



People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Mohamed Lamine Debaghine -Sétif 2- University
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English Language and Literature

Thesis

Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of
Doctorat Es-Sciences
In Applied Linguistics & Language Teaching
By: Madiha Senouci

**A Tutoring Course to Enhance English
Language Learning Autonomy within the
LMD System:**

**Case of First Year Students at the Department of
English at Setif-2 University**

Board of Examiners:

Chairman:	Prof.	KESKES Said	Professor	Setif 2 University
Supervisor:	Prof.	ABDELLATIF Naouel	Professor	Setif 2 University
Examiner:	Prof.	MEBARKI Zahia	Professor	Setif 2 University
Examiner:	Prof.	BAHLOUL Amel	Professor	Batna 2 University
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ABSTRACT

Within the License- Master- Doctorate (LMD) system, learning autonomy (LA) is crucial but shaped by English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher and learners' misconceptions that it is synonymous with self-instruction, and that it requires little control from teachers. First year undergraduate EFL learners display a low level of LA. Therefore, this study attempted to investigate the role of a strategy-based instruction (SBI) tutoring course in promoting language LA level with 51 first year undergraduate EFL learners at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine- Sétif 2 University, Algeria. A quasi-experimental design was followed; participants were divided into a control group (n=26) and an experimental group (n=25). Over a period of eleven weeks, the experimental group received an SBI tutoring course adapting a model of Chamot et al. (1999). Qualitative data were gathered from an adapted questionnaire (Tassinari, 2010) as a pre-/posttest and a satisfaction scale; and quantitative data were collected using a post-reflection survey. The obtained data were analyzed with SPSS.22 and document analysis. After the interventional course, the experimental group showed significant improvements in LA in comparison to the control group in the cognitive/metacognitive, action oriented, affective and social aspects. Besides, learners showed positive attitudes towards integrating the intervention to enhance their autonomous learning. This study suggests the incorporation of SBI into EFL classrooms as a pedagogical accompaniment course towards promoting language LA within the LMD system. In addition, the study's SBI tutoring course can help teachers to design tasks and lessons that enable learners to make decisions and be independent.

Keywords: LMD, tutoring, strategy-based instruction, learning autonomy, EFL learners.

To my husband &

beloved daughter:

“Tadj”

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

General Introduction	1
1. Theoretical Background.....	1
2. Statement of Problem	5
3. Aims of Study.....	6
4. Research Questions.....	6
5. Research Hypothesis.....	7
6. Significance of Study.....	7
7. Overview of Methodology.....	8
8. Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Key Terminology.....	8
9. Organization of Thesis.....	10

Chapter One:

The LMD System: Emergence, Implementation & Structure

Introduction.....	12
1.1 History and Emergence of LMD System.....	12
1.1.1 LMD System as a Result of Globalization.....	13
1.1.2 LMD System as a Result of Bologna Process.....	14
1.1.3 The Emergence of LMD System in Algeria (Tempus Program).....	23
1.1.4 Reasons for Adopting LMD System in Algeria.....	25
1.2 The Implementation of LMD System (Bologna Transparency Tools).....	29
1.3 Structure of LMD System.....	34
1.4 Tutoring within LMD System.....	39
1.5 The Tutor's Role & Tutoring Arrangement within LMD system.....	40
1.5.1 Tutor's Role within LMD System.....	41

1.5.2	Arrangement of Tutoring Sessions within LMD System.....	43
1.5.3	Evaluation of Tutoring within LMD System.....	45
1.6	Language Learning inside LMD System in Algeria.....	46
	Conclusion.....	48

Chapter Two: Learning Autonomy

	Introduction.....	49
2.1	Definition of Autonomy.....	49
2.1.1	General Definitions of Autonomy.....	49
2.1.2	Definition of Autonomy in Learning.....	50
2.1.3	Definition of Autonomy in Language Learning.....	52
2.1.4	Definition of Autonomous Learner.....	54
2.2	Emergence and History of Autonomy in Language Learning.....	57
2.3	Autonomy in Learning Theories.....	58
2.3.1	Autonomy in Cognitive Theories.....	59
2.3.2	Autonomy in Humanistic Theories.....	59
2.3.3	Autonomy in Constructivist Theories.....	61
2.4	Types of Learning Autonomy.....	62
2.5	Levels of Learning Autonomy.....	64
2.6	Factors Influencing Learning Autonomy.....	70
2.6.1	Age.....	71
2.6.2	Gender.....	71
2.6.3	Language Proficiency.....	72
2.6.4	Learning Style.....	72
2.6.5	Learning Strategies.....	72

2.6.6	Anxiety.....	74
2.6.7	Motivation.....	74
2.6.8	Beliefs and Preferences.....	75
2.7	Significance of Autonomy in Learning.....	75
2.8	Learning Autonomy and Life Long Learning.....	77
2.9	Measuring Learning Autonomy.....	78
2.9.1	Murase Model (2010).....	78
2.9.2	Dixon Model (2011).....	79
2.9.3	Cooker Model (2012).....	79
2.9.4	The Dynamic Model for Learning Autonomy (Tassinari Model, 2010).....	79
2.10	Learning Autonomy in the LMD System.....	82
2.11	Learning Autonomy as a Result of Tutoring.....	84
2.12	Constraints and Risks of Practicing Learning Autonomy.....	87
	Conclusion.....	89

Chapter Three:

Tutoring

	Introduction.....	90
3.1	Theoretical Background.....	90
3.2	Definition of Tutoring.....	91
3.3	Tutor vs. Teacher.....	93
3.4	Tutoring and Learning.....	95
3.4.1	Tutoring and Theories of Learning.....	96
3.4.1.1	Tutoring and Role Theory.....	96
3.4.1.2	Tutoring and Behaviourism Theory.....	97
3.4.1.3	Tutoring and Socio-linguistics Theory.....	97

3.4.1.4	Tutoring and Gestalt Theory.....	98
3.5	Tutoring and Language Learning.....	99
3.6	Types of Tutoring.....	101
3.7	Effects of Tutoring on Tutors & Tutees.....	103
3.7.1	Effects of Tutoring on Tutor’s Learning.....	103
3.7.2	Effects of Tutoring on Tutee’s Learning.....	105
3.7.3	Effects of Tutoring on Tutee’s Learning Autonomy.....	108
3.8	The Effect of Tutoring Courses at Universities.....	110
3.9	Structured and Non-Structured Courses.....	113
3.10	Tutoring Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	114
3.10.1	General Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	115
3.10.2	Specialist Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	123
3.10.3	Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	126
3.10.3.1	Models of Strategy-based instruction.....	128
3.10.3.1.1	Oxford Model (1990).....	128
3.10.3.1.2	Grenfell & Harris Model (1995)	129
3.10.3.1.3	Chamot et al. CALLA Model (1999).....	129
3.11	Effective Tutors and Tutoring Strategies.....	132
3.12	Tutoring and Individual Differences.....	141
3.13	Previous Studies on the Effect of Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring on Learning Autonomy.....	142
	Conclusion.....	150

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Introduction.....	151
4.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses	151
4.1.1 Research Questions.....	151
4.1.2 Research Hypotheses.....	151
4.1.2.1 Null hypothesis (H0).....	151
4.1.2.2 Alternative hypothesis (H1).....	152
4.2 Research Design.....	152
4.2.1 Case Study Design.....	152
4.2.2 Triangulation Design.....	153
4.2.3 Quasi- experimental Design.....	155
4.3 Research Locale.....	157
4.4 Participants.....	157
4.4.1 Participants in Exploratory Phase.....	157
4.4.2 Participants in Pre-Experimental Phase.....	158
4.4.3 Participants in Experimental Phase.....	158
4.4.4 Participants in Post-Experimental Phase.....	158
4.5 Research Population and Sample.....	158
4.5.1 Research Population.....	158
4.5.2 Research Sample.....	159
4.5.2.1 Sampling Technique.....	159
4.5.2.2 Sampling Criteria.....	161
4.5.2.3 Sample Size.....	161
4.5.2.4 Equivalence of Sample.....	161

4.6	Variables of Research.....	162
4.7	Data Collection Instruments.....	162
4.7.1	The Exploratory Phase.....	163
4.7.1.1	Informal Discussion.....	163
4.7.1.2	Focus Group Discussion.....	164
4.7.2	The Pre-Experimental Phase.....	164
4.7.2.1	Document Analysis.....	164
4.7.2.2	Placement Test (Pearson, 2005).....	165
4.7.2.3	Learning Style Test (Modality Preference Inventory).....	165
4.7.2.4	Learning Strategy Use Test (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)...	165
4.7.2.5	Learning Anxiety (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)	166
4.7.2.6	Learning Motivation (Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire)....	166
4.7.3	The Experimental Phase.....	167
4.7.3.1	The Pre/Post-Test.....	167
4.7.3.2	Rating Scale of Pre/Post-Test.....	169
4.7.3.3	Validity and Reliability of Pre/Post-Test.....	169
4.7.3.3.1	Validity of Pre/Post-Test.....	170
4.7.3.3.2	Reliability of Pre/Post-Test.....	171
4.7.4	Post-Experimental Phase.....	172
4.7.4.1	The Satisfaction Scale.....	172
4.7.4.2	The Post- Reflection Survey.....	172
4.8	Pilot Testing of Research Instruments.....	173
4.8.1	Pilot Testing of Pre-experimental Instrument.....	173
4.8.2	Pilot Testing of Pre-test/Post-test.....	173
4.8.3	Pilot Testing of Lesson Plans and Worksheets.....	175

4.9	Administration of Instruments.....	175
4.9.1	Informal Discussion.....	175
4.9.2	Focus Group Discussion.....	176
4.9.3	Pre-experimental Tests.....	176
4.9.4	Pre-test.....	176
4.9.5	Post-test.....	177
4.9.6	Satisfaction Scale & Post-Reflection Survey.....	177
4.10	The Quasi-Experimental Study.....	177
4.10.1	Designing the Quasi- experimental Study.....	177
4.10.1.1	Controlling Individual Variables.....	178
4.10.1.2	Controlling Confounding Variables.....	183
4.10.1.3	Establishing External Validity.....	185
4.10.2	The Quasi-experiment on Learning Autonomy.....	185
4.10.3	Tutoring Course Design.....	185
4.10.3.1	A Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring Course.....	186
4.10.3.2	Lesson Plans.....	188
4.10.3.3	Worksheets.....	189
4.10.3.4	Diaries.....	190
4.10.3.5	Instructional Treatment.....	191
4.11	Data Analysis Procedures.....	193
4.11.1	Analysis of Exploratory Tools.....	193
4.11.2	Analysis of Quantitative Tools.....	193
4.11.3	Analysis of Qualitative Tools.....	193
4.11.4	Statistical Analysis.....	193
4.12	Ethical Considerations.....	195

4.13	Delimitations of Study.....	195
	Conclusion.....	195

Chapter Five:

Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

	Introduction.....	197
5.1	Data Analysis.....	197
5.1.1	Analysis of Exploration Phase Data.....	197
5.1.1.1	Analysis of Informal Discussion.....	197
5.1.1.2	Analysis of Focus Group Discussion.....	199
5.1.1.3	Analysis of Tests of Validity and Reliability of Pre-/Posttest.....	200
5.1.1.3.1	Internal Consistency Validity Test.....	200
5.1.1.3.2	Reliability Tests.....	201
5.1.1.3.2.1	Test Retest Reliability Test.....	201
5.1.1.3.2.2	Split half Reliability Test.....	201
5.1.1.4	Analysis of Personal and Individual Differences Information.....	202
5.1.1.4.1	Age.....	202
5.1.1.4.2	Gender.....	203
5.1.1.4.3	Placement Test.....	204
5.1.1.4.4	Learning Style.....	204
5.1.1.4.5	Learning Strategy Use.....	205
5.1.1.4.6	Learning Anxiety.....	206
5.1.1.4.7	Learning Motivation.....	207
5.1.2	Analysis of Experimental Data (Hypothesis Testing).....	208
5.1.2.1	Mann Whitney U Tests.....	209
5.1.2.1.1	Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Pre-Test' Results of EG and CG.....	209

5.1.2.1.2	Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Post-Test' Results of EG and CG.....	209
5.1.2.2	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Tests.....	210
5.1.2.2.1	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG.....	210
5.1.2.2.2	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of CG.....	211
5.1.2.2.3	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Ten Components of Learning Autonomy.....	212
5.1.2.3	Friedman Test.....	219
5.1.3	Analysis of Post-Experimental Data.....	221
5.1.3.1	Analysis of Satisfaction Scale.....	221
5.1.3.2	Analysis of Post-Reflection Survey	221
5.2	Data Interpretation.....	223
5.2.1	Interpretation of Homogeneity of Research Sample.....	223
5.2.2	Interpretation of Results Concerning the Efficacy of the SBI Tutoring Course in Enhancing Learning Autonomy.....	224
5.2.3	Interpretation of Post-Experimental Results.....	228
5.2.3.1	Satisfaction Scale.....	228
5.2.3.2	Post Reflection Survey.....	228
5.3	Discussion of Findings.....	234
5.4	Pedagogical Implications & Recommendations.....	236
5.5	Limitations & Suggestions for further Research.....	239
	Conclusion.....	241
	General Conclusion	242

References

Appendices

Appendix A: Request for Permission to Conduct Research

Appendix B : Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Appendix C: Letter of Consent to Adapt the Pre-/Post Test

Appendix D: Focus Group Discussion Schedule with Students

Appendix E : Pearson Placement Test

Appendix F : Self-Scoring Learning Styles Modality Preference Inventory

Appendix G : Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Appendix H: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Appendix I: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

Appendix J : Descriptive Statistics of the EG and CG Group

Appendix K : Pilot Testing of Pre-/ Post Test to the Experts

Appendix L : Final Version of the Pre/Post-Test

Appendix M : The Introductory Session about the Tutoring Experiment

Appendix N : The SBI Tutoring Course : Samples of Lesson Plans and Worksheets

Appendix O : Participants' Satisfaction Scale

Appendix P: The Post-Reflection Survey

Résumé

الملخص

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Nunan's Model, Levels of Implementation (Nunan, 1997, p.195; cited in Dang, 2012, p.53).....	64
Table 2	Defining Learning Autonomy (Sinclair, as cited in Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012, p.5).....	89
Table 3	A Comparison of Traditional Teaching and Tutorial Instruction (Wood & Tanner, 2012, p.6).....	94
Table 4	Specialist Approaches to Fostering Autonomy (Reinders 2010, p.44).....	123
Table 5	The INSPIRE Model of Expert Tutoring and Results for Tutees (Wood and Tanner 2012, p.5).....	138
Table 6	Tutors' Behaviours Reeve & Jang (2006) observational checklist (as cited in Mclachlan & Hagger, 2010, p.1206).....	140
Table 7	Research Variables.....	162
Table 8	Age Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	178
Table 9	Gender Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	179
Table 10	Placement Test Scores Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	180
Table 11	Learning Styles Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	180
Table 12	Learning Strategy Use Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	181
Table 13	Learning Anxiety Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	182
Table 14	Learning Motivation Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.....	182
Table 15	Structure of the SBI Tutoring Session (Duration 90-270 Minutes).....	186
Table 16	Allotted Time for Themes of SBI Tutoring Course	191
Table 17	The Results of Internal Consistency Validity Test.....	200
Table 18	The Results of Test Retest Reliability Test.....	201
Table 19	Results of Split half Reliability Test.....	202
Table 20	Age Distribution between CG and EG	202
Table 21	Chi Square Test for Age Difference between EG and CG.....	203

Table 22	Gender Distribution between CG and EG	203
Table 23	Chi Square Test for Gender Difference between EG and CG.....	203
Table 24	Placement Test Scores Distribution between CG and EG	204
Table 25	Chi Square Test for Language Level Difference between EG and CG.....	204
Table 26	Learning Styles Distribution between CG and EG	204
Table 27	Chi Square Test for Learning Style Difference between EG and CG.....	205
Table 28	Learning Strategy Use Distribution between CG and EG	205
Table 29	Chi Square Test for Learning Strategy Use Difference between EG and CG.....	206
Table 30	Learning Anxiety Distribution between the CG and the EG	206
Table 31	Chi Square Test for Learning Anxiety Difference between EG and CG.....	206
Table 32	Learning Motivation Distribution between CG and EG	207
Table 33	Chi Square Test for Learning Motivation Difference between EG and CG.....	207
Table 34	Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Pre-test' Results of EG and CG.....	209
Table 35	Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Post-test' Results of EG and CG.....	209
Table 36	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG.....	210
Table 37	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare the Pretest-Posttest Results of CG.....	211
Table 38	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Motivating Myself Strategies.....	212
Table 39	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Dealing with my Feelings Strategies.....	213
Table 40	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Planning Strategies.....	213
Table 41	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Choosing Materials and Strategies.....	214
Table 42	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Completing Tasks Strategies.....	215
Table 43	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Monitoring Strategies.....	215

Table 44	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Evaluating Strategies.....	216
Table 45	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Cooperating Strategies.....	217
Table 46	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Managing my own Learning Strategies.....	217
Table 47	Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Structuring Knowledge Strategies.....	218
Table 48	Friedman Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest of Affective and Motivational Dimension' Results of EG.....	219
Table 49	Friedman Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest of the Action-oriented Dimension' Results of EG.....	219
Table 50	Satisfaction Scale Results.....	221
Table 51	Analysis of Post-Reflections of EG.....	222

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Control over cognitive processes.....	69
Figure 2	Defining autonomy: the capacity to take control over learning (Benson 2001, p. 50).....	70
Figure 3	Oxford strategy system (Oxford, 1990, p. 17).....	73
Figure 4	The dynamic model for learner autonomy (Tassinari, 2010, p.203).....	81
Figure 5	An autonomy continuum (Dickinson 1987, p. 10).....	86
Figure 6	Approaches for fostering autonomy (Benson 2001, p.125).....	115
Figure 7	Developing autonomy through teaching (Littlewood, 1997, p.183).....	121
Figure 8	The tutorial cycle and tools for tutors' preparation (Ariza & Gonzalez 2009, p. 91).	141
Figure 9	Tutees's academic gains (Ariza & Gonzalez, 2009, p. 92).....	142
Figure 10	Pretest-posttest nonequivalent group design (Cohen et al, 2007, p.283).....	157

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CG	Control Group
DF	Degree of Freedom
DV	Dependent Variable
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EG	Experimental Group
FGD	Focus Group discussion
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
H₀	Null Hypothesis
H₁	Alternative Hypothesis
IV	The Independent Variable
LA	Learning Autonomy
LMD	License- Master- Doctorate
MPI	Modality Preference Inventory
MSLQ	Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire
N	Number
Sig	Significance
SILL	The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SBI	Strategies-based instruction
X²	Chi-Square Test.



General Introduction



General Introduction

1.	Theoretical Background.....	1
2.	Statement of Problem	5
3.	Aims of Study.....	6
4.	Research Questions.....	6
5.	Research Hypothesis.....	7
6.	Significance of Study.....	7
7.	Overview of Methodology.....	8
8.	Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Key Terminology.....	8
9.	Organization of Thesis.....	10

General Introduction

1. Theoretical Background

During the last two decades, the system of higher education has undergone major structural changes and reforms, which occurred in response to perceived weaknesses within the classical system. The introduction of the "Licence- Master-Doctorate" (LMD, henceforth) system came as a remedy for higher education since it induced necessary adaptations, which have been perceived as crucial to match the needs of universities and job markets (Idri, 2005).

In Algeria, the university system expectations were no more satisfied with the traditional classic approach and the Algerian university, which lost its educational role, became a context to generate failure and an unemployed generation (Ayouch, 2012, p.2). A need for a change was necessary or rather urgent. Consequently, the LMD system was chosen as a reform to meet the expectations of the new trends of higher education, and ensure quality training. The application of the LMD system in Algeria was considered as a big step to cope with the European countries after the success of the system in their universities (Idri, 2005, p.1). Following the Bologna Declaration (1999), the LMD system has been adopted in a wide range of countries including Algeria. It was first implemented at the Algerian universities, including Setif University, in the academic year 2004-2005. The department of English Language and Literature opted for the LMD system in the academic year 2010-2011.

Since the implementation of the LMD system in the Algerian universities, learning autonomy (LA, henceforth) has gained importance within the Algerian language learning context. In 1978, Vygotsky introduced the concept of 'zone of actual development' (ZAD), which refers to the 'tasks and skills to be performed by the learner independently'. He explained that the 'tasks to be learned' are part of the

“zone of proximal development” (ZPD). Learning autonomy is to shift from ZPD to ZAD, from relying on the others for help to complete tasks to performing learning tasks independently. Accordingly, LA entails being responsible for your learning, and able to direct and manage that learning (Little, 1991; Benson & Voller, 1997; Sinclair, 1999; Oxford, 2003; Raya, Lamb, & Vieira, 2007; Macaro, 2008, Tassinari, 2010). Besides, the concept of ‘learning autonomy’ has emerged in result of the shift from the teacher-centered classroom towards a learner-centered one. In this regard, learner-centred approach and LA are highlighted as the major components of the Algerian LMD system to generate successful graduates (Idri, 2012a, pp. 2176-2177). In order to achieve this goal, learners should be supported through a pedagogical accompaniment.

Consequently, the LMD system brings the new pedagogical activity of tutoring which is to be performed by the teacher. Tutoring is a teaching assistance, which aims to construct LA through expertise, experience, and encouragement (Guendouzi & Meziane, 2011, p.24). It is an institutionalized instrument, which serves to raise the quality of both teaching and learning (Karpińska-Musiał & Dzedziczak-Foltyn (2014, p.6058). This activity of tutoring permits a direct relation between the tutor and the learner outside the classroom within programmed tutoring sessions. Thus, the teacher’s role becomes wider as it entails being a guide who informs, advises and orients students during their learning process (Idri, 2012a; Idri, 2012b, p.58; Sarnou et al, 2012). In this regard, Mclachlan & Hagger (2010) report that learners’ participation in tutoring sessions helps them become autonomous learners as “students with autonomy-supportive teachers experience greater autonomy and more positive functioning in terms of classroom engagement” (p. 1205). Therefore, the LMD system is designed with autonomy-supportive objectives

underlying the tutoring component; and teachers (tutors) are required to help learners engage and be active in their process of learning.

Learning autonomy is more closely related to learning strategies than is to any other concepts of language education (Benson, 2006). Learning strategies are defined as those “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques.... used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). These strategies fall within the ‘how to learn’ scope, in which learners should learn and develop a set of tactics to use a wide range of strategies to control their learning (Cotterall 1995, p. 195; O’Malley & Chamot, 1995, 146). Teaching learners ‘how to learn’ can be treated under the approach of strategy training, which aims to instruct learners on why, when, and how learning strategies can be used effectively; and to cultivate autonomous language learning by giving learners more opportunities to use strategies on their own without much reliance on the teacher (Cohen, 2000, Wang, 2016). Consequently, teacher’s role in this approach is very critical, as learners need to be provided with appropriate tutoring of how to use strategies during the language learning process.

Among the approaches of strategy training, strategy-based instruction (SBI, henceforth) is a learner-centered approach, which entails the tutoring of strategic learning by incorporating the training of strategies into the language curriculum. The integration of strategies can be either explicit or implicit (Cohen, 2000, p.13; Wang, 2016, p.277). This type of instruction helps learners to be active participants in the learning process by enabling them to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning. This, in turn, leads learners gradually to take responsibility for learning and become autonomous (Srafiianou & Garviilidou, 2015, p.22). Strategy-based instruction has widely been used by researchers (Nakatani, 2005; Huang & Ma, 2007; Gu, 2007; Garvillidou & Papins, 2009; Mizumoto & Takeushi, 2009; Medina, 2012; Nguyen &

Gu, 2013; Chan, 2014; Khademi, Mellati & Etela, 2014; Liu, 2015; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015; Wang, 2016; Course, 2017); and the effect of SBI on promoting LA and language learning is reported to be significant. Following SBI principles, a number of models have been suggested (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Cotteral, 1995; Chamot et al, 1999; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Cohen, 2000). Among these models, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA, henceforth) of Chamot et al. (1999) is an explicit SBI model, which aims to train learners to practice strategies in specific learning tasks, and help them select, apply, and transfer the strategies to other learning tasks. According to Cohen (2000, p.17), teachers who have used the CALLA Model report that their learners develop efficiency, responsibility for and confidence in their abilities to learn and use the target language in and outside class. To this end, SBI approach can be implemented in tutoring, which is meant for developing LA.

Within the Algerian higher education context, although the LMD system has given considerable attention to tutoring as a pedagogical accompaniment of learners to develop LA (Ayouch, 2012, Samraoui, 2012), "the notion of tutoring lacks employability and focus to engage learners in self-directed and self-tested learning" (Abdellatif-Mami, 2012, p.4386). Similarly, in the Algerian English as a Foreign Language (EFL, henceforth) context, there exists a gap between the requirements of the LMD system to develop LA and the English department, concerning the employability of the pedagogical accompaniment of tutoring, which concerns first year undergraduate learners. In this regard, only few Algerian universities (M'sila, Constantine2, Chlef, Bordj Bouarriridj, Telemcen, and Médéa) provide tutoring sessions for their novice students. Taking the case of Mohammed Lamine Debaghine

–Setif 2 University, no tutoring course is provided at the level of the English department yet.

2. Statement of Problem

The research problem was identified from an informal discussion with eight EFL teachers and a focus group discussion (FGD, henceforth) with a group of second year undergraduate EFL learners at the department of English at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Setif2 University.

The informal discussion explores the level of learners' autonomy and teachers' practices to promote it. The majority of teachers believe that their learners display a low level of autonomous learning due to a number of reasons. First, the Algerian educational system, with its teacher-centred classrooms and spoon-feeding methods, leads to students reaching university with little experience for LA. Second, learners' lack of self-awareness, motivation, self-confidence, and interest are also reported to be possible reasons for learners' low level of LA. Furthermore, the majority of teachers believe that developing LA is the responsibility of learners (self-instruction) and teachers are not responsible for and should not intervene in its promotion. Some teachers claim that they try to promote LA in the EFL classroom but face many constraints, among which are the dominance of the exam-oriented education, the crowded classrooms, the absence of a systematic course to support learners' autonomy and teachers' lack of training in LA. Finally, some teachers claim that helping learners to develop strategies for autonomous learning should urgently be considered at the university level. They suggest that devoting separate sessions for systematic instruction on autonomous learning would be more practical than integrating the LA instruction into the subjects due to the previously mentioned constraints.

As far as the FGD is concerned, EFL learners have misconceptions and little experience of autonomous learning. They misconceive LA as a form of self-instruction, which requires them to learn without the support of a teacher; and they claim that it is difficult to learn independently as they are accustomed to the spoon-feeding teaching methods. Learners welcome the suggestion of teachers' instructing them on how to learn independently. They insist that the instruction should be during their first year at university since novice LMD learners are so anxious about the new EFL context and experience, which causes a high degree of frustration.

Although the LMD system has given considerable attention to LA, the findings show that within the EFL classroom, learners display a low level of LA; the majority of teachers and learners misconceive LA as a form of self-instruction; and teachers who attempt to promote it face a number of challenges. To this end, LA is a crucial concern at the English department, which should be addressed with an urgent systematic procedure in order to cope with the mentioned issues.

3. Aims of Study

This study has two major aims. The first aim is to investigate the role of integrating an SBI tutoring course in promoting EFL learners' autonomy. The second aim is to elicit students' attitudes towards the use of the SBI tutoring course in enhancing their autonomous learning.

4. Research Questions

In accordance with the aims of the present study, the following questions are to be answered:

- a) To what extent would the integration of an SBI tutoring course affect language learning autonomy of first year undergraduate learners?

- b) What would learners' attitudes be towards the use of an SBI tutoring course to enhance their language learning autonomy?

5. Research Hypothesis

In accordance with the first main research question, the following hypotheses are to be tested:

a) Null Hypothesis (H₀, henceforth)

"If an SBI tutoring course is provided for learners, there will be no statistically significant difference in the mean ranks on language learning autonomy post-test of the EG if compared to the CG".

a) Alternative Hypothesis (H₁, henceforth)

"If an SBI tutoring course is provided for learners, there will be a statistically significant difference in the mean ranks on language learning autonomy post-test of the EG if compared to the CG".

6. Significance of Study

This study is significant for a number of reasons. First, it attempts to contribute to the general fields of language teaching and applied linguistics. Second, this study seeks to attract more attention to this important concept of tutoring and its role in promoting LA, as a key element for better LMD running, and avoiding the shortcomings of the old classical system. Third, it aims to contribute to the pedagogical approaches and models of SBI in EFL learning, and give support for or against researchers' claims of the contribution of SBI to language learning autonomy. Fourth, the present study may help designing and extending the application of tutoring courses in the Algerian universities. Fifth, this research would raise EFL teachers' (tutors) awareness about their tutoring role in fostering learners' autonomy. They would profit from the suggested SBI model of the tutoring course to integrate SBI

principles into their teaching. Last, the results of this study would raise EFL learners' awareness about the necessity of developing LA and the role of SBI tutoring course to enhance their autonomous learning inside the LMD system.

7. Overview of Methodology

Following SBI, which underlies the current study; ten components of LA are integrated into an explicit SBI tutoring course of ten lesson plans following the CALLA model (Chamot et al, 1999). Each lesson is designed to instruct a number of strategies to develop autonomy. The SBI tutoring course is used as a treatment to fulfil the requirements of a quasi-experimental design. In this study, quantitative and qualitative instruments are undertaken to collect data about the influence of the SBI tutoring course on learners' LA. The research consists of three major phases. First, the pre-experimental phase is devoted to explore and gather information about the problem and the population with a number of tests for individual differences and the pre-test. Second, the experimental phase is dedicated to provide the treatment, which lasted eleven weeks with three hours each, followed by the administration of the post-test. Third, the post-experimental phase is devoted to administer a satisfaction scale and a post-reflection survey to collect some qualitative data about the attitudes of learners towards the experiment. In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the results, several procedures are undertaken to neutralize the effect of the confounding and extraneous variables.

8. Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Key Terminology

In order to give this study focus and delimitation, the following conceptual operational definitions are provided.

Tutoring: Conceptually, tutoring is “the act of saying to someone else, ‘let me help you learn’” (Chin, Rabow & Estrada, 2011, p.3). This definition implies that the

tutor's job is to facilitate the learners' process of learning or to assist or guide them to the point at which they become independent.

In the current research, tutoring, which is the independent variable, is operationalized as a course design under the wings of explicit SBI adapting the CALLA Model of Chamot et al (1999). The course design is meant to instruct learners on a number of learning strategies on how to become independent language learners. The strategies of LA are adopted from the Dynamic Model for Learning Autonomy suggested by Tassinari (2010). The CALLA instructional design consists of five phases: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and expansion.

This model aims to assist EFL learners to become successful academically by providing them with opportunities to develop the listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills and focusing on explicit instruction of learning strategies (Chamot, 1995, p.397).

Learning Autonomy: Conceptually, learning autonomy is defined as “the ability of learners to understand the purpose of their learning program, explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning and evaluate its effectiveness” (Little, 1991, p.1).

In this study, LA is the dependent variable, which is defined by Tassinari (2015) as: “the meta-capacity, the second order capacity, of the learner to take control of their learning process to different extents and in different ways, according to the learning situation. Learner autonomy is a complex construct, a construct of constructs, entailing various dimensions and components” (p.73). The main dimensions of learner autonomy are:

- ✓ *A cognitive and metacognitive dimension*, which encompasses cognitive and metacognitive knowledge, awareness, and learners' beliefs;

- ✓ *An affective and motivational dimension*, which includes feelings, emotions, willingness and motivation;
- ✓ *An action-oriented dimension*, which includes skills, learning behaviours, and decisions;
- ✓ *A social dimension*, which encompasses learning and negotiating learning with partners, advisors, teachers and native speakers. (Tassinari, 2015, p.73-74).

In the current research, LA is operationalized as the ability of the learner to create a balance for functionalizing these four dimensions in different language learning tasks related to the different language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) and systems (grammar, vocabulary). In order to measure LA level of participants, the Dynamic Model of Learning Autonomy (Tassinari, 2010) and its corresponding checklist are adapted to design the pre-/post-test.

9. Organization of the Thesis

In accordance with the variables of the research and the elements of thesis, the current study encompasses the following chapters:

The first chapter, *The LMD System: Emergence, Implementation & Structure*, explores the Algerian higher educational system. It provides a detailed overview of the LMD system as a revolutionary policy against the old classical system. The chapter casts light on the organization and implementation of the system with its key components and requirements mainly the arrangement of tutoring as a pedagogical accompaniment for LMD novice students.

The second chapter, *Learning Autonomy*, provides a theoretical framework that helps defining the concept of LA through exploring its definition within learning theories and discussing strategies about LA. The chapter, also, sheds light on the significance and importance of autonomy in learning, the factors influencing LA,

suggested models for measuring LA, autonomy in the LMD system, types of LA, the relationship between autonomy and tutoring, along with the constraints and risks of developing LA.

The third chapter, entitled Tutoring, deals with the core of this study. It is devoted to give a comprehensive definition to the concept of tutoring. It starts with different definitions and interpretations, continues with a detailed exploration of the types of tutoring and the characteristics of the effective tutor, then covers the importance of tutoring for learning. The chapter concludes with tutoring approaches and models for developing LA, including SBI approach and CALLA model as the focus in this research. This chapter ends with a section about previous studies about the effect of SBI tutoring courses on LA.

The fourth chapter, entitled Research Methodology, describes the research methodology followed in the current study. It specifies the methodological background, including research design and methods, population, sampling technique, pilot testing of tools, data collection tools, and data analysis procedures, in addition to a detailed explanation of the course design and the quasi-experimental study.

The fifth chapter, Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion, represents an extensive report of the obtained data with detailed interpretations and discussions in relation to the related literature, which are implemented to examine the relationship between tutoring and language learning autonomy to test the research hypothesis and answer the research questions. Furthermore, this chapter provides an evaluation of the effectiveness of the quasi-experiment, and a number of pedagogical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research.



