachers', many respondents reflect good understanding though not fully accurately. Many of them follow their teachers' insightful instructions and continue improving their level and skills independently out-of-college. Notwithstanding their good perceptions of the importance of LA and the role of each, some students are fully dependent on their teachers assigning the entire responsibility to them. In our opinion, this is because they are not motivated as they may not be interested in their branch of study resulting in recklessness regarding their level. The findings of the current section corroborates Gherbi and Rebahi (2020) study in which they found that M'sila University EFL students have positive perceptions on LA and its significance though they misinterpret their roles and their teachers'.

The second section was intended to explore the language learning strategies employed by EFL learners to boost learning autonomy. Victori and Lockhart (1995) highlight the central role of metacognition in promoting LA. However, the results obtained from the responses' analysis demonstrate that cognitive strategies are the most frequently used LLSs (68.33%) while learning EFL which is congruent with Ghout-Khenoune's (2015) findings investigating LLSs used by undergraduate learners at Bejaia University. Our results show that dictionary

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use is in the lead among this category. Similar results have been found by Wu (2005) who found using an electronic bilingual dictionary to be the most used and useful LLSs as perceived by students. Then, note-taking, guessing from context and summarizing are used gradually respectively from the most to the least preferred by students. Concerning metacognitive strategies, they are used with a low rate (34.16%). Nearly half of the respondents seem to be reflective about their own learning through self-evaluation and self-monitoring. While only few who set deadlines and plan for their learning. Current findings are inconsistent with Tabeti (2017) that found that EFL students of Mascara University mostly resort to metacognitive strategies. On the other hand, social/affective strategies are little used by students (20.83%) including asking for clarification, cooperation, encouraging oneself through self-talk, motivating oneself and mitigating one's own anxiety. LLSs are crucial in developing LA which requires Algerian teachers to train their students to use them strategically through SBI to be more self-directed and thus successful. In line with this, Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007, state that "(SBI) is an approach that focuses on the training of strategic learning by incorporating the training of strategies into the regular language curriculum" (as cited in Nguyen and Gu, 2013, p.12). Without the mastery of LLSs "students will remain trapped in their old patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never be fully autonomous." (Wenden, 1998, p. 90).

The Last section was dedicated to measuring the level of autonomy of the participants. Results show that most students have already gone a long way in their journey towards learning autonomy. Further, nearly half of them have reached the highest level of self-directed learning. Almost all of third year M'sila University EFL students are aware of the learning process. They are conscious of the learning objectives, lesson content as well as their learning styles and preferred strategies. Knowing oneself paves the way for accurate decisions leading to successful learning. Great number of them can be actively involved in

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class decisions. It means they can select from a set of options be it learning strategies, activities or materials according to their needs, abilities and preferences. Fewer students have reached the third level ‘intervention’. They can adapt ready-made objectives, materials and tasks. They have moved from *taking* decisions (from a range of choices) to proactively *making* decisions. While nearly half of them (49.44%) can be said to be highly autonomous. They are able to create their own objectives, lesson content and materials and implement LLSs without the teacher’s control. The other half finds self-instruction a real challenge. According to Nunan (1997), the apex of LA is the ability to link what has been learnt to the outside world along with lifelong learning. 43.89% are said to be transcendent. Still, helping others to learn EFL and conducting research in the field a daunting task for the majority. On the whole, the findings reached about M’sila University third year EFL students are considered positive compared to previous studies. For instance, Feidjel (2013) has concluded that merely 28% of Biskra University EFL learners are able to learn autonomously. Also, Hadi (2018) has reached that EFL students at Tlemcen University are too dependent on their teachers learning the English language. Besides, Algerian higher education does not support LA promotion neither through curriculums nor materials (Hadi, 2012).

### **Conclusion**

In this practical chapter, the research design was presented including the research method, context, population and sampling, instrumentation, and data analyses procedures. The findings obtained through the questionnaire are presented and interpreted quantitatively. This work aims at investigating LLSs use by third year learners of English as an FL at M’sila University to develop learning autonomy. The results revealed that students have positive perceptions on the concept of LA. They are aware of the importance of autonomous learning, and displayed positive attitude and readiness to a less teacher-controlled approach which

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answers the first question of the current study, Are Third year university students of EFL aware of the importance of autonomous learning? Another significant result is that students use multiple LLSs as an attempt to be more self-directed learners. They favour Cognitive strategies over metacognitive strategies. Yet, they disregard the social/affective strategies. This answers the second question which is what are the LLSs employed by third year EFL learners in order to foster learning autonomy? The results also unveiled that nearly half of students are semi-autonomous while the other half is fully-autonomous which answers the last question, to what extent are third year EFL learners autonomous? Hence, our hypothesis, third year university EFL learners use a variety of LLSs and are autonomous to a certain extent, is confirmed. At the end we can generalize the results obtained from our participants (60) students to the whole population of third year English students at Mohamad Boudiaf University, M'sila.

