DEVELOPING A TEACHING-LEARNING MODEL TO ENHANCE AUTONOMOUS PTKIN LEARNERS

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Abstract: The study intends to develop a teaching model to foster Indonesian students to be autonomous learners. The study is participatory action research with a mixed method. The research subjects were English department students of State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Tulungagung and IAIN Kediri taking Writing 1. The instrument was adapted from an established mechanism to meet the purpose of the study. The researcher analyzed the Quantitative data through correlated t-test, repeated measure ANOVA, and thematic content analysis. There were eight stages in the survey: identifying needs, setting goals, planning to learn, selecting resources, selecting learning strategies, practice, monitoring progress, and assessment and revision. These all stages were designed and determined together by the teachers and students. The results reveal that there are four main stages to enhance the students' autonomy in writing. The first is free-writing, in which the students wrote a paragraph freely on any topic they liked. Having finished this first draft, they were to self-check their work based on some criteria provided. The second is peer correction, in which they exchanged their work with their peers (peer correction) to gain some suggestion, discipline, and comments. The third is edited free-writing. Having got some advice, revision, and comments from peers, they started to revise their work. The last is the final copy. In this stage, they were to have a final self-check. Statistical analysis also reveals that this strategy significantly increases the students' learning autonomy.

Keywords: Learning Autonomy, Self-Check, Peer Correction, Learning Strategy, PTKIN Learners.
Introduction

Autonomy in language learning is a relatively new field, and research on learner autonomy started in the 1970s. However, as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes. Nowadays, autonomy is widely accepted as a desirable goal in education, and “few teachers will disagree with the importance of helping learners become more autonomous as learners.” Modern education places great value on the development of the learners of humanistic qualities and humanistic education. Primarily based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, it reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner. Developing from moves towards communicative language teaching, recent innovations in classroom practice have emphasized the value of collaborative learning, learner-centeredness, autonomy, and shared decision-making in the classroom. One corollary of learner-centeredness is that individualization will assume greater importance, as will the recognition that the autonomy of the learner is our ultimate goal.

Many authors have emphasized the role of teachers in the promotion of learner autonomy. In this sense, the teacher is a facilitator, counselor, or guide with a supportive attitude towards the learner. Within a learner-centered environment, a teacher is willing to release some power over the students on their development as independent, able learners. Furthermore, they have pointed out the possibility to help students develop autonomy by teaching them strategies to learn the language, rather than transmitting the language and fostering self-reflection and critical thinking. Following this rationale, Wenden examines the features of autonomous learners, shows how those characteristics are linked to learning strategies, and proposes activities to teach those learners. In her analysis, the author uses the typologies of learning strategies.

In addition, within the field of English language learning, the roles of teachers in promoting learner autonomy have been examined in specific contexts. Benson suggests that if self-directed learning is to be implemented,

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1 David Nunan, The Learner-Centred Curriculum: A Study in Second Language Teaching (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1988).
2 Anita Wenden, Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy (London: Prentice Hall Inc, 1991).
3 Phil Benson, Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in Language Learning (London: Routledge, 2013). See also Barbara Sinclair, Ian McGrath, and Terry Lamb, Learner Autonomy, Teacher Autonomy: Future Directions (London: Longman Harlow, 2000).
the teacher changes from 'producing' learning to 'facilitating' it. The teacher's job is to help students develop the ability to define all aspects of their learning. Thus, teachers can set their goals to meet their personal needs. For example, clarify content, find suitable material, choose learning strategies and learning activities that may be useful, set goals, monitor progress, make realistic plans, evaluate yourself and motivate yourself.

From the background of the study and the review of related literature, it is apparent that developing learning autonomy should become a particular focus in today's long-life education. Hence, the research wants to answer (1) how the learning autonomy among PTKIN students like is, (2) what autonomy strategies best fit the PTKIN students to foster autonomous learners, and (3) how the Teachers could develop a model of teaching and learning to enhance learning autonomy among PTKIN students.