Chapter One: The LMD System: Emergence, Implementation & Structure

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The LMD System: Emergence, Implementation & Structure

Introduction.....	12
1.1 History and Emergence of LMD System.....	12
1.1.1 LMD System as a Result of Globalization.....	13
1.1.2 LMD System as a Result of Bologna Process.....	14
1.1.3 The Emergence of LMD System in Algeria (Tempus Program).....	23
1.1.4 Reasons for Adopting LMD System in Algeria.....	25
1.2 The Implementation of LMD System (Bologna Transparency Tools).....	29
1.3 Structure of LMD System.....	34
1.4 Tutoring within LMD System.....	39
1.5 The Tutor's Role & Tutoring Arrangement within LMD system.....	40
1.5.1 Tutor's Role within LMD System.....	41
1.5.2 Arrangement of Tutoring Sessions within LMD System.....	43
1.5.3 Evaluation of Tutoring within LMD System.....	45
1.6 Language Learning inside LMD System in Algeria.....	46
Conclusion.....	48

Chapter One:

The LMD System: Emergence, Implementation & Structure

Introduction

During the last two decades, higher education systems around the world have undergone radical changes due to the paramount challenges brought by the globalization process. The old systems have proven being incapable of handling the huge growth and development in all domains of life. Then, a range of crisis happened, such as the disagreement between the socio-economic demands and what the university products. As a reaction to these problems, European universities, along with many others, sought an urgent reform to unify and harmonize the courses for higher education through adopting a system, which generates common diplomas. A reform, known as LMD system, came to revive higher education through enhancing cooperation and mobility, aiming at achieving teaching and learning quality through being up to the expectations of the market demands. After it assured success in the European countries, a flood of other countries including Algeria competed to integrate it into their educational systems.

1.1 History and Emergence of LMD System

The LMD system, as known today, has undergone successive operational stages, starting from globalization to end up with the wide range of the ministerial meetings of the Bologna Process. It was born as an accumulation of the priorities and strategic visions of the European countries to enhance Higher Education, and then it spread to invade many other countries all around the world. A presentation of the main precursors for creating the LMD system is provided in the following section.

1.1.1 LMD System as a Result of Globalization

Besides its huge influence on all the domains of life, be it economic, social or political, globalisation has affected the educational systems throughout the world, as well. Altbach (2004) states that: “Globalisation is defined as the broad economic, technological, and scientific trend that directly affects higher education and is largely inevitable” (p.3). This means that globalization is the external political, social, economic and cultural developments, which have an immediate effect on higher education. This latter is expected to accommodate those developments to meet a wide range of needs for evolving knowledge societies and economies; “Globalization cannot be completely avoided. History shows that when universities shut themselves off from economic and societal trends, they become moribund and irrelevant” (ibid, p.4). The demands of the market brought by globalization are summarised as: “educating increasing numbers of students, creating new opportunities for them, developing research and innovation , responding to local and regional economic challenges, and acting to improve quality and efficiency in all aspects of the Higher Education mission” (Hemche- Bereksi Reguig, 2014, p.82). In this regard, HE systems are required to cope with the new demands of economy and society.

As a reaction to these challenges, the higher education reform is seen as a complementary unit for the social and political rapid progress and “a great many of countries around the world try to introduce educational reforms to respond to the needs dictated by the fast changes in the socio-economic world” (Idri, 2012a, p.2174). Consequently, several countries started drawing up international agreements to manage the global interaction and harmonise their higher education systems for better academic opportunities, cooperation and competition to fit perfectly in the

globalisation framework. Talking about the early signs of an educational reform, Waks (2007) exemplifies:

Since the early 1980s, when a flood of educational reforms swept over the United States after publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, and similar reforms were undertaken in Canada and other industrial countries, a distinct subfield devoted to educational change has emerged within educational studies. (p.277).

Among the recent agreements in Europe, the Bologna Process is the most significant as it introduces a new reform, called the LMD system, which paves the way for countries in Europe and worldwide to reconstruct their educational systems according to the international norms and to be in concordance with the new guidelines and global trends. Mebetil (2013) summarizes the main goals of the LMD system as follows:

LMD, in this case, is regarded as a system whose main components are integrated together for the sake of reaching a well-defined objective which is the better professionalization of prospective Algerian workers, teachers, scientists, researchers and so forth, to meet both the needs and the requirements of the working life and the different markets. (p. 3).

The assumption to be made here is that the LMD system came as revolution against the traditional system and as remedy for higher education.

1.1.2 LMD System as a Result of Bologna Process

The Bologna Process consists of a number of ministerial conferences and agreements between European countries represented in what is called, nowadays, the LMD reform. This process is meant to enhance the competitiveness of the European Higher Education and to strengthen student mobility and employability through the

introduction of a system based on common courses and degrees, which assures the quality of education. This process is named after the Bologna Declaration signed in 1999, in Italy. The three principles underlying this declaration are:

- To facilitate the mobility of teachers and students in the European area as well as the integration of students in the European labour market.
- To improve the international recognition of qualifications through a gradual convergence towards a common framework of qualifications and cycles of degrees.
- To promote lifelong learning. (Suàrez and Suàrez, cited in Hemche- Bereksi Reguig, 2014, p.84)

However, since 1998, there are many ministerial meetings aim at broadening and adjusting this agenda of principles. Consequently, seven ministerial conferences, meant to ameliorate the Bologna Process, are held in different European cities, namely: Paris, Bologna, Prague, Berlin, Bergen, London and Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve. The reached adjustments of the main objectives of the Bologna Process are:

a) The Sorbonne Declaration (1998)

It is signed by the ministers of France, Germany, United Kingdom and Italy. The major aim behind the Declaration is to initiate a common framework for European Higher Education Area (EHEA, henceforth) to promote mobility for students, graduates, and teaching staff. The Sorbonne Declaration is considered as the precursor of the Bologna Process (European Higher Education Area, 2014). The main measures drawn are summarized in the following points:

- Improving the international transparency of courses and the recognition of qualifications by means of gradual convergence towards a common framework of qualifications and cycles of study.

- Facilitating the mobility of students and teachers in the European area and their integration into the European labour market.
- Preparing students for their future vocations and support their personal development.
- Designing a common degree level system for undergraduates and graduates. (Higher Education in Europe, 2009, p.13)

Signing the Sorbonne Declaration is the first step towards the creation of the LMD system. Less than a year later, the famous Bologna Declaration is signed.

b) The Bologna Declaration (1999)

The Bologna Declaration came as a confirmation of the aims of the Sorbonne Declaration, where about thirty countries expressed their willingness to devote efforts to enhance the competitiveness, independence and autonomy of all the European Higher Education Institutions (European Higher Education Area, 2014). In the Bologna Declaration, ministers declared their intention to:

- Adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees
- Implement a system based essentially on two main cycles
- Establish a system of credits(such as ECTS);
- Support the mobility of students, teachers and researchers
- Promote European cooperation in quality assurance
- Promote the European dimension in Higher Education (in terms of curricular development and inter-institutional cooperation). (Higher Education in Europe, 2009)

Following the Bologna Declaration, there have been held Ministerial Conferences every two years for ministers to express their will through different Communiqués.

c) **The Prague Communiqué (2001)**

Following the Prague Communiqué, in May 2001, the number of member countries increased to thirty-three (33), along with an expansion of the objectives including lifelong learning, involving students as active partners and enhancing the attractiveness, the competitiveness and developing quality assurance and national qualification of the EHEA. In addition, the topic of social dimension was first introduced in the Prague Communiqué (European Higher Education Area, 2014). The Prague Communiqué expanded the Bologna Process through highlighting the following points:

- Promotion of lifelong learning. This is considered as an essential element of the EHEA, which is built upon knowledge-based societies and economies. Lifelong learning strategies are necessary to face the challenges of competitiveness and the use of new technologies and improve social cohesion, equal opportunities and the quality of life.
- Involvement of higher education institutions and students as active partners in the establishment and shaping of the EHEA as well as in the development and implementation of reforms.
- Enhancement of the competitiveness of the EHEA and its attractiveness vis-à-vis the rest of world and mainly to students from non- European Union countries. (Higher Education in Europe 2009, p 14).

d) The Berlin Communiqué (2003)

In September 2003, another Ministerial Conference took place in Berlin. It enlarged the number of countries to 40 members. The main objective of this Communiqué is to link EHEA to European Research Area (ERA, henceforth) and promote the quality assurance (European Higher Education Area, 2014). With the Berlin Communiqué, certain priorities for the next two years were set, these are:

- Development of quality assurance at institutional, national, and European levels.
- Starting the implementation of the two- cycle system.
- Recognition of degrees and periods of studies, including the provision of the Diploma Supplement automatically and free of charge for all graduates as of 2005.
- Elaboration of an overarching framework of qualifications for the EHEA, within which degrees should have different defined outcomes. First and second cycle degrees should have different orientations and various profiles in order to accommodate a diversity on individual, academic and labour market needs.
- Inclusion of the doctoral level as the third cycle. It was considered necessary to go beyond the present focus on two main cycles of Higher Education to include the doctoral level as the third cycle in the Bologna Process and to promote closer links between the EHEA and the ERA. (Higher Education in Europe, 2009, p 15).

e) The Bergen Communiqué (2005)

The Bergen Communiqué, of May 2005, increased the number of member countries to forty-five (45). It underlined the importance of partnerships, including students, academic staff and employers, together with enhancing of research, especially with regard to the third cycle of doctoral programmes. It also stressed the need for a more accessible Higher Education with an increased attractiveness of the EHEA to other parts of the world and set goals and priorities towards 2010 (European Higher Education Area, 2014). In the Bergen Communiqué, ministers expressed priorities include:

- Reinforcing the social dimension and removing obstacles to mobility;
- Implementing the standards and guidelines for quality assurance
- Developing national frameworks of qualifications in compatibility with the adopted Framework of Qualifications for the EHEA;
- Awarding and recognizing joint degrees
- Creating opportunities for flexible learning paths in Higher Education including procedures for recognition of prior learning. (Higher Education in Europe, 2009, p.15)

Two years after, the London Communiqué was signed and more countries became interested in integrating the LMD system.

f) The London Communiqué (2007)

With the London Communiqué, on the 17th and 18th of May 2007, the number of member countries increased to 46. This Communiqué was meant to evaluate the progress of the Bologna Process achieved, in terms of mobility, degree structure, recognition, qualifications frameworks, lifelong learning, quality assurance, social dimension, and set the priorities for 2009. For 2010 and beyond, it was noted

that there is the need for more collaboration and reformulation of visions and values (European Higher Education Area, 2014). In the London Communiqué, Ministers:

- Welcomed the creation of the European Quality Assurance Register (EQAR)
- Committed to completing national frameworks of qualifications in compatibility with the adopted Framework of Qualifications for the EHEA by 2010;
- Promised to report on national action to remove obstacles to the mobility of students and staff;
- Pledged to implement and report on national strategies for the social dimension including action plans and measures to evaluate their effectiveness;
- Adopted a strategy for the EHEA in global setting. (State of play of the Bologna Process in the Tempus Partner Countries, 2012, p.78).

g) The Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué (2009)

In the universities of Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve (Belgium), the Communiqué of April 2009 was held. The main working areas and priorities for the decade 2020 were established emphasizing the social dimension, lifelong learning, employability, student-centred learning and the teaching mission of education, international openness, mobility, education, research & innovation, as well as data collection, funding of the Higher Education and multidimensional transparency tools. These working areas paved the way for a new orientation of the Bologna Process, towards a more in-depth approach of the reforms, which ensures the completion of the Bologna Process implementation (European Higher Education Area, 2014). In this Communiqué, Ministers agreed that:

- Each country should set measurable targets for widening overall participation and increasing the participation of under-represented social groups in Higher Education by the end of the next decade.
- By 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the EHEA should have had a study or training period abroad
- Lifelong learning and employability are important missions of higher education.
- Student-centred learning should be the goal of ongoing curriculum reform (State of play of the Bologna Process in the Tempus Partner Countries, 2012, p.78-79).

h) The Bucharest Communiqué (2012)

The main message of the Bucharest Ministerial Conference, which took place on April 2012 states that Higher Education reform can help to get Europe back on track and generate sustainable growth and jobs. The 47 attending Ministers stressed some domains of priorities to face the economic challenges as they recognized the importance of Higher Education in lifting countries out of the current economic crisis (European Higher Education Area, 2014). These domains of priority are:

- *Quality Assurance*: it is essential for building trust and reinforcing as well as maintaining the attractiveness of the EHEA offerings. Efforts had to be set up to develop the social dimension of higher education, reduce inequalities and provide adequate student support services, counselling and guidance, flexible learning paths and alternative access routes, including the recognition of prior learning. For this reason, ministers committed to both sustain the public responsibility for quality assurance and to actively involve a wide range of stakeholders in this development.

- *Enhancing employability*: today's graduates need to combine transversal, multidisciplinary and innovation skills and competences with up-to-date subject specific knowledge in order to contribute to the wider needs of the society as well as the labour market. Thus, personal and professional development of graduates should be enhanced. This is achieved by enhancing lifelong learning and improving cooperation between employers, students and Higher Education institutions, especially in the development of study programmes that help increase the innovation, entrepreneurial and research potential of graduates.
- *Strengthening mobility for better learning*: mobility is essential to ensure the quality of higher education, enhance students' employability and expand cross-border collaboration within the EHEA and beyond. Therefore, sufficient financial support has to be provided to students to ensure equal access and mobility opportunities and joint programmes and degrees have to be developed as part of a wider EHEA approach. (EHEA Ministerial Conference, Bucharest 2012).

i) Yerevan Ministerial Communiqué (2015)

The Yerevan Ministerial Communiqué of May 2015 was meant to lay down a renewed vision of the EHEA and set goals that would be pursued in the plan of work for the coming period of the Bologna Process. It looks back at the past 15 years of convergence and then looks ahead to new challenges, goals and strategies. It gives a comprehensive picture of the state of implementation of the Bologna Process from different angles using data collected in the first half of 2014, providing both qualitative information and statistical data, and covering all main aspects of Higher Education reforms aiming at a well-functioning EHEA. The participants recognised

that the EHEA has come to a turning point where a new sense of direction is needed in order to move ahead (Ministerial Conference and Fourth Bologna Policy Forum, 2015).

1.1.3 The Emergence of LMD System in Algeria (Tempus Programme)

Under the Bologna Process, the appeal to implement the LMD system was very impressive as more countries are joining and signing the declaration. In 2012, Forty-Seven countries integrated the LMD reform. This three-cycle degree system has proven to be the most significant achievement in education. It generated a chain of national level reforms that were effective internationally as it moved beyond European area to have a global effect on neighbouring countries, including Algeria. Tempus is a good case in point of the spread of the system.

TEMPUS is an acronym that stands for the Tran-European Mobility Programme for University Studies. It is an external programme established by European countries to support the modernization of Higher Education systems in the neighbouring, countries for over 20 years. Since 1990, the year of its creation, this programme has fostered cooperation between Higher Education institutions in the European Union and the Partner Countries. It also promotes the voluntary integration of Higher Education systems in these countries with European policies and processes in higher education, including the Bologna Process, which has become a reference for most of Tempus Partner Countries, by adopting a series of reforms, to lift Higher Education systems to a more compatible and comparable level. The Tempus programme has undergone four phases (Overview of Higher Education Systems in the Tempus Partner Countries, 2012) as follows:

The First phase of the programme: lasted from 1990 until 1993. During this period, Tempus sought to contribute to socio-economic reforms of countries in Central and Eastern Europe, through cooperation in higher education. These countries, after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, joined the European Union itself.

The second phase of the programme: was called Tempus II and has lasted for the next six years (1994-2000). During this period, the programme covered certain countries in Eastern Europe and Central Asia, in which national priorities for the Programme, defined by national authorities were introduced for the first time.

The third phase of Tempus: was launched from 2000 to 2006. In the framework of the Euro-Mediterranean partnership, Tempus III was extended to North Africa and the Middle East, contributing to enhance the socio-economic development of this area. The programme aimed at:

- Enhancing cooperation between countries of the same region.
- Promoting socio-economic development in Partner Countries.
- Promoting inter-cultural understanding as a means of sustainable growth and peace.
- Reinforcing the “intercultural” and “civil society” dimension of the European Union’s policies in these countries.

Since 2007, Tempus has entered its *fourth phase*, which lasts until 2013. It emphasizes the regional and cross-regional cooperation and reinforces links between Higher Education and society. The programme currently covers 29 Partner Countries and territories as cited in Hemche- Bereksi Reguig (2014, p.109-110): Caucasus countries: Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia; Western Balkans countries: Albania, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Kosovo, Montenegro and Serbia; Eastern Europe countries: Belarus,

Moldova, The Russian Federation and Ukraine; Central Asia countries: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan; North Africa countries: Algeria, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia; Middle East countries: Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Palestine and Syria.

After the introduction of the Bologna Process, many countries have signed the Bologna declaration, while others have participated in the Bologna Process Forum of 2010 to discuss the best ways for enhancing Higher Education cooperation all around the world. Although it did not participate in signing the Bologna declaration, Algeria was among the first countries to officially integrate the Bologna Process, and implement the LMD system in Higher Education and make it a unit of its national policy. Before going into details with the LMD system implementation process in Algeria, an examination of the motives behind this specific choice should be conducted.

1.1.4 Reasons for Adopting LMD System in Algeria

Like all universities in the world, the Algerian university symbolizes knowledge, learning and success. The major tasks of the ideal university are summarized within the guideline of Algerian ministry of higher education and scientific research (January 2004) as follow:

- Provide quality training.
- Making a real osmosis with the socio-economic environment developing all possible interactions between the university and the outside world.
- Develop mechanisms for continuous adaptation to changing jobs.
- Be more open to global developments, especially those of science and technology.

- Encourage diversity and international cooperation by the most appropriate terms.
- To lay the foundations for good governance based on participation and consultation. (Megnounif, 2009, p.1)

However, these guidelines would have remained highly theoretical with the classical system, which has been implemented in Algeria since its independence. The classical system, entailing four years of License degree, two years Magister and four years Doctorate, failed to respond to the challenges brought by the evolutionary social, economic and political situation in Algeria and the world. Thus, the university system requirements and expectations were no more satisfied with the traditional classical approach as stated by Ayouch (2012): "the Algerian university has lost its educational role and knowledge production became a machine to produce failure and unemployed graduates" (p.2). A need for a change was necessary or rather urgent due to the accumulating deficiencies as stated by Megnounif (2009):

- Educational programmes no longer meet the new socio-economic data.
- Training mono disciplinary in classical approach where concept of general culture is completely absent.
- A significant failure rate due primarily to uncertainty about the future among students.
- Lack of motivation among teachers and students.
- Centralized management of the university. (p.1).

Besides these problems, "Algeria shares many diplomatic, economic and cultural activities with Mediterranean countries. It has also a tendency to establish friendly relations with the leading powers of the world" (Hemche- Bereksi Reguig,

2014, p.120). However, the old educational system prevented the country from following the flow of globalization.

All of these shortcomings of the old system made the Algerian government and the education policy makers to re-think of a remedial system to heal the situation and to meet the requirements imposed by the new socio-economic environment. The choice fell on the LMD system as a reform to meet the expectations of the new trends of higher education, and ensure quality training. “This reform is intended to help the Algerian educational system and research cope with the international ones. Thus, the Algerian educational reform is an example of how our government tries to apply identical systems of most developed countries” (Idri, 2005, p.1). The Algerian tendency to implement this reform, LMD system, is a sign of the country readiness to develop and integrate globalization, as argued by Idri (2005) that “The application of the LMD system in Algeria is considered as a step towards Globalisation because this Anglo-Saxon programme has proven its success and it has, more or less, been adopted by most European countries” (ibid).

As we have mentioned above, the major aim for any educational reform is to insure quality teaching and learning. Algeria has taken a step to implement the LMD system as an attempt to integrate globalization and competitiveness and create an overall innovation within the Algerian Universities. The LMD system is considered the most relevant system that bridges both academic knowledge and professionalism. Mairif (2013) stated the main aims for going with the LMD system as follows:

- It is hoped that the new system will make programme offerings from Algerian universities more compatible with those around the world;
- increasing the international mobility of Algerian faculty and students;

- increasing student flexibility in choosing and transferring courses and credits;
- making the system more efficient as related to the time it takes for students to graduate;
- Increasing lifelong learning opportunities.
- increasing institutional autonomy while producing learning outcomes more attuned to the needs of the labor market;
- responding to the requirements of the job market by providing both the skills and knowledge students need;
- placing universities at the heart of the country's economic development by ensuring the production and dissemination of knowledge, mastery of technology, promotion of research and development and training of the human resources. (p.81)

Overall, it can be induced that Algeria has opted for the LMD system after diagnosing the situation, which was calling for a reform that might contribute to a significant evolution of this country. In 2001, the Algerian government has decided to provide immediate and sustainable solutions for higher education. A new higher education system, known as LMD, has imposed itself.

A reform of the higher education system imposed itself so as to deal with the prevailing shortcomings and make it more proficient, competitive and attractive. Besides, this would enable Algerian universities to be more responsive to the challenges imposed by globalisation, meet the expectations of the labour market and cope with the rapid development of science and technology. To achieve these goals, the Ministry of Higher Education drafted a comprehensive scheme that has been

debated, discussed and enriched for several years. Such a reform introduced the international LMD system (Hemche- Bereksi Reguig, 2014, p.124).

For the period 2004-2013, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research has adopted a ten-year strategy to apply the new reform. In order to assure "the development and implementation of an overall and deep reform of higher education, the first step is the establishment of a new architectural educations, including an updating and upgrading of various educational programmes, and a reorganization of the educational management" (Megnounif, 2009, p.2). The newly introduced architecture for HE was articulated following a scheme of well-defined criteria. These latter defines the ways and means to teach, study and assess in higher education. More about the implementation of LMD system and its structure will be presented next.

1.2 The Implementation of LMD System (The Bologna Transparency Tools)

The Bologna process aims to harmonise the national education systems, provide the suitable devices to link them. Bologna member countries have agreed upon adopting a number of transparency tools to enhance quality assurance education, remove obstacles of mobility and establish a common credit system. Those transparency tools are listed below:

- The Three Degree Cycle.
- The National Qualifications Frameworks (NQF)
- The European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS)
- The Diploma Supplement (DS)
- Quality Assurance
- The Recognition of Foreign Qualifications (RFQ)
- Joint Degrees (JD)

The following is a detailed description of the transparency tools used by Bologna Process, taking Algeria as the context of implementation (State of play of the Bologna Process in the Tempus Partner Countries, 2012, p.10-15).

a) **The Three-Degree Cycle**

One of the widely used tools of the Bologna Process is the division of HE programmes into three consecutive levels, known as the Three-Degree Cycle Structure, leading to three kinds of degrees: Bachelor, Master and Doctorate. In the majority of the Tempus countries, including Algeria, the Bologna cycle structures for Licence and Master Levels are fully implemented in most institutions and programmes.

At Licence level, two main models have been adopted in the Tempus Partner Countries: programmes designed based on 180 ECTS credits (lasting three academic years) and programmes of 240 ECTS credits (4 years). Algeria has opted for the 180-credit model. The licence can be a professional degree, which prepares the students for immediate integration into the workforce, or a nonprofessional degree aimed only at preparing the students for the next diploma, the Master. At Master level, the 120 ECTS credit model (2 academic years) is used in the majority of Tempus countries. The Master completes the Licence's education. There is a professional Master, which orients students towards active working life and a research master for students interested more particularly in continuing towards the third degree, which is the Doctorate. At the Doctoral level, the 180 ECTS credit model (3 academic years) is used in the majority of Tempus countries.

In Algeria, this Three Degree Cycle is nowadays implemented in almost all domains of study except for medical studies, architecture and engineering, which remain outside this new structure.

b) The National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

A National Qualifications Framework is a device used for the classification of qualifications according to a set of criteria for the specified levels of learning achieved. It describes the different qualifications and other learning achievements: what a learner knows, understands and is able to do. These frameworks are important for developing degree systems and study programmes in HE institutions, and comparing different national systems to make them more transparent to facilitate learners' mobility. None of the Tempus countries has fully integrated this framework as the majority of the partner countries are in the initial stages while the rest are reluctant to introduce such a process. In Algeria, this transparency tool is being discussed for possible implementation.

c) European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS)

The ECTS is a main component of the Bologna Process. It enables students to collect credits for learning attained throughout their higher education. This system helps increasing transparency of learning outcomes and learning processes and facilitates the recognition of studies. Practically, it provides a clearer understanding of the workload involved in a certain programmes or courses. It also facilitates student mobility and study periods abroad. In practice, 60 ECTS credits represent the workload of one year of full-time formal learning (academic year) and its learning outcomes: describe what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to do, after the successful completion of a learning process. Almost all Tempus Partner Countries have adopted are currently implementing ECTS. In Algeria, more than 75% of higher education institutions are using ECTS for accumulation and transfer.

d) The Diploma Supplement (DS)

The Diploma Supplement is a document attached to a HE diploma, which describes the different qualifications a student has acquired throughout his studies. Thanks to its standard, easy to understand and easy to compare format, it helps maintaining international transparency and facilitates the academic and professional recognition of qualifications. It consists of eight sections, describing the nature, level, context, content and status of the studies that were successfully completed. It also includes a description of the HE system in the country. In other words, it provides the context of the diploma and helps its bearer to illustrate further his/her qualifications. The DS should be issued automatically and free of charge to graduates at the end of their studies. Concerning the language in which the DS is issued, the majority of Tempus Partner Countries issue it in the language of instruction and/or English. In Algeria, the DS is automatically delivered to students in more than 75% of its institutions.

e) National Quality Assurance (NQA)

This transparency tool refers to the process of evaluating, monitoring, guaranteeing, maintaining and improving the quality of higher education systems, institutions and programmes. This tool was on the top of Bologna Process agenda from the very beginning and a network was established in 2000 for assuring quality. At national level, this type of external evaluation should ideally be carried out by an independent body, which is autonomous in its operating methods from the government and other authorities. Although the principle of independent quality assurance is becoming embedded worldwide, apparently it has not yet been widely adopted in the Tempus Partner Countries. The measures for the NQA differ among the Tempus Partner Countries. In some countries, it is under the responsibility of

either a government-dependant body or a ministry. In other countries, it is under the charge of one or several independent national bodies. In Algeria, NQA is the responsibility of the ministry of higher education.

f) The Recognition of Foreign Qualification (RFQ)

Recognition of Foreign Qualifications is crucial for the Bologna Process and is a device meant to promote the mobility of individuals and of boost the employability of graduates all over the world. Under this principle, students and graduates are guaranteed fair procedures with no discrimination on grounds such as the applicant's gender, race, colour, disability, language, religion, and political opinion, as well as national, social or ethnic origin. Practically speaking, ministers of education are usually in charge of recognising foreign qualifications for both academic study and employment purposes. Within this tool, higher education institutions in all member countries are encouraged to issue the DS to their graduating students in order to facilitate recognition. The principle of recognition of foreign qualifications is not applied in most of the Tempus Partner Countries including Algeria, which is still reluctant though it started adopting its principles.

g) Joint Degrees and Programmes

The Joint Degrees and Programmes tool is believed to promote the development of joint quality assurance, recognition, transparency and convergence of HE systems, student and staff mobility, graduate employability and attractiveness of education in general. At a global level, the development of joint programmes and degrees is becoming an essential part of internationalisation strategies and a major component of institutional cooperation. The Bologna Process has paved the way for cross border study programmes and degrees. In this respect, many countries have

adapted their legislations to enable JD to be awarded. In Algeria, Joint Programmes and Degrees have been approved by higher education legislation as in many other Partner Countries. Moreover, Joint Programmes are more common at Master and Doctorate levels than at first-degree level, or outside the university sector. The languages of tuition are usually those of the partner countries and/or English.

Obviously, implementing those Bologna tools is a long complicated operation, which requires huge amount of efforts and radical changes in higher education systems in order to reach quality measures and facilitate transparency in EHEA and the neighboring countries. The Bologna Process is now a reference and catalyst for reform. It goes hand in hand with the ambitions of Algeria, one of the Tempus Partner Countries, in achieving a revolution at the educational level, which, if well applied, will be reflected in the overall development of the country.

1.3 Structure of LMD System

The LMD is a complicated organisational scheme with constantly interacting components and key elements that need to be well understood by the reader to have a clear idea about its functioning. In what follows, we aim at presenting the essential key elements of the pedagogical management of the LMD system. This System consists of the Licence degree with 6 semesters (three years of study and the equivalence of the BA i.e. Bachelor Degree), corresponding to 180 ECTS; the Master degree with 4 semesters (2 years of study), corresponding to 120 or 300 ECTS; and the last period is the PhD, which includes three years of research and end with defending a thesis (6 semesters).

a) Semestrialisation (Semester-based)

For a more practical organisation and flexibility in the system, the division is based on semesters rather than years of formation. A semester is the necessary period of time to complete a certain course during an academic year. Within this system, the academic year is divided into two academic semesters, which counts 16 weeks of study and assessment each. The semester usually comprises 4 modules and students are expected to attend at least 300 to 360 hours of study, depending on the type of degree prepared. The first semester runs from early October to the end of January, while the second one starts from early February to the end of May. An examination must be held at the end of each semester.

b) Teaching Units

In this system, modules are organized into four main teaching units for each semester. A teaching unit is a set of lessons organized in a pedagogical and coherent educational progression. They are:

- Fundamental or Basic Unit (16 hours a week) consists of all the subjects that are essential and necessary to a given discipline (In the case of English Language: Written Expression, Grammar, TEFL and Oral Expression.....etc. It is to be studied by all students.
- Methodological Unit (3 hours a week) which is primarily designed to prepare learners to acquire skills in methodology and study skills (note taking, use of dictionary, writing a proposal.... etc). By the end of their formation, a learner is expected to be an active worker in the field of research.

- Discovery Unit (3 hours a week) where students can widen the scope of their knowledge to facilitate the passage from one discipline to another (The use of English in different discourses).
- Cross-section or Transversal Unit (3 hours a week): includes foreign languages and introduction to the use of computers courses (Spanish, Dutch, ICT....etc)

Teaching those units varies and differs from one semester to another and students are expected to attend a weekly allotment of 25 hours in contrast to the former system where the average did not exceed 15 hours.

c) Modules (Subjects)

A module is the basic unit of university education assigned in one semester, which consists of one or two coherent and autonomous disciplinary elements allowing a smooth assessment of learning outcomes. Each module covers a minimum of 75 hours of study and can be taught in the form of theoretical courses and or practical field activities (tutorial sessions).

d) Credits

In the LMD system, teaching units are based on the Credit System, which is a system used to measure the completion of a course that is required for a certain academic degree. A credit is a unit entailing the importance and volume of the acquired knowledge, training and student's work in each teaching unit (lectures, tutorial sessions, term papers, projects, examination....etc). The total number of credits for each semester is equal to 30 ECTS (180 ECTS for the licence degree and 120 for the master degree). Those credits are awarded only when the student completes the course and takes the required examination successfully.

e) Domains (Fields)

In this system, there exist many coherent disciplines including other subjects, which lead to other specialties and particular options proposed to students. From the field opted for, students choose a speciality subject and the degree obtained carries the name of the chosen speciality. For example, the field of English language contains different specialities such as is The Science of Language or Literature and Civilisation.

f) Course-type

After the progressive acquisition of the identified competences, students will be oriented to another function according to the project i.e. academic or professional. Hence, the students will benefit from the mobility they gain to other institutions and even countries.

g) Teaching Team

It is a group of teachers in charge of designing and monitoring a given programme (Licence, Master or Doctorate). These teachers are supposed to provide also support and tutoring to the learners all along their different degrees.

h) Tutoring

The LMD system has brought a new pedagogical activity for the teacher, which is tutoring. This educational practice permits a direct relation between the teacher and the student outside the academic sessions, which makes the teacher-learner interaction easier and closer. The task of the teacher becomes wider as he is supposed to advise and orient his students throughout their learning process. This element facilitates the application of the learner-centred approach, which is expected to be used in the educational settings.

i) A Progressive Orientation

There is a great tendency to orient the students progressively towards other specialties. The more the student progresses, the more he is oriented towards a new discipline and all depend on his outcomes. Hence, the student's competence is what determines his orientations during the formation period.

j) Assessment

In the LMD system, the assessment of knowledge, skills and competencies are key components. In this scheme, students' learning is assessed semestrially and not annually. First, they are given grades during the semester through continuous or ongoing assessment through marking the students for each assignment completed during the lectures and/or tutorial sessions (written and oral quizzes, term papers, presentations, homework...etc). Second, the students sit for a final exam at the end of each semester, in addition to a possible re-sit exam. Each institution is given the freedom of establishing its own assessment policy and regulations according to the university guidelines then making it public to the students. These regulations cover the modes of assessment, cheating, late submissions, absences, as well as the procedures for the consultation of the exam copies by students. The final mark of a module consists of the overall average of the grades obtained in the different types of assessments and a module is acquired either by validation or by compensation.

k) Validation

In order to succeed in his or her university studies, the student should validate all the required modules. A module is validated if the global mark is superior or equal to 10 out of 20 and without any mark lower than 5/ 20 in its composing elements. Therefore, a course is validated only if all its modules and semesters are validated. A validated course gives the student the right to the acquisition of the corresponding

diploma. A student who does not validate one or several modules benefits from a re-sit exam in all the non-validated modules and compensation is attained through averaging of all the modules.

l) Capitalization

Capitalization is an innovative educational principle within the system, which consists of a continuous recognition of students' ownership of a validated module. This lifelong accumulation of credits allows a more rational management of students' stages of university progress and the establishment of functional links between the university and the professional career by giving the student an incessantly possible return to the university.

m) Transferability

Within this system, institutions may use credits obtained from other bodies: other universities, training course, distance learning, professional experience, etc. This system is therefore very flexible and encourages students' mobility.

1.4 Tutoring within LMD System

One of the most important objectives of LMD is the active participation of the student in his process of learning. This newly introduced system has brought the new component of tutoring into existence. LMD was "designed so that all components including teachers and students have become involved in training" (Megnounif, 2009, p.2). Since the LMD student participates actively and is responsible for his process of learning, he should be supported through a tutoring programme as a pedagogical accompaniment. In this respect, Karpińska-Musiał & Dziejczak-Foltyn (2014) assume that: "Tutoring and Coaching could turn into the institutionalized instruments to raise the quality of teaching and learning, their application could be viewed as a factor which adds to the Institution's competitive advantage" (p.6058). This activity

of tutoring permits a direct relation between the instructor and the learner outside the classroom, which makes the interaction easier and closer. The teacher's role becomes wider as it entails being a guide who informs students about pedagogical information they seek and listens to students' inquiries. In addition, the teacher is supposed to advise and orient students during their learning process. This notion of tutoring is meant to apply the learner centred approach in the classroom (Idri, 2012b, p.58). Therefore, teachers are required to help learners engage and be active in their process of learning. Accordingly, it can be assumed that "tutoring is the basic line for the LMD system" (Abdellatif-Mami, 2012, p.4386). In the same line, Ayouch (2012, p.4) calls it "a key component" for the success of the system. She insists on making use of tutoring strategies to enhance learning and meet the requirements of the LMD system. Additionally, Samraoui (2012, p.192) claims that tutoring is the missing piece in the LMD system to overcome the problem of academic failure.