## General Conclusion

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### General Conclusion

In recent years, a new trend has been introduced to the field of foreign language teaching and learning. Traditional teaching was highly criticized by educators and researchers calling for more learner-controlled learning. Hence, the notion of autonomous learning has become a central issue in the field. Particularly, strategic learning has received considerable attention identified as a fundamental component of independent learning. In a similar vein, the present work has been conducted to investigate the use of language learning strategies (LLSs) among Algerian EFL learners in order to develop learning autonomy ; a case of third year students of English at Mohamad Boudiaf University of M'sila.

In order to carry out this research, sixty (60) students were selected as a sample from a wider population of third year English students at M'sila University to which we wish to generalize our results. So as to reach answers to our questions and either confirm or refute our hypothesis, we opted for the use of a questionnaire of thirty three (33) questions about learners' perceptions and awareness of LA, their use of language learning strategies to be more self-directed, and their level of LA. The questionnaire was administered online via Facebook groups. Data collected was analyzed and interpreted quantitatively in form of statistics and percentages that were turned into tables and figures mainly charts and pillars.

The results of the current study's first section have shown that the participants hold acceptable understanding of the LA, are aware of its importance in developing higher levels of language proficiency, and exhibited positive attitudes and readiness to the let-me-drive learning experience. The second section confirmed that they employ different strategies to learn be more self-directed. The most and the least frequently used LLSs are also indicated in our work. Cognitive strategies are the most frequently used strategies among the learners with nearly full percentage of dictionary use strategy. Metacognition is less used. Whereas

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social/affective strategies are the least frequently used among EFL learners. In addition, a third section was designed to measure LA level of the participants. It revealed that half of them are semi-autonomous while the other half is transcendent. The findings obtained have answered all of the research questions and confirmed the hypothesis that third year university EFL learners use a variety of LLSs and are autonomous to a certain extent. Thus, the results can be generalized to the whole population of third year EFL students of M'sila University.

Some limitations of this research can be addressed. First, for time constraints and the Covid 19 pandemic, it was impossible to use more than one instrument; only a questionnaire was used. We strongly encourage more research works on this topic using different tools to investigate it thoroughly. Especially, LLSs use needs to be investigated through tests and interviews since most of them are unobservable unless if we ask the learner explicitly about them (Oxford, 1990). In addition, we worked on a small number of students for time issues; we highly recommend more studies on greater bigger samples. We also have some pedagogical implications for teachers as well as suggestions for EFL students.

### **Pedagogical Implications for Teachers**

The fact that autonomous learners are more successful than passive learners, teachers should promote their students' awareness of the value of independent learning. They have to motivate them to increase their readiness to exert control, even if partially, over their own learning participating in taking class decisions. Some teachers do not leave much space for learners' control thinking that LA threatens their job. On the contrary, highly autonomous classrooms minimize teachers' burdens. At the same time, without the help of a teacher, students rarely succeed in making the accurate decisions.

Since LLSs are a key factor in boosting LA, teachers have to allocate sufficient time to present them, explain how and when to choose the strategies which suit students' learning

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styles, abilities as well as task requirements and devote many occasions to practice. Dörnyei (1996) assures that one of the most effective ways to teach learners how to learn is SBI. He Calls for implicit and explicit integration of these strategies into the course content.

### **Suggestions for Students**

Autonomous learners are highly likely to develop a higher level of language proficiency; therefore, Algerian students should reduce their dependence on teachers and show initiative in learning. They need to be fully conscious of the entire process of learning starting from knowing their abilities, preferences, and learning styles. They also have to know their roles as students and their teachers' in a modern learner-centered classroom. Besides, multiple opportunities are available for learners mainly ICTs and the internet. Now, learners can easily find extra knowledge sources and materials, activities and assessment tools. They too can practice their linguistic, communicative as well as pragmatic competence either with native speakers or EFL/ESL learners.