The study is action research with a mixed-method study. Forty-one English department students from IAIN Tulungagung participated in the survey, and 24 from IAIN Kediri. There are eight stages in the study, as proposed by Reinders about self-directed learning. They identify needs, set goals, plan education, select resources, select learning strategies, practice, monitor progress, and assess and revise. All of these stages were done together between the teacher and the students. The first five stages needed two class meetings, and the activity was focus-group discussion. The result was a tentative course outline designed together between the instructor and the students. Furthermore, there were six class meetings for practice, while monitoring progress was made during the class meeting. The last meeting of the semester was for assessment and revision in the form of a general overview.

There were two kinds of instruments: questionnaires about learning strategies and about learning autonomy. They were adapted from several sources and established tools. This adaptation was made in such a way to meet the characteristics and the purpose of the study. A modified structured questionnaire was used to elicit quantitative data. It was administered after the eight stages were completed. At the same time, qualitative data were produced through focus-group discussion, recording, open-ended questionnaire, and observation before, during, and after the eight stages. The quantitative data were analyzed through correlated t-test and repeated measure ANOVA, while qualitative data were analyzed through thematic

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4 Phil Benson and Peter Voller, “Introduction: Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning,” in Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning, ed. Phil Benson and Peter Voller (London: Routledge, 2014), 1–12.

5 H Reinders, “Materials Development for Learner Autonomy,” Australian Journal of Teacher Education 35, no. 3 (2010): 40–55.
content analysis. The data were primarily elicited and gained from the students since they are the primary source of the research.

There are eight stages in the self-directed learning process. These stages are iterative; they form a cycle that repeats and builds on itself. First, they are (1) identifying needs. Second, a focus group discussion was held to gain the students' past learning experiences and past learning difficulties. (2) Setting goals, after assessing the students' needs in students' past learning experiences and students' learning difficulties, learning goals are then formulated. (3) Planning learning: In this section, all planned teaching and learning activities are elaborated in detail. (4) Selecting resources, it is here that learning resources in the form of related references become the primary sources of knowledge. (5) Selecting learning strategies, it is apparent that the strategies used by the unsuccessful learners are similar to successful learners. Still, they often fail to apply appropriately to the tasks at hand. (6) Practice, it is in this stage that becomes the core teaching activities. There were three primary materials, namely, topic, controlling ideas, topic sentence, and grammatical sentences; unity and coherence; and types of paragraphs. (7) Monitoring progress is used to assess students' academic performance, quantify a student rate of improvement or responsiveness to instruction, and evaluate instruction effectiveness.

**Autonomous Learning at a Glance**

The concept of autonomous learning stemmed from debates about developing life-long learning skills and developing independent thinkers in the 1960s. By 1981 Holec defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one's learning.” Dickinson accepts the definition of autonomy as “a situation in which a learner is responsible for decisions related to learning and implementing them.” Little suggests that learner autonomy is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning. In Pennycook's political-critical viewpoint, the development of autonomy and agency must involve becoming “an author of one's world.”

All the definitions of autonomy entail capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others to be a socially responsible person.

Autonomy in foreign languages is considered an essential component for creative development in communication, moving away from conventional and restrictive contexts and moving towards self-direction and self-regulation. The individuals reorganize, restructure and evaluate their learning.

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6 Leslie Dickinson, “Autonomy and Motivation a Literature Review,” *System* 23, no. 2 (1995): 165–74.

7 David Little, *Learner Autonomy: Definitions, Issues and Problems* (Dublin: Authentic, 1991).
experience. The introduction of these new contexts encourages them “to become authors of their own worlds.” Language learning explains that autonomy is self-learning in the classroom and gradually transferring learning from teacher to student. Self-learning centers attention on the individual and independence.

Nevertheless, developed independence through autonomy is conditioned to interdependence; this is one of the social beings' characteristics. Autonomy, therefore, may be understood as freedom of control, not only of the teacher but also of the curriculum, the preconceived ideas of learning a new language, and the students' weaknesses. Then, the transfer process presupposes the development of a functional relationship among the learner, the process and the content of learning in the way they know. How he/she transfers this learning to contexts outside the classroom), thus, empowering the learner to be confident in new surroundings.