1.5 The Tutor's Role and Tutoring Arrangement within LMD System

According to article 4 of the Executive Decree N° 09-03 of January 03, 2009 on the specification of tutoring and setting the terms of its implementation, and the Ministerial Order of June 2010 on the detailed rules to describe the task of the tutor of higher education, tutoring is designed by policy makers and is the mission of a master or doctorate student under the supervision of a researcher teacher. It is a voluntary of 4h30/week job meant to support students and help them engage into university life and access information about the world of work. Tutoring is not an activity that requires organization and preparation as it entails a whole accompaniment action to help tutors succeed throughout their learning career.

1.5.1 Tutor's Role within LMD System

The role of the tutor covers four main aspects: informative and administrative, pedagogical, methodological and technical, psychological, and professional (The Executive Decree N° 09-03 of January 01, 2009).

Informative and administrative aspect: It entails: a) *Welcoming:* student need someone who is always listening to help them find solutions to new problems encountered at the university level. The teacher tutor explains to students the functioning and components of the LMD system such as: teaching units, modules, credits and debts, progression, curricula, Attendance at lessons and exclusion. b) *Orientation:* novice students who accessed university for the first time ignores the structure, operation and teaching methods must be provided with guidance in space and time: the location of Amphi Theatres, TP and TD rooms, Library, Rectorate, Faculties, Departments, Social security, Restaurant and Nursing.....etc. c) *Mediation:* the tutor should provide students with information about the role of the delegate as a linking unit between the student and the department.

Pedagogical aspect: Tutoring is to assist the student in his learning and organize his personal work. The tutor should help students with different study and learning skills such as: Taking notes, revising his lessons, preparing for exams, preparing presentations and practical work, consulting books and surfing the internet.....etc

Methodological and technical aspect: The tutor provides students with an initiation to the methods of academic work and the use of tools and pedagogical materials. Tutoring should be done in small groups to cover activities of: reviewing the course, preparing the TD and TP and doing the bibliographical research through

making best use of information resources, reading the available books at the library, handouts, etc. and rationally using internet to search for information or online courses.

Psychological Aspect: Tutoring is meant to stimulate and maintain student's motivation throughout his learning journey. The tutor should:

- Listen to students and create a trustful relationship between them.
- Provide support and personalized advice and service.
- Promote the learning achievements and encourage them to improve in order to succeed academically.
- Reduce the feeling of isolation in some the students (blocking source, discouragement and abandonment).
- Cultivate a positive optimistic vision of the future.

Teachers are required to support students through learning and to help develop their LA. Tutoring is meant to set the context for developing learner autonomy under the supervision of the teacher who is considered as the key elements in raising students' awareness of their learning process towards a more independent learning. However, the guidelines given by the Ministry of Higher Education seem to be limiting tutoring to guidance and help with tasks and learning problems. In regard of language learning, tutoring needs to deal with strategies and techniques of how to develop autonomous learning. In what has been mentioned, the informative and administrative aspect of tutoring tends to be out of the scope of supporting learners to become independent. On the other hand, the pedagogical, psychological and methodological aspects need to be well integrated into a functioning tutoring course in order to succeed in promoting LA.

1.5.2 Arrangement of Tutoring Sessions within LMD System

Within the same executive decree of 2010, a section of articles about the practical arrangements of the tutoring sessions is provided. The tutoring meetings target first year undergraduate students at the beginning of the academic year, during which students are in need to support and guidance. Students must be informed about the time and place of these meetings. The university is responsible for providing the necessary means and aids for a good organization of tutoring. The tutor signs a contract of 9 months maximum in an academic year and avoids any personal relationships with students for the sake of moral principles. The tutoring can be planned according to programmed sessions as follows (Guide Tuteur: University Yahia FERES Médéa)

For 1st Semester: Sessions should be devoted to the integration of students into the university life. During these sessions, the tutor:

- Explains his role and defines the objectives behind tutoring.
- Sets a schedule for the meetings
- Reviews rules of university
- Explains the means of contact (tutoring room, mailbox, emails.....etc)
- Presents the plan of the university and its different facilities
- Explains the LMD system structure and the proposed fields of study
- Describes the organization of teaching
- Indicates the modes of assessments and orientation

The favoured methodology for this phase is taking notes, management of time and group work. Students should be encouraged to attend these meetings on regular basis.

For the 2nd Semester: The tutoring sessions must be mainly devoted to the evaluation and preparation of the semesterial exams. The tutor:

- prepares students for the method of work during exams,
- explains that notes are not negotiable (schedule adherence and regulations in a general way),
- trains students to respect the decisions of a jury,
- clarifies students' right to appeal.

The tutor should take into account the psychological aspect (support, encouragement, advice). He also monitors changes in performance of the student after exams.

For the 3rd Semester: The tutor guides students towards autonomous learning and explains to them their capabilities to

- Listen and learn,
- Speak and be understood,
- Search for and find information,
- Be integrated into a working group,
- Organize tasks according to the objectives,
- Organize work without the help of the tutor,
- Study without the help of a teacher,
- Identify gaps in learning and take charge of their learning,
- Analyze a failure, look for its reasons and develop new methods.

The tutor should prepare a report of activities each semester (3 months) to synthesize issues and describe the solutions reached or offered as well as suggestions for improvement.

The above mentioned example of the tutoring programme proves the need for a more elaborated tutoring course to deal with those issues in a practical way. Again,

the administrative aspect of tutoring tends to be the job of the administrative staff, which can be easily dealt with through organizing seminars at the beginning of the academic year to introduce novice students to life at university with detailed description of its facilities and explain to them the LMD system and its functioning. Therefore, the tutoring course should focus more on the other cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social aspects of learning.

1.5.3 Evaluation of Tutoring within LMD System

The tutor, within this system, and according to article 08 of the executive decree N°09-03 of January 1, 2009, should be subject of evaluation by the team of training and the head of department through regular reports about activities and tasks provided by the tutor and the degree of satisfaction about the tutor's achievement.

However, in Algeria, the LMD system has given huge attention to the pedagogical accompaniment of students, but "the notion of tutoring lacks employability and focus to engage learners in self-directed and self-tested learning" (Abdellatif-Mami, 2012, p.4386). In addition, even if implemented, in rare cases, teachers who have been asked to be tutors are not well trained which leads to the failure of the LMD system in meeting its requirements. Although LMD has given special attention to the teacher- student partnership rapport and tutoring as a pedagogical accompaniment, the requirements for operating and maintaining this system are multiple and require time and resource to be satisfied (Megnounif, 2009, p.15). According to the system, much importance is given to the teacher- student partnership rapport and tutoring as a pedagogical accompaniment. However, not much has been said about tutoring and language learning. Therefore, and to not be faced with the consequences of the classical approaches on higher education, more efforts

and researches are needed in this domain to guarantee the success of LMD in the Algerian Universities' English Departments.

1.6 Language Learning inside LMD System in Algeria

Within the LMD system, education policy makers insist on promoting EFL students' levels to acquire more knowledge to secure acknowledged degrees for a high level of employment and pave the way for learners to take part in the globalization. English language has a considerable impact on the development of the country due to its role for employability, international mobility, unlocking development opportunities, and accessing information as an impartial language (Coleman, 2010). The LMD reform is believed to bring the Algerian diploma to universality and the Algerian student to the world of business.

Abdellatif-Mami (2013) argues that within this system (LMD), new innovative methods, at the level of linguistics, were adopted based on the philosophy of mobility and personal formation. She argues that in order to make the LMD more beneficial, a number of measures have to be designed and integrated into the curriculum. According to her, success of the system in language learning relies on the following:

- Planning and evaluation of the students' needs as well as those liaised to the socioeconomic market,
- Developing multimedia at the level of oral expression and vocabulary,
- Encouraging student enhancement with mobility,
- Creating cooperation between universities who share the same objectives and interests.
- Create listening cells and audits in order to register students' propositions.
- Prepare students for vocational education through the choice of English (p.246).

The following is a comparison between LMD and classical system in teaching the English Language as provided by Sarnou et al (2012):

- The scoring: Classical system or licence students have two terms of exams and two makeup-exams a year while English LMD students have two semesters each one is composed of three kinds of evaluation: everyday control what is called regular control (RC or CC as it is known in Algerian universities, TD, i.e., everyday tasks and TP own or personal work) as well as the final exam and each semester is followed by makeup exam)
- Some teaching units are similar to those already been taught under the classical system; however, the materials, the pedagogy and at times the programme change. For instance, literature as a module must provide the students first basic technical terms in “literary genres”, then as a second year, the students are to be familiar with literary analysis; this did not exist in the classical system. (p.186)
- The LMD students studying English under the LMD system are given more job opportunities and more specialized training, so they are really satisfied for their choice unlike the Licence students, those who are not involved in the research as the LMD students. For instance, our ministry is going to give them the right to share the PhD students' opportunities to get and have part in training abroad to improve their English while Licence students not under the LMD system do not have this right.
- Graduating with a Licence of four years is better than that of the LMD system. Licence students can teach with their diplomas in secondary schools and/or middle schools while L3 students cannot teach with their

degree of L3. Learning English in three years, for LMD students, is difficult, intensive and it contains loaded and full programmes.

- The main difference is in terms of the disciplines taught to both - for the LMD, they are more focused, and the many chances of passing years for LMD students.
- Teaching and learning English under the LMD system is more specialized and focused.
- An LMD student is obliged to make more efforts than a classical student because of the nature of the system. (p.190).

From what has been mentioned, it can be deduced that implementing the LMD system in the departments of English Language may promote EFL learning thanks to innovative pedagogic practices such as tutoring which is meant to improve learning autonomy.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher tries to cover the LMD system mechanism and highlight its role as a revolutionary reform directed to lift the Algerian university to the level of the universal norms. In addition, the role played by tutoring as a crucial component of the system is spotted and more about its relation to learners' autonomy will be presented in the next chapters about tutoring and LA. The LMD system has emphasized tutoring practice in universities due to its role in building students autonomous learning. Therefore, this research is to bring the link between tutoring and EFL learning autonomy within LMD system.



Chapter Two: Learning Autonomy

Chapter Two: Learning Autonomy

Introduction.....	49
2.1 Definition of Autonomy.....	49
2.1.1 General Definitions of Autonomy.....	49
2.1.2 Definition of Autonomy in Learning.....	50
2.1.3 Definition of Autonomy in Language Learning.....	52
2.1.4 Definition of Autonomous Learner.....	54
2.2 Emergence and History of Autonomy in Language Learning.....	57
2.3 Autonomy in Learning Theories.....	58
2.3.1 Autonomy in Cognitive Theories.....	59
2.3.2 Autonomy in Humanistic Theories.....	59
2.3.3 Autonomy in Constructivist Theories.....	61
2.4 Types of Learning Autonomy.....	62
2.5 Levels of Learning Autonomy.....	64
2.6 Factors Influencing Learning Autonomy.....	70
2.6.1 Age.....	71
2.6.2 Gender.....	71
2.6.3 Language Proficiency.....	72
2.6.4 Learning Style.....	72
2.6.5 Learning Strategies.....	72
2.6.6 Anxiety.....	74
2.6.7 Motivation.....	74
2.6.8 Beliefs and Preferences.....	75
2.7 Significance of Autonomy in Learning.....	75
2.8 Learning Autonomy and Life Long Learning.....	77
2.9 Measuring Learning Autonomy.....	78
2.9.1 Murase Model (2010).....	78
2.9.2 Dixon Model (2011).....	79
2.9.3 Cooker Model (2012).....	79
2.9.4 The Dynamic Model for Learning Autonomy (Tassinari Model, 2010).....	79
2.10 Learning Autonomy in the LMD System.....	82
2.11 Learning Autonomy as a Result of Tutoring.....	84
2.12 Constraints and Risks of Practicing Learning Autonomy.....	87
Conclusion.....	89

Chapter Two:

Learning Autonomy

Introduction

In today's rapidly developing world, instant decision-making is necessary for a successful functioning. In educational setting, helping learners become independent decision makers is a direct way for maximizing their chances for success. The concept of 'learning autonomy' has emerged under the heading of communicative approach for promoting the role of the learner as the key agent in the language learning process, and the shift from the teacher-centered classroom towards a learner-centered system. This chapter is a comprehensive review of the notion of autonomy, its principles, its emergence and history, its types, practices and contributions to the learning process. In addition to that, the relationship between autonomy and tutoring within the LMD system is highlighted.

2.1 Definition of Autonomy

Researchers conduct studies, which are analysed within the sphere of autonomy in theory and practice. They explore different aspects of this field and come up with different interpretations to this notion, starting from the general definitions of dictionaries to the more specific definitions of autonomy in language learning.

2.1.1 General Definitions of Autonomy

Autonomy has been defined in Mariani Webster dictionary as "the state of existing or acting separately from others or the power or right of a country, group, etc., to govern itself". Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010) defines autonomy as "the ability to act and make decisions without being controlled by anyone else" (p.84). Autonomy is a general term that can be used in all domains of

life as it entails the desire and will to act and behave independently from others mentally, socially..... etc (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

2.1.2 Definition of Autonomy in Learning

When it comes to the field of education, autonomy has acquired specific interpretations as related to the teaching and learning process. In this respect, Holec (1981), in his report to the Council of Europe, defines autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning”, which he then explains as the ability “to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning” (p. 84). Trebbi (1996) adds that “taking charge of one's own learning' is a tautology and a prerequisite as no learning occurs unless the learner is in charge” (p.290). Candy (as cited in Healey, 2014) believes that autonomy “is a process, a method and a philosophy of education whereby a learner acquires knowledge by his or her own efforts and develops the ability for enquiry and critical evaluation” (p.1). In this respect, Crabbe (1993, p.443) argues that the essence of learner autonomy lies in the learners’ rights to exercise his or her own choices in learning and freedom from the choices imposed by social institutions.

From these definitions, we understand that autonomy is related to being independent. However, “Independence [...] is not the absence of guidance, but the outcome of a process of learning that enables learners to work with such guidance [...] getting there needs considerable insightful planning and action” (Knight, 1996, p.35). According to Aktas (2015, p.2), autonomy is not independence, as learners should learn to work cooperatively with their teachers, peers, and the overall educational system. It is not context-free. The extent to which it can be practiced is influenced by a number of factors (personality, motivation, learning needs and the educational environment) within which learning is taking place. In addition,

autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners, for autonomous learners might be autonomous in one situation, but not in another, and they may need teacher's guidance and direction at certain level in their learning process. On the other hand, Little (as cited in Yang, 2005) mentioned 4 points concerning the misconceptions of learner autonomy. They are:

- it is not synonymous with self-instruction; that it is essentially a matter of deciding to learn without a teacher;
- it is not a teaching method;
- it is not a single easily described behaviour;
- and it is not a steady state achieved by certain learners (p.72)

In other words, learner autonomy cannot be developed without the support and guidance of an instructor; and it is not a new teaching method, which can be employed by teachers. Rather, it is a long sequence of actions, with constant changing direction, which cannot be limited to one aspect or described by a single word (ibid).

A more comprehensive definition for autonomy is provided by Gibbs (1992), *Independent learning* “describes a wide range of practices. It has become a rallying cry for those who believe that students need, or can cope with, much less support from teachers than they often receive, and that such independence is beneficial to students. ... Independent learning nearly always involves extensive independent use of the library and other information sources rather than formal teaching. Lecturers' time is concerned more with identifying clear learning goals, providing support and feedback during learning, and assisting in the collation, presentation and assessment of learning outcomes than with conventional teaching. (p.41-42).

To sum up, Benson (2001) suggests three principles as major descriptive norms, which describe the process of autonomy as a significant element for learning.

These principles are:

- Autonomy is a natural capacity of one's own learning, despite the variation of its perspectives; any learner can acquire it.
- If learners are provided with the suitable learning atmosphere, they can create and promote the capacity of autonomy.
- Learner's autonomy enhances learning process and leads to a more effective learning. (p.2).

Furthermore, the concept of autonomy is connected to the concepts of self-directed learning, learner training, independence, interdependence and individualization, all of this leads to confusion about the exact meaning of autonomy. In this respect, autonomy goes under different terminologies, such as self-regulatory learning, self-directed learning, the learner-centred approach and independent learning. With such a confusing, defining autonomy should be related to the aspect or field in which it is used. For this purpose, a more specific interpretation of this concept in relation to language learning is needed to overcome any possible confusion.

2.1.3 Definition of Autonomy in Language Learning

When it comes to the more specific concept of language learning autonomy, Raya, Lamb, and Vieira (2007) define it as “the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter) personal empowerment and social transformation” (p. 1). Macaro (2008, p.59-60) defines autonomy of language learning as learner’s decisions about their own language learning as the language

learner or user taking control of the language being learnt and the goal and purpose of that learning. This type of autonomy entails being able to say what you want rather than producing the language of others, because the ultimate objective of foreign language learning is not the acquisition of ready-made given knowledge, but the ability to say what one wants to say in a different language. Sinclair (1999) adds, "that autonomy in language learning is principally concerned with providing learners with situations and opportunities for exercising a degree of independence" (p.310). In other words, these kinds of situations and opportunities might range from activities in the classroom, which provide students with chances to choose what they want to learn, to allowing them to participate in out-of-class project work and cooperative learning.

Furthermore, according to Benson and Voller (1997), the term language learning autonomy can be used in five ways:

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

(p.2).

Moreover, Oxford (2003) proposed a more comprehensive definition of LA which:

Integrates four perspectives: a technical one focused on the physical situation, a psychological one focused on characteristics of learners, a socio-cultural one focused on mediated learning and a political-critical perspective focused on ideologies, access, and power structures (as cited in Martinez, 2008, p.106)

The technical aspect of learner autonomy includes the technical skills such as learning strategies and task completion, which are easy to be promoted in education. The

psychological aspect of learner autonomy refers to innate capacity and the cognitive attitudes and beliefs affecting learning. The socio cultural aspect entails knowing how to make use of others as interlocutors and source of information within cultural context. The political version of autonomy refers to control over learning content in relation to power in learning and teaching.

Overall, the field of autonomy is not a separated field. It is a social and mental system which is open to changes and developments. Accordingly, when a learner is pursuing learning autonomy, he develops a number of features, which are to be summarized in the following section.

2.1.4 Definition of Autonomous Learner

As human nature imposes its power, learners tend to take a part of responsibility in class to grasp knowledge by themselves inside the classroom. This fact raises the possibilities of developing the skill of autonomy and promoting learning outcomes to reach an autonomous learner.

According to Qi (2012, p.36), autonomous learners are the ones who take responsibility for their own learning activities, set their goals, select learning materials, monitor and assess their own learning practice and finally evaluate the effects and effectiveness of their learning. Learner Autonomy goes around the idea that that if learners are engaged in decision making processes in terms of their own language competence, they are likely to be more motivated about learning, and learning can be more focused and purposeful for them. Additionally, the fact that learners have the power and right to learn for themselves is seen as a crucial aspect for learner autonomy. On the other hand, increasing the level of learner control over their learning increases the level of self-determination, thereby increasing overall

enthusiasm and self- motivation in the development of learner autonomy (Balçikanlı, 2010, p.90-91).

Dickinson & Wenden (as cited in Wang, 2014, p.1552) explain that learner autonomy is learners' ability of managing their own study, including setting learning objectives, self-monitoring and self-evaluation, which are considered as autonomous learners' basic features. They can understand teaching objectives and teaching methods, set their own leaning target, choose suitable learning strategies, monitor their own learning strategies and establish their own learning outcome. Little (1991) adds that autonomous learners “understand the purpose of their learning programme, explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning and evaluate its effectiveness”(p.1). Also, Holec (1981) provided a list of characteristics of the autonomous learner, which go perfectly with the skills a language learner should possess concerning all aspects of his learning. They are: determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.), evaluating what has been acquired (p.3). Similarly, Xu (as cited in Qi, 2012) states that autonomous language learning capacity involves five aspects:

- understanding teaching objectives and requirements;
- setting goals and making a plan for one's studies
- employing learning strategies effectively
- monitoring the effect of one's learning strategies;
- monitoring and evaluating the English language learning process (p.36).

Dickinson (as cited in Yang, 2005) believes that autonomous learners are people who are characterized in five ways:

- they are able to identify what has been taught;
- they are able to formulate their own learning objectives;
- they are people who can and do select and implement appropriate learning strategies;
- they are able to identify strategies that are not working for them;
- and they are able to monitor their own learning (p.78)

According to Scharle & Szabo (2000), autonomous learners are:

- responsible learners who accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly. When doing their homework or answering a question in class, they are not aspiring to please the teacher, or to get a good mark. They are simply making an effort in order to learn something;
- responsible learners do not have to be especially keen on team work, but they are willing to cooperate with the teacher and others in the learning group for everyone's benefits;
- and responsible students may not always do their homework, but whenever they fail to do it, they are aware of missing an opportunity to expand their knowledge of the foreign language. (p.3).

Finally, Breen and Mann (1997, p.134) list eight qualities of being autonomous as a language learner: the learner's stance, the desire to learn, a robust sense of self, metacognitive capacity, management of change, independence, a strategic engagement with learning, and a capacity to negotiate.

Thus, an autonomous learner is an active and independent agent who is responsible for effective and meaningful language learning; and by becoming self-reliant, the autonomous language learner acquires the ability to diagnose his strengths,

weaknesses and limitations for more control of his language learning. Since its emergence to the present time, autonomy has proven its positive impact on the learning process. Next is an overview of the emergence and evolution of this concept of autonomy.

2.2 Emergence and History of Autonomy in Language Learning

Since the 1970s, the word autonomy, which means law in Greek, has entered the vocabulary of language research and taken a growing importance in the field of language learning. Although it is more used in educational fields, the idea of autonomy dates back to the era of personal autonomy in contemporary western political philosophy and has been used in other fields such as Philosophy, Religion, Politics and Medicine for a long time ago (Onozawa, 2010, p.126). Galileo was among the first to hint to the importance of autonomy with his famous saying: “You cannot teach a man anything; you can help him find it within himself” (Galileo Galilei, in Benson, 2001, p.23). This notion was largely associated with individual's independency in all aspects of his daily life. Then, in the early 1970's, the idea of autonomy first appeared in language teaching and learning thanks to the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project (1971). One of the establishment of this project was the “Centre de Recherches et d' Applications en Langues (CRAPEL), at the university of Nancy, France, which emphasized the application of the theory of autonomy in adult education (Benson, 2001, p.9). The founder of CRAPEL, Yves Chàlon, is the father of autonomous learning in language learning. Henri Holec took the leadership of CRAPEL, after the death of Chalon in 1972. In 1981, Holec, who published works about autonomy, contributed to the development of autonomy in the field of language learning. His work, which was reported to the Council of Europe, is "a key early document on autonomy in language learning"(Benson, 2001, p. 9).

The report of Holec began with a description of the social and ideological motives behind the need for autonomy in learning:

The end of the 1960s saw the development in all so-called industrially advanced Western countries of a socio-political tendency characterized by a definition of social progress, no longer in terms of increasing material well-being through an increase in consumer goods and services, but in terms of an improvement in the ‘quality of life’ – an expression that did not become a slogan until some years later – based on the development of a respect for the individual in society. (ibid, p.10).

Holec’s CRAPEL aimed at providing the learner with opportunities for lifelong learning as it insisted on promoting his individual freedom by developing skills to be responsible in dealing with the social learning affairs.

The publications and works of CRAPEL paved the way for autonomy to prosper and be integrated in the field of education and research. New researchers and educators have benefited a lot from CRAPEL and used its ideology and documents to further research in the area and experiment the notion of autonomy in learning, which resulted in a considerable amount of works around autonomy in relation to different aspects of learning and its huge importance in language learning.

2.3 Autonomy in Learning Theories

Since the word autonomy has entered the vocabulary of language research, it has taken a growing importance. It started to relate to the different learning theories, as they entail some principles dealing with learners’ independent nature. The following is an overview about the position of autonomy within three major learning theories, namely: Cognitivism, Humanism and Constructivism.

2.3.1 Autonomy in Cognitive Theories

Philosophers such as Rousseau (as cited in Qi, 2012, p.37) emphasize learner's responsibility for learning as a key idea of learner autonomy. He believes that learners should be responsible for their own actions and learn by either enjoying or suffering the consequences. In this sense, Rousseau's philosophy of learning set the basics for LA. Later, in accordance with the notion of meaningful learning, Dickinson (1995) believes that learners can never integrate knowledge into their cognition unless the experience of learning is meaningful, which refers directly to LA. He claims that:

There is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning learn more things and learn better than people who sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught... They enter into learning more purposefully and with greater motivation. (p.14).

On the other hand, the cognitive field of learning styles gives more credit to learning autonomy that incorporates learners' responsibility for their own learning. In Cognitive psychology, different ways of learning indicate various learning styles. Acknowledging and respecting different learning styles is part of learner's autonomy. Furthermore, cognitive elements like metacognition, learning attitude and motivation, and learning strategies have proven to be related to learner autonomy (Qi, 2012). Based on these facts, cognitive psychology contributed to the definition and development of learner autonomy.

2.3.2 Autonomy in Humanistic Theories

According to Qi (2012, p.37), Humanistic psychology tends to treat the human being as a whole and his inner voice as the basics of all human development. Maslow is the leading figure in humanistic theories. He develops a triangular model, called the

hierarchy of needs, which describes the universal human needs in human beings. Carl Rogers' (cited in Benson, 2001, p.33) contributes to this theory through his reconceptualization of the role of the teacher as a facilitator, which is central idea to autonomy in language learning. He explains that the relationship between teacher and learner lies in the teacher's facilitator role in helping the learner achieve autonomy through little intervention in the natural development of the learner (Benson, 2001, p.32). The humanistic belief that human beings should develop individually to their full potential is at the heart of LA. In this regard, Reinders (2010) states that "rather than seeing the learner as a passive container to be filled with the teacher's ideas these humanist approaches considered the learner as someone who actively shapes his or her learning experiences with the purpose of self-development and fulfilment" (p.40). Accordingly, Qi (2012) provided five basic principles of humanistic education within which LA is a component:

- Learners will be motivated to learn material if they have desire to learn and are able to choose it themselves.
- Education should strive to arouse learners' interest in learning and provide guideline for learners concerning how they can learn on their own.
- Humanistic educators believe that self-evaluation is a more meaningful assessment than grades, and they oppose the use of tests because it encourages memorization and does not accurately convey what a learner may know.
- Feelings and knowledge are given equal importance.
- Learning is easier and more meaningful when students are able to feel secure in a non-threatening environment. (p.38)

2.3.3 Autonomy in Constructivist Theories

In Constructivist theories of learning, an emphasis is placed on the learner rather than the teacher. The former is encouraged to construct his own understanding and meaning to find solutions to problems within the process of learning (Wang, 2014, p.1553). The learner in this theory is perceived as an active constructor of knowledge. In this way, learning as the core of learner autonomy is given much attention. Qi (2012) argues that “The essence of constructivist theories of learning lies in the idea that learners should discover and transform complex information on their own if they are to adopt it as their own knowledge and integrate it into their internal schemes” (p.38). With constructivism learning, knowledge is not transmitted by the teacher but learners meaningfully construct it through the necessary learning materials. In this regard, Reinders (2010) adds that:

constructivism gives a more central stage to the learner by focusing less on the knowledge to be transmitted, and more on the process of constructing, re-organizing and sharing that knowledge. In this process, the learner plays a key role. In order to be successful, learners need to be made aware of their own learning and how to manage it. (p.40).

According to this theory, the teacher is in charge of helping learners construct their own knowledge. This can be done through helping learners get a deep understanding of the nature, rules and relations among ideas and concepts reflected by the learning contents. In addition, the teacher should emphasize the guidance of learning strategies and the way to use them successfully, which then results in active construction of knowledge and effective autonomous learning (Wang, 2014, p.1554). Moreover, Constructivist theories value collaboration, learner autonomy, creativity,

reflectivity and active engagement, which informs the promoting of learner autonomy in language teaching and learning (Wang, 2011, p.274).

To sum up, we can deduce that all the three mentioned learning theories place great emphasis on LA from different perspectives. For Cognitive learning theories, learning is a process, which depends on the cognitive mental activities of the learner. For Humanistic psychology, the individual's inner world is at the core of all human development and the study of the whole person is stressed. For Constructivist theories of learning, importance is advocated to the learner rather than the teacher by encouraging learners to take an active role in the process of learning.

2.4 Types of Learning Autonomy

Many studies have attempted to classify autonomy into different categories according to various criteria. Kumaravadivelu (2003) proposed two complementary views on learner autonomy, particular with regard to its aims and objectives. He called them a narrow view and a broad view of learner autonomy, and then renamed them as academic and liberatory autonomy.

- ***Academic Autonomy***: this narrow view of learner autonomy involves, simply, enabling learners to learn how to learn. This process includes equipping them with the tools necessary to learn independently, and training them to use the appropriate strategies to realize their learning objectives. In this way, learners become strategic practitioners to realize their learning potential.
- ***Liberatory Autonomy***: this broad view of LA treats learning to learn as a means to an end, the end is learning to liberate, which empowers learners to be critical thinkers in order to realize their human potential. (p.133-141).

Another distinction is proposed by Russell and Bakken (2002). They claim that there exist three types of autonomy, which may not occur and develop at the same time. Each type can be improved separately. They are:

- **Emotional Autonomy:** this type is used in situations concerned with learner's level of control over his feelings that are affected by social environment. Emotional autonomy involves individuals' feelings and emotions expressed in their relationship with other people.
- **Behavioural Autonomy:** this type of behavioural autonomy refers to the capacity of making and achieving individual choices in relation to certain behaviours when exposed to experiences and circumstances.
- **Value Autonomy:** it is a type related to personal principles in certain aspects such as: religion, politics, and beliefs. In order to acquire and develop this type, people should have their own beliefs and principles, which need to be respected and appreciated. (p.56)

A further distinction is provided by Littlewoods (1999), in which he distinguishes between:

- **Proactive:** has to do with learners setting up their own directions and goals for learning.
- **Reactive:** has to do with the learner organizing his resources autonomously once the direction has been set by others (teacher, curriculum). (p.75).

Ribé's (2003, p.15) distinguished between 'convergence' and 'divergence' types of autonomy as follows:

- **Convergence:** whether there is a movement towards shared, other-directed curriculum goals

- **Divergence:** whether there is a movement towards more open curriculum goals, in which there is a range of choices around the process affecting almost all levels of control, management and decisions about the strategy to be used.

All of the above-mentioned types of autonomy are related to the field within which they are used and the way of their usage. A learner might develop one or all of these categories together.

2.5 Levels of Learning Autonomy

Autonomy is a capacity that can be acquired through time and by making efforts as stated by Nunan (as cited in Benson, 2001): "autonomy is not an all-or-nothing concept but a matter of degree" (p.5). Autonomy measurement depends on opportunities provided to the learner and circumstances within which learning is taking place, which gives an idea about the learner's readiness to acquire the skill and the level of his motivation to do so. As a result, developing autonomy is a gradual and the learner passes through levels to promote it. Nunan's model exemplifies the five degrees of learner's actions to reach autonomy. These main stages are described in the following table, which includes the content and the process of each level:

Table 1. Nunan's Model, Levels of Implementation (Nunan, 1997, p. 195; cited in Dang, 2012, p.53)

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

The five main stages to foster autonomy inside and outside classroom successfully are explained as follows: 1) **Awareness**: at this stage, the learner identifies the main goals of each piece of knowledge, and recognizes content of the learning materials that are used by the teacher inside classroom; 2) **Involvement**: the learner is more involved in his learning process. He has more opportunities to choose his own goals and decide his learning path to improve his level; 3) **Intervention**: at this stage, the learner selects and decides about the activities that are practiced inside classroom. He can be engaged in choosing the content of the learning programme as well; 4) **Creation**: the learner sets his own learning goals and is responsible for his learning achievement; 5) **Transcendence**: at this level, the learner can be described as autonomous. He can study outside formal settings effectively, and improve his learning without guidance or help of the teacher.

In the educational setting, both teacher and learner share the responsibility for deciding the appropriate level of autonomy used inside the classroom in order to achieve learning objectives since autonomy is a matter of agreement between the teacher and the learner upon the extent to which the learner practices independency inside and outside the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.143). The learner passes through three different stages to reach autonomy. They are:

- **The initial stage** in which the teacher is responsible for guiding and illustrating the aims and practices provided.
- **The intermediary stage** in which the learner has the chance to choose from the options of tasks and materials provided by the teacher.
- **The advanced stage** in which the learner is normally able to set his/her own goals and tasks; s/he will also have the chance to control his own learning without the guidance and support of the teacher (ibid, p.144).

Another model of autonomy levels is proposed by Scharle and Szabo (2000). It consists of three main stages:

- **Raising awareness:** is the initial cognitive process, which enables learners to be conscious about learning objectives, the definition of contents, and the determination of the progress.
- **Changing attitudes:** is the stage of transition in which learners attempt to replace the previous learning behaviours with some new way of learning. They select more appropriate methods and techniques for their learning process.
- **Transferring roles:** is the highest degree of learner autonomy in which learners are in charge their learning process with little and support from the teacher. They are engaged in a process of checking and evaluating the knowledge acquired.

In addition, Littlewood (1996, p.429-432) provided a detailed model of developing learner autonomy in language learners. The model comprises three development stages as follows: 1) **the communicative level:** the learner is able to use the language independently to communicate meaning in different tasks and situations; 2) **the learning level:** the learner is able to take responsibility of their own learning inside and outside the classroom using appropriate learning strategies; 3) **the personal level:** the learner develop greater generalized autonomy as an individual in wider contexts. In addition to the learner' ability to develop motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills needed to communicate independently, learn independently and be more independent as a person. From this perspective, autonomy begins from being able to make choices about specific tasks to being a lifelong autonomous learner.

The learner's degree of preparedness for autonomy is another significant factor, which should be taken into consideration when applying autonomy in classroom. Autonomy can be developed based on the capacities that learners already possess and exercise to some degree (Benson 2001, p.60). Both The teacher and learners should be aware of learners ' capacities in order for teachers to decide which level of autonomy should be practiced and for learners to accept and foster autonomy in their learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.155). Thomson (1996) adds that autonomy can be improved based on the abilities which most of the students have to a certain level.