Further, LLSs can lead EFL learners to full-autonomy. As a result, it is highly recommended for Algerian students to enrich their strategies repertoire with a broad range of techniques especially cognitive and metacognitive strategies including planning, self-monitoring and self-evaluation. It is noteworthy to mention that random use of these strategies is no guarantee of successful learning. Oxford (1990) states that advanced learners generally use a wide array of appropriate strategies.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

Since learning autonomy is a key to successful foreign language learning, it is highly recommended to conduct more research in this area to provide more insights as how to implement it in Algerian schools and universities. Some focus points can be measuring the

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extent to which LA is integrated in Algerian curriculums, teachers' awareness and training to foster LA, and teacher's autonomy.

In addition, This study has stressed the role of LLSs in developing higher levels of LA; we suggest that future research focus on other methods that may enhance it.

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# Appendices

## Students' questionnaire

Dear students, in order to fulfill the Master degree, we are required to conduct a research which this questionnaire is part of .You are kindly requested to fill it in. You have to know that your cooperation is voluntary and anonymous .

### Section One : Learners' Perceptions and Awareness

1- I understand the concept of learning autonomy as

.....  
.....

2- Autonomy in language learning is:

- Important                       Not important                       I do not know

3- Autonomous learners are successful learners, I:

- Agree                       Neutral                       Disagree

4- In an EFL classroom:

- The teacher is responsible for the learning process.  
 The learner is responsible for the learning process.  
 Both the teacher and learner are responsible for the learning process.

5-In the EFL classroom,

- My role is to

.....  
.....  
.....

- My teacher's role is to

.....  
.....  
.....

6- In order to develop a high level of proficiency in English, I:

- Am fully dependent on the knowledge provided by my teacher in class.
- Totally rely on myself identifying my needs, selecting content sources, planning my learning and evaluating my progress.
- Follow my teacher's guidance and try to enrich my knowledge and develop my skills out of class.

**Section Two: Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies(O'Malley and Chamot (1990) Classification)**

Which learning strategy do you use while learning English: (you can select more than one option)

**A) Cognitive**

- 1- Note taking
- 2- Summarizing
- 3- Guessing from clues or context
- 4- Checking the dictionary

**B) Metacognitive**

- 5- Planning (goals, activities and materials)
- 6-Monitoring my learning (if any adjustment is needed while on task)
- 7-Evaluating my performance after the completion of the task
- 8-Set a deadline (timeframe) to follow

**C) Social/Affective**

- 9- Asking for clarification in case of a conversation
- 10- Asking for help from peers and teacher(cooperation)
- 11- Motivating and encouraging myself through self-talk
- 12-Lowering my anxiety through music , reward...

**Section Three: Measuring Learners' Autonomy(Nunan's model, 1997)**

Level	Lerner's action	Yes, I do	No, I don't
1-Awarnessness	1-1-I can identify the objectives and goals of different lessons and activities.		
	1-2- I know my abilities, strengths and weaknesses.		

	1-3-I know my dominant learning styles and preferred strategies.		
2-Involvement	2-1- I can choose objectives and goals from a range of options according to my needs.		
	2-2- If I am offered a range of learning strategies, I am able to select the appropriate ones.		
	2-3-If I am given the opportunity to select an activity among some other activities, I can do it easily.		
3-Intervention	3-1- I can adjust learning goals set by the teacher.		
	3-2- I can modify tasks and activities provided by the teacher.		
	3-3- I can adjust task strategies set by the teacher.		
4-Creation	4-1- I can set my learning objectives according to my needs by myself.		
	4-2- I can create my learning plan and manage my time effectively.		
	4-3- I can select learning strategies according to my abilities and task requirements without the intervention of the teacher.		
5- Transcendence (highest level of human consciousness)	5-1- I often relate what I am learning to the outside world, for example, chatting via social media successfully.		
	5-2- I am able to plan for, manage, and evaluate my learning independently beyond the classroom.		
	5-3- At this level, I can teach others EFL and conduct a research in my field.		