Furthermore, a common theme in justifications for autonomy is that autonomous learners become more highly motivated and that autonomy leads to better, more effective work. Independent learners draw on their intrinsic motivation when they accept responsibility for their learning and commit themselves to develop reflective self-management skills in learning. To find the relationship between cause and autonomy, we need to refer to the literature on motivation in general education, especially the literature on cognitive stimulation.

Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior. Motivation in learning a second/foreign language is one of the essential subjects in second language acquisition. In the past decades, researchers have been conducting studies of language learning motivation from different perspectives. For example, Gardner and Lambert investigate motivation from a socio-psychological perspective. They considered the motivation to learn the other community's language to be a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. A cognitive approach characterizes the current spirit in motivational psychology (and in psychology

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8 Benson and Voller, “Introduction: Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning.”
9 Irza Yuzulia, “EFL Teachers’ Perceptions and Strategies in Implementing Learner Autonomy,” Linguists : Journal Of Linguistics and Language Teaching 6, no. 1 (July 13, 2020): 36–54, https://doi.org/10.29300/ling.v6i1.2744.
10 Dickinson, “Autonomy and Motivation a Literature Review.”
11 Ibid.
12 Robert C. Gardner, Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning (London: Psychology Press, 2014). See also Wallace E. Lambert et al., A Study of the Roles of Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning (De Gruyter Mouton, 2012).
in general). Current cognitive systems focus on the individual's thoughts, beliefs, and interpretational processes transformed into action. The practical cognitive approaches to motivation are self-determination theory, attribution theory, and goal theories.

Deci and Ryan’s self-determination theory has been the most effective approach in motivational psychology. The main terms associated with self-determination theory are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Noels, Luc Pelletier, and Robert Vallerand also specialize in self-determination theory. Their research has provided insights into how the main concepts: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, fit into the L2 field. Attribution theory became the dominant theory in the 1980s. Attribution theory explains how people perceive the causes of their actions and those of others. It manages to link people's past experiences with their future achievement effort by introducing causal attributions as the mediating link. The study of goals within the field of motivation has a long history. Goal-orientation theory is the most prominent area in the study of dreams. Goal orientation theorists are concerned with the reasons why students choose to engage in particular tasks.

Autonomous learning has become a common jargon for an approach that gives learners more freedom in making decisions about what, when, and how to learn. Holec introduces the idea of autonomy and separates directed teaching from self-directed learning, presenting a theoretical and practical description of the application of the concept of autonomy in language learning by adults. To do this, he introduces specific techniques that

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13 Zoltán Dörnyei and Ema Ushioda, Teaching and Researching Motivation: New Directions for Language Learning, 3rd ed. (New York: Routledge, 2021), https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351006743.
14 Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan, Handbook of Self-Determination Research (New York: University Rochester Press, 2004).
15 Kimberly A. Noels et al., “Why Are You Learning a Second Language? Motivational Orientations and Self-Determination Theory,” Language Learning 50, no. 1 (2000): 57–85, https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00111.
16 Ozlem Yagcioğlu, “New Approaches on Learner Autonomy in Language Learning,” Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, The Proceedings of the 1st GlobELT Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional Language, 199 (August 3, 2015): 428–35, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.529.
17 Kartika Ayu Septiningrum, Siti Tarwiyah, and Siti Mariam, “A Portrait of Learner’s Autonomy through Metacognitive Strategy on Reading Comprehension (A Study At SMP N 32 Semarang),” Vision: Journal for Language and Foreign Language Learning 7, no. 1 (November 27, 2018): 66–82, https://doi.org/10.21580/vjv7i12805.
18 Dale H. Schunk, Judith R. Meece, and Paul R. Pintrich, Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications (London: Pearson Higher Ed, 2012).
19 Henri Holec, Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning. (London: Pergamon Press, 1979).
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learners would need to acquire to develop autonomy. First, learners need the training to assume more responsibility in controlling their learning and make all the necessary decisions. Second, exercise can help students analyze needs, identify learning styles, use appropriate learning strategies, set goals, and monitor their progress and independence.²⁰