When it comes to levels of control on learning, Benson (2001) has proposed a three-aspect model in relation to areas of control: learning management, cognitive processes and learning content. These areas are closely related to learning actions, the psychology of learning, and the learning situation. The development of control in one area provides support to the others. In order to achieve learning goals and reach the highest levels of autonomy, the three levels of control should be attained. He has argued that to better understand the concept of autonomy in language learning, we should consider those three levels of learner's control, which complement each other and cannot be applied separately. They are classified into:

a) Control over Learning Management

At this level, learner's behaviours and actions are treated. It describes efforts and behaviours applied by the learners in order to control and manage their learning objectives, patterns, and outcomes (Benson 2001, p.76). Control over Learning management can be achieved through controlling the following areas:

- 1) *The adult Self-directed Learner*: it has to do with learning outside educational institutions, in which individuals can enhance their learning process without being necessarily involved in formal learning. After a while, learners are asked

to complete a questionnaire or scale to know to what extent they think or they actually developed LA (Benson, 2001, p.78).

- 2) **Learning Strategies:** controlling this area is a significant step towards achieving control over learning management. Learning strategies are defined as "processes which are consciously selected by learner" (Cohen, as cited in Benson, 2001, p.80).

b) Control over Cognitive Processes

Benson (2001, p.87) has claimed that this level of control is more associated with learner's psychology than learner's behaviours. The former is diagnosed and described from learner's behaviours. This area is mainly concerned with the psychological factors, which influence the process of learning. In this respect, cognitive processes are based on three different factors: attention, reflection, and metacognitive knowledge.

- 1) **Attention**, which is a mental capacity which needs a sort of direction and a limited aim to be achieved.
- 2) **Reflection** which is "a mental process which takes place out of the stream of action, looking forward or (usually) back to actions that have taken place" (Louden, as cited in Benson, 2001, p.91). The process of reflection is described in terms of *Introspection*, which is deliberate contemplation of a past event at some distance from the stream of action. *Replay and rehearsal*, where events are re-occur in our heads repeatedly. *Enquiry*, where there is a deliberate explicit connection between thinking and doing. *Spontaneity*, which is a tacit reflection happening within the stream of experience.

- 3) **Metacognitive Knowledge:** includes the monitoring of learners' cognition and planning activities, awareness of understanding and task performance, and evaluation of the efficacy of learning processes and strategies. Learners can be taught to reflect on their own thinking and learning, which promote their autonomy (Ismael, 2015, p.95).



Figure 1. Control over cognitive processes

c) Control over Learning Content

This level implies “Control over the content of language learning thus implies a capacity to evaluate one's broad learning purposes and their relationship to language acquisition” (Benson, 2001, p.101). By taking control over the three areas of learning management, cognitive processes, and learning content, the learner is able to identify learning needs and develop learning abilities and skills, which paves the way for autonomous learning.

As a conclusion, a diagram, which represents the three different levels of control over learning process, is presented next.

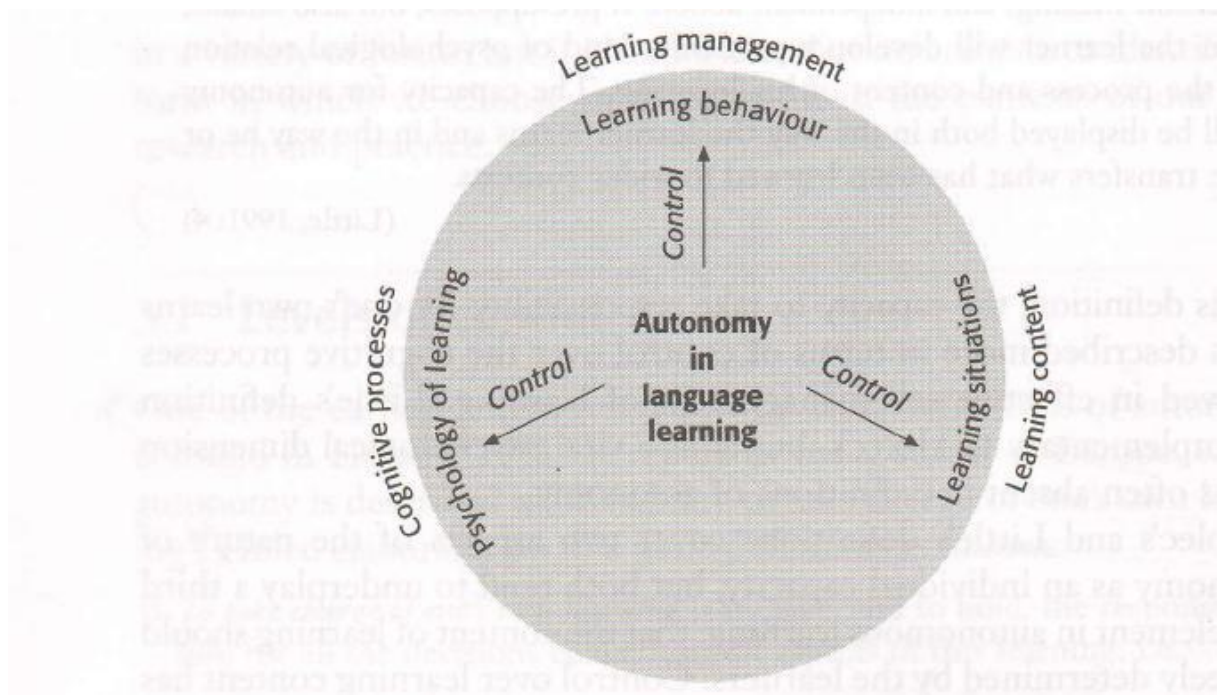


Figure 2. Defining autonomy: the capacity to take control over learning (Benson 2001, p. 50)

2.6 Factors Influencing Learning Autonomy

Psychology has always proven to have a huge impact on learning in general and on language learning autonomy in specific. In this line, Benson & Voller (1997) argue that:

Learners naturally exercise a degree of control over their learning independently of our efforts to encourage them. If this is the case, fostering autonomy may essentially be a question of helping learners to develop behavioral and psychological characteristics that come more or less naturally to them. (p.2).

Thus, "control over learning may also be displayed in relation to factors such as motivation, anxiety and beliefs about language learning" (Benson & Voller, p.2-3). In this regard, these psychological and biological elements such as age, gender, learning style and strategies, motivation, anxiety and beliefs/preferences may influence the

way individuals learn and the way they respond to learning experiences, including LA. The following is an explanation of each factor.

2.6.1 Age

Benson (2001, p.59) claims that “we are born self-directed learners”. Learners will have awareness of their own learning process as soon as they are ready to learn a language. This means that autonomous learning features are supposed to emerge at an earlier age. In the same line, some researchers, Yu (2006) and Knowles (1980), argue that learner’s age might have an effect on the promotion of learner autonomy. By defining adults as naturally self-directed and self-educated learners reveals the importance of age for developing autonomy and the learner should gain the necessary components of autonomy at an early age. Besides, a study that was conducted by Yoshimoto, Inenaga and Yamada (2007) reveals that mature students outperform young students in terms of independence in language learning process since young learners need support for learning activities both inside and outside the classroom.

2.6.2 Gender

The influence of gender on autonomy was explained by Grenfell and Harris (1999) who claim that female learners tend to be more autonomous than male learners in controlling their learning processes and being more aware of learning strategies. Whereas, Griggs and Dunn’s (1996) argue that male learners symbolizes more and earlier independence than female learners. However, a study conducted by Yilmazer (2007) reveal that gender is not considered as a factor influencing autonomy. Yet, males are very keen to become autonomous.

2.6.3 Language Proficiency

Language proficiency is an academic factor which might affect the promotion of LA. Dafei (2007) claims that language proficiency is positively related to learners' LA. In the same line, Yamamori et al (2003) researches this issue and concludes that proficient language learners are more aware of their learning processes as they reveal meat-cognitive understanding of their learning. On the other hand, Grenfell and Haris (1999) argue that autonomy is a prerequisite for language proficiency and competence. They add that without a certain degree of learner autonomy, a learner cannot be a successful language user. These claims clarify the mutual relationship between autonomy and language proficiency in the sense that they improve each other.

2.6.4 Learning Style

Learning style is another important variable which might affect the autonomy of learners (De Florio-Hansen, 2009). In a study conducted by Fouroutan et al. (2013), the results indicate that students' language learning autonomy is significantly and positively related to their learning styles, with auditory and visual learning styles suggesting higher level of autonomy.

2.6.5 Learning Strategies

Yang (2005, p. 75) states that researches have emphasized the fact that learning how to learn is a core component for autonomous learning, and tended to stress the question of 'strategy use', since for being autonomous requires strategic use of learning strategies Therefore, training learners to use strategies successfully will enhance the efficiency of the learning process. Language learners are believed to succeed in being autonomous as soon as they understand their learning styles, methods, and practice appropriate strategies at appropriate tasks. Autonomous

learners are, therefore, defined as the ones who have "the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning" (Cotterall 1995, p.195). In this respect, Oxford (as cited in Onozawa 2010, p.129) claims that effective use of learning strategies can promote language learning, as all language learning strategies are highly related to autonomy. She also highlights the importance of the appropriate use of learning strategy is as a key feature of language learning autonomy, through which learners will be able to use the language outside the classroom without the help of the teacher. The following is a diagram summarizing Oxford taxonomy of learning strategies that are required for autonomous learning:

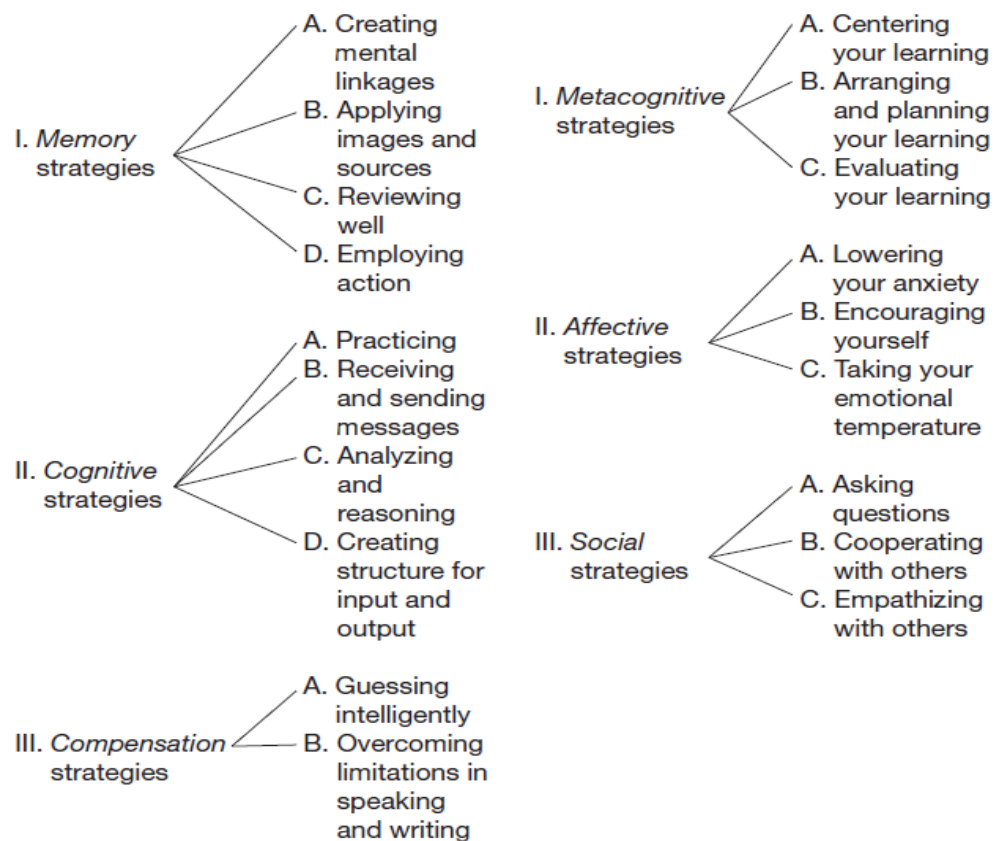


Figure 3. Oxford strategy system (Oxford, 1990, p. 17)

2.6.6 Anxiety

It is considered as the second psychological factor, which has noticeable effects on LA. The field of language learning is challengeable and requires tremendous efforts from learners to acquire different skills and practices inside and outside the classroom. These challenges can cause pressures, which will be transformed into anxiety. Chen (2015) claims that the high level of anxiety “throw a negative effect on the ability of autonomous learning ability, especially on the ability of monitoring the learning process” (p.76). In this regard, learners with higher level of learning anxiety usually fail to monitor the learning process, and those who fail to manage their learning process will show high levels of anxiety. Thus, in order to enhance students’ autonomous learning ability, the teacher should find effective pedagogical solutions to reduce his students’ anxiety, such as improving their ability in controlling learning process (Chen, 2015, p.77).

2.6.7 Motivation

Motivation has been considered as an active factor in the process of autonomy "motivation is a necessary condition for autonomy" (Murray et al., 2001, p.63). Many researchers have shown that autonomous learners become highly motivated and that autonomy leads to work that is more effective. They have explored the relationship between giving student great freedom (autonomy) and learning motivation. For example, Ushioda (1996) argues that "the establishment of principles for developing effective motivational thinking is an integral dimension of learner autonomy"(p.3), since “motivation appeared to precede autonomy and low motivation discouraged the pursuit of autonomous activities” (Chen 2015, p.71). In this regard, Benson (2001) claims that when the learner takes control over his learning, motivational patterns that

lead to more effective learning are developed. On the other hand, Dörnyei (2001a) says that “the freedom to choose and to have choices, rather than being forced or coerced to behave according to someone else’s desire, is prerequisite to motivation” (p.1). Also, Dickinson (1995) referred to a causal relationship between learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, Spratt et al. (2002, p.263) argues that promoting learners intrinsic motivation helps triggering their willingness to take responsibility of their own learning. To sum up, motivation reinforces autonomy and autonomy promotes motivation as they go hand in hand.

2.6.8 Beliefs and Preferences

Beliefs and preferences can also affect the field of learning in general and LA in specific. Different principles and thoughts about the process of language learning can have a major effect on learner's reactions when it comes to being autonomous. According to Benson (2001, p.73), learner's attitudes towards the field of language learning are influenced by different beliefs, which in turn may affect LA.

2.7 Significance of Autonomy in Learning

As an educational field, autonomy has a huge impact on classroom environment. The main objective of autonomy in learning is to promote learners’ independence and help them achieve progress in their learning process through providing them with opportunities to be successful (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.131). Since its emergence in education, researchers have been emphasizing the importance of fostering autonomy to develop classroom and lifelong learning.

To start with, Umeda (2000, p.61-69) specifies three significance aspects of autonomy from the educational perspective. They are: promoting a survival capacity to cope with the continuous social changes, enhancing learners’ individuality, and improving the diversity of the learners’ cultural and educational background. In

addition to these, Aktas (2015) states seven benefits of enhancing autonomy in language learning. He claims that autonomy helps learners to:

- Develop a capacity for critical thinking, decision-making, and independent action;
- Discover their learning potential, in addition to merely gathering knowledge about the learning process;
- Take responsibility for learning and for using appropriate strategies to achieve their general and specific objectives
- Face heavy psychological demands that require learners to confront their weaknesses and failures;
- Develop self- control and self- discipline, which lead to self-esteem and self-confidence
- Give up total dependence on the teacher and the educational system, and more beyond a mere response to instruction; and
- Understand that autonomy is a complex process of inter-acting with one's self, the teacher, the task, and the educational environment. (p.2).

In addition, autonomous learning is a successful, active mode of learning since learners who take an active role in their learning achieve better than learners who depend totally on teachers (Knowles, 1975, p.14). On a social level, Benson (2001) argues that in response to the fact that we are responsible for our attitudes and behaviours personally and socially, autonomous learners are more likely to have the ability to take charge of both their learning process and social life. In this respect, Thomson (1996, p.59) argues that individuals are born self-directed and have a capacity for managing their own learning, giving the mother tongue acquisition as an example to support this claims. Benson (2001) further explains the idea as:

- Learners routinely initiate and manage their own learning both outside and within the context of instruction.
- Learners receiving instruction tend rather to follow their own learning agendas rather than those of their teachers.
- Learners tend to exercise control over psychological factors influencing their learning, especially those concerned with motivation, affective state and beliefs or preferences. (p.60).

To conclude, the introduction of autonomy in learning has proven to be of great significant influence on individuals learning process. Fostering autonomy provides learners with chances to figure out and realize more opportunities, solutions and possibilities, which helps them deal with their learning problems and empowers their skills. It also helps learners to have confidence to set their own goals and make efforts to achieve them in real life. Most importantly, lifelong learning seems to be the most important purpose behind fostering autonomous learning in education.

2.8 Learning Autonomy and Life Long Learning

Autonomy is believed, not only, to be related to educational setting as it may extend to lifelong learning. This latter is considered as the ultimate goal of fostering autonomy. Benson (2006) states that: “the concept of classroom autonomy refers to a sort of autonomy in which teachers help learners to improve their autonomy without being limited only to what is taught inside classroom” (p.28). Compared to lifelong learning, learning inside classroom is considered as a narrow view on learning. As the latter entails learning for the sake of improving educational achievement. This involves providing learners with strategies and techniques to make them practice their autonomy by themselves within educational setting inside the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.133). On the other hand, autonomy in long life learning

goes beyond the walls of the classroom. Its aim is not limited to creating independent, responsible learners inside classroom environment. Rather, it is meant to create more educated, intellectual individuals who can deal with situations in real world, and are autonomous in all the other aspects of life. Autonomy in long life learning goes with the broad view of learner autonomy, which considers learning as a tool for full freedom (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.141). Researchers, such as Kohonen (1992), showed interest in the field of autonomy and lifelong learning. They have highlighted the significance of fostering autonomy in lifelong learning, which is a necessity as lifelong learning helps coping with the constant change of the occupational life and self-development.

2.9 Measuring Learning Autonomy

For a long time, autonomy has been considered as an abstract notion that is difficult to be measured. However, recently, a number of models (Murase, 2010; Tassinari, 2010; Dixon, 2011; and Cooker, 2012) are developed to provide a practical instrument to measure LA.

2.9.1 Murase Model (2010)

Murase (2010, p.57) develops a model with nine sub-categories related to Oxford's four perspectives of LA: technical (behavioural, situational), psychological (motivational, metacognitive, affective), political-philosophical (group/individual, freedom) and socio-cultural (social interactive, cultural). She also designs a Likert scale self-assessment questionnaire named Measuring Instrument for Language Learning Autonomy (MILLA). It contains 113 items which corresponds to the nine sub-categories of autonomous learning and is available in Japanese and English. This instrument is mainly criticized for the non-clear cut correspondence of the items to the sub categories of the model.

2.9.2 Dixon Model (2011)

Dixon (2011) tries to develop a model and quantitative instrument to measure LA in tertiary level language students. His model consists of six major factors which are: linguistic confidence, information literacy, social comparison, locus of control, metacognition and self-reliance. Dixon's (2011) designs a long list (256 items) questionnaire to measure autonomy; then, a shorter questionnaire (50 items) is developed out of the long list. Unlike Murase (2010) instrument, the items in Dixon's questionnaires corresponded to the six factors of his model. However, the instrument is criticized for the "labelling of the factors" (Cooker, 2012, p.77) for example; confidence could have been a more accurate label than social comparison. This instrument is available in English and Chinese.

2.9.3 Cooker Model (2012)

Another Model for LA is developed by Cooker (2012). She develops a model based on the political, critical and social components of Benson's definition of LA. The final version of the model contains seven major constructs which are: learner control, metacognitive awareness, critical reflection, learning range, motivation, and information literacy. She designs an unlimited self-assessment tool which is generated by learners and their views on LA. This tool is mainly criticized for its qualitative nature, which makes it difficult to measure LA in terms of levels or degrees.

2.9.4 The Dynamic Model for Learning Autonomy (Tassinari Model, 2010)

The last prominent model of learner autonomy is presented by Tassinari (2010, p.203). Learning autonomy is defined by the model in relation to three perspectives of LA, which are technical, psychological and social. Learning autonomy is perceived as having four major dimensions and ten corresponding components as follows:

- a cognitive and metacognitive component (cognitive and metacognitive knowledge, awareness, learners' beliefs): located in the model under "structuring knowledge".
- an affective and a motivational component (feelings, emotions, willingness, motivation): located in the model under "dealing with my feelings" and "motivating myself"
- an action-oriented component (skills, learning behaviours, decisions): located in the model under "planning", "choosing materials and strategies", "completing tasks", "monitoring", "evaluating", and "managing my own learning".
- a social component (learning and negotiating learning with partners, advisers, teachers): located in the model under "co-operating" (Tassinari, 2015, p.74).

The ten components of the model are presented in a form of sphere, which includes beliefs, attitudes, decision making processes and learning behaviours and skills. Among these components, "managing my own learning" represents an umbrella component which encompasses all the other nine components.

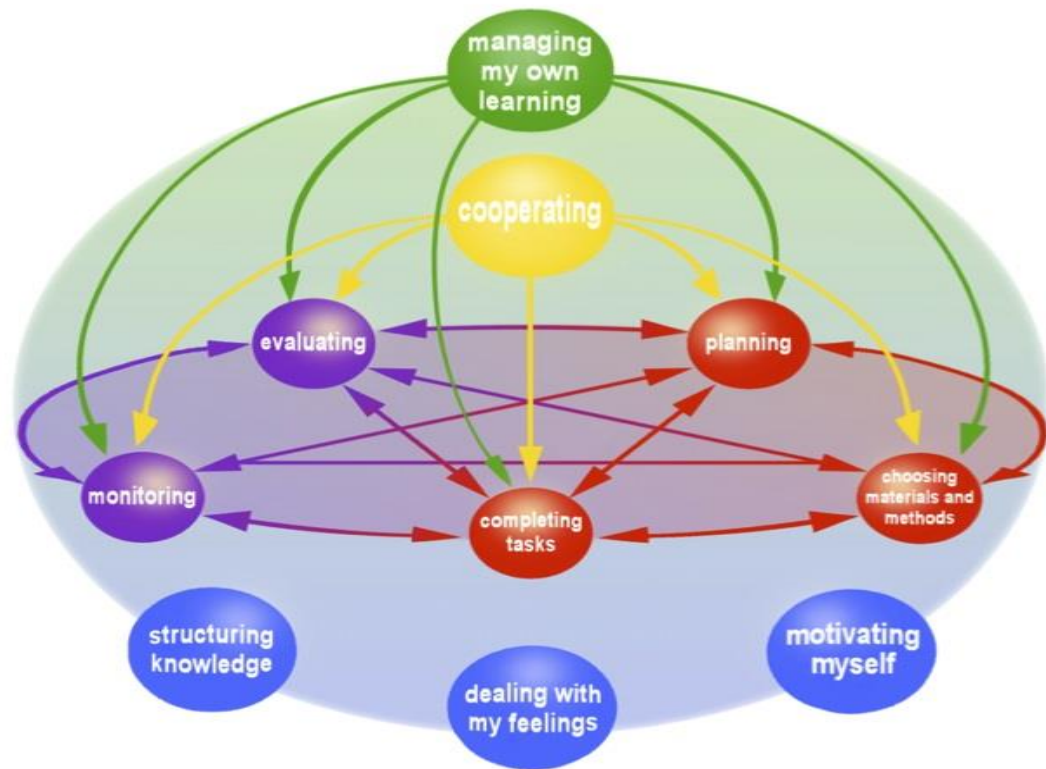


Figure 4. The dynamic model for learner autonomy (Tassinari, 2010, p.203)

This model is argued to be structurally dynamic in terms of the direct relation of each component to all the others. The model is claimed to be functionally dynamic as well because when used for self-assessment, learners can start the assessment from any component and move freely through the other components with no hierarchical order to be followed (Tassinari, 2016, p.122). Tassinari creates a self-assessment checklist of 258 items corresponding to sub-components related to the ten components of the model. The checklist is available online in English and German.

In the current research, the components of Tassinari's (2010) Dynamic Model for Learning Autonomy are used as the major themes for the tutoring course design, along with an adaptation of the corresponding checklist as an instrument to measure the LA level and progress of the participants.

2.10 Learning Autonomy in LMD System

Driven by the economic principle that the education of individuals can contribute to the national economic situation and development, the Western belief that the individual is the source of change (Benson, 2001, p.20) provides the model framework for education around the world. In this regard, Allwright (1988) claims that autonomy is “associated with a radical restructuring of pedagogy, a restructuring that involves the rejection of the traditional classroom and the introduction of wholly new ways of working” (p.35), which led later on to the foundation of the LMD system.

Since the implementation of the LMD reform by the Algerian Ministry of Higher Education in 2004, LA has gained importance within the Algerian language learning context. This new system of LMD emphasizes that the language learning process is based on the active role of the learner in and outside the classroom. Idri (2012a) explains that “learner-centred approach, competency-based approach, quality assurance, learner autonomy and tutoring do all form the content of the LMD reform in Algeria....to create a more autonomous generation” (p.2176-2177). Thus, effective language learning goes through continuous evaluation of learner’s progress in the classroom and through discussions on the learning process in tutoring sessions, which is supposed to help the learner acquire some skills to control his learning and become autonomous.

Moreover, within this system, attention is given to learner’s research projects and classroom presentations, which requires a certain level of autonomy from the learner. It is clear that the implementation of the LMD system in the Algerian university is an attempt to bring change and shift from the traditional to the more

learner-centred approach, within which the learner is an active agent in all the educational practices. In this respect, Sarnou et al (2012) state that:

Another aspect that the LMD system brings into the universities is the new roles of teachers and students in the teaching and learning process. In this respect, the recent pedagogical procedures that were born out of many reflections tend to transform the student, the docile “object” and the passive agent into a principal active agent as the learner in the learning process. (p.182).

The role of the teacher should suit the freedom given to the learner. He is a mediator, guide and facilitator of knowledge and the learning processes. The teacher is no more the only source and controller of knowledge. For this purpose, teachers are supposed to master the subject they teach and the methodological competencies that allow them to define the objectives and competences of the learning process.

However, when coming to the practical aspect of the system, the situation is different. The theoretical documents state that:

All should turn around the students; the content, the teaching method to be adopted, the materials to be used, the respect of their learning needs and styles as well as of their being a complete, valuable individual who can do, can change, can modify, can design, and can be autonomous. (Idri, 2012a, p.2176).

Although the fact that learner autonomy is invading the educational systems in Algeria, learners are still spoon fed, unable to take decisions about their learning, hungry for ready-made information and work and unable to take active role in learning.

From what has been mentioned, it can be deduced that the LMD system's underlying principle lies in supporting the promotion of autonomous learning in Algerian universities through tutoring.

2.11 Learning Autonomy as a Result of Tutoring

The shift from being passive and dependent towards active and autonomous learner is a difficult task, which needs tremendous efforts from learner and constant assistance from teacher. Hurd, (1998) says: “if learners are not trained for autonomy, no amount of surrounding them with resources will foster in them that capacity for active involvement and conscious choice, although it might appear to do so” (p.72-73). In this respect, Lindley (1986, p.136) argues that an educational system, which is directed to enhance autonomy amongst its learners would provide a tutoring environment which stimulated critical self-awareness, a desire to question received knowledge, and self-directedness and reliance, since “autonomy is tied to its prerequisites which are continuous evaluation, tutoring and accompaniment” (Idri, 2011a, p.182). This can be achieved through learner preparation. According to Hedge (2000, p.85), there are two different kinds of preparation: 1) *the psychological preparation*, which refers to positive changes in attitudes towards language learning and teaching in the classroom; 2) *the practical preparation*, which refers to acquiring and obtaining skills to enhance learning. These two kinds of preparation are part of what is called learner training, which is defined by Hedge (2000) as:

A set of procedures or activities, which raises learners' awareness of what is involved in learning a foreign language, which encourages learners to become more involved, active and responsible in their own learning, and which helps them to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning. (p.85).

Learner training goes under the umbrella of tutoring, which is important for learners to prepare themselves and develop their learning skills and LA successfully. In this regard, Wenden (1991, p.105) suggested the guidelines for an effective learner training as follows:

- **Informed:** the objective behind training should be explicit and its value should be brought to the students' attention.
- **Self-Regulated:** learners should be trained about how to plan and use a strategy, and how to deal with the difficulties they face in its implementation.
- **Contextualized:** training should be relevant to the context of the subject matter content and/or skill for which it is appropriate. It should be directed to specific language learning problems related the learner's experience.
- **Interactive:** learners are not supposed to be left on their own to practice. Teachers are expected to continue to work with them all along the process till they reach a level of being autonomous.

While trying to reach autonomy, learners go through a continuum to reach autonomy. Dickinson (1987, p.10) proposes a diagram which summarizes the main phases that learner passes through:

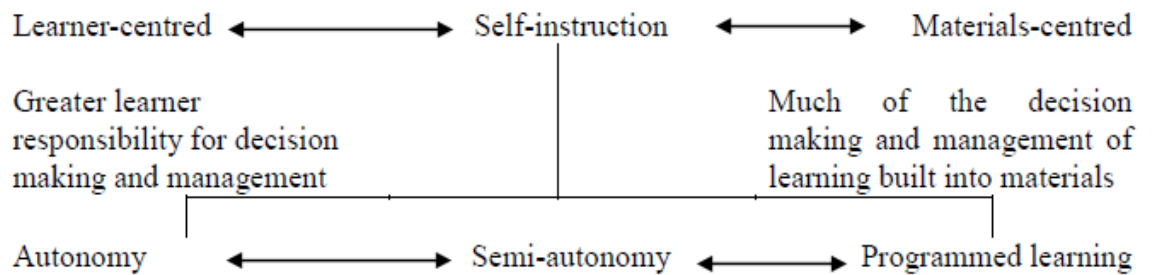


FIGURE B-8: AN AUTONOMY CONTINUUM (DICKINSON 1987:10).

Figure 5. An autonomy continuum (Dickinson 1987, p.10)

From what has been mentioned, the strong positive relationship between tutoring and autonomy is maintained. In this regard, Vygotsky (1978) is the pioneer in bringing the relationship into light. He introduces the zone of proximal development as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (p.86). This definition entails four aspects about learning. First, new knowledge and skills can only be developed according to what we know and can do. Secondly, learning comes in result of supported task performance, which is under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (tutoring). Thirdly, autonomy or independent problem solving is the goal of all learning. Fourthly, in any extended process of learning, the autonomy the one achieves at one stage provides an essential precursor to the next (Little, 2004, p.20-21). In this respect, Wang (2011, p.2) adds that autonomous learning does not mean students working alone, rather it is students having a significant part in choosing their own direction, discovering their own learning resources, formulating their own problems, deciding their own course of

action and reflecting on the outcome of that process. Therefore, if students are to develop autonomy, they need to be given some room in which they act as autonomous learners. However, this does not mean that to develop autonomous learning skills, students need to be left on their own. Rather, a healthy constructed learning structure, which provides training, support and guidance from tutors and peers, needs to be created.

2.12 Constraints and Risks of Practicing Learning Autonomy

Practicing autonomy by learners and prompting it by teachers is not an easy task as both teachers and students face constraints and risks all along the process.

Oxford (1990) argues that:

Owing to the conditioning by the culture and the education system, however, many language students (even adults) are passive and accustomed to being spoon-fed. . . Attitudes and behaviours like these make learning more difficult and must be changed, or else any effort to train learners to rely more on themselves and use better strategies is bound to fail. (p.10).

On the other hand, McNair (1997) claims that "... individuals enter higher education with very diverse levels of personal autonomy... if ways of learning adopted in earlier stages ... are carried forward unchallenged into HE, there is a danger that individuals will become less, rather than more, autonomous". (p.3).

Benson (2012, p.35) divides constraints on autonomy into two kinds:

- Constraints concerned with the personal autonomy of the students within the everyday life of the institution : student behaviour and discipline as encoded in rules, regulations and fixed routines
- Constraints concerned with teaching, learning, and more with autonomy in learning.

According to the constraints on teaching and learning, teachers are supposed to design pedagogies for learner autonomy through creating situations in which students are able to have some control over learning control and learning methodologies. Usually, in most educational settings, constraints on student control of learning content are more salient than constraints on control over learning methodologies, which leads to questioning the existence of LA if the learner has no control over the content of learning.

In relation to these risks and constraints, Dam (as cited in Wang, 2011, p.276) summaries the problems a teacher may encounter while trying to promote autonomy as follows: 1) it might be very difficult to encourage learners to make decisions and accept responsibility for these decisions as it might be difficult to respect the students' right to make wrong decisions; 2) the teacher may not find enough ready-made activities that are suitable for autonomous learning and have to spend time designing them; 3) it may be scary to abandon the traditional means of classroom control and rely on new or modified methods of discipline; 4) and the required course content and applied assessments are realities that teachers must accommodate. Thus, it happens sometimes that teachers feel frustrated and believe that it is a mistake to encourage autonomy, so they go back to traditional teacher-centered classroom to get control (Onozawa , 2010, p.132). In this respect, Dörnyei (2001) emphasizes the following:

Of course, the raising of learner autonomy is not always pure joy and fun. It involves risks. . . . It is at times like that we teachers may panic, believe everything was a mistake, blame ourselves for our leniency, feel angry and resentful towards the students for not understanding the wonderful opportunity they have been offered, and thus resort to traditional authoritarian methods and procedures to get order. (p.170-108).

The challenging task for any teacher is to establish the balance between freedom and control. The solution is to create “temporary autonomous zones’ of student-centered practice that are defensible and even desirable” (Hughes, 2001, p. 5). In this respect, Sinclair (as cited in Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012, p.5) suggests 13 aspects of learner autonomy, which are recognized and accepted by language teachers. These aspects are illustrated in the following table:

Table 2 . Defining Learning Autonomy (Sinclair, as cited in Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012, p.5)

1	Autonomy is a construct of capacity
2	Autonomy involves a willingness on the part of the learner to take responsibility for their own learning
3	The capacity and willingness of learners to take such responsibility is not necessarily innate
4	Complete autonomy is an idealistic goal
5	There are degrees of autonomy
6	The degrees of autonomy are unstable and variable
7	Autonomy is not simply a matter of placing learners in situations where they have to be independent
8	Developing autonomy requires conscious awareness of the learning process i.e. conscious reflection and decision-making
9	Promoting autonomy is not simply a matter of teaching strategies
10	Autonomy can take place both inside and outside the classroom
11	Autonomy has a social as well as an individual dimension
12	The promotion of autonomy has a political as well as psychological dimension
13	Autonomy is interpreted differently by different cultures

Conclusion

Between theory and practice, the concept of autonomy has gained much attention and attributed much value within the field of language education. This is due to its effective role in language learning and the success of the different projects that aim at autonomous learning. In this chapter, the researcher tries to highlight autonomy as a necessary skill and to shed light on the different aspects and the nature of autonomy in education to help both teachers and learners articulate this LA successfully in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, the relationship between autonomy and tutoring is examined for setting the basic line of the current research.