## ملخص

أدى التحول من التدريس المتمحور حول المعلم إلى النهج الذي يركز على المتعلم إلى تقديم مفهوم التعلم الذاتي. لقد أثبتت مجموعة كبيرة من الأبحاث التأثير الإيجابي لوعي الطلاب ومشاركتهم في العملية التعليمية مما أدى إلى تعلم أكثر فعالية. تعتبر استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة حجر الأساس في التعلم المستقل. لهذا الغرض ، يهدف البحث الحالي للكشف عن مدى وعي المتعلمين وتصوراتهم حول أهمية تقاسم المسؤولية مع معلم القسم. كما يهدف إلى فحص استخدامهم للتعلم الاستراتيجي باعتباره أكثر استقلالية. كما يحاول قياس مستوى التعلم الذاتي لديهم. لهذا الغرض، تم اختيار طلاب السنة الثالثة من اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة المسيلة كعينة. للإجابة على أسئلة الدراسة واختبار فرضيتها، اخترنا استخدام استبيان يحوي ثلاثة وثلاثين (33) سؤالاً. تم جمع نتائجها وتحليلها كمياً. في النهاية ، وجدنا أن متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية مدركون لأهمية التعلم الذاتي ما يعكس استعدادهم للمبادرة في التعلم. بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، يستخدمون عددًا من استراتيجيات التعلم بمعدل مرتفع للاستراتيجيات المعرفية. تستخدم الاستراتيجيات الإدراكية بدرجة أقل بينما نادرًا ما يتم استخدام الاستراتيجيات الاجتماعية / العاطفية. والنتيجة المهمة الأخرى هي أن نصف المستجيبين شبه مستقلين بينما النصف الآخر متسامي. في الختام ، نشجع المزيد من الدراسات ذات الصلة لضعف الأبحاث في هذا المجال في السياق الجزائري. نقترح تنفيذ التعليم القائمة على استراتيجيات التعلم كتنظيم ناجح لدعم التعلم الذاتي في التعليم العالي الجزائري. فيما يتعلق بالطلاب ، نوصي بشدة بدمج استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة أثناء تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، يحتاجون إلى تخطي العادات التقليدية التي تعتمد بشكل كبير على المعلم، بدلاً من ذلك يجب عليهم معرفة أدوارهم كمتعلمين نشطين في فصل دراسي حديث للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** التعلم الذاتية، استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة، متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، التعليم العالي.

## Résumé

Passer d'une instruction centrée sur l'enseignant à une approche centrée sur l'apprenant a introduit le concept d'apprentissage autonome. Une masse de recherches a prouvé l'impact positif de la conscience et de l'engagement des étudiants dans l'expérience d'apprentissage, ce qui se traduit par un apprentissage plus efficace et significatif. Les stratégies d'apprentissage des langues sont considérées comme la pierre angulaire de l'apprentissage autonome. À cette fin, la recherche actuelle est menée pour enquêter sur la sensibilisation et les perceptions des apprenants quant à l'importance du partage des responsabilités avec l'enseignant de la classe. Il vise également à examiner leur utilisation de l'apprentissage stratégique en étant plus autonome. Par ailleurs, il tente de mesurer leur niveau d'autonomie d'apprentissage. A cet effet, des étudiants EFL de troisième année à l'université de M'sila sont sélectionnés comme échantillon. Afin de répondre aux questions de l'étude et de tester son hypothèse, nous avons opté pour l'utilisation d'un questionnaire structuré de trente trois (33) questions. Les résultats sont collectés et analysés quantitativement. À la fin, nous avons constaté que les apprenants EFL sont conscients de l'importance de l'apprentissage autonome reflétant une volonté de prendre des initiatives dans leur propre apprentissage. De plus, ils emploient un certain nombre de stratégies d'apprentissage avec un taux élevé de stratégies cognitives. La métacognition est moins utilisée tandis que les stratégies sociales/affectives sont rarement utilisées. Un autre résultat significatif est que la moitié des répondants sont semi-autonomes tandis que l'autre moitié est transcendante. En conclusion, nous encourageons davantage d'études connexes car un faible corpus de recherche a été établi dans le contexte Algérien. Nous suggérons la mise en œuvre d'un enseignement basé sur la stratégie comme une formation réussie pour améliorer l'autonomie d'apprentissage dans l'enseignement supérieur Algérien. Concernant les étudiants, nous recommandons fortement d'intégrer des stratégies d'apprentissage des langues tout en apprenant l'anglais. En outre, ils doivent ignorer les habitudes traditionnelles qui dépendent trop de l'enseignant, mais plutôt connaître leur rôle en tant qu'apprenants actifs dans une classe EFL moderne.

**Mots clés :** *autonomie d'apprentissage, stratégies d'apprentissage des langues, apprenants EFL, Education tertiaire.*