Little suggests that if the ultimate and only purpose of learning a language is using that language, practitioners should bear in mind that the social dimension of learning and using a language calls for a more collective, as opposed to individual, the effort for learners to develop autonomy for learning.²¹ Thus, little's contribution helped the profession see freedom from a different perspective. Indeed, the textbooks, the curriculum, and the teacher still played a role in shaping and balancing autonomy while also providing the social opportunity for maximal self-development within human interdependence.²²

However, the researcher suggested that in situations where autonomous learner and self-access learning are new concepts, it may be challenging to encourage learners to move away from the traditional approaches with which they are familiar, and that is a reason why Learners need to be exposed not only to self-access learning but also to information about how it is different and why. It becomes evident that what applies to learners applies to teachers too. Teachers might also find it challenging to move away from the traditional approaches; therefore, teachers and learners need to be exposed to autonomous learning and self-access learning to be able to make sense of it.²³ Consequently, there has been an increasing interest in focusing on the role of the teachers and their own development through teacher education. It has become necessary that teacher training mirrors learner training.²⁴

Different authors and researchers present interpretations of autonomy. The following list states the characteristics that define the autonomous learner summarized from various authors and researchers:

²⁰ Hsiang-I Chen and Hung-Hsi Pan, “Learner Autonomy and the Use of Language Learning Strategies in a Taiwanese Junior High School,” Journal of Studies in Education 5, no. 1 (2015): 52–64.
²¹ David Little, “Learning as Dialogue: The Dependence of Learner Autonomy on Teacher Autonomy,” System, Autonomy, Self-direction and Self Access in Language Teaching and Learning: The History of an Idea, 23, no. 2 (May 1, 1995): 175–81, https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(95)00006-6.
²² Ibid.
²³ Simon Borg and Yousif Alshumaimeri, “Language Learner Autonomy in a Tertiary Context: Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices,” Language Teaching Research 23, no. 1 (January 1, 2019): 9–38, https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817725759.
²⁴ Teguh Ariebowo, “Autonomous Learning during COVID-19 Pandemic: Students’ Objectives and Preferences,” Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning 6, no. 1 (February 20, 2021): 56–77, https://doi.org/10.18196/ftl.v6i1.10079.
1. Regularly participates in the definition of the objectives, understands the purpose of the task, and influences the content and structure of the program.
2. Shows responsibility and initiative in the development of pre-planned actions.
3. Collaborates in the orientation of work and with those who form a collective with learning preferences.
4. Systematically reviews the plan, reflects on what has already been learned, evaluates effect, develops, and uses self-evaluative criteria.
5. Self-regulates his/her interaction with other participants and the proper employment of resources.
6. Maintains a positive attitude and behavior despite possible learning difficulties and manages to generate high levels of motivation.
7. Uses a series of strategies through which he/she achieves a more spontaneous and practical degree of communication.
8. Easily handles different roles in discussion and enjoys a high level of social autonomy in his/her learning.
9. Successfully transfers what has been learned to new contexts.

Within the field of English language learning, the roles of teachers in promoting learner autonomy have been examined in specific contexts. For example, Benson suggests that if self-directed learning is to be implemented, the part of the teacher changes from 'producing' learning to 'facilitating' it. The teacher's task, then, is to help the learner develop the ability to define all aspects of his/her learning. This would include; establishing his/her objectives to meet his/her personal needs, defining contents, finding the appropriate materials, choosing learning strategies and learning activities that might be useful, establishing goals, monitoring progress, making realistic plans, self-evaluating and self-motivating. Similarly, Voller reminds us that teachers need to remain faithful to three fundamental assumptions:
1. That language learning is an interpretative process and that an autonomous approach to learning requires a transfer of control to the learner.
2. That teacher should make sure that their teaching practices reflect these assumptions by engaging in negotiation with the learners.