Chapter Three: Tutoring

Chapter Three: Tutoring

Introduction.....	90
3.1 Theoretical Background.....	90
3.2 Definition of Tutoring.....	91
3.3 Tutor vs. Teacher.....	93
3.4 Tutoring and Learning.....	95
3.4.1 Tutoring and Theories of Learning.....	96
3.4.1.1 Tutoring and Role Theory.....	96
3.4.1.2 Tutoring and Behaviourism Theory.....	97
3.4.1.3 Tutoring and Socio-linguistics Theory.....	97
3.4.1.4 Tutoring and Gestalt Theory.....	98
3.5 Tutoring and Language Learning.....	99
3.6 Types of Tutoring.....	101
3.7 Effects of Tutoring on Tutors & Tutees.....	103
3.7.1 Effects of Tutoring on Tutor's Learning.....	103
3.7.2 Effects of Tutoring on Tutee's Learning.....	105
3.7.3 Effects of Tutoring on Tutee's Learning Autonomy.....	108
3.8 The Effect of Tutoring Courses at Universities.....	110
3.9 Structured and Non-Structured Courses.....	113
3.10 Tutoring Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	114
3.10.1 General Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	115
3.10.2 Specialist Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	123
3.10.3 Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring to Foster Learning Autonomy.....	126
3.10.3.1 Models of Strategy-based instruction.....	128
3.10.3.1.1 Oxford Model (1990).....	128
3.10.3.1.2 Grenfell & Harris Model (1995).....	129
3.10.3.1.3 Chamot et al. CALLA Model (1999).....	129
3.11 Effective Tutors and Tutoring Strategies.....	132
3.12 Tutoring and Individual Differences.....	141
3.13 Previous Studies on the Effect of Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring on Learning Autonomy.....	142
Conclusion.....	150

Chapter Three:

Tutoring

Introduction

The related literature about tutoring is broad and extensive. In this chapter, the researcher presents a detailed exploration of the different theoretical works that are published over the last three decades, which provide the reader with significant information relevant to understanding ‘tutoring’ and its related concepts.

3.1 Theoretical Background

Tutoring as a practice is very old. It has existed for a very long time and is recorded in the old texts of Ancient Greece and Rome (Topping, 2000, p.6). Tutoring, as it is practiced today, is rooted in the Anglo- Saxon tradition of one-to-one teaching by a tutor. Wealthy parents, at that time, used to hire a teacher to tutor their children at home in a “one tutor to one child setting”, which is known, nowadays, as private tutoring. The private tutor had to care for a complex intellectual, cognitive and psycho-social development of the child under his tutoring (Karpinska-Musial & Dzedziczak-Foltyn, 2014, p.6058). With the emergence of formalized educational colleges, tutoring became an official practice at many famous universities such as Cambridge and Oxford. Then, during the colonization era in USA, a distinctive type of tutoring was introduced at Harvard College and applicants had to take tutoring sessions to learn Latin, the official language of all college textbooks. Little afterwards, and with the academic growth of different colleges and universities, the administrative staff provided tutoring programmes and services as key option to help admitted students succeed.

At the beginning of the 20th century, tutoring was integrated into teaching, at all levels, as a cooperative method, then as a teaching aid to cover the lack of teachers in schools (Bragagnolo, 2002, p.64). Since that time, this teaching method has been used primarily to aid learners. The growing use of tutoring was due to the contributing work of the psychologist Vygotsky (1978) in which he argues that much important learning by the child occurs through the social interaction with a skilful tutor. He refers to this as co-operative dialogue. Recently, tutoring has been used to help learners to master basic skills and difficult material content, for learning achievement and, sometimes, to prepare for high level advanced tests. With the beginning of the 21st century, “tutoring has achieved even greater prominence with the enactment of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, which treats tutoring under the guise of “supplemental educational services” (Evans & Michael, 2008, p.3) to help students who fail in schools. Nowadays, the idea of tutoring has flourished to become a target for scientific study to investigate different educational and psychological concepts that relate to tutoring.

3.2 Definition of Tutoring

According to Oxford online dictionary, the origin of the word “tutor” comes from Old French *tutour* or Latin *tueri* which means “to watch, guard”. Oxford dictionary defines a “tutor” as a private teacher, typically one who teaches a single pupil or a very small group. It refers, also, to a university or college teacher responsible for the teaching and supervision of assigned students (British) or an assistant lecturer in a college or university (US).

In her dictionary, Merriam Webster defines the tutor as a person charged with the instruction and guidance of another, or as a teacher in a British university who gives individual instruction to undergraduates. She claims that the first known use of

the term “tutor” was during the 14th century. The “tutee” on the other hand is one who is being tutored. Tutor as a verb is to do the work of a tutor: to teach a single student, to teach someone as a tutor or to teach or guide usually individuals in a special subject or for a particular purpose.

The Free dictionary, on the other hand, defines a tutor as a private instructor, one that gives additional, special, or remedial instruction. It refers to a teacher or teaching assistant in some universities and colleges having a rank lower than that of an instructor. Also, it can be defined as a graduate, usually a fellow, responsible for the supervision of an undergraduate at some British universities.

Besides the definitions of dictionaries, a very simple and general definition for ‘tutoring’ is provided by Chin, Rabow & Estrada (2011). They state that: “the act of tutoring is the act of saying to someone else, “Let me help you learn” (p.3). This definition implies that the tutor’s job is to facilitate the learners’ process of learning. This act of helping others to learn is put under a process of “guiding” and “advising” (Alvarez, as cited in Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González, 2009, p.87). The tutor, therefore, guides the learner towards successful learning as explained by Bragagnolo (2002, p.63) that tutoring is a method which can be used to reduce school failure.

Another definition is stated in The Master Tutor book (1994). The tutor is defined as the “person who, in structured and supervised educational context, enters into peer teaching and learning relationship with one or more others” (p, 6). Tutoring is that specific teaching and learning relationship between a teacher (tutor) and one learner (tutee) or a group of learners (tutees), which is supposed to happen in a structured and educational classroom. More information about this relationship is provided by Topping (2000) who claims that “Tutoring can be defined as people ... helping and supporting the learning of others in an interactive, purposeful and

systematic way” (p.3). From this definition, tutoring can be seen as an organized academic work designed to enhance and simplify learning; and to achieve this goal, the tutor, who is the medium, is supposed to interact with the learner(s) in a certain way. In this respect, Karpinska-Musial & Dziedziczak-Foltyn (2014) say: “tutoring ... necessitates a personalized relation between tutor and student based to a great extent on listening and asking questions” (p.6061). Therefore, the interaction between the tutor and tutee is mostly about ‘asking’ and ‘listening’. These two skills are at the heart of the definition of tutoring.

From the mentioned set of definitions, we can deduce that tutoring is the academic behaviour of the tutor to guide and help tutees learn within an educational setting, in which listening skill and asking questions are highly detected. A more accurate definition of tutoring will be revealed later with the coming points.

3.3 Tutor vs. Teacher

Tutoring is a form of teaching and one of teacher’s roles; but since teaching, as well, is a process of helping learners learn, what makes the tutor play a different role from that of the teacher in the classroom. Chi et al (2001) state that: “one main instructional difference between teachers and tutors is that tutors have the opportunity to pursue a given topic or problem until the students have mastered it” (p.472). The tutor’s job is to fill in the gaps in teachers’ teaching and work on those areas that are not be dealt with or fully understood inside the classroom. This means that the tutor goes beyond the simple transmission of information from the teacher to the learner to enhance and foster that transmission (learning). Topping (2000) provides a summary of the distinctive characteristics of the tutor:

Compared to professional teaching, it (tutoring) can give: more practice; more activity and variety; more individualized help; more questioning; simpler

vocabulary; more modelling and demonstration; more local relevant examples; higher disclosure of misunderstanding; more prompting and self-correction; more immediate feedback and praise; more opportunities for generalization; more insight into learning; and more self-regulation and ownership of the learning process. (p.6-7).

The above quotation encompasses, in general, all the tutoring activities that are meant to facilitate and enhance learning. The following is a table listing the major differences between the tutor and the teacher:

Table 3. A Comparison of Traditional Teaching and Tutorial Instruction (From Wood & Tanner, 2012, p.6)

Traditional lecture in classroom	Tutorial with an expert tutor
1. Instructor transmits facts and explanations to students by lecturing and presenting visuals.	1. Tutor poses problems, asks questions, and provides occasional hints but little explanation.
2. Students sit passively and record information from lecture and visuals.	2. Student answers questions, works at problem solving, and engages actively in deliberate practice.
3. Instructor focuses entirely on content, most of it factual information.	3. Tutor focuses not only on content, but also on student’s affective state, motivation, and metacognitive awareness.
4. Students receive feedback on their progress only periodically, through high-stakes, summative exams.	4. Student receives continual feedback through formative assessment in the form of questions.
5. Instructor does not know how well students are understanding concepts until after a high-stakes exam and cannot tailor presentation to student needs.	5. Tutor continually monitors student’s understanding through questioning, knows student’s level of understanding precisely, and can adjust strategy accordingly
6. Students may learn factual and conceptual information only in the context of the course.	6. Student is required to apply new knowledge to new situations and generalize it to other contexts.
7. Instructor has little or no personal interaction with individual students.	7. Tutor establishes rapport with student and encourages and supports the learning process.

The table indicates the crucial role of the tutor in training learners to control their learning processes. Those differences were taken into consideration when developing the tutoring course for the current study.

3.4 Tutoring and Learning

This section presents the relationship between tutoring and learning with an overview of some learning theories and their relation to tutoring. Kawachi (2006) defines learning as: "... the accumulation of knowledge and skills – both practical skills and critical thinking skills-and the proficiency to use these appropriately" (p.197). There are four interrelated dimensions associated with learning. These are cognition, affect, meta-cognition and environment (Hartman, as cited in Kawachi, 2006):

Cognition is [...] the aptitude, prior knowledge and skills necessary for performing a task or test. Affect is the motivation, attitude and decision to initiate performance, Meta-cognition is understanding how the task is performed, and the ability to self-monitor, evaluate and plan own learning. And the environment dimension is defined as the social or physical forum in which learning occurs. (p.197)

Among these dimensions, cognition, and for a long time, has been the subject of focus for tutors, as it was highly linked to learning. "The tutor's role has been understood mainly limited to intervening in the cognitive aspects in their role of interpreting the content to be learnt and assessing the quality and quantity of learning" (Kawachi 2006, p.199). This means that the tutor main concern is to support the cognitive dimension of learning through developing tutee's knowledge and abilities to perform. On the other hand, tutors have paid "little attention to intervening in the affective domain (and) much less attention has been paid to bring students to understand how

they learn – meta-cognition” (ibid). However, the tutor’s role should cover the “affective” and “meta-cognitive” dimensions of learning, since both are considered to be very crucial elements to support learning. Motivating students intrinsically to learn (affective) and help them be aware of their learning (meta-cognitive) are necessary and complementary for the cognitive dimension. Therefore, in this study, the focus of tutoring goes beyond the cognitive dimension to cover the metacognitive and socio-affective dimensions as well.

3.4.1 Tutoring and Theories of Learning

Among the different learning theories, the following are the ones that have applications for “tutoring”.

3.4.1.1 Tutoring and Role Theory

In order to define the tutor’s role, we first need to give a definition to the term “role”. The role is the “set of expectations that are associated with particular positions in the social structure (e.g., teacher, student). These expectations define rights and duties (Powell, 1997, p.7). In addition to that, it can be defined as “the product of interaction between individuals pursuing common goals (i.e. the tutor and student” Schofield (2007, p.26). From these perspectives, it can be concluded that the role of the tutor is associated with the tutee’s expectations, “tutor behaviour will be constrained by what those who are tutored (tutees) expect of the teacher” (Goodlad & McIvor (1998, p.90), and he (the tutor) is supposed to work in order to satisfy those social expectations attributed to him. When the teacher assumes a social role of a tutor, he modifies his teacher’s role to meet the expectations of society from a tutor’s role. The tutor is supposed to help students learn and his role’s performance is considered successful when the academic performance of tutee is enhanced (Powell,

1997, p.7). In this respect, the tutor fails in his role as a tutor if the tutees' performance is not promoted.

3.4.1.2 Tutoring and Behaviourism Theory

This theory is related to the psychologist B. F Skinner who claims that effective learning occurs as a response to a stimulus: a correct answer is rewarded and a wrong answer is punished. Applying this to the tutor/ tutee paradigm, the tutee is rewarded by the positive feedback and praise of his teacher whenever he succeeds in learning material; in turn, "the reward acting as a stimulus to make another step in learning" (Goodlad & McIvor, 1998, p.90). This is known as the positive reinforcement of learning. The tutor, on the other hand, succeeds in his tutoring and is rewarded by the tutees mastering of the presented material (Powell, 1997, p.7). In this theory, the tutor/tutee relationship is merely considered in relation to stimulus response.

3.4.1.3 Tutoring and Socio-linguistics Theory

According to this theory, the child's patterns of speech acquired in early childhood under the influence of social upbringing, decide their success and ability to perform in school. Those children with limited and weak concepts (restricted patterns of speech) have a weak learning capacity in contrast to those with elaborated and sophisticated code of speech. Therefore, tutoring "offers pupils practice in speech codes with which they may be unfamiliar" (Goodlad & McIvor, 1998, p.90), and, therefore, is considered as the solution for the disadvantaged learners to expand their speech and learning which, in turn, leads to academic success (Powell, 1997, p.7).

3.4.1.4 Tutoring and Gestalt Theory

This theory entails that learning occurs when the learner is able to locate any piece of knowledge within its field, context or structure. The tutor, while preparing to tutor, struggles to explain the material in a way which is meaningful for the tutee. He reflects on his own learning process, which helps the tutor to develop awareness of his learning process and provide remedy to any missing or lacking knowledge or conceptual issues (Powell, 1997, p7). This process helps tutors to better manipulate and master the subject matter (Goodlad & McIvor, 1998, p.90).

These educational theories reveal specific benefits for both tutors and tutees (Goodlad and Hirst, as cited in Powell, 1997):

- Tutors develop their sense of personal adequacy (Role theory).
- Tutors find a meaningful use of the subject matter of their studies (Gestalt theory).
- Tutors reinforce their knowledge of fundamentals (Gestalt theory).
- Tutors, in the adult role and with the status of teacher, experience being part of a productive society (Role theory).
- Tutors develop insight into the teaching/learning process and can cooperate better with their own teachers (Gestalt theory and Role theory).
- Tutees receive individualized instruction (Behaviourist theory).
- Tutees receive more teaching (Behaviourist theory).
- Tutees may respond better to their peer than to their teachers (Role theory, Gestalt Theory).
- Tutees can receive companionship from tutors (Gestalt theory). (p.8).

From what has been mentioned so far, the link between tutoring and learning can be established. For research purposes, the following section highlights tutoring and its relation to language learning as a specific type of learning.

3.5 Tutoring and Language Learning

For students learning a second or a foreign language, the learning process is a multi-operational task that requires special attention, most of which can be offered through tutoring. They (tutees) “need the kind of individualized attention that tutors offer, instruction that casts no aspersions on the adequacy of the classroom or the ability of the student” (Harris and Silva, 1993, p.525). However, unlike other fields of learning, “language learning materials can cover a wide variety of topics such that there are unique opportunities for personalization and choice in a language tutoring system” (Heilman & Eskenazi, 2006, p.27). This means to learn a language entails learning thousands of knowledge components which include: “story grammar, comprehension, identification of sight words, acquisition of vocabulary, and general reading skills” (Kalkowski 1995, p.3). This variety of language learning topics and dimensions makes it very difficult for the tutor to handle:

Language tutoring systems face a unique set of problems that arise from the nature of the language domain. The set of items, either grammatical or lexical, that a student must learn is very large. Also, it is often difficult to accurately assess the knowledge of a single item because of the various contexts in which words may occur. Choosing the number, nature, and timing of assessment exercises is thus a great challenge. (Heilman and Eskenazi, 2006, p.27).

From this quotation, it can be deduced that language learners have many concerns that can only be addressed in tutoring settings, where the focus of attention is placed on the particular questions, concerns, language learning experiences and difficulties.

Research in the domain of language learning (Harris & Silva, 1993; Bragagnolo, 2002; Heilman & Eskenazi, 2006; Maffei, 2007; Nchindila, 2007; Danli, 2009; Polansky et al, 2010; East, Tolosa & Villiers, 2012) came up with conclusive benefits as “positive results were found for both short- and long-term tutoring” (Kalkowski, 1995, p.3) on language achievement for both tutors and tutees. For example, in a study conducted by Maffei (2007, p. 201-210), she found out that the tutors made most of the linguistic knowledge achieved by the tutees. They support language learners with activities, which require tutor’s competence such as the implementation of a “technical glossary”. On the other hand, tutors direct their attention to the linguistic area, which gives the language its real nature as a means of communication, and helps developing a cooperative relationship between tutors and their tutees. Additionally, from a psychological perspective, tutors have a positive effect on both tutors and tutees’ affective perception. They both feel that their role and social image are satisfied as long as they are given a chance to play a crucial active role in their learning process.

Tutors can use different kinds of tutorial activities or strategies to help students with their language learning. Most importantly, language tutors should be aware of the time constraints they face in tutoring sessions as language learning is typically a slow and long-term process. Furthermore, language tutors need to push and support the high level of proficiency in language learning since it is considered as the most important component for language learning success.

3.6 Types of Tutoring

Tutoring as means of instruction is subdivided into many formats, depending on the number of the tutees, the place in which tutoring takes place, the medium of interaction between the tutor and the tutee, and on the age/status difference between the tutor and the tutee.

a) Number of tutees: According to the number of the tutees, tutoring is subdivided into two categories: one-to-one tutoring and group tutoring. The former is known as private tutoring. Vanlehn (2011) defines it as: “an adult, subject-matter expert working synchronously with a single student” (p.197). The tutor enters an individualized relationship with a single student with a condition that the tutor is older and more advanced than the tutee. On the other hand, in group tutoring, the tutor works with more than one student or a small group of students. During the tutorial session, the tutor usually, assigns tasks, containing problems. Then, he and his tutees work on solving these problems together.

b) The place of tutoring: Tutoring can be provided at different places. Some tutoring can be provided at the house of either the tutor or his/her clients’, which is common with the one to one private type. Other tutoring is held in small rooms, large classes or even in huge amphi theatres , which is more common with group tutoring, in which the number of the tutees determine the size of the room (Bray, 2007, p.21).

c) Purpose of tutoring: Concerning the goal behind tutoring, Vanlehn (2011) argues that “tutoring can be done as a supplement to the students’ classroom instruction or as a replacement. Tutoring can teach new content, or it can also be purely remedial” (p.197). When tutoring is provided as an alternative to teaching, the tutor is supposed to give new information to his learners and behave as a teacher; whereas, in case of remedial purposes, the tutor is supposed to support learners’

learning and help them with the difficulties they encounter with a certain learning that the teacher fails to deal with.

c) Medium of interaction: Vanlehn (2011) gave a different classification based on the medium of interaction: “tutoring includes face-to-face, audio-mediated, and text-mediated instantaneous communication” (p, 197). Tutoring can be delivered with both participants are present at the same place with direct interaction, on the phone or using social networks such as: facebook, forums, e-mail.... etc, which is known as online tutoring.

d) Age difference: According to age difference between the tutor and his tutees, tutoring can be divided into three types: cross age, same age and peer tutoring. In Cross- age tutoring, older more advanced students or teachers tutor younger new students. It is also known as adult tutoring, in which an adult provides tutoring to students in school. Here, the tutor is responsible for the tutee’s learning. (Bragagnolo, 2002): “... it is the objective of the tutor to impart his/her knowledge to the tutee in order to enable the student to progress” (p, 64). The tutoring relationship is one way from tutor to tutee. Same-age Tutoring is when the tutor and tutees are of a similar age. Participants are peers who belong to the same level or grade. In this type of tutoring, tutors and tutees may have complimentary knowledge, which help them learn from each other. Therefore, the tutoring relationship and benefit are, usually, reciprocal (Roscoe & Chi 2007, p. 336). They, the tutor and the tutee, exchange knowledge and influence each other’s learning. Finally, peer tutoring can be classified under either cross age or same age tutoring. Since “peer tutoring” includes "cross age" tutoring and “same age” tutoring, the researcher will use the general term “tutoring”, to refer to expert teachers (graduates or teachers) tutor novice students (undergraduates or beginners).

3.7 Effects of Tutoring on Tutors & Tutees

The positive effects of tutoring have impressed teachers and researchers over the years. A huge range of studies has investigated the effect of tutoring on both the student tutor and tutees. The following is a summary of the research conducted in this area.

3.7.1 Effects of Tutoring on Tutor's Learning

Tutoring programmes are believed to have a positive effect on students who receive tutoring and, also, on students or teachers who serve as tutors in these programmes. The studies of Cohen and Kulik (1981) and Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982) highlight the effect of tutoring on tutor's achievement, attitudes towards subject matter and self-esteem. The tutors developed positive attitudes and gained a better understanding of the subjects they teach. Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982) found out that:

Students who served as tutors performed better than did control students on examinations in the subject being taught [...] attitudes were more positive among those serving as tutors [...] self-concept was higher for tutors than for those who did not serve as tutors. (p.244).

Besides Cohen & Kulik (1981) and Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982), many other researchers have demonstrated that tutors can benefit academically from tutoring other students. Topping (2000) claims that: "In recent years, there has been increased interest in the benefits of tutoring for the tutors [...] they have themselves recently struggled and succeeded, showing that success is possible with effort" (p.24). In this regard, Allen (1976) assumes that: "The tutor frequently shows a better attitude toward school and teachers, becomes more responsible, and thinks more highly of himself" (p.114). He adds that: "the effects of tutoring on the tutor can be understood

as being the consequence of enacting the role of teacher” (p.115), which results from behavioural and cognitive changes to meet role expectations.

To further examine the effect of tutoring on tutor’s learning, Roscoe & Chi (2008) conducted a study to explore how peer tutors learn better through tutoring. They found out that “peer tutoring offers an additional unique academic benefit. Student tutors can learn from their teaching experiences [...] which we refer to as the tutor learning effect” (p.322). This tutor learning effect has been detected through different types of peer tutoring, such as cross-age, same-age, and reciprocal tutoring (ibid). King (as cited in Roscoe & Chi, 2008) explains tutor learning as a direct result of tutors’ engagement in instructional tasks of the tutoring process, such as “explaining, answering questions, correcting tutee errors, manipulating different representations” (p.322). These activities help the tutor rebuild his knowledge and integrate new information with prior information for more coherent knowledge. The tutor reorganizes his own understanding and modifies any mis-conceptualized knowledge into a more accurate one.

Another claim about the tutor’s learning through tutoring is provided by Webb (as cited in Galbraith & Winterbottom, 2011, p.22), who states that tutor “explanations” entails a generation of ideas which is important to the development of their understanding. She describes this process as a “reorganization and clarification” in the tutor’s mind, which develops through elaboration and explanation provided for the tutees. Tutoring, on the other hand, helps the tutor to explore new perspective and diagnose new relationships which, in turn, improves his understanding.

Furthermore, in the original study of Galbraith & Winterbottom (2011), the results indicate that while preparing to provide tutoring sessions to tutees, the tutors learning is affected as they focus on key points and engage with basic ideas from

alternative perspectives: “Preparation to teach involves more “active learning”, rather than the “passive learning” that occurs in response to extrinsic motivation such as testing” (p.323). Mental rehearsal of tutoring episodes helped them appreciate weaknesses in their own subject knowledge. Also, when tutors employed long answer questions during their tutorial sessions, there was evidence of reflection on their learning and links are made between conceptual areas: “there was evidence that explaining helped to support tutors’ learning through testing and clarifying their understanding, and reorganizing and building ideas” (ibid, p.331). While preparing to explain ideas and concepts, his understanding and knowledge are reorganized and refined to a better level and links between conceptual ideas are well established. In the same respect, Roscoe & Chi (2007) state that:

Explaining plausibly provides rich opportunities for tutors to engage in reflective knowledge-building processes that support learning. As tutors work to produce quality explanations, they may recognize flaws in their own expertise, leading them to reorganize their knowledge, and generate inferences to repair errors. (p.364).

In this regard, teachers or students who serve as tutors are more likely to repair and rebuild their previous knowledge and correct their misunderstanding.

3.7.2 Effects of Tutoring on Tutee’s Learning

To start with, Cohen & Kulik (1981, p.227) state that the effect of tutoring, as a teaching aid, is highly positive. It proves to be stronger than the effect of the other individualized teaching methods. Roscoe & Chi (2007, p.334) argues that the effectiveness of tutoring lies in its potential to support learning for both the tutees and the tutors “in tutoring, both the tutors and the tutees gain in understanding” (Chi et al, 2001, p.472). Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982) add that “tutoring benefits both tutors and

tutees on both the cognitive and affective levels” (p.247) contributing to the intellectual and academic growth of the tutees (Cohen, Kulik & Kulik, 1982, p.238). Research reveals that tutoring can be of great importance and high effectiveness for learners in the educational context: “tutoring has been shown to be an effective intervention for students who are at risk of failing or performing poorly in schools” (The Master Tutor, 1994, p. i). The essence of tutoring entails the promotion of the learning process.

The very first indication to the significant effect of tutoring on learners is established by Bloom. In 1984, he published an article, entitled ‘The sigma problem: the Search for Methods of Group Instruction as Effective as One on One Tutoring’. Bloom claims that students who are tutored by a skilful tutor performed 2 standard deviations above students who learn the same material in a classical classroom with conventional teacher. He adds that no other variable could generate the effect of tutoring or reach a 2 sigma difference. From this outstanding contribution, the effect of tutoring is given huge attention and encouraged research which has confirmed the Bloom’s sigma effect of tutoring. The following is an overview of the importance of tutoring.

In 1982, Cohen, Kulik and Kulik conducted a meta- analysis study to investigate the effect of cross age (peer) tutoring. They chose 65 well-designed studies describing tutoring programme’s effects on test scores of learners. The results show a significant effect on tutees’ performance, attitudes and self-esteem. Tutored students outperform control students. Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982) claim: “.... the examination performance of students who were tutored was better than the examination performance of students in a conventional class” (p.240). On the other hand, tutored students express more positive attitudes towards subject matter

presented in the tutorial programmes: “student attitudes were more positive in classrooms with tutoring programmes” (ibid, p.243). Furthermore, tutoring programmes show no positive effects on tutees’ self-esteem.

In another study conducted by Chi et al (2001), it is found that: “in...tutoring, students gain greater understanding, are more motivated and work faster” (p.471). Another study by Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González (2009) reveals that “Tutors played an essential role in tutees’ development of special learning characteristics along their participation in tutoring” (p.100). They argue that tutors’ respect and interest in meeting their learners’ needs along with providing information about the necessary learning strategies and resources help novice students to work on their strengths and weaknesses. In a study conducted by Bragagnolo (2012), “it was found that both groups that had been tutored showed improvement when compared with the control group” (p.67). He comments that the students who had been tutored outperformed non-tutored students and achieved better results during exams.

Kalkowski (1995), on the other hand, investigates the effectiveness of tutoring (both peer and cross age) on learners. The findings reveal positive impacts such as: “improved attitudes of younger students toward older ones (tutors), increased "internality" of locus of control, and improved school attendance” (p.4). Tutoring, therefore, helps developing positive attitudes towards teachers, learning and school in general. The importance of tutoring is summarized in the following quotation. Tutoring helps tutees with “Understanding of fairness, their self-esteem, their proclivities toward sharing and kindness, their mastery of symbolic expression, their acquisition of role-taking and communication skills, and their development of creative and critical thinking” (Damon & Phelps as cited in Kalkowski, 1995, p.8).

From the previous overview of studies, it is assumed that tutoring aims at developing and strengthening academic and intellectual skills as it enlarges student's package of content knowledge, which in turn develops students' autonomous learning. The following section explains how tutoring helps developing and shaping learners' autonomy.

3.7.3 Effects of Tutoring on Tutee's Learning Autonomy

Learner autonomy is "the capacity students have for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action" (Little, as cited in Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González, 2009, p.89). In 1978, Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist, introduced the concept of "zone of actual development" (ZAD), which refers to the tasks and skills to be performed by the learner independently. He explained that the tasks to be learned are part of the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD). In this respect, he claims:

The zone of proximal development is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p.86).

During tutoring sessions, the tutee acquires the skills to shift from ZPD to ZAD, from relying on the tutor for help with tasks to performing tasks independently. In other words, tutoring helps with shaping learners' autonomy, in that tutees move from the need of tutor's support to become tutors for their own.

Reflecting on Vygotsky's definition, Tummons (2007), in his book, entitled *Learning and teaching: an introduction*, defines autonomy as: "learners' autonomy is 'taking responsibility for their own learning', 'directing their own learning' and

‘managing their own learning’ (p.88). Learners’ autonomy includes being responsible for your learning, and having the skills to direct and manage that learning.

On the other hand, Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González (2009) mentioned some of the strategies and skills of autonomous learners, such as: “being autonomous implies optimizing a viewpoint towards knowledge construction to decide what to learn, when and where learning should be developed, materials to be used and ways to assess one’s process”(p.89). There is a solid link between tutoring and the development of these skills of autonomous learning.

Moreover, Turan et al (2009) argue that meta-cognitive skills are among the most important skills to achieve LA: “Meta-cognition skills are important in this process. Meta-cognition is the learners’ awareness of what and how they learn; meta-cognitive knowledge is used to organize thinking and learning processes” (p.7-8). They add that awareness of planning, monitoring and evaluating skills is necessary to reach learning independence.

Furthermore, developing learners’ intrinsic motivation is claimed to be crucial: “as studying behaviour is unlikely to be intrinsically motivated, it is important to implement support for students’ autonomy in their educational environment, in order to facilitate a process of internalization” Mclachlan & Hagger (2010, p.1205). Autonomy support through tutoring helps provoking learner’s intrinsic motives for learning and, thus, their autonomous learning.

Another claim by Mclachlan & Hagger (2010) confirms that students’ participation in tutorial sessions helps them become autonomous independent learners in that:

Empirical evidence has shown that students with autonomy-supportive teachers experience greater autonomy and more positive functioning in terms of classroom engagement, emotionality, creativity, intrinsic motivation, psychological well-being, conceptual understanding, academic achievement, and persistence. (p. 1205).

In this quote, the tutor is referred to as autonomy supportive teachers. This feature can be added to the other characteristics, which differentiates a tutor from a teacher.

Tutees' perception of autonomous learning is explained by Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González (2009); they (tutees) "conceived autonomy as an independent practice carried out in their free time guided by their initiative to make decisions" (p.86). Tutees linked autonomy to learning outside the classroom with the absence of tutor's guidance. This asserts that learners are aware of the idea of being autonomous and independent from tutor's support.

To conclude, shaping autonomous learners should be the ultimate goal of any tutoring programme. Making learners responsible for their own learning is what a tutor can provide for his tutees: "In general, tutoring implies supporting and monitoring students constantly so that they can achieve their integral preparation during their studies" Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González (2009, p.87). Authorities should take autonomy-supportive objectives into consideration whenever they design a tutoring programme.

From all that has been mentioned, it might be concluded that tutoring has a great effect on the participants in the tutoring programme. Greenwood et al (as cited in Kalkowski, 1995, p.2) summarized the advantages of peer and cross age tutoring as: "the learning of academic skills, the development of social behaviours and classroom discipline, and the enhancement of peer relations". Topping (2000, p.7)

concludes that both, tutor and tutees, learn how to give and receive praise. They develop social and communicative skills for wider contacts and greater self-esteem.

3.8 The Effect of Tutoring Courses at Universities

Research on tutoring effect has found benefits for participants from all age groups, including college students. Tutoring at college has proved to be a crucial element for qualitative learning as it fosters “a more proactive and mature approach to academic work, reducing support needs and making tutorials more purposeful and enjoyable” (Wisker et al , as cited in Karpinska-Musial & Dzedziczak-Foltyn, 2014, p.6061).

For students in their first contact experience at university, there must be a balance between high school education systems, where there is little freedom and close monitoring and university where students are to take full responsibility and freedom for their own learning. According to Schofield (2007), the university authorities and tutors “have to balance these expectations with the college expectations and provide an environment where students can succeed on their chosen course while being given the opportunity to develop and grow into responsible young adults capable of independent learning” (p.27). The job of the tutor is to create the balance within the learner and help with the process of integration into the new HE system. Evans & Michael (2008) claim that tutoring is used at different universities and colleges. The authorities employ individuals or postgraduates, to tutor students who need support for the mastery of courses or skills. They argue that “Students at Oxford University and Cambridge University learn many academic subjects from their interaction with an assigned tutor” (p.3). Others hire tutors to help them prepare for assessment or admission tests.

Mclachlan and Hagger (2010) who insist on the importance of establishing tutoring services at universities make another assumption:

Within higher education and university contexts, it is important that motivational interventions are developed for university students, particularly as university provides a very different learning context to the environment in educational institutions with which students were previously familiar (e.g., schools and colleges) and students may therefore require extra support to ensure that their motivation remains high and dropout is prevented (p.1204)

In other words, since universities provide a new system of education with which novice students are not familiar, tutoring programmes are meant for supporting and maintaining learners' motivation along their academic process.

Another reason for the need of tutoring at universities is given by Karpinska-Musial & Dziedziczak-Foltyn (2014) who state that “academic tutoring [...] as innovative method of personalized teaching and learning, aimed at maintaining/preserving and developing high quality education at the contemporary university” (p.6057). In other words, tutoring is meant to raise the effectiveness of teaching and the quality of leaning within university setting. It should be perceived as a tool for the restructure and modification of the higher education system to fit the requirements of the new university education system under the effect of globalization.

When professionally applied, Tutoring ... stand a chance to become the best, if not the only tools to preserve the elite level of higher education for those individuals (both teachers and students) who are ready to face an intellectual challenge, and who want to continue their personal development instead of only getting a diploma to fit the labour market (Karpinska-Musial & Dziedziczak-Foltyn, 2014, p.6057)

This concluding quotation sheds the light on the essence of this study, which aims at exploring the effect of using tutoring to promote autonomous and lifelong learning and support teaching.

3.9 Structured and Non-Structured Tutoring Courses

“Tutoring occurs as part of some programme which is a designed for educational service” (The Master Tutor 1994, p.6). In general, studies of tutoring programmes demonstrate that only well-structured and cognitively oriented programmes are able to generate a significant effect. Allen (1976) notes “that a highly structured tutorial model helped low achievers make significant progress, but that the model was ineffective when the tutoring was not highly structured” (p.170). In this respect, Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982, p.246), in their meta-analysis study, review 65 different studies. They report that both structured and unstructured tutoring programmes resulted in significant effects. However, the effects of the structured programmes were stronger and more salient. The effectiveness of tutoring is not only linked to the amount of tutoring trainings or age differences between the tutor and his tutees but, rather to the well designing of the tutoring programme. Therefore, these programmes should be based upon a theory of effective tutoring, and tutors should be given guidelines and feedback about their performance, since programme design and implementation can account for some of the successes or failures of tutor learning. Accordingly, the researcher, in this study, tried to design a well-structured tutoring course and introduce it as a treatment with the purpose of enhancing learners’ autonomy.

3.10 Tutoring Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy

In order to assure the promotion of language learning autonomy, researchers compete to propose different principles, approaches, and frameworks for tutors to succeed in their mission as autonomy precursors.

Benson (2001, p.125) distinguishes five different approaches to foster autonomy: 1) *Resource-based approaches*, which emphasize learners' independent interaction with authentic learning materials (e.g. individualized learning or peer teaching); 2) *Technology-based approaches*, which emphasize independent interaction with educational technologies (e.g. computers). The most popular form of this approach is the computer-assisted language learning (CALL). These two approaches emphasize out of class strategies of autonomy development. 3) *Teacher-based approaches* emphasize the role of the teacher autonomy and teacher education in the practice of fostering autonomy among learners. 4) *Learner-based approaches* emphasize the direct production of behavioural and psychological changes in the learner through equipping learners with skills and strategies to enable them deal with learning opportunities (e.g. various forms of leaning strategy training); 5) *Classroom based approaches* emphasize changes in the relationship between learners and teachers in the classroom through involving learners in the decision making processes of learning content and processes; 6) *Curriculum-based approaches* extend the idea of learner control over the choice, planning and the evaluation of learning to the curriculum as a whole.

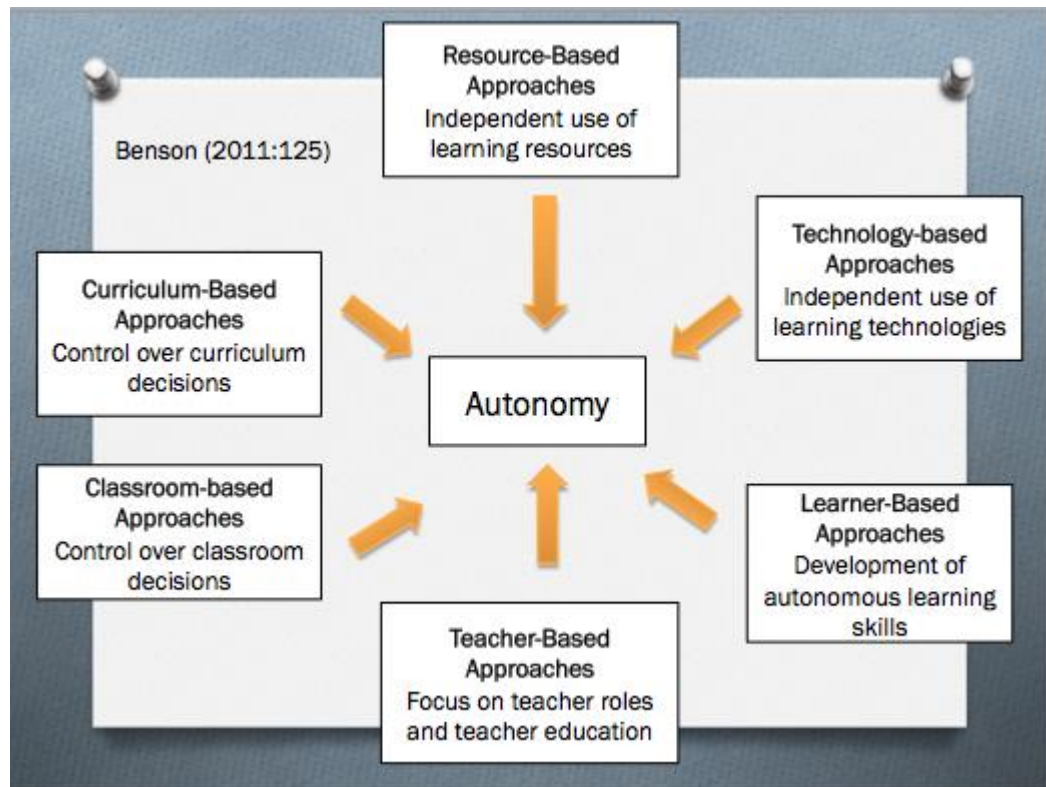


Figure 6. Approaches for fostering autonomy (Benson 2001, p.125)

On the other hand, Reinders (2010, p.44) distinguishes between general and specialist approaches to foster autonomy. General approaches are those approaches in which teachers may encourage autonomy in the classroom as part of their instruction; whereas, specialist approaches entails the deliberate programmes, which are not part of a regular classroom teaching and seek the development of learner autonomy as one of their major aim. In what follows, a presentation of a number of frameworks for promoting autonomy in relation to deferent approaches is provided.

3.10.1 General Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy

To start with, Dam (as cited in Little, 2004, p.18-19) suggests a more practical and detailed framework containing five principles, which seemed to be fundamental to her pedagogical approach to foster learners autonomy. Dam's framework seems to be classroom- based approach. This theoretical framework entails moving “from teacher directed teaching environment to learner directed learning environment”

(Dam, 2011, p.41). The following principles are presented. First, learners should have a choice over their learning. This choice enhances their motivation, reflection, awareness of learning and self-esteem. Second, clear guidelines need to be established to learners to ensure their willingness to take responsibility because of feeling secure. Third, the focus in learning should shift from the teacher to the learner, as the main job of the teacher is to help learners actively participate in the process of learning. Fourth, both teachers and students should act and speak as themselves in relation to the roles assigned to them in the institutional environment. Fifth, learners should be involved in the process of evaluation and assessment which in turn promotes their motivation and awareness of learning (ibid, 2011, p.43-45).

Dam (2011, 45-48) describes how to implement the mentioned principles into tutoring practices. First, she insists on using only the authentic target language in the classroom. Second, she involves her learners in a non-stop request for good learning activities, which are shared, discussed, analysed and evaluated with the whole class. Third she asks her learners to set their own learning targets and choose their own learning activities, which are then subjected to discussion, analysis and evaluation. Fourth, her learners were required to identify individual goals via collaborative work in small groups. Fifth, all her learners are requested to keep a written record of their learning plans of lessons and projects, lists of useful vocabulary, and their personal productions. Last, she engages her learners in regular evaluation of their progress individually and in groups.

Moreover, Cotterall (2000, p.111-115) proposes a curriculum-based framework for promoting autonomy. She introduces five course design principles that aim at developing LA and language proficiency. Firstly, a language course for promoting LA should reflect learners' goals in relation to language, tasks, and

strategies, which enhance learners' motivation. Second, the course tasks should explicitly be linked to a model of language learning process. This helps raising awareness of learning. The third principle suggests that course tasks should be authentic communicative situations, which enhances students' motivation and self-confidence. Fourthly, different learning strategies should be explained, modelled and set for practice to facilitate task performance. The last principle entails that the course should promote reflection on learning to raise learners' awareness of their learning goals, strategy implementation and evaluation.

Ellis and Sinclair (1989) suggest another framework. The teacher plays a crucial role in learner training to enhance autonomous learning. This learner based-approach entails providing learners with opportunities and enhancing their abilities to take charge of their own learning. Accordingly, Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p.10) proposes a number of roles for the tutor to promote learner autonomy as follows: 1) negotiating with learners about course content and methodology, if appropriate; 2) sharing with learners, in a way that is accessible to them, the kind of information about language and language learning that teachers have but that is not always passed on to learners; 3) encouraging discussion in the classroom about language and language learning; 4) helping learners become aware of the wide range of alternative strategies available to them for language learning; 5) creating a learning environment where learners feel they can experiment with their language learning; 6) allowing learners to form their own views about language learning, and respecting their points of view; 7) counselling and giving guidance to individual learners when possible. According to Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p.3) When these roles are performed by the tutor, it results in learners' enhanced motivation, effective learning, learners taking charge and responsibility of their own learning.

Little (2004, p.22-23) establishes another learner-based approach with three pedagogical principles of learner autonomy, namely, learner empowerment, learner reflection and appropriate target use. To start with, the first principle concerns *learner empowerment*: requires learners to take responsibility for and control their own learning process. The tutor's role is to initiate, support and direct the processes of negotiation that help learners identify new learning goals, new learning activities and materials, and new areas of responsibility. The second principle of *learner reflection* entails encouraging learners to think about their learning. The tutor must initiate, support and direct the continuous process of reflection in learners. This principle of learner reflection is also implemented interactively for the individual learner's capacity to evaluate his or her learning stems from the group's ongoing discussion of the learning process. The third principle concerns *appropriate target language use*. The teacher is supposed to manage classroom discourse in a way that learners are able to use the target language for communicative purposes from the very beginning. When talking to learners, the tutor must scaffold their utterances to help them contribute to the construction of meaning that lies beyond the range of their current proficiency. These three principles offer a broad view for developing a pedagogical approach that aims at fostering LA.

Furthermore, Reinders (2010, p.46-51) proposes a framework based on the stages of developing learner autonomy. It is a learner-based approach which encourages learners' decision making about learning under the supervision of the teacher. Reinders provides an explanation of the main principles underlying his framework and how it can be implemented in the classroom. First, identifying one's own needs through making an extensive needs analysis process at the beginning of the course to encourage students identify and share their needs to which classroom

activities should be linked. Second, helping learners set goals to be aware of the outcomes of their learning. The tutor should encourage learners to perceive the course as an element in achieving their own goals with some additional support or opportunities for practice. Third, after setting goals, planning learning is the next phase of finding the best way to reach the goal. It entails drawing up practical plans and allocating time and place to them. Fourth, the teacher should engage learners in the selection and preparation of resources for learning such as locating authentic materials from outside the school to be used in the classroom. Fifth, learners need to develop the ability to use a wide range of strategies and to choose strategies appropriate to the task. The tutor's job is to train them with examples, modelling and practice. Sixth, it is important to practice with materials and activities to encourage students to find ways to move beyond the walls of the classroom and to integrate new knowledge into their language repertoire. Seventh, learners are required to develop the ability to monitor their own progress and revise their learning plans and strategies. The teacher may provide students with a model diary or practicing reflection in class, which proved to be successful. Eighth, assessment usually is a less frequent activity for learners. Students need to have a sense of achievement and teacher's test scores and exam grades can provide a kind of the necessary validation. However, tutors should use diaries, portfolios, self-assessment worksheets and activities that encourage students engage in self-assessment process.

According to Reinders (2010, p.51), developing autonomy is a complicated process and the implementation of this framework depends on the persistence of the tutor. Students should never be expected to take charge of their learning in one day or even month. Autonomy is a skill, which develops gradually with the certain skills. For

this purpose, any classroom atmosphere needs to encourage students' reflection, views and roles in the learning process.

Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001b, p.104-105) proposes a learner-based approach, which stresses two major educational changes regarding learners' involvement in learning process and teacher's role. These changes are implemented through giving learners choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible, which gives learners positions of genuine authority, encouraging learner contributions and peer teaching and project work, and allowing learners to use self-assessment procedures when possible. These principles require the tutor to adapt a non-traditional teaching style, in which he respects the total autonomy of the learner in finding his own way and exercising his own judgment.

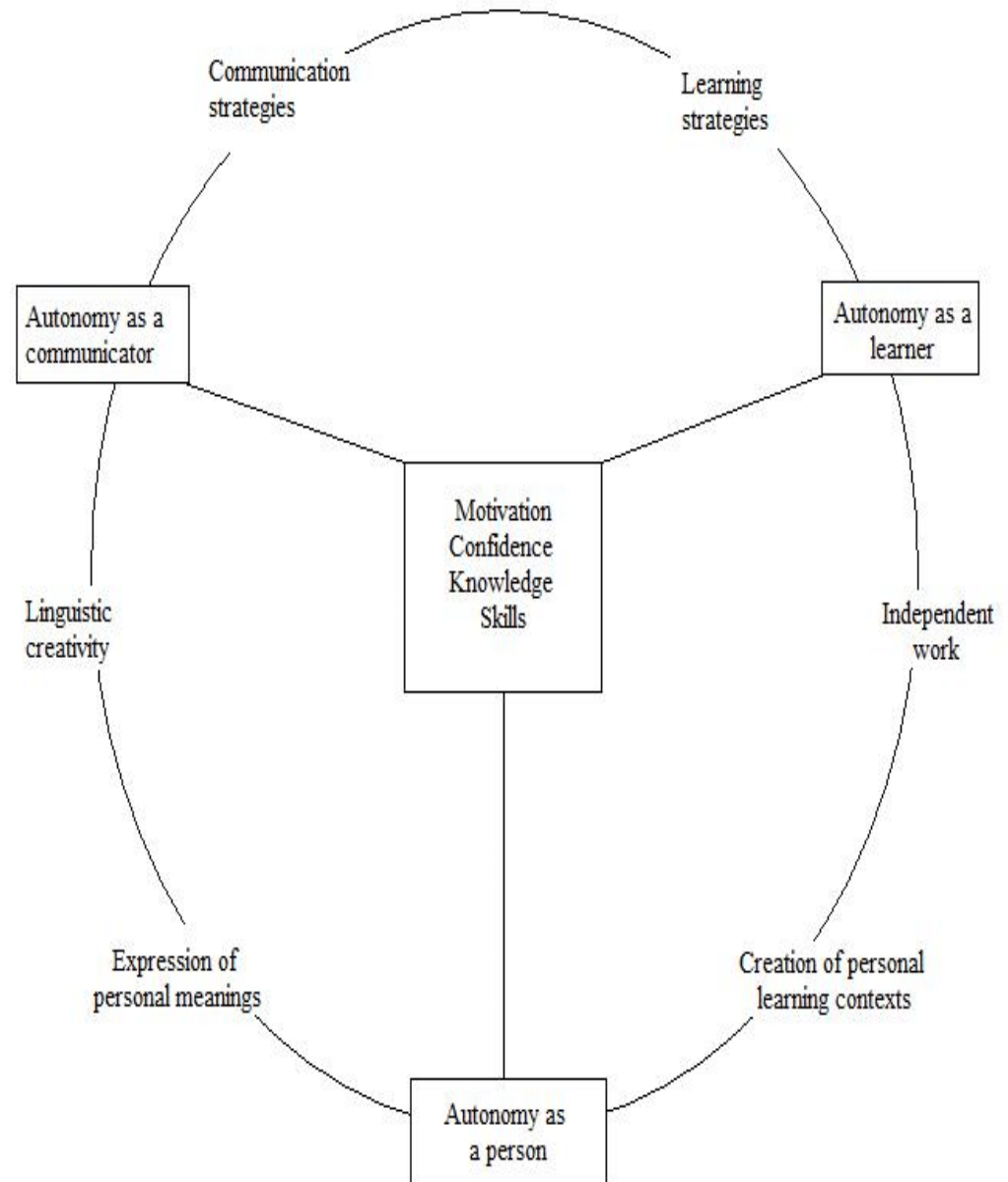


Figure 7. Developing autonomy through teaching (Littlewood, 1997, p.183)

The last recommended learner-based framework to foster LA is provided by Tassinari (2010, p.203). In her model, in order to promote LA, the learner is required to develop a number of components as follows: 1) learners should be able to motivate themselves at the beginning of the learning process, as well as, to re-motivate themselves when the initial motivation decreases; 2) learners should be able to recognize feelings while learning, and to control those feelings in order to learn more effectively; 3) learners should be able to recognize their needs and formulate them

into realistic learning objectives, and to structure these objectives into steps that create a learning plan; 4) learners should be able to recognize, choose and work with suitable learning materials and strategies; 5) learners should be able to complete tasks in relation to appropriate learning materials and strategies, as well as to complete individual or multiple tasks; 6) learners should be able to reflect on topics, tasks, the learning process, to identify their strengths and weaknesses and to structure or re-structure learning activities accordingly; 7) learners should be able to review what they have learned, how well they have learned, and what progress has been made toward learning.; 8) learners should be able to cooperate with others while completing tasks, realize a project, negotiate resources or evaluate learning; 9) learners should be able to deal with all aspects of the learning process in relation to the other nine components of autonomous learning; 10) learners should be able to structure knowledge about all the components that play a role in different autonomous learning phases and activities. All of these components need to be developed for promoting learner autonomy. Teachers' role is to incorporate these components in his teaching course design to promote LA. This task is to be developed in the current research.

Although Benson (2001) provides well-defined approaches for fostering autonomy, developed models tend to incorporate principles from different approaches. Concerning the current study, emphasis is put on learner-based approach as the main source for principle incorporation to develop the tutoring course.

3.10.2 Specialist Approaches for Tutors to Foster Learning Autonomy

Reinders (2010) provides a summary of specialized approaches of autonomous learning, including references to some key figures and details as summarized in the following table:

Table 4. Specialist Approaches to Fostering Autonomy (Reinders 2010, p. 44)

Specialist Approach	Involves	Reference
Learner training	Specific courses or short courses where the focus is on developing skills for independent learning and raising students' awareness of the importance of learning outside the classroom. Such courses usually include strategy instruction and often include general study skills, rather than language learning skills only.	Rubin & Thompson, 1994
Strategy training	Often offered as part of regular classroom teaching, and sometimes offered as specific classes or short courses on language learning strategies.	Macaro 2001; Oxford 1990 Chamot et al 1999
Self-access	Often considered the most common way of implementing autonomy: the provision of a self-access centre or on-line self-access materials usually involves making available resources for independent learning and staff support. Sometimes self-access learning is integrated into the classroom, with the teacher working with students in the centre and sometimes self-access is used outside classroom time, for remedial or practice purposes, with a teacher or independently. In North America, Writing Centres often perform a similar role.	Gardner & Miller 1999
Language advising or language counselling	A type of language support whereby a teacher and a learner meet to discuss the learner's needs and progress, and where the adviser offers feedback, recommends materials, and helps the learner to plan their learning.	Mozzon- McPherson & Vismans, 2001
Specific tools	Many institutions have developed or link to (on-line or print) tools for the management of the language learning process that often aim explicitly to foster learner autonomy. Examples include (electronic) portfolios, such as those developed by the European Union, tandem learning programmes and personal learning environments that aim to facilitate and create links between formal and informal learning. Some have developed on-line learning environments that offer materials for self-study, tips for independent learning, and opportunities for staff and student communication.	Portfolios: Ekbatani & Pierson, 2000 Online learning environments: White, 2003 Tandem learning: Schwienhorst 2007

Reinders (2010) argues that general approaches emphasize the application of autonomy principle inside the classroom. On the other hand, specialist approaches entails the deliberate courses or programs, which are not part of the regular classroom teaching and aim at developing learning autonomy.

In this respect, autonomy is more closely related to learning strategies than is to any other concepts of language education (Benson, 2006). Besides, learning autonomy involves more than the mere use of learning strategies. Little (as cited in Benson 2006, p.28) argues that helping learners become independent involves a strategic control of language and use, which entails learning the language and being actively involved in the processes of planning, monitoring and evaluating. This can be dealt with under the specialist approach of strategy training, which aims to cultivate autonomous learning by giving learners more opportunities to select strategies on their own with no much reliance on the teacher (Cohen, 2000). Therefore, learners need to be provided with appropriate training of how to use learning strategies throughout the language learning process. Wang (2016, 277) summarized the major goals of strategy training as follows:

- To explicitly instruct learners why, when, and how learning strategies can be used to promote their foreign language learning;
- 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;
- To cultivate learner autonomy by offering learners opportunities to select appropriate strategies without constant prompt from their teachers. (p.277).

Consequently, strategy training help learners acquire the ability to:

- 1) determine their strength and weakness in learning a language
- 2) decide about the contribution language strategies for learn more easily and effectively
- 3) know how to apply and manipulate the strategy
- 4) practice the new language learning strategy
- 5) decide how to complete a language task
- 6) self-assess his or her performance in using a language strategy.
- 7) being able to transfer the new strategy to different language contexts (Larsen, Freeman & Anderson, 2011,p.185). 7

In this regard, Cohen (2000) claims that“ 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 enhances learner autonomy and self-regulated learning” (p.67). Strategy training as a specialist approach has a number of sub-approaches (Cohen, 2000, p.13; Wang, 2016, p.277), which are:

- 1) *General training on study skills and techniques* that is separated from the language course;
- 2) *Awareness training* both through lectures and workshops to familiarize learners with learning strategies;
- 3) *Videotaped mini-courses* to help students get to know the concept of learning strategies and the learning process and take charge of their learning;
- 4) *Peer tutoring* to carry mutual tutoring sessions for students with different backgrounds
- 5) *The direct insertion of strategies into textbooks* to reinforce strategy use through both learning tasks and skills,

6) *Strategy-based instruction* in which strategy training is systematically imbedded into the language course teaching under teachers' guidance. It is an approach, which entails the training of strategic learning by incorporating the training of strategies into the language curriculum.

3.10.3 Strategy- based Instruction Tutoring to Foster Learning Autonomy

Among the previously mentioned specialist approaches of strategy training, SBI is widely used by researchers (Nakatani, 2005; Huang & Ma, 2007; Gu, 2007; Garvillidou & Papins, 2009; Mizumoto & Takeushi, 2009; Medina, 2012; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Chan, 2014; Khademi, Mellati & Etela, 2014; Liu, 2015; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015; Wang, 2016; Course, 2017). This specialist approach helps learners to be active participants in the learning process by enabling them to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning. This, in turn, leads to learners gradually take responsibility for learning by enhancing autonomy (Srafianou & Garviilidou, 2015, p.22). Strategy-based instruction aims to “help students to consciously control how they learn so they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners” (Chamot, 1998, p.1). Generally, it is provided as part of regular classroom teaching, and sometimes offered as specific classes or short courses on language learning strategies (Oxford 1990; Chamot et al 1999). In this respect, the SBI tutoring course typically emphasizes the following elements:

- 1) Strategy instruction should be an integral part of regular classroom teaching.
- 2) Strategy instruction should be embedded in meaningful communicative context
- 3) Students should be trained on how to identify and analyze their preferred learning strategies by means of diaries learning journals, interviews and surveys (Oxford, 2002, p.122).

➤ **Types of Strategy-based Instruction**

Strategy-based instruction can be either explicit or implicit. Explicit SBI entails the teacher explaining a strategy or a set of strategies then design tasks to practice the use of strategies. Implicit SBI requires the teacher to embed the strategies into the learning material with no explicit explanation for the strategies. For further explanation, Cohen, Weaver, & Lee (1996, p.6) distinguish between implicit and explicit SBI as follows:

- a) **Implicit Strategy-Based Instruction:** Learning strategies are embedded into the classroom language tasks without explanation of their effectiveness.. A classroom with implicit SBI requires the teacher to start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies might be inserted, or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate. The teacher will be engaged in SBI with an explicit focus on strategies only part of the time, while the rest of the time the strategies will be implicitly embedded into the language tasks.
- b) **Explicit Strategy-Based Instruction:** Knowledge about strategies is explicitly discussed. Learners are explicitly taught how, when and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning. In a classroom with explicit SBI, the teacher, first, describes, models, and gives examples of potentially useful strategies. Second, he elicits additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences. Third, he leads small-group/whole class discussions about strategies (e.g., the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity, evaluating

the effectiveness of chosen strategies). Fourth, he encourages his students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.

In this regard, explicit SBI entails that “learners should be informed about how, why and when they should employ language strategy. Namely, they are given the opportunity to realise the benefits of strategy use, evaluate its effectiveness and transfer strategies to new situations and unfamiliar tasks” (Çakıcı, 2016, p.60).

3.10.3.1 Models of Strategy-based Instruction

In accordance of SBI approach, a number of models have been introduced (Oxford, 1990; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Chamot et al, 1999)

3.10.3.1.1 Oxford Model (1999)

Oxford (1999) proposes a model about how to integrate implicit SBI approach into the lesson objectives, materials and curriculum in the EFL classroom. In this model, learners work on tasks with no prior strategy instruction, then they discuss their process of completing the task. This discussion leads to realizing the implemented strategy and reflecting on its effectiveness. According to Oxford (1999), an SBI model should incorporate the following eight steps:

- 1) Decide about learners’ needs and the available time.
- 2) Select strategies appropriately.
- 3) Think about the integration of strategy training.
- 4) Think about necessary motivational issues.
- 5) Design related materials and activities to the target strategies.
- 6) Conduct “completely implicit training.”
- 7) Evaluate the strategy training.
- 8) Review the strategy instruction (p.204)

3.10.3.1.2 Grenfell & Harris Model (1999)

In this instructional model, the teacher should 1) present and explain the strategy explicitly; 2) learners evaluate the effectiveness of the presented strategy; 3) learners choose certain among the presented strategies to work on a task; 4) learners practice the new strategies with new language tasks. This model requires introducing the new target strategy/strategies and helping learners to design a plan for using the strategy/strategies to enhance their learning (as cited in Çakıcı, 2016, p.62).

3.10.3.1.3 Chamot et al CALLA Model (1999)

Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) is an SBI learner-centered model. It is highly explicit through training learners to practice strategies in specific learning tasks, and help them select, apply, and transfer the strategies to other learning tasks. This model supports the idea of LA, since it is based on cognitive learning theory in which learners are viewed as mentally active participants in the teaching-learning interaction” (Chamot, 1995, p.397).

a) CALLA’s Major Objectives: The CALLA model aims to provide learners with opportunities to learn a language independently, through training them to control a wide range of learning strategies (Wang, 2016. p.277). The following is a summary of the major tenets of CALLA as proposed by Chamot & Robbins (2007):

- Valuing their own prior knowledge and cultural experiences, and relating this knowledge to academic learning in a new language and culture
- Learning the content knowledge and the language skills that are most important for their future academic success;
- Developing language awareness and critical literacy

- Selecting and using appropriate learning strategies and study skills that will develop academic knowledge and processes
- Developing abilities to work successfully with others in a social context
- Learning through hands-on, inquiry-based, and cooperative learning tasks
- Increasing motivation for academic learning and confidence in their ability to be successful in school
- Evaluating their own learning and planning how to become more effective and independent learners. (p.5).

These underlying principles of CALLA entails learning, practicing and evaluating the declarative knowledge about strategies, which becomes gradually procedural. In other words, developing explicitly the cognitive aspect of learning strategies ('what the strategy is? and why should the strategy be learnt?') leads to activating the procedural (when and where to use the strategy?, how to use the strategy? and how to evaluate its effectiveness) aspect of learning.

b) Typical CALLA Lesson Plan: The CALLA model “essentially involves the development of students’ awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modelling of strategic thinking, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks” (Chamot, 2004, p.19). According to Chamot et al (1999, p.7); Gu, (2007, p.28), a CALLA lesson plan consists of five stages:

1. Introduction (Preparation): The aim of this stage is to raising learners’ awareness of the target strategy/strategies. The teacher warms up and activates background knowledge. He identify learners’ prior knowledge about the specific strategy/strategies.

2. **Presentation:** The aim of this stage is to explain and model the strategy/strategies. The teacher explains, models and discusses the new learning strategy/strategies and its use explicitly.
3. **Practice:** The aim of this stage is to practicing the strategy with different learning tasks. Learners practice using the strategy with regular activities of moderate difficulty. The teacher gives learners worksheets asks learners to practice the target strategy with the assigned learning tasks.
4. **Evaluation:** In this stage, learners self-evaluate their use of the target strategy/strategies. The teacher asks students to evaluate the effectiveness of each strategy/strategies and explain reasons for difficulties they may encountered in applying the strategy/strategies.
5. **Expansion:** In this stage, learners transfer the strategy/strategies to new situations. They extend the application of the learning strategy/strategies to new learning tasks. For homework, the teacher asks learners to apply one or many strategies to different learning tasks and report their experiences in next class. Learners are encouraged to use the strategy in all other language classes.

In the current study, since autonomy is closely related to learning strategies, the tutoring course design for promoting autonomy adopts the learner-centred SBI approach; and adapts the CALLA Instructional Model presented in Chamot et al. (1999).

3.11 Effective Tutors and Tutoring Strategies

The application of an effective tutoring course leads to the reflection about the role of the tutor, his tasks and the identification of his competencies. Chi et al (2001) states that: “the tutors do not necessarily have expertise in the pedagogical skills of tutoring, although they do have expertise in the domain knowledge” (p.472). They define the tutoring skills as: “...the pedagogical skills of knowing when to give feedback, scaffoldings, and explanations, when to hold back error corrections and allow the students to infer that an error has been made” (ibid). However, tutoring effectiveness is not only linked to the correct and appropriate application of tutors’ pedagogical skills of tutoring, it might be the result of tutees’ construction, which results from tutors/ tutee interaction. Concerning the interactive tutoring style, Chi et al summarize its gains in being more motivating and enjoyable, tutors can evaluate students’ assessment more accurately through responding to question and scaffolding their learning, tutees, in turn, can transfer their knowledge better than those in the didactic tutoring style (Chi et al, 2001, p.517).

Webb (as cited in Kolkowski, 1995) highlights six main conditions for a more effective transmission of knowledge through tutoring:

- (1) The tutor must provide relevant help which is
- (2) appropriately elaborated,
- (3) timely, and
- (4) understandable to the target student;
- (5) the tutor must provide an opportunity for the tutee to use the new information; and
- (6) the tutee must take advantage of that opportunity. (p.5)

An effective tutor, therefore, is the one who is able to create and control these conditions in his tutorial session. The following section sheds more light on the characteristics of effective tutors.

a) **The Effective Tutor**

The tutor's role "has much influence in shaping the learning environment and outcomes and carries the responsibility for creating the conditions that encourage a deep approach to learning" (Garrison, Anderson & Archer, as cited in O'Hare 2011, p.910). The tutor should acquire the pedagogical skills and content-knowledge that allow them lead the learning process, providing a healthy atmosphere that encourages students to think critically and learn independently. An initial list of the professional behaviours of tutors is provided by Turan et al, (2009, p.6) as "Effective tutors are identified by students as being able to promote discussion and they are often seen as part of the group". The tutor should integrate himself into the tutoring group and be approachable by tutees. In addition to that, Topping (2000) asserts that: "to be effective, tutoring needs to be thoughtful, well-structured and carefully monitored. Tutors must be clear about how they can help, and how not" (p.3). The tutor should be aware of the skills that students have or do not have, which can be done through assessment and the tutoring strategies that fit with each learning area. Tanner et al (2009, p.7) review the characteristics of effective tutors as "facilitating the critical thinking of students who meet problems, supporting discussion, eliminating conflicts, focusing on students' directing the learning process, supporting the learning process and knowing when and how to intervene".

Besides these characteristics of effective tutors, the behaviours that result in academic gains include: "on-task behaviour, prompting and guiding, praise and encouragement, adjusting to the child's needs, managing behaviour problems, allowing autonomous performance, bonding, cooperation, "go-faster" prompts, and "help"" (Kolkowski 1995, p.5). We can deduce that being an effective tutor is a multi-operational task that requires the mastery of huge number of strategies.

In the following section, the characteristics of an effective tutor are described from the tutees' perspectives.

b) Learners' Perceptions of an Effective Tutor

When asked about how they can help others learn, tutees “often reported that they would help others learn facts and skills by explaining and demonstrating ideas, asking them if they understood, and looking for signs of confusion” (Roscow & Chi, 2008, p.346). In the study of Carter & Yam (2013), they state that “The tutor’s willingness to be friendly to the students had successfully bridged the teacher-student distance and lucid explanation and quality feedback” (p.70). Learners’ perceptions of an effective tutor keep highlighting the affective social qualities, which assert the importance of such personal traits for tutoring effectiveness. Foot et al. (as cited in Roscow & Chi, 2008) summarize students’ ideas about good classroom teachers as follow:

Social traits were often mentioned, such as being friendly, patient, or funny. Children also talked about presentation style, such as clarity and enthusiasm. These findings suggest that children perceive both informational: (e.g. “give good explanations”), and interpersonal (e.g. “be friendly”) aspects of the tutoring role. (p.346).

In this respect, Carter & Yam (2013, p.70) explain that the personal characteristics of a tutor are important to raise his tutees’ interest. Among these qualities are: the passion for teaching (enthusiasm), the positive caring attitude and the skill to communicate with tutees effectively. Many students appreciate the caring friendly tutor.

It can be concluded that being a tutor requires the mastery of skills that are different from the conventional teaching skills. An effective tutor should possess positive personal and social features, expert knowledge of the subject matter and the ability to engage tutees through meaningful explanation. That is what makes the tutor more effective than the teacher for the former works on strategies and factors that help learning rather than transmitting knowledge in a linear mechanical fashion.

c) **Expert and Novice Tutor**

The common belief is that well trained expert tutors are more effective than novice beginner tutors and that the expert characteristic of the tutor is based on his years of experience (VanLehn, 2011, p.210). Novice tutors are believed to concentrate merely on the concrete aspect of learning neglecting the explanation and elaboration of conceptual areas. On the other hand, “novice tutors tended to lecture more, and expert tutors tended to be much more interactive” (ibid). Galbraith & Winterbottom (2010) argues that: “initial training of tutors is important... a well-coached tutor tends to give more “explanatory” responses in the same way that a “good” teacher can direct thought processes through the use of questioning and/or conversation” (p.323). Therefore, the time spent on training tutors can be exclusive in tutor’s effectiveness. However, little reliable evidence is revealed about whether expert tutors are more effective than novice tutors for learning gains (VanLehn, 2011, p.210). Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982) meta-analysis study, on the other hand, found no relationship between tutors’ experience and their effectiveness within the 65 studies they examined.