25 S. N. S. Gandhimathi and A. Devi, “Learner Autonomy and Motivation—a Literature Review,” Research on Humanities and Social Sciences 6, no. 3 (2016): 80–83.
26 Benson, Teaching and Researching.
3. Teachers observe, self-monitor, and reflect upon the teaching strategies they use and the nature of interaction they set up and participate in.\textsuperscript{27} As we have increasingly adopted this pedagogy, we need to organize teacher education that helps teachers cope with their new roles and demands.

**Students Learning Autonomy at IAIN Tulungagung and IAIN Kediri**

In general, Tables 1 to 4 describes the learning autonomy of the English department students of IAIN Tulungagung and IAIN Kediri.

| Table 1. Paired Samples Correlations IAIN Tulungagung |
|------------------------------------------------------|
| N | Correlation | Sig. |
|---|-------------|------|
| 41 | .640 | .000 |

Table 1 reveals that the correlation coefficient between the two data sets is .640, and it can be classified as moderate. However, since the probability value (sig.) is smaller than .05, the correlation between the two data sets is significant.

| Table 2. Paired Samples Test of IAIN Tulungagung |
|-------------------------------------------------|
| Paired Differences |
|-------------------|
| Mean | Std. Deviation | Mean | Mean | 90% Confidence Interval of the Difference |
| Std. Error | Lower | Upper | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AUTO before & AUTO after | -.244 | .4390 | .0685 | -.3601 | -.1292 | -3.56 | 40 | .001 |

Table 2 indicates the probability value or Sig. (2-tailed) < .05, meaning that there is a significant difference between the learning autonomy before and after treatment. In other words, the treatment given to the students of the English department of IAIN Tulungagung significantly increases the students' learning autonomy.

\textsuperscript{27} Peter Voller, “Does the Teacher Have a Role in Autonomous Language Learning?,” in Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning, ed. Phil Benson and Peter Voller (London: Routledge, 2014), 98–113.
Table 3. Paired Samples Correlations IAIN Kediri

| Pair       | N   | Correlation | Sig. |
|------------|-----|-------------|------|
| AUTObefore & AUTOafter | 23  | .414        | .050 |

Table 3 reveals that the correlation coefficient between the two data sets is .414, and it can be classified as moderate. However, since the probability value (sig.) is more significant than .05, the correlation between the two data sets is not substantial.

Table 4. Paired Samples Test IAIN Kediri

| Paired Differences | Std. Mean | Std. Error Mean | 90% Confidence Interval of the Difference | t   | df  | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------------------------------|-----|-----|----------------|
| Pair 1 AUTObefore & after | -.081 | .5376 | .1121 | -.2738 | .1111 | -.726 | 22 | .476 |

Table 4 indicates the probability value or Sig. (2-tailed) > .05, meaning that there is no significant difference between the learning autonomy before and after treatment. In other words, the treatment given to the English department of IAIN Kediri does not significantly increase the students' learning autonomy.

**Student Language Learning Strategies**

Tables 5 to 8 describe the language learning strategies employed by the English department students of both institutions (IAIN Tulungagung and IAIN Kediri). The correlation and the significant difference before and after treatment are also analyzed.

Table 5. Paired Samples Correlations of IAIN Tulungagung (overall strategies)

| Pair       | N   | Correlation | Sig. |
|------------|-----|-------------|------|
| LLS before & after | 41  | .611        | .000 |

Table 5 shows the correlation coefficient of .61, meaning that it is moderate. However, the correlation is significant since the probability value (sig.) is
smaller than .05, then the correlation between the two sets of data is substantial.

Table 6. Paired Samples Test of IAIN Tulungagung (overall strategies)

| Paired Differences | 90% Confidence Interval of the Difference | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---------------------|------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| Mean                | Std. Deviation                          | Mean Std. Error |
| Lower               | Upper                                   | t               |
| Pair 1 before & after | -0.2065                                | .428 .066       |
|                     |                                          | -.319 -.093     |
|                     |                                          | -3.085 40       |
|                     |                                          | .004            |

Table 6 indicates the probability value or Sig. (2-tailed) < .05, meaning a significant difference between the overall language learning strategies before and after treatment. In other words, the treatment given to the students of the English department of IAIN Tulungagung does significantly increase the students' overall learning strategies.

Table 7. Paired Samples Correlations of IAIN Kediri (overall strategies)

| N       | Correlation | Sig. |
|---------|-------------|------|
| Pair 1  | LLS before & LLS after | 24   | .684 | .000 |

Table 7 shows the correlation coefficient of .68, meaning that it is moderate. However, the correlation is significant since the probability value (sig.) is smaller than .05, then the correlation between the two sets of data is substantial.
Table 8. Paired Samples Test of IAIN Kediri (overall strategies)

| Pair | Paired Differences | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | Lower 90% Confidence Interval of the Difference | Upper 90% Confidence Interval of the Difference | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|------|---------------------|------|---------------|-----------|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|---|----|----------------|
| 1 & after | -0.149 & 0.3623 | -0.149 | 0.3623 | 0.0739 | -0.275 | -0.022 | -2.01 | 23 | 0.056 |

Table 8 indicates the probability value or Sig. (2-tailed) > .05, meaning no significant difference exists between the overall language learning strategies before and after treatment. In other words, the treatment given to the English department of IAIN Kediri does not significantly increase the students' overall learning strategies.

**Strategy Training Towards Learner Autonomy**

As has been pointed out that teaching is nothing more than showing someone that something is possible, and learning is merely discovering that something is possible.28 Some people wanting to learn English frequently ask whether they can master English or not. Others say that they are not talented in learning English. And it is the responsibility of teachers to convince them that everybody can master another language in general and English in particular.29 Nothing is impossible to happen as long as we have high motivation and appropriate ways to gain it, and it is through the teaching-learning process that we obtain this impossibility.30

The objective of learner strategy training is to enhance learning effectiveness, and effective learning is part of autonomy. Therefore, training should be a course in learning how to learn.31 This is because no teacher and no school or university can provide all the students' knowledge in their

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28 İlknur Pekkanlı Egel, “Learner Autonomy in the Language Classroom: From Teacher Dependency to Learner Independency,” *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, World Conference on Educational Sciences: New Trends and Issues in Educational Sciences, 1, no. 1 (January 1, 2009): 2023–26, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2009.01.355.
29 Yagcioglu, “New Approaches on Learner Autonomy in Language Learning.”
30 Malcolm Shane Sim, “Beliefs and Autonomy: Encouraging More Responsible Learning,” *Novitas-Royal* 1, no. 2 (2007): 112–36.
31 Chen and Pan, “Learner Autonomy and the Use of Language Learning Strategies in a Taiwanese Junior High School.”
studies or lives. It is essential then for students, or anybody, to understand themselves, an awareness of the environment, and how to think and learn. This can be traced to the fact that research findings showing unsuccessful learners may also use the language learning strategies used by the successful ones. However, they do not operate effectively, which is the underlying argument for strategy training. Vann and Abraham pointed out that the strategies used by the unsuccessful learners are similar to successful learners, but they often fail to apply appropriately to the tasks at hand.

Seeing the importance of LLS towards language learning success, it is apparent that strategy training is the logical consequence. However, many researchers, primarily experimental researchers, have produced mixed results: some positive, some negative, and partially successful. However, there are indications that steps can be taken to maximize the chances to success. One of the most vital factors is the need for strategy training. That is to say that students need to be aware of the purpose and utility of strategy training. Activities should be integrated into language learning tasks. Students should be encouraged to monitor, evaluate, and control their use of strategies.