Since being expert or novice tutor shows no significant differences in tutees’ understanding gains, Topping (2000) suggests that: “tutors do not need to be ‘expert’ in the content or skill they are tutoring. But it is usually best if they know more than their tutees” (p.6). The tutor does not necessarily have to be an expert or a trained

teacher in the target area since his guidance will help the tutee to find answers and solutions by himself (Topping, as cited in Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González, 2009, p.87).

From what has been mentioned, it can be deduced that tutoring is not a matter of training or experience but it has to do with the mastery of certain skills and strategies that help the tutees learn better. Novice tutors can, therefore, be as effective as expert ones. The following is a presentation of some models of effective tutoring features and strategies, to help better draw the boundaries of the tutor's role, performance and behaviours, regardless of his expertise or newness in the domain.

d) Effective Tutoring Strategies

One reason for using tutoring strategies is to make the classroom more enjoyable, interesting and supportive. The following are some models of effective tutoring strategies, which might be used by teachers or tutors in the classroom.

➤ The INSPIRE Model (Characteristics of Effective Tutors):

This model's name is the acronym made of the 1st letters of the seven tutoring features that are considered as the most effective (reviewed in Wood and Tanner 2012, p.4-5). The following is a review of these characteristics.

- a) ***Intelligent:*** effective tutors must have command of their subject matter which helps them draw on appropriate information for whatever problem arises in tutorial situation. They need to react intelligently to every unexpected issue.
- b) ***Nurturant:*** tutors must be skilful at establishing rapport with learners and empathizing with students' struggles to solve challenging problems. This has to do with the affective features of learning. The tutor needs to show a positive attitude towards the efforts made by his tutees while learning.

- c) **Socratic:** effective tutors tell their tutees almost nothing. They offer little factual information and do not explain the solutions to problems. Instead, they proceed by continual elicitation of appropriate approaches to problem at hand. The tutor should provoke the critical thinking of his learners and guide them to the learning outcome, rather than giving readymade knowledge.
- d) **Progressive:** tutors quickly gain an accurate picture of the tutee level of understanding; then, they proceed progressively with posing a new problem, diagnosing the difficulty and providing leading questions and hints until a solution is reached. Then, they move to a more different problem.
- e) **Indirect:** effective tutors do not criticize tutees or their mistakes directly. They draw attention to students' errors by implication and hint through subsequent questioning, so that learners themselves reconsider and change their ideas. The tutor makes his tutees correct their errors or mistakes by themselves.
- f) **Reflective:** effective tutors ask tutees to articulate what they were doing and learning, to explain how they approach and solve a problem, and to generalize their understanding to other contexts situations from the real world.
- g) **Encouraging:** effective tutors use several strategies to motivate and encourage the tutees in order to build their confidence about their own abilities. "Teachers skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness" Dörnyei (1998, p.131). Tutoring aims at advancing learners proficiency in a variety of ways, through offering motivational feedback. "Encourage the use of praise as a component of feedback" (East et al, 2012, p.470). Thurston et al.'s (as cited in East et al, 2012, p.470) observed that the use of praise, although not related directly to the use of language, "appeared to be used to create positive interactions between the tutors and tutees". Giving

positive feedback for the tutees' achievements is an indirect strategy that affects learning process. The following is a table of the application of these strategies and their impact on tutee

Table 5. The INSPIRE Model of Expert Tutoring and Results for Tutees (Wood and Tanner 2012, p.5)

Characteristics and Behaviours of Effective Tutors	Results for Tutees
Intelligent: Superior content as well as pedagogical content knowledge.	-Difficulty of questions optimally matched to students' levels of understanding.
Nurturant: Establish and maintain personal rapport and empathy with Students.	- Feeling accepted, supported, and free to explain their thinking.
Socratic: Provide almost no facts, solutions, or explanations, but elicit these from tutees by questioning.	- Constantly thinking, doing, and responding.
Progressive: Move from easier to progressively more challenging cycles of diagnosis, prompting toward a solution, and posing of a new problem.	-Moving in small steps to higher competency through deliberate practice.
Indirect: Provide both negative and positive feedback by implication; praise solutions, not the student.	-Working in a non-judgmental atmosphere.
Reflective: Ask students to articulate their thinking, explain their reasoning, and generalize to other contexts.	-Gaining insight into their own thinking through meta-cognitive reflection.
Encouraging: Use strategies to motivate students and bolster their confidence (self-efficacy).	-Experiencing productive learning and gaining confidence in their abilities.

The above table summarizes the learning gains of the effective features of tutors and to what extent can this model be a good outfit for the tutor to wear for his tutorial sessions.

➤ **The Effective Tutoring Model**

The following is a model based on the major points that makes human tutoring so effective (From Vanlehn, 2011, p.198-200):

- a) ***Detailed Diagnostic Assessment:*** effective tutors diagnose an accurate detailed assessment of the student's strengths, competences and misunderstandings. Then, they use this assessment to accommodate their tutoring to tutees' individual needs.
- b) ***Individualized Task Selection:*** effective tutors are good at selecting tasks that meet the individual student needs for learning.
- c) ***Sophisticated Tutorial Strategies:*** effective tutors make use of sophisticated strategies, such as Socratic irony. The student who makes a mistake or gives a wrong answer is directed to conclude that his answer entails a funny or illogical conclusion. This helps with fighting tutees' errors and misunderstandings.
- d) ***Learner Control of Dialogues:*** effective tutors are flexible with mixed initiative dialogues. Students are allowed to ask questions and negotiate topic changes with the tutor. In this respect, Evens & Michael (2008) say "Natural language tutoring dialogue gives students a chance to formulate their explanations and to have them critiqued by an expert" (p.5). The natural language interaction or dialogue between the tutor and his tutee leads to construct meaning.
- e) ***Broader Domain Knowledge:*** effective tutors should possess broad and deep knowledge of the subject matter. When a student is confused about a certain area of knowledge, the tutor should provide a detailed discussion of the area of confusion and its related concepts.
- f) ***Motivation:*** effective tutors should increase the motivation of the students. They should devote sessions of tutoring to work on students' motivation.

g) **Scaffolding:** effective tutors should scaffold the tutees' learning and thinking.

They need to guide and push learners along their line of thinking to reach the information rather than telling the new information directly.

➤ **The Tutor's Behaviours Model**

Table 3. Tutors' Behaviours Reeve & Jang (2006) observational checklist (as cited in Mclachlan & Hagger, 2010, p.1206

Behaviour	Operationalization
Offering encouragements	Statements to boost or sustain the students' engagement, such as "Almost" and "You're close".
Allowing the student to work in their own way.	The tutor invites or allows the students to work independently and engage in the task in their own way.
Allowing students to talk	The tutor invites and allows students talk.
Avoid asking controlling questions	The tutor should avoid directives posed as a question and voiced with the intonation of a question, such as "Why don't you go ahead and tell me?"
Avoid making "should"/"got to" statements.	The tutor should avoid statements that the students should, must, have to, have got to, or ought to do something.
Providing a meaningful rationale	The tutor should provide students with a personally meaningful explanation for what they are doing.
Time spent listening	The tutor should carefully and fully listen the students' speech
Praise as informational feedback	The tutor should use statements to communicate positive feedback about the students' improvement or mastery, such as "Good job" and "That's great".
Offering hints	The tutor should provide suggestions about how to make progress when the student seems stuck.
Being responsive to student generated questions	The tutor uses contingent replies to a student generated question or comment, such as "Yes, you're right" and "Yes, you have a good point".
Avoid uttering directives/ commands.	The tutor makes empathic statements to acknowledge the student's perspective or experience, such as "Yes, this is difficult".
Minimize time spent holding/ monopolizing learning materials.	The tutor should avoid physically holding or possessing learning materials.
Avoid uttering solutions or answers.	The tutor should provide solutions or answers before the student has the opportunity to discover the answer for himself or herself
Making perspective acknowledging statements.	Directing (in a controlling manner) or commanding students to engage in a task

➤ **The Tutorial cycle**

This cycle describes the ideal process that might orient tutorial session’s development. Any tutorial programme should be nourished from tutors’ needs. “A tutorial session is nourished from tutees’ immediate needs or their pre-established plans for long term improvement” (Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González 2009, p.91).

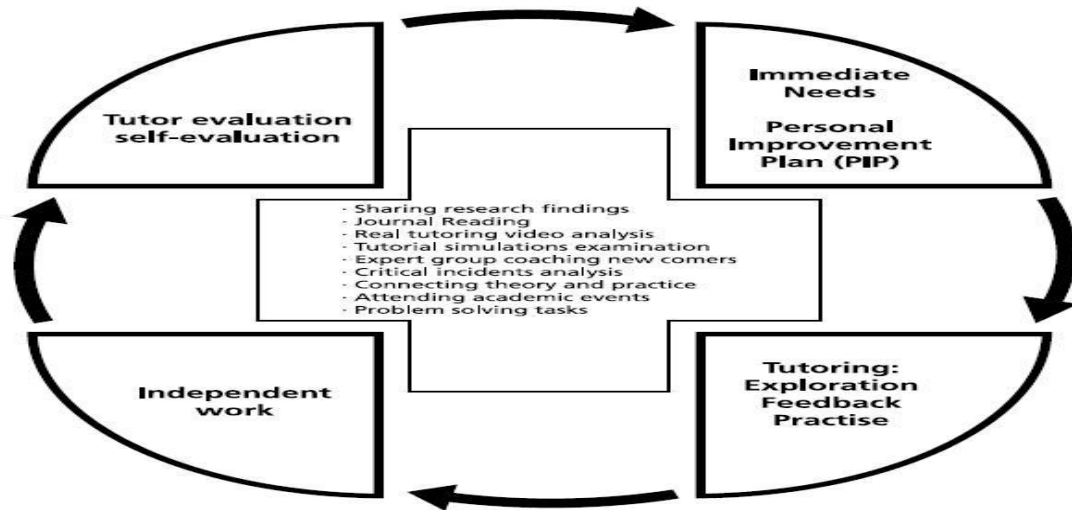


Figure 1. The tutorial cycle and tools for tutors’ preparation

Figure 8. The tutorial cycle and tools for tutors’ preparation (Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González 2009, p.91)

3.12 Tutoring and Individual Differences

Little has been mentioned about the effect of individual differences on the effectiveness of tutoring. Topping (2000, p.24) suggests that tutoring novice learners by tutors who are highly competent enough is beneficial for tutees but boring for the tutors who find themselves tutor at a level that is beneath their own with no stimulation or personal benefit. Therefore, peer tutoring with a slight difference in ability might be more challenging for the tutors and engaging for the tutees, despite the fact that the tutees might not gain much, but the tutors are likely to benefit. However, “age difference is much less important than ability difference, although the

two might happen to go together” (p.25). Research on the effect of gender differences on tutoring reveals little information, “although there is some evidence that males benefit more than females from tutoring in some contexts, especially when serving as tutors to male tutees” (Topping, as cited in Topping, 2000, p.24). In addition to that, it is believed that the idea of younger tutors tutoring older tutees or female tutors tutoring male tutees is not likely to be culturally acceptable (Topping, 2000, p.25).

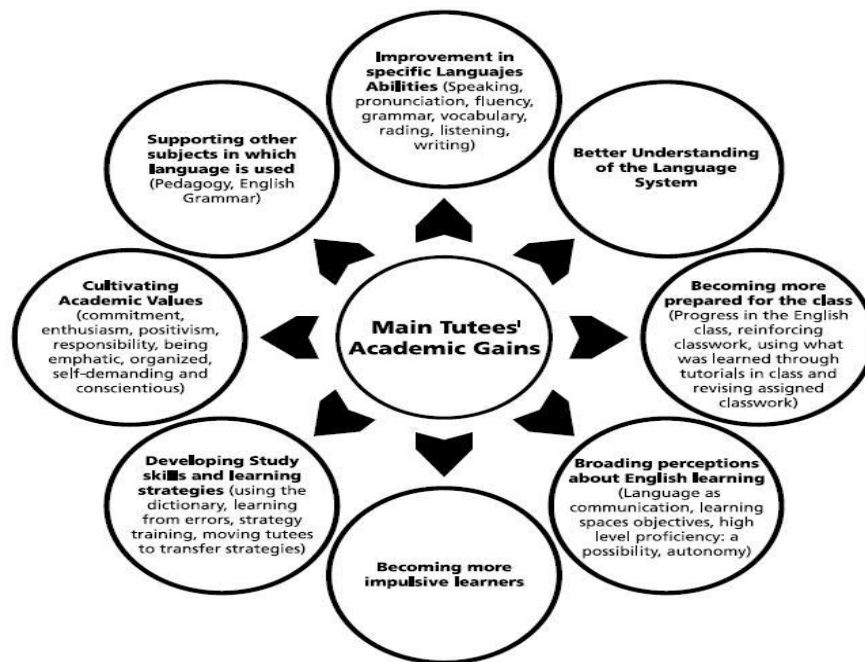


Figure 2. Tutee's main academic gains as they participated in tutorial sessions

Figure 9. Tutees’s academic gains (Ariza Ariza & Viáfara González, 2009, p. 92)

3.13 Previous Studies on the Effect of Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring on Learning Autonomy

Empirical studies focusing on SBI tutoring courses are relatively large (Cohen et al, 1982; Cohen, 2000; Cotteral, 2000; Nakatani, 2005; Huang & Ma, 2007; Gu, 2007; Garvillidou & Papins, 2009; Mizumoto & Takeushi, 2009; Almassaad & Alotaibi, 2012; Medina, 2012; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Chan, 2014; Khademi, Mellati & Etela, 2014; Liu, 2015; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015; Wang, 2016; Course, 2017).

In this chapter, a detailed presentation of those studies and their findings is to be provided.

In 1982, Cohen et al conducts a meta-analysis of findings resulted from 65 evaluations of tutoring programmes. The results show that these tutoring programmes have positive effects on tutees. Tutored students outperform their non-tutored peers on academic achievement and performance; and develop more positive attitudes towards the subject matter covered in the tutoring programme. However, these tutoring programmes show little or no significant effect on tutees' self-esteem. On the other hand, the findings of this research report positive effects on the tutors as well. The tutoring programme affects their subject matter knowledge, attitudes and self-confidence positively.

Cotteral (2000) designs a tutoring based course meant to develop LA. She proposes five course design principles for English language courses. The principles are: 1) a language course for promoting LA should reflect learners' goals; 2) the course tasks should explicitly be linked to a model of language learning process; 3) course tasks should be authentic communicative situations; 4) different learning strategies should be explained, modelled and set for practice; 5) that the course should promote reflection on learning. The study concludes with the claim that language courses designed according to these principles contributes to promoting both to learners' LA and language proficiency.

Nakatani (2005) examines the extent to which SBI course can lead to improvements in oral communication ability. For this purpose, a 12-week EFL course based on a communicative approach was designed. The participants are 62 female learners divided into two groups: the EG, which receives the metacognitive training about oral communicative strategies, and the CG, which follows the typical

communicative course. For data collection, three types of instruments are used: the participants' pre- and post-course oral communication test scores, transcription data from the tests, and retrospective protocol data for their task performance. The results indicate the positive effect of the training programme due to the significant improvement of the intervention group's participants in terms of their oral proficiency test scores. The results confirm that the participants' improvements are due to the increased general awareness of use of oral communication strategies, which proves the effectiveness of the strategy-based instruction.

Huang & Ma (2007) conduct a study to examine the relationship between strategy instruction, motivation and autonomy in L2 vocabulary learning. The experiment is conducted for one semester with 44 volunteer EFL Asian students at the University of Hawai'i at Manoa. Twenty two students are assigned to an EG and 22 are assigned to a CG. A questionnaire is designed to test students' conception of autonomy and motivation. The EG receives strategy instruction to raise students' awareness of autonomy in vocabulary learning. After the instruction, the results of the study indicate that the EG shows higher degrees of motivation. On the other hand, there is no significant difference between the EG and CG in relation to LA as both groups had clear perceptions of their own responsibility in vocabulary learning. Furthermore, there is no correlation between autonomy and motivation levels. A further finding suggests that "assess yourself" strategy is evaluated to be the least useful by participants.

Gu (2007) conducts a quasi-experimental strategy intervention to investigate the effect of SBI on the writing skill. The study, which involves 246 grade Singaporean primary school students, lasts for a semester period of time. An SBI programme is developed and implemented with writing tasks used as pre and post-

tests. The findings of the study indicate that students in the EG outperform their peers in the CG after receiving a writing strategy instruction. The study concludes that SBI, if well implemented, is a feasible approach in affecting both learners and teachers for their development.

Gavriilidou & Papins (2009) investigate the effect of explicit and integrate strategy instruction on the use of strategies by 112 Muslim primary school EFL learners attending schools of Rodopi and Xanthi in Greece. The participants are engaged in reading, listening comprehension and vocabulary learning. For eight weeks, the EG take an intervention programme aiming at raising learning strategy use; while the CG take the regular English language programme. For data collection, a standardized questionnaire to collect information about participants' strategy use is distributed before and immediately after the experiment. The results show that the EG has significantly improved in terms of the use of metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. These findings suggest the usefulness of designing courses for raising students' strategic use of language and developing their independent learning.

Mizumoto & Takeuchi (2009) conduct a 10-week semester study to examine the effectiveness of explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies. The sample consists of 146 female EFL learners from two Japanese universities. For data collection, a vocabulary test and a questionnaire are administered at the beginning and at the end of the course. The EG receives explicit instruction on vocabulary learning strategies. The findings indicate that the SBI promoted the repertoire of strategies used by the participants of the EG and improved their frequency of use. These findings contribute to a better understanding of the positive effects of strategy instruction on LA.

Almassaad & Alotaibi (2012) conduct an exploratory research to identify the attitudes and of tutees and tutors at King Saud University towards using online tutoring. To collect the data for this study, an electronic survey and interviews are used with 30 participants who are asked to complete a five-point Likert scale survey, and 17 participants who are asked to answer the interview open-ended questions. The results reflect the positive attitudes of the tutees and tutors towards using online tutoring. The majority of students accept the use of online tutoring and enjoy and feel comfortable with using online tutoring.

Medina (2012) conducts a study to examine the effect of strategy instruction in an EFL reading comprehension course. The participants are 26 undergraduate students at a Colombian university. The research instruments are reading comprehension tests, teacher's field notes and self-reflection in class, and a learning perception questionnaire. The results indicate the usefulness of the strategy instruction provided that students improve in their overall reading comprehension. Another finding reveals that after the strategy instruction, student become more self-confident, which in turn results in higher levels of motivation.

Nguyen & Gu (2013) conduct a study to investigate the effects of SBI on promoting of learner autonomy (LA). An intervention study is conducted at a Vietnamese university with 4 teachers and a total of 91 students among whom 37 students participate in an EG, and 54 students in two control groups. A metacognitive training is integrated into the academic writing programme of the EG. The results of the study entail the improvement of the ability of the EG to plan, monitor and evaluate a writing task in comparison to their peers in the CG. Interestingly, planning scored as the most frequently exercised skill, followed by evaluating and monitoring. Generally,

the intervention suggests that SBI enhanced learners' autonomy in both learning and their writing skill.

Chan (2014) conducts a mixed method quasi-experimental design to assess the effectiveness of SBI on higher education students' use of learning strategies, English achievement and learning processes. For data collection, questionnaires, group interviews, diaries, pre- and post-tests and class observations are designed, administered or conducted. The sample consists of 59 EFL learners at in Macao SAR University. The instruction based programme focuses on six categories of learning strategies: memory-related, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective and social in relation to all four main English skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. The findings indicate that the affective and compensatory groups of strategies learning processes have improved after SBI. However, the results indicate no effect of SBI on students' achievement.

Khademi, Mellati & Etela (2014) investigate the effects of an explicit SBI on learners' achievement test scores in a higher education context. The study focuses on the impact of explicit note taking training on learners' performance on listening comprehension. The participants of the study are 60 Iranian EFL learners. For data collection, a test, a questionnaire and an interview are used to elicit students' attitudes about strategy training in listening comprehension. The findings of the research suggest that the intervention had significant effects on Iranian listening test performance. Furthermore, the results accentuate the ineffectiveness of SBI unless sufficient time is allocated.

Liu (2015) conducts a study to explore the correlation between learner autonomy and strategy use. The sample includes university students who are grouped into three different English classes based on their levels. The findings suggest that

strategy use had a high level of correlation with learner autonomy, with cognitive and metacognitive categories as having the strongest correlations with autonomy in language learning. Another finding indicates that strategy use has the highest correlation with the learner's frequency of engaging in learning activities and his decision making abilities. Consequently, the study suggests that EFL student use of learning strategies can serve as a good predictor of learner autonomy.

Sarafianou & Garvillidou (2015) conduct a study to investigate the effects of an explicit and integrated SBI intervention programme. A quasi-experimental research design is conducted with a sample of 192 Greek EFL learners attending the second year of upper secondary school in Alexandroupoulos, Greece. Participants are divided into an EG, which undertakes the treatment, and a CG, which follows the regular programme. For data collection, the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, henceforth) is used before and after the intervention. The findings indicate that the EG show significant improvement in their strategy use as a whole and in relation to each strategy group. Conclusions from this study prove the feasibility of teaching learning strategies and highlight the crucial role of SBI training in the EFL classroom.

Wang (2016) conducts a study to explore the effect of strategy instruction on learners' autonomy. A strategy-based instruction is explicitly offered through integrating learning strategies into regular teaching through strategy training to promote learners' autonomy. The findings indicate that strategy instruction can improve learners' strategy awareness and use effectively for better language performance. In other words, when strategies are integrated into learning tasks, learners' autonomous ability can be greatly promoted. After the experiment, learners' attitudes towards learning have changed to be more positive, as they could

conceptualize LA and what should be undertaken for autonomous learning. The training help learners identify and develop more learning strategies to become more autonomous in language learning.

Course (2017) conducts a two-year action research to investigate the role of using reading strategy instruction and diaries to promote learner autonomy. The participants are students enrolled in Advanced Reading and Writing courses I and II at a university in Turkey. The results indicate that the strategy instruction and use of reading diaries enhance and extend learners' strategy use. On the other hand, the reading diaries play a great role in fostering learner autonomy and promoting use of metacognitive strategies. The study suggests that keeping reading diaries help increasing reflection on the effectiveness of the reading strategies used by learners.

All these empirical studies integrate the major theoretical principles proposed for an effective SBI tutoring model such as the learner centered nature of the intervention, the explicit and integrated strategy instruction, the language of the strategy instruction, the authenticity of learning activities, the call for raising learners awareness of their learning and the evaluation of learners development on the use of learning strategies to develop LA. This related research proves to be quantitatively and qualitatively impressive. However, it can be criticized for focusing on specific language skills, for example, oral communication, writing skill, or vocabulary acquisition. To the researcher's best of knowledge, no study to date has investigated the design of a SBI intervention, which seeks to develop learners' autonomy taking into consideration strategies in relation to all the language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Furthermore, the body of research stresses skill-specific learning strategies (Oxford, 1990, O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) as the material for the instruction. On the other hand, the majority of research aims to highlight the effect of

SBI on the frequency of learning strategies use and learning outcomes with implicit indication to LA. Moreover, no study has implemented an explicit and integrated SBI as a separate tutorial course from the typical English language courses, such as written expression and oral expression. Therefore, the current quasi-experimental research aims to investigate the effect of a separate SBI tutoring course on language learners' autonomy, which encompasses an explicit and integrated instruction of a wide range of learning strategies which are applicable for all the language skills, based on a model for LA (Tassinari, 2010).

Conclusion

From all the areas that have been covered and discussed in this chapter, a comprehensive idea about the meaning of tutoring, its types, importance and strategies, is provided. The following chapter will tackle the concept of “autonomy”, which is the ultimate goal of the majority of tutoring programmes at university level. The following is a concluding summary to highlight the role of tutoring in enhancing learning.



Chapter Four:

Research Methodology

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Introduction.....	151
4.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses	151
4.1.1 Research Questions.....	151
4.1.2 Research Hypotheses.....	151
4.1.2.1 Null hypothesis (H0).....	151
4.1.2.2 Alternative hypothesis (H1).....	152
4.2 Research Design.....	152
4.2.1 Case Study Design.....	152
4.2.2 Triangulation Design.....	153
4.2.3 Quasi- experimental Design.....	155
4.3 Research Locale.....	157
4.4 Participants.....	157
4.4.1 Participants in Exploratory Phase.....	157
4.4.2 Participants in Pre-Experimental Phase.....	158
4.4.3 Participants in Experimental Phase.....	158
4.4.4 Participants in Post-Experimental Phase.....	158
4.5 Research Population and Sample.....	158
4.5.1 Research Population.....	158
4.5.2 Research Sample.....	159
4.5.2.1 Sampling Technique.....	159
4.5.2.2 Sampling Criteria.....	161
4.5.2.3 Sample Size.....	161
4.5.2.4 Equivalence of Sample.....	161
4.6 Variables of Research.....	162
4.7 Data Collection Instruments.....	162
4.7.1 The Exploratory Phase.....	163
4.7.1.1 Informal Discussion.....	163
4.7.1.2 Focus Group Discussion.....	164
4.7.2 The Pre-Experimental Phase.....	164
4.7.2.1 Document Analysis.....	164
4.7.2.2 Placement Test (Pearson, 2005).....	165
4.7.2.3 Learning Style Test (Modality Preference Inventory).....	165
4.7.2.4 Learning Strategy Use Test (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)....	165
4.7.2.5 Learning Anxiety (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)	166
4.7.2.6 Learning Motivation (Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire)....	166
4.7.3 The Experimental Phase.....	167
4.7.3.1 The Pre/Post-Test.....	167
4.7.3.2 Rating Scale of Pre/Post-Test.....	169
4.7.3.3 Validity and Reliability of Pre/Post-Test.....	169
4.7.3.3.1 Validity of Pre/Post-Test.....	170
4.7.3.3.2 Reliability of Pre/Post-Test.....	171

4.7.4	Post-Experimental Phase.....	172
4.7.4.1	The Satisfaction Scale.....	172
4.7.4.2	The Post- Reflection Survey.....	172
4.8	Pilot Testing of Research Instruments.....	173
4.8.1	Pilot Testing of Pre-experimental Instrument.....	173
4.8.2	Pilot Testing of Pre-test/Post-test.....	173
4.8.3	Pilot Testing of Lesson Plans and Worksheets.....	175
4.9	Administration of Instruments.....	175
4.9.1	Informal Discussion.....	175
4.9.2	Focus Group Discussion.....	176
4.9.3	Pre-experimental Tests.....	176
4.9.4	Pre-test.....	176
4.9.5	Post-test.....	177
4.9.6	Satisfaction Scale & Post-Reflection Survey.....	177
4.10	The Quasi-Experimental Study.....	177
4.10.1	Designing the Quasi- experimental Study.....	177
4.10.1.1	Controlling Individual Variables.....	178
4.10.1.2	Controlling Confounding Variables.....	183
4.10.1.3	Establishing External Validity.....	185
4.10.2	The Quasi-experiment on Learning Autonomy.....	185
4.10.3	Tutoring Course Design.....	185
4.10.3.1	A Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring Course.....	186
4.10.3.2	Lesson Plans.....	188
4.10.3.3	Worksheets.....	189
4.10.3.4	Diaries.....	190
4.10.3.5	Instructional Treatment.....	191
4.11	Data Analysis Procedures.....	193
4.11.1	Analysis of Exploratory Tools.....	193
4.11.2	Analysis of Quantitative Tools.....	193
4.11.3	Analysis of Qualitative Tools.....	193
4.11.4	Statistical Analysis.....	193
4.12	Ethical Considerations.....	195
4.13	Delimitations of Study.....	195
	Conclusion.....	195

Chapter Four:

Research Methodology

Introduction

Research cannot be accomplished without following a methodology, which explains the operational steps and procedures followed by the researcher in order to answer the research questions. This chapter is devoted to explain the research design, the participants, the population, the sampling technique, the research instruments used, the conducted quasi-experiment, data collection and data analysis procedures, along with the ethical issues, limitations and delimitations.

4.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research questions and hypotheses are restated in this chapter to help justifying the nature of the methodological design.

4.1.1 Research Questions

a. To what extent would the integration of an SBI tutoring course affect language learning autonomy of first year undergraduate learners?

b. What would learners' attitudes be towards the use of an SBI tutoring course to enhance their language learning autonomy?

4.1.2 Research Hypothesis

In accordance with the first main research question, the following hypotheses are to be tested:

4.1.2.1 Null Hypothesis (H₀)

“If an SBI tutoring course is provided for learners, there will be no statistically significant difference in the mean ranks on language learning autonomy post-test of the EG if compared to the CG”.

4.1.2.2 Alternative Hypothesis (H1)

“If an SBI tutoring course is provided for tutoring, there will be a statistically significant difference in the mean ranks on language learning autonomy post-test of the EG if compared to the CG”

4.2 Research Design

One of the key elements of conducting a good research is the research design. Maxwell (as cited in Macky & Gass, 2012) defines the research design as “the logic and coherence of your research study- the components of your research and the ways in which these relate to one another” (p.95). Thereby, a research design is the blue print of the procedures, which relate and affect each other, and guarantee a successful answering and testing of the research questions and hypotheses respectively.

Research designs are various, and deciding which research design to follow is a crucial matter for the entire research. The researcher should choose a research design which relates to both the research problem, purpose and conditions under which the study is conducted. This design helps the researcher to decide about the data to be collected, and to determine the means of gathering and analysing data. The current study goes under a hybrid experimental design as follows:

- Case Study Design
- Triangulation Design
- Quasi- experimental Design

4.2.1 Case Study Design

The current research is embodied in a case study design, which is defined by Yin (1994) as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p.13). Case study is the examination of phenomena

as they are in their natural context without any changes or manipulations. The reasons behind choosing this design are:

- Case study helps to investigate the current case population extensively.
- Case study is framed by time and place, which means that the study should be conducted in a specific place during a specific period of time.
- Case study allows the possibility of deploying a wide range of data collection instruments and procedures which help to study the problem from different angles.

Furthermore, case studies are either *single site* or *multiple*. Single site case study refers to the study of a phenomenon in one specific setting; however, multiple case studies provide information about the same phenomenon in different settings in order to compare results among participants in different contexts. In this regard, multiple case studies require time and financial costs for collecting and analysing data. Therefore, the present research opts for a single-site case study design as being appropriate for the purpose of research about the use of SBI tutoring to enhance language learning autonomy among the case of first year undergraduate learners of English at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Setif2 University.

4.2.2 Triangulation Design

This design is considered as a common type of mixed method approach. It refers to mixing more than one method in a single research since “you are not forced... to make a choice between the two approaches in your research project. When appropriate, a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research is possible” (Walliman, 2001, p.227). The purpose of this design is “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p.122), in order to strengthen the validity of the results (Creswell, 2005). In this research, the triangulation comes at

the level of data collection tools. In a single study, the researcher can use quantitative tools such as tests and questionnaires, and qualitative tools such as observations, documents analysis and interviews. The quantitative and qualitative instruments serve different purposes, but they complement and fill the gaps of each other. The quantitative tools rely on numbers and presenting data in graphs and tables; whereas, the qualitative instruments rely on description of observations. Using both types of tools in a research strengthens its validity and results, and help the researcher to better explain the phenomenon. In this respect, Dörnyei (2007) gives the rationale of following the mixed method approach saying that: “mixed methods inquiry offers a potentially more comprehensive means of legitimizing findings than do either QUAL, or QUAN methods alone by allowing investigators to assess information from both data types” (p.62). In the current research, a combination of both qualitative (the use of informal discussion, FGD and post-reflection surveys) and quantitative tools (the use of tests for individual differences, a quasi-experimental pre-/post- test and the satisfaction scale) is integrated to answer the research questions and test the research hypotheses.

In the exploratory phase, an FGD and an informal discussion are used to investigate the existence of the problem about the low level of LA among first year undergraduate learners. In the pre-experimental phase, a number of tests are used to gather information about participants in both experimental group (EG, henceforth) and control group (CG, henceforth). These tests are in a form of multiple choice or Likert scale questionnaires, and include language level test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test, learning motivation test, and the pre-test about learning autonomy level. They are meant to determine the extent of groups' homogeneity prior to the treatment. In the post-experimental phase, the post-test of

learning autonomy level is used along with a satisfaction scale and a post-reflection survey to answer the second research question.

4.2.3 Quasi- experimental Design

Experimental designs entail the act of establishing a cause-effect relationship between independent and dependent variables. In this regard, Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle (2006) argue that in the experimental design, “the researcher controls or manipulates one or more independent variables and examines the effect that the experimental manipulation has on the dependent variable” (p.178). Thereby, the present study manipulates the use of tutoring, which is the independent variable and aims to examine its impact on first year undergraduate learners’ learning autonomy, which is considered as the dependent variable.

However, due to the challenges of randomized assignment of the sample to the CG and the EG, which is considered as a condition for a true experiment to occur, the researcher opted for a quasi-experimental design. In this regard, “experimental research can be grouped into two broad categories: true experimental designs and quasi-experimental designs. Both designs require treatment manipulation, but while true experiments also require random assignment, quasi experiments do not” (Bhattacharjee, 2012, p.83). In this respect, the quasi-experimental designs are mostly used in educational settings in which random assignment of subjects is neither possible nor practical. Supporting this claim, Seliger & Shohamy (1989) argue that “in real world in which schools and classes exist.... language programme administrators are generally unwilling to disturb their ongoing programmes and allow reorganization of classes in order to randomize the assignment of subjects into different experimental groups” (p.148). For the current study, randomization is not feasible due to the pre-existing classes designed administratively, and the quasi-

experimental design, with its non-random allocation of participants into groups, is more practical. The main advantage of quasi-experimental design is its likelihood “to have more external validity because it is conducted under conditions closer to those normally found in educational contexts” (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.149). External validity is defined as the population, settings, treatment variables and measurement variables to which can the effect of the experiment be generalized (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). However, the major outcome of the absence of randomization, in quasi experiments, is the threat to the research’s internal validity, which is defined as “the degree to which the design of an experiment controls extraneous variables” (Borg, Gall & Gall, 1993, p.1024). The challenging task for this research is, therefore, to control both the personal variables such as gender, learning styles, learning strategies, learning anxiety, learning motivation and extraneous variables such as maturation, instrumentation and morality. All the probable personal and extraneous variables are neutralized in both EG and CG in order to establish research internal validity.

In this research, the quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test non-equivalent group design is followed. This design is considered as the most commonly used in social and educational settings. In this design, “the control and experimental group... constitute naturally assembled collectives such as classrooms” (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p.47). It is similar to the pre-test/post-test true experiment design except for the lack of randomization. This design requires the two groups, an EG and a CG, to undergo a pre-test and a post-test. The EG receives a treatment, and the CG receives no treatment and serves as a comparison scale for the results obtained from the EG. In this research, the pre-test/post-test non-equivalent group design is followed in order to investigate the role of SBI tutoring in promoting learners’ LA. Consequently, subjects

of the EG and CG are not randomly assigned because of the administrative limitations on the freedom of the researcher to decide about the division of the groups and the timetables. The quasi experiment is represented as follows:



Figure 10. Pre-test/post-test non-equivalent group design (Cohen et al, 2007, p.283)

4.3 Research Locale

The current research is conducted at the Department of English language and Literature at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine -Setif 2- University, Algeria; during the academic year 2017-2018. Over a thousand and two hundred students are enrolled at the department with 60 permanent teachers. Although the LMD system provides a clear regulation about the necessity of arranging tutoring sessions of 3 to 4.5 hours each, for first year learners, no tutoring sessions are integrated into learners' timetables yet.

4.4 Participants

Throughout this study, a number of participants are targeted to accomplish different research objectives. They are classified as follows:

4.4.1 Participants in Exploratory Phase

Before engaging in the treatment phase, the researcher conducted an informal discussion with eight teachers and an FGD with twelve second year undergraduate learners of English to explore students' LA problems. On the other hand, ten teachers participate in the process of pilot testing the adapted pre-/post-test. After modifying the test according to the experts' suggestions, ten students out of the population are given the test in order to pilot its wording and time. Other tests such as placement test,

learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning motivation test, and learning anxiety test are all pilot tested with the same ten students for wording and time.

4.4.2 Participants in Pre-Experimental Phase

The sample of this research consisted of fifty-one students: twenty-five students of the EG and twenty six of the CG. In this phase, participants of both groups are administered a number of tests including placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning motivation test and learning anxiety level test, followed by the administration of the pre-test about LA.

4.4.3 Participants in Experimental Phase

In this phase, twenty five students of the EG participate in the experiment over a period of 20 sessions, with different rate of absenteeism in each session.

4.4.4 Participants in Post-Experimental Phase

In this phase, the whole sample, including EG and CG, take part in answering the post-test. Then, the twenty five participants of the EG undertake a satisfaction scale test and a post-reflection survey to document their evaluative attitudes towards the treatment and the whole experiment.

4.5 Research Population and Sample

The population and sample are two crucial elements in any research. In this section, a detailed description for the population and the sampling procedures is provided.

4.5.1 Research Population

The population, from which the sample is taken, and to which the researcher generalizes the results of this study is first year undergraduate English learners at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine- Setif 2 University. They are 467 students (88 males and 379 females) divided into two sections, A and B. Each section consists of nine

groups. The choice of this population is not accidental, for the reason that first year undergraduate learners are considered as beginner learners of EFL included in a totally new system, and are more likely to experience difficulty and need tutoring compared to other levels. In this regard, O'Hare (2011), talking about tutors' view of the level needing tutoring at university, "newer students were the ones who probably needed the most support" (p.916). On the other hand, in the Executive Decree N°09.03 of the Ministry of Higher Education about the LMD system, tutoring courses, which represents a crucial element for the system itself and for LA, are meant for first year undergraduate learners. However, at the department in which the study is conducted, tutoring is totally neglected. This makes the current study worthy with the targeted population

4.5.2 Research Sample

A sample is a representative portion of the entire population and allows the study of a certain phenomenon. In this research, the sample consists of 51 participants divided into two groups of 25 and 26 first year undergraduate learners. A detailed explanation of the sampling procedures will be provided in the following section.

4.5.2.1 Sampling Technique

A sampling technique is defined as a procedure used to draw a sample from a population in a way that helps testing hypotheses and generalizing the data to the population. Cohen et al. (2007) claim that: "the quality of a piece of research not only strands or falls by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted" (p.100) Due to the fact that, in the current investigation, "randomization is not possible, the researcher is advised to use.... samples that are as alike as possible" (Kelingner, as cited in Cohen et al 2007, p.283). Consequently, the sample is selected using the non-probable (non-

random) purposive sampling technique, which entails a non-random selection of participants based on the researchers' knowledge about the population. This technique is also known as the homogenous sampling (Cohen et al, 2007, p.176), in which groups of similar characteristics are chosen. From a total of 18 groups, two intact groups, namely Group A1 and Group B4, are selected to be the sample from the population. These two groups are selected after checking their timetables and analysing their characteristics to ensure that they are as similar as possible before introducing the experiment.

- Both groups are homogenous to a large extent in number, age, gender of the subjects
- Both groups' timetables suit the researcher's one

In order to assign which of the groups would be the EG and which would be the CG, the researcher folded two pieces of paper containing the numbers of group A1 and B4. After a random draft, Group A1 is selected to be EG and Group B4 is selected to be the CG.

However, although using this sampling technique entails the non-probability of each participant to have an equal chance to be selected, which threatens the internal validity of the test; this sampling technique provides frequent availability of subjects due to the administrative division of the groups and their settled timetables. Thereby, the final sample for the study consists of 51 students including 38 female and 13 male students with an age range of 18-21 years old.

4.5.2.2 Sampling Criteria

In this research, both inclusion and exclusion criteria are used to fix the sample.

a) Inclusion criteria

- First year undergraduate learners of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University during the academic year 2017-2018, who belong either to Group A1(EG) or Group B4 (CG).

b) Exclusion criteria

- Learners who are absent during the pre-experimental phases, or those who do not complete their tests: placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test, learning motivation test and the pre/post-tests of LA.
- Learners from the EG or CG who drop their class
- Learners from the EG who are frequently absent during the treatment phase.

4.5.2.3 Sample Size

The EG (A1) consists of 35 students and the CG (B4) consists of 34 students. The students who meet the exclusion criteria are not considered as part of the study sample. At the end, there are 51 students in the sample, with 25 in the EG and 26 in the CG.

4.5.2.4 Equivalence of Sample

In order to test the equivalence of the EG and CG, a number of tests for individual differences is administered to the participants. The tests are: placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test, learning motivation test. It is found that the EG and the CG are equivalent as far as the individual

differences are concerned. For this reason, no student is excluded from the sample and the EG is considered as equivalent to the CG.

4.6 Variables of Research

In the experimental design, there must be at least one independent variable and one dependent variable. The independent variable (IV, henceforth) is the one that is deliberately manipulated by the experimenter, and planned before the experiment begins; whereas the dependent variable (DV, henceforth) is the one that changes as a result of changes in the IV (Research Methods in Psychology, n.d, p.5). In this research, the IV is the “SBI tutoring course”; whereas, “students’ learning autonomy” is considered as the DV.

Table 7. Research Variables

Types of Variables	Variables
➤ Independent	➤ The implementation of an SBI tutoring course
➤ Dependent	➤ Language learning autonomy
➤ Personal/Demographic	➤ Age, Gender
➤ Individual	➤ Language level learning style, learning strategy use, anxiety and motivation
➤ Confounding	➤ History, maturation, testing, instrumentation, morality, statistical regression, bias selection

Concerning the personal/demographic, individual and the confounding variables, a detailed explanation of the procedures used to control them will be provided later.

4.7 Data Collection Instruments

In relation to the research purpose which investigates the role of integrating a tutoring course in enhancing students’ LA, a number of qualitative and quantitative instruments is adopted, adapted or designed. First, in order to ground the problem of the study, an exploratory phase with qualitative tools is carried out. An informal discussion with teachers and an FGD with students are conducted. Second, in the pre-experimental phase, quantitative instruments are used to control students individual

differences, namely general linguistic level, learning style, learning strategy use, learning motivation and learning anxiety; besides a pre-test, which is adapted from Tassinari (2010), to measure students LA. Third, during the post-experimental phase, the same pre-test is administered as a post-test to evaluate the treatment efficacy. In addition, a satisfaction scale and a qualitative post- reflection survey are administered to elicit learners' attitudes of the experiment and the SBI tutoring course experience.

4.7.1 The Exploratory Phase

After a thorough reading about the topic at hand, the researcher tries to establish a solid argument about the existence of the problem within the target population. In order to achieve this, two qualitative instruments, informal discussion and FGD, are used.

4.7.1.1 Informal Discussion

Informal discussion is an 'easy to conduct' data collection tool, which provides a tension-free environment for the participants. In the current research, the researcher holds an informal discussion with eight EFL teachers at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Setif2 University in order to pinpoint the problem from the teachers' perspectives. At the teachers' room, the researcher meets with a group of teachers who are waiting for their next classes to start. The researcher asks her colleagues about whether they think their learners are autonomous or not and to justify their answers. After that, teachers are asked whether they provide their learners with opportunities or strategies to learn independently or not and to justify their answers as well. Teachers suggest that learners should be trained on how to use strategies of autonomous learning explicitly. Finally, the researcher asks the teachers about their preference of either integrating strategies of autonomous learning as part of the subject or arranging separate sessions for the strategy-instruction of

autonomous learning or implementing both. The informal discussion lasted for about 20 minutes.

4.7.1.2 Focus Group Discussion

As part of the exploration phase, an FGD is held with a group of 12 second year undergraduate learners, aiming to learn more about the population for a detailed description and identify the problem at hand from learners' perspectives. The FGD is held with the students after completing their first year courses to check their LA level and investigate the existence of the problem at hand. This would not be possible with first year undergraduate learners who are considered as beginner with little autonomous learning experience. The FGD takes place at room 15 with the presence of the researcher who introduces herself and explains the objective of the discussion, which lasts 34 minutes. The FGD contains six questions related to the research problem (cf. Appendix D).

4.7.2 The Pre-Experimental Phase

Prior to the start of the experiment, the researcher opts for a number of tools to measure the homogeneity of the EG and CG in terms of personal and individual variables.

4.7.2.1 Document Analysis

In the current study, the researcher consults all the lists of first year undergraduate learners and their timetables in order to study their personal information and select two groups that are similar in terms of number, age, gender, timetable and teachers of subjects.

4.7.2.2 Placement Test (Pearson, 2005)

Participants from both EG and CG sit for a placement test (New Opportunities Placement test 2A, 2005) (cf. Appendix E), to make sure they are homogeneous in terms of the general language level. The test focuses primarily on grammar as an accurate indicator of a learners' linguistic ability. It takes approximately 30 minutes to complete. The test consists of 80 multiple choice questions. Each correct answer earns 1 point and the level of students is determined according to the related scoring system: 0-40 elementary/ 40-80 pre-intermediate. The scores of the test are used to select experimental materials that would match the participants' language level.

4.7.2.3 Learning Style Test (Modality Preference Inventory)

To gather information about participants learning styles, the Modality Preference Inventory (MPI, henceforth) (cf. Appendix F) is used. It is a self-assessed questionnaire, which provides information for each of the three learning modalities: visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic. This questionnaire has 30 three-point Likert-type scale items (10 items for each modality) with response options of often, sometimes, and seldom. The questionnaire is scored by assigning points to each response (3 for often, 2 for sometimes, and 1 for seldom). A score of 21 points or more in a modality indicates the strength in that area. The highest of the three scores indicates the participant's preferred learning style. The results of the test are used to make sure that EG and CG are similar in terms of the variance of their learning styles and to select experimental materials that would match the participants' learning preferences.

4.7.2.4 Learning Strategy Use Test (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, designed by Oxford (1990, p. 282-291) (cf. Appendix G), is used to examine participants' use of language learning strategies, including direct language learning strategies (cognitive, memory, and

compensatory strategies) and indirect language learning strategies (metacognitive, affective, and social strategies). The test includes 50 items to assess six types of strategies: nine items in memory strategies, 14 items for cognitive strategies, six items for compensation strategies, nine items for metacognitive strategies, six items for affective strategies, and six items for social strategies. Participants are required to indicate how often they employ these strategies by selecting one response out of five Likert scale options (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The average score for each type of strategies or for the whole test should range from 1 to 5. The scoring system for this test is as follows: 1-2.49=lowly used / 2.5-3.49= moderately used/ 3.5-5=highly used.

4.7.2.5 Learning Anxiety (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)

To measure students' foreign language learning anxiety inside the classroom, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS, henceforth) (cf. Appendix H) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) is used. It consists of 33 items, each accompanied by a five point Likert scale: (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The maximum range for the scale is 33 to 165, with lower scores (33-75) suggesting lower anxiety levels, average scores (76-119) indicating moderate level of anxiety and higher scores (120-165) indicating higher anxiety levels.

4.7.2.6 Learning Motivation (Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire)

To assess learners' motivation, the first section of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ, henceforth) (cf. Appendix I) is adopted. This test is designed by Petrich et al. (1991). The first part of the test consists of 31 items with 7 point Likert scale (Not at All True of Me=1 to Very True of Me=7) and is meant to measure learners' motivation, in relation to three major areas which are goals in learning (14 items), beliefs in learning abilities to succeed (12 items) and learning

anxiety about tests (5 items). The average score for each sub-section and for the whole section should range from 1 to 7. A high score (5-7) indicates a high level of motivation; while a medium score (3-5) and a low score (1-3) indicate a medium and a low level of motivation respectively.

4.7.3 The Experimental Phase

4.7.3.1 The Pre/Post-Test

In relation to the nature of the quasi-experimental design, the pre-/post-test is considered crucial. The pre-test is meant to measure the dependent variable before starting the treatment and hence neutralizing any effect of pre-existing dissimilarity between the EG and CG on the outcomes of the experiment (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006). After the accomplishment of the experimental treatment, a post-test is administered to both groups in order to assess the efficacy of treatment through comparing the progress of the EG in comparison to the CG.

In this study, Tassinari's (2012) Checklist of Autonomous Learning is adapted to be used as a pre-/post-test. After the recommendations of Dr. Maria Giovanna Tassinari, the researcher transforms this qualitative checklist into a quantitative questionnaire that can be measured on a five-point Likert-scale. A questionnaire "is used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed.... [and] on the processes involved in using language".(Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.172). Since LA is difficult to be observed or measured and scored quantitatively, the solution is to use the Likert scale to make the tool more practical in eliciting data about learners' LA. The same questionnaire is used as a pre-test then as a post-test. After the modification and the pilot testing, the final version of the questionnaire consists of 228 close-ended statements divided into 10 major sections corresponding to the ten components of LA (cf. Appendix L). At the beginning of each section, a brief

description to the component is provided. The statements of sections are organized as follows:

- **Motivating Yourself:** It tests learners' ability to motivate themselves at the beginning of the learning process, as well as, the ability to re-motivate themselves when the initial motivation decreases. It consists of four statements.
- **Dealing with Your Feelings:** It tests learners' ability to recognize feelings while learning, and to control those feelings in order to learn more effectively. It consists of six statements.
- **Planning:** It tests learners' ability to recognize their needs and formulate them into realistic learning objectives, and to structure these objectives into steps that create a learning plan. In addition, it tests learners' ability to be flexible enough to change the learning plan if the situation or needs change. It consists of 45 statements.
- **Choosing Materials and Strategies:** It tests learners' ability to recognize, choose and work with suitable learning materials and strategies. It consists of 42 statements.
- **Completing Tasks:** It tests learners' ability to complete tasks in relation to appropriate learning materials and strategies, as well as to complete individual or multiple tasks. It consists of 31 statements.
- **Monitoring:** It tests learners' ability to reflect on topics, tasks, and the learning process to identify their strengths and weaknesses and to structure or re-structure learning activities accordingly. It consists of 22 statements.

- **Evaluating:** It tests learners' ability to review what they have learned, how well they have learned, and what progress has been made toward learning. It consists of 25 statements.
- **Cooperating:** It tests learners' ability to cooperate with others while completing tasks, realize a project, negotiate resources or evaluate learning. It consists of 14 statements.
- **Managing my own Learning:** It tests learners' abilities in all aspects of the learning process in relation to the other nine components of autonomous learning. It consists of 11 statements.
- **Structuring Knowledge:** It tests learners' ability to structure cognitive knowledge about all the components that play a role in different autonomous learning phases and activities. It consists of 28 statements.

4.7.3.2 Rating Scale of the Pre/Post-Test

Likert (1932) develops the principle of measuring attitudes and perceptions by asking people to respond to a number of statements about a topic, in terms of the extent to which they agree or disagree. It measures levels of agreement/disagreement. Each response would have a numerical value, which is used to measure the variable under investigation. In this research, and due to the nature of the pre-/post-test, the rating scale is based on five point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 scores as follows: Strongly Disagree (1 score) , Disagree (2 scores), Neither Disagree nor Agree (3 scores), Agree (4 scores) to Strongly Agree (5 scores).

4.7.3.3 Validity and Reliability of the Pre/Post-Test

Validity and reliability are considered to be among the most important criteria for establishing instrument quality, which entails the extent to which the tool elicits accurate and valid data.

4.7.3.3.1 Validity of the Pre-/Post-Test

Validity has to do with the extent to which a given instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle., 2006). In order to measure the validity of the pre-/post-test, pilot testing with experts and internal consistency validity test are conducted.

a) Content Validity

Content validity entails that “the instrument must show that it fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover” (Cohen et al, 2007, p.137). It is “achieved by making professional judgment about the relevance and sampling of the contents of the test to a particular domain” (Wolf, as cited in Cohen et al, 2007, p.163). For this study, ten expert teachers are asked to validate the pre-/post-test in terms of content, relevance, construction, and number of statements. This process entails that the test is a good representation of the content which needs to be measured” (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.188). The suggestions and recommendations of the experts about wording some statements and modifying some terms, deleting or adding statements are taken into consideration to validate the pre-/post-test. The final version of the pre-/post-test is granted content validity to measure what it is supposed to measure (cf. Appendix L).

b) Internal Consistency Validity

The scores of the pre-/post-test are used to calculate the internal consistency of the instrument and its sections, and the correlation of these constituent sections to each other, using Spearman correlation coefficient. The validity index of the test and most of its sections are statistically significant, with .77 across the test and a range of .60 to .88 for the sections.

4.7.3.3.2 Reliability of the Pre-/Post-Test

According to Wallace (1998), reliability refers the degree to which a test is stable and consistent in measuring what it is intended to measure. In other words, a test is considered as reliable if it is consistent, stable and accurate within itself and across time. In the current research, the reliability of the pre-/post-test is calculated using both test-retest reliability and Split-half methods.

a) Test Retest Reliability

This technique aims at measuring the consistency of scores taken by the same participants through comparing the first and the second performances (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006). It is used “to examine whether the data collection procedure is stable from one administration to another (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.186). In this research, a volunteered pilot sample of 15 students is selected from first year undergraduate EFL learners. The test is administered to these learners twice with a temporal interval of 15 days. Then, the stability of these participants’ scores across time is statistically measured using a consistency test. Pearson correlation test is used and the reliability index for the test is .791 which is significant and motivates the use of this test for the current study.

b) Split-half Method

This technique functions by dividing the test into two equal parts, calculating their correlation, and applying the Guttman formula to determine their overall stability. The index of reliability in this test was .96 which is highly satisfactory and confirms the reliability of the pre-/post-test as a study instrument.

4.7.4 Post-Experimental Phase

After the experimental phase, and in order to answer the second research question, the researcher opts for a satisfaction scale and a post-reflection survey. They both seek to gather information about learners' attitudes towards the role of SBI tutoring in enhancing their autonomous learning.

4.7.4.1 The Satisfaction Scale

A satisfaction scale is designed to measure the effectiveness of the tutoring course. It is used to explore the attitudes of participants from the EG towards the SBI tutoring course. The scale consists of four items, each accompanied by a 5 point Likert scale: (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). This tool is pilot tested with 5 participants from the EG. The pilot testing showed that the statements of the survey are clear and no modification is needed (cf. Appendix O).

4.7.4.2 The Post- Reflection Survey

In order to know more about EG attitudes of the role of the SBI tutoring in enhancing their autonomous learning, a post-reflection survey is administered to participants of the EG (cf. Appendix P). Learners are handed papers and requested to report their reflections about the whole experiment. The rationale for the selection of this tool is the teachers' intention to elicit the EG's qualitative evaluation of the positive and negative outcomes of the SBI tutoring course, in addition to students' attitudes towards the experiment. The survey consists of one open-ended question and is not structured to minimize the researcher's influence on learners' responses. Both scale and survey are administered only to participants from the EG on the very last session of the experiment on week 11.

4.8 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments

In order to test the reliability of the research instruments, trying out the tool before its administration in real study is important with the use of adapted instruments. In the current investigation, a pilot study is conducted to test the research tools.

4.8.1 Pilot Testing of Pre-experimental Tests

A pilot testing for the tests of individual differences, placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test and learning motivation test, is conducted with a sample of ten first year undergraduate students to check wording and timing. These tests are adopted and no modifications are requested at the level of vocabulary. Timing for completing the tests ranges from 20 to 30 minutes for the placement test and from 10 to 15 minutes for each of the other tests. The overall time for completing all the tests is 90 minutes (1 hour and a half).

4.8.2 Pilot Testing of Pre-/Post-test

Although the pre-/post-test is adapted from Tassinari (2010), the modification brought to this tool may affect its validity and reliability; therefore, “field testing of the questionnaire before using it in the real study is also important in order to obtain information about the relevancy and clarity of questions, the format, and the amount of time required to answer the questions” (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p.173). In the current research, a pilot testing is required in order establish test’s validity and reliability. The first draft of the adapted test (cf. Appendix K) is submitted to ten expert teachers in TEFL and research methodology. Their feedback is considered as follows:

- To omit the open-ended questions in sections: 1.2.4/ 3.5.2 /4.1.1/ 4.3.1/ 5.7/ 5.8/ 8.1.1
- To use synonyms to the following words:
wears thin = decreases (1. Motivating Myself)/ language competence/ competencies = language level (all the test)/ interim = short term (3.6.2)/ brochure= project (3.6.3)/ optimize = enhance (5.1.1)/ bearing in mind = taking into consideration (5.4.2)/ deficit = problem (6.2.1)/ interlocutor = addressee (8.1.2)/ stance = opinion (8.1.7)/ tandem partner= classmate (8.2.2)
- To omit the following words and expressions:
that spur on me (2.1.2)/ sensible (2.1.2)/ Etc (3.4.1)/ methods and (all the test)/ and resources (all the test)/ tandem (4.1.1)/ and resources which I have used (6.3)/ which I have employed (6.4)/ fellow (8.2.4)/ Tool (9.1.2)/ These competencies are required and developed bit by bit (4. Choosing materials and strategies)/ It requires practice and normally exchange with other learners, native speakers, learning advisors and teachers (7.Evaluating)/ from the other areas (9. Managing my own learning).
- To replace the following expressions :
The European language portfolios= checklists and tests (all test)/ goal= long term goal (3.6.2)/ I cannot participate in class = I can not tell someone about my course degree (6.2.1)/ with a formulation or to correct a test = to correct a grammar mistake or a writing task (8.1.3).
- To replace the word “checklist” with the word “test” in the title of the pre-/post test
- To add the word “independent” as a synonym for “autonomous”.

- To capitalize the titles of the ten components.

In addition, the pre-/post-test is pilot tested with 10 randomly selected first year undergraduate EFL learners for wording and timing. Both teachers and students' feedback is taken into consideration to modify the pre-/post-test into its final version (cf. Appendix L) and 1h 30 is allotted as the timing required for its completion.

4.8.3 Pilot Testing of Lesson Plans and Worksheets

Both lesson plans and worksheets are designed by the researcher, with some adopted or adapted activities from Oxford (1990), Dembo (2004) and Chamot et al. (n.d). Seven expert teachers are asked to validate the material presented in terms of its content, relevance, construction and activities. The suggestions of the experts are considered to modify both the lesson plans and the worksheets into their final versions (cf. Appendix N).

4.9 Administration of Instruments

The administration of the research instruments entails the concrete interaction between the researcher and the participants of the study. In the current research, the instruments are chronologically administered as follows:

4.9.1 Informal Discussion

The informal discussion was held with teachers of English on the 8th of September, 2013 at the teachers' room. Prior to the start of the discussion, the researcher explains the purpose behind the discussion, which lasts for about 20 minutes. The informal discussion guarantees the spontaneous interaction of teachers, which helps increasing the credibility of their responses and highlighting the existence of problem.

4.9.2 Focus Group Discussion

The FGD was held on the 16th of September 2013 at 14.00 at room 15. Twelve second year undergraduate learners at the English department volunteered to take part in the discussion. At the beginning of the discussion, the researcher introduced herself to the participants and explained the objective behind the discussion, which lasted for about 34 minutes. Students' answers and reactions to the questions of the researcher are essential for identifying the problem.

4.9.3 Pre-experimental Tests

The administration of the placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test and learning motivation test occurred on September, 24th, 2017. The CG and the EG undertook the tests at 8.00 and 12.30 respectively, with an allotted time of 30 minutes for the placement test and 15 minutes for each of the other tests. This is the first contact of the researcher with the participants; therefore, she introduces herself and informs participants of both EG and CG that they are chosen to be the sample of a research and that they will take several tests. Some material incentives are provided to motivate the inactive participants. Then, the purpose of the tests is explained and the time allotted for each test is indicated. The researcher distributes files with coding numbers; each file contains copies of the five tests. She monitors the participants' responses to the tests and manages the time for completing each test.

4.9.4 Pre-test

The pre-test was administered on October, 4th, 2017 within the same timing of the previous tests. The time allotted for completing the test is 90 minutes due to the nature of the test, which contains 228 statements. The researcher explains to the participants the purpose of the test and ensures their anonymity. While participants

are responding to the test, the researcher insists on the individual work, and provides help if needed. The scores from the pre-test are used to make sure that the initial LA of both EG and CG is similar before conducting the treatment.

4.9.5 Post-test

The post-test is identical to the pre-test. It is administered to both EG and CG on January, 17th 2018 within a time span of 90 minutes. The researcher stresses participants' seriousness while responding to the items of the test. Again, the researcher monitors the process of completing the test and informs participants of any noticed skipping or double ticking.

4.9.6 Satisfaction Scale & Post-Reflection Survey

These instruments were administered only to the EG on December, 21th, 2017, by the end of the 21th experimental session. Thirty minutes are allotted to complete both the satisfaction scale and the post-reflection survey.

4.10 The Quasi-Experimental Study

This section is devoted to describe the conducted quasi-experimental study. It presents the procedures followed in order to design an SBI tutoring course meant to teach learners the different learning strategies required for autonomous learning. The procedures include the measures undertaken in order to control the individual and extraneous variables prior to the experiment, designing the tutoring course, planning for the tutoring sessions and the administration of the treatment.

4.10.1 Designing the Quasi- experimental Study

This study is meant to investigate the effect of an SBI tutoring course on developing learners' autonomous learning and to meet the first main research question and test the hypothesis about the extent to which incorporating an SBI tutoring course affect language learning autonomy of first year undergraduate learners. Due to the

absence of random assignment of the subjects ($n=51$), the internal validity of the results is threatened. Therefore, measures to control the individual and confounding variables are undertaken by the researcher to ensure that the CG ($n=26$) and EG ($n=25$) are as similar as possible before starting the experiment, and that the controlled extraneous variables are not the cause of the research results.

4.10.1.1 Controlling Individual Variables

In order to neutralize the effect of the individual personal variables on the results of the experiment, the CG and EG are selected using a purposive sampling technique to ensure their homogeneity in terms of number of subjects, age and gender.

a) Number of subjects

The number of subjects in each group might affect the results of the study. Therefore, the researcher tried to control this variable through choosing two groups that are homogeneous in terms of number. The distribution of students into EG ($n=25$), and CG ($n=26$) is significantly close and confirmed the homogeneity of the sample.

b) Age of subjects

Age is another personal variable, which might affect LA (Yu, 2006 and Knowles, 1980). Therefore, it is necessary to determine its distribution within the groups of the sample.

Table 8. Age Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Age	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
[18 – 19]	24	92.3	24	96
[20 – 21]	2	7.7	1	4
Total	26	100	25	100

According to the table 8, the majority of participants' (CG: 92.3% and EG: 96%) age ranges from 18 to 19 years old with few students (CG: 7.7% and EG: 4%) with a

range of 20 to 21. This distribution adds to the homogeneity of the EG and CG and controls the effect of age on the results of the experiment.

c) Gender of subjects

The variable of gender has been proven to have an impact on all aspects of language learning including LA (Giggs & Dunn, 1996; Grenfell & Harris, 1999). Therefore, it is necessary to examine its distribution between the EG and CG. The results are stated in the table below:

Table 9. Gender Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Gender	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	7	26.9	6	24
Female	19	73.1	19	76
Total	26	100	25	100

In terms of gender, the majority of the subjects in both groups are females, which makes the distribution of gender significantly very close. This confirms the homogeneity of the groups and reduces the potential effect of gender on the quasi-experiment results.

On the other hand, individual variables, including general language level, learning style, learning strategy use, anxiety level and motivation are also controlled using a number of tests.

a) Pearson Placement Test Results

Language proficiency is a factor, which might affect LA. Dafei (2007) claims that students' language proficiency is positively related to their LA. In order to control this variable, all the participants sit for a placement test to check their language level. The results of the tests are presented in the table below:

Table 10. Placement Test Scores Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Placement Test Scores	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Elementary	2	7.7	1	4
Pre-Intermediate	24	92.3	24	96
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 10 shows that the majority of respondents in both groups (CG: 92.3%, EG: 96%) are pre-intermediate learners with a score that ranges from 40 to 80 on the placement test. The obtained frequencies indicates that subjects from both EG and CG are homogeneous at the level of language level. This homogeneity reduces the effect of language level on the results of the quasi-experiment.

b) Learning Style Test (MPI) Results

Learning style is another important variable, which might affect the autonomy of learners (De Florio-Hansen, 2009). The following table presents the results of students' test of learning styles.

Table 11: Learning Styles Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Learning Styles	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Auditory	5	19.2	5	20
Kinaesthetic	11	42.3	10	40
Visual	10	38.5	10	40
Total	26	100	25	100

As illustrated in table 11, the respondents' learning styles are homogeneous at the three styles. For Kinaesthetic style, the corresponding results are similar with CG: 42.3% and EG: 40%. Homogeneity is also confirmed at the level of Visual learning style with a corresponding 40% and 38.5% for the EG and CG respectively. Auditory learning ranks last but with homogeneous results of 19.2 % for CG and 20% EG. In this regard, the effect of learning styles on the results of this research is reduced and controlled.

c) Learning Strategy Use Test (SILL) Results

Learning strategies are of great influence on students LA as established by Oxford (as cited in Onozawa 2010, p. 129) who claims that effective use of learning strategies can promote language learning, as all language learning strategies are highly related to autonomy. In order to reduce its effect on the results of the experiment, SILL test is administered to the subjects of the sample, the results are shown in table 12:

Table 12. Learning Strategy Use Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Learning Strategy Use	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Highly used	1	3.8	0	0
Moderately used	13	50	12	48
Lowly used	12	46.2	13	52
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 12 indicates similarities in the levels of using learning strategies. The majority of respondents show a low level of Strategy Use (EG: 52%, CG: 46.2%). On the other hand, similarities at the level of Moderate Strategy Use (EG: 48%, CG: 50%) and High Strategy Use (EG: 0%, CG: 3.8%) are detected. This homogeneity in students' strategy use neutralizes the effect of this variable on the quasi experiment results.

d) Learning Anxiety Test (FLCAS) Results

Anxiety is said to be one of the factors affecting LA. Chen (2015) claims that the high level of anxiety “throw a negative effect on the ability of autonomous learning ability” (p.76). In order to control its effect, participants undertake a test for anxiety. The results are shown in table 13:

Table 13. Learning Anxiety Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Learning Anxiety	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Low level	0	0	0	0
Moderate level	25	96.2	25	100
High level	1	3.8	0	0
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 13 indicates that the majority of participants (CG: 96.2% /EG: 100%) suffer from a moderate level of learning anxiety. This result reduces the effects of the factor of anxiety on the results of the experiment.

e) Learning Motivation Test Results

Motivation has a great effect on students' learning motivation. Ushioda (1996) argues that "the establishment of principles for developing effective motivational thinking is an integral dimension of learner autonomy" (p.3). In order to control its influence, subjects of both EG and CG undertake a test of learning motivation. The results are presented in table 14:

Table 14. Learning Motivation Distribution between CG and EG Subjects.

Learning Motivation	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Low Level	0	0	0	0
Moderate Level	7	28	11	44
High Level	18	72	14	56
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 14 shows a total homogeneity in terms of learning motivation since both CG and EG show a moderate or high level of learning motivation. This similarity helps neutralizing the effect of this variable on the results of the quasi-experiment.

All in all, it has been descriptively established that both CG and EG are relatively homogeneous in terms of the personal and individual profiles of the EG and CG, including age, gender, language level, learning style, learning strategy use, learning anxiety level, and learning motivation level (cf. Appendix J). However, for

an empirical confirmation of this homogeneity, statistical treatment of the results of these tests is to be conducted and explained in the following chapter.

4.10.1.2 Controlling Confounding Variables

The quasi-experimental design adopted in the current investigation lacks the random assignment of subjects into EG and CG, which menaces the internal validity of the research, due to the potential effect of a number of extraneous variables. The following is an explanation of these variables (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle., 2006, p.191; Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p.5-6 and Cohen et al., 2007, p.155-156), along with the measures undertaken by the researcher to control each.

a) History: It is the specific event or factor occurring during the experimental treatment between the first and second testing, which might be the cause behind the effect rather than the treatment itself. To eliminate the threat of this variable, the EG and CG are chosen on the basis of their similar timetables and teachers for most of the subjects. Both groups have morning and afternoon sessions, with the same teachers for eight subjects.

b) Maturation: It is a threat that entails the developmental change, both biological and psychological, within the respondents such as growing older, more bored or more tired. In this respect, the treatment's short period of time (11 weeks) is guaranteed to avoid the effect of this variable.

c) Testing: It is the threat of taking a test upon the scores of a second testing or the subjects' familiarity with the pre-test which affects their performance on the post-test. To control this variable, a relatively long temporal interval between the administration of the pre-test and post-test (exceeding forty-four days) is established, to reduce the familiarity of test practice effects.

d) Instrumentation: It is the threat which appears when the pre-test and post-test are not identical or equally difficult/easy, or when the conditions under which the tests are taken are