Strategies are challenging to learn and even more challenging to transfer to new situations. To make the most of the learning strategies taught, learners must fall into using them and applying them to further problems. This can only happen once processes become firmly established. To this end, there is general agreement that to guarantee more effective learning; teachers should do the followings:

1. Promote learners’ confidence in their capacity to become better learners.
2. Motivate students to adopt new strategies and attitudes.
3. Concentrate on one strategy or attitude at a time, do not attempt to teach more than one strategy.
4. Model and explain the new strategies.
5. Explain to the learners why, when, and where to use the strategies.
6. Provide extensive practice opportunities.

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32 Biljana Ivanovska, “Learner Autonomy in Foreign Language Education and in Cultural Context,” Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, The 6th International Conference Edu World 2014 “Education Facing Contemporary World Issues”, 7th - 9th November 2014, 180 (May 5, 2015): 352–56, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.128.
33 Roberta J. Vann and Roberta G. Abraham, “Strategies of Unsuccessful Language Learners,” TESOL Quarterly 24, no. 2 (1990): 177–98, https://doi.org/10.2307/3586898.
34 Rebecca L Oxford, Language Learning Styles and Strategies: An Overview (Oxford: Gala Publishers, 2003).
35 J. Michael O’Malley et al., Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990).
36 Ibid.
37 Borg and Alshumaimeri, “Language Learner Autonomy in a Tertiary Context.”
7. Remember that learning how to learn involves a complex of factors and must be included in cognitive instruction.

8. Encourage monitoring of new strategies so that students can gain control.

9. Promote a reflective approach to learning how to learn.38

**Autonomy and Language Classroom**

It is not easy for teachers to change their role from a purveyor of information to counselor and manager of learning resources. It is not easy for the teacher to stop talking. If they stop talking, they stop teaching, and if they stop teaching, their learners may stop learning. And it is not easy for the teacher to let learners solve problems by themselves, which takes time, and there is so much ground to cover. Committing oneself to learner autonomy requires a lot of nerve.39 In other words, learner autonomy is not easy to achieve, and for that reason, it poses a very significant challenge to teachers. Yet, it is a challenge that teachers must respond positively. In general, autonomous learners are defined by the fact that they can integrate what they learn with their rest.40 This process of integration means that independent learners are users of the language they are learning. It is through autonomy that learners fulfill the communicative aims of foreign language curricula.41

The purpose of the communicative approach is to be efficient communicators in the target language; students must be autonomous to the extent of having sufficient independence and self-reliance to fulfill the variety of social, psychological, and discourse roles in which they will be cast.42 As a consequence, for teachers, it is not enough to teach by telling and showing. They must create the condition in which the learners can learn by doing—by

38 Benson, *Teaching and Researching*.

39 Brikena Xhaferi and Gezim Xhaferi, “Developing Learner Autonomy in Higher Education in Macedonia,” *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences* 11 (2011): 150–54.

40 Gandhimathi and Devi, “Learner Autonomy and Motivation—a Literature Review.”

41 Nima Shakouri Masouleh and Razieh Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, “Autonomous Learning: A Teacher-Less Learning!,” *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 3rd. International Conference on New Horizons in Education - INTE 2012, 55 (October 5, 2012): 835–42, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.570.

42 Ali Dincer, Savaş Yesilyurt, and Mehmet Takkac, “The Effects of Autonomy-Supportive Climates on EFL Learner’s Engagement, Achievement and Competence in English Speaking Classrooms,” *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 4th WORLD CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES (WCES-2012) 02-05 February 2012 Barcelona, Spain, 46 (January 1, 2012): 3890–94, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.167.
communicating. Thus, learning activities will lead to greater active involvement and better learning in actual teaching and learning situations.  

**Autonomy Beyond Classroom**

A learner is moving towards an autonomous position is someone whose capacity to learn, and whose success in learning will be independent of the educational processes taking place in the classroom. Such learners can use any recourses available to them and seek others from outside the school, whatever the teacher does. For this reason, we need to set up self-access facilities to cater to learners' individual needs. For example, individual learners have a particular weakness they wish to work on alone or in small groups with similar needs. Moreover, learners differ in their learning styles, learning strategies, preferences, and so forth in terms of types of activity, and they have particular language requirements. It is also here that finance providers need to provide good self-access facilities that will create the opportunity for highly effective individualization of learning. In short, giving self-access facilities promotes independent learning, which involves learners taking responsibility for their learning and developing effective learning strategies; that is, learning to learn.

In my observation, although self-access does not necessarily ensure learner independence, it provides the practical means where learners can take a more active part in determining their objectives and their learning programs. Learners may initially be attracted towards self-access because of the opportunity for individualization. Still, the practical imperative can very naturally entail a more broadly educational imperative, that is, learning to be a better learner. Moreover, the convenient nature of self-access lends point to learner training and learner development activities which can seem pointless.

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43 Nenden Sri Lengkanawati, “LEARNER AUTONOMY IN THE INDONESIAN EFL SETTINGS,” Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics 6, no. 2 (January 23, 2017): 222–31, https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4847.
44 Yuzulia, “EFL Teachers’ Perceptions and Strategies in Implementing Learner Autonomy.”
45 Ariebowo, “Autonomous Learning during COVID-19 Pandemic.”
46 Septiningrum, Tarwiyah, and Mariam, “A Portrait of Learner’s Autonomy through Metacognitive Strategy on Reading Comprehension (A Study At SMP N 32 Semarang).”
47 Chen and Pan, “Learner Autonomy and the Use of Language Learning Strategies in a Taiwanese Junior High School.”
The Management of Learning

Success in language learning does not merely depend on talent, attitude, IQ, and the like, but the management of learning plays its role. Strategy training may also develop and enhance students' self-management. Through self-management, once students gain it, they can regulate, direct, and control any factors influencing their learning. They establish optimum conditions for learning and remove obstacles that interfere with their learning. Self-management results in the ability of the students to find and choose their ILS. Dembo states that it does not matter if the instructor is a poor lecturer. The textbook is confusing; the test is complex, the room is noisy, or multiple exams are scheduled for the same week; successful learners find a way to excel.

Conclusion

It is not easy for teachers to change their role from the purveyor of information to the counselor and manager of learning resources. It is not easy for the teacher to stop talking. If they stop talking, they stop teaching, and if they stop teaching, their learners may stop learning. And it is not easy for the teacher to let learners solve problems by themselves, which takes time, and there is so much ground to cover. Committing oneself to learner autonomy requires a lot of nerve. In other words, learner autonomy is not easy to achieve, and for that reason, it poses a very significant challenge to teachers. Yet, it is a challenge that teachers must respond positively. In general, autonomous learners are defined by the fact that they can integrate what they learn with their rest. This process of integration means that independent learners are users of the language they are learning. It is through autonomy that learners fulfill the communicative aims of foreign language curricula.

To be efficient communicators in the target language, students must be autonomous to the extent of having sufficient independence, self-reliance to fulfill the variety of social, psychological, and discourse roles in which they will be cast. As a consequence, for teachers, it is not enough to teach by telling and showing. Instead, they must create the condition in which the learners can learn by doing—by communicating. Thus, learning activities will lead to greater active involvement and better learning in actual teaching and learning situations.

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48 Weixuan Shi and Ligang Han, “Promoting Learner Autonomy through Cooperative Learning,” English Language Teaching 12, no. 8 (2019): 30–36.

49 Myron H. Dembo, Jane Nicklin, and Caroline Griffiths, Motivation and Learning Strategies for College Success: A Self-Management Approach, 3rd ed. (New York: Routledge, 2007), https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203823149.
Another way is fostering learner autonomy through LLS and self-access centers. Training LLS to students will guide them towards students' independence to be responsible for their learning. Indeed, independent study is feasible when learning centers such as libraries and self-access centers are adequately available. Through these learning resources, learners can apply the given strategy training and even train themselves to be more autonomous. As a result, by the end of their study, they are independent or autonomous.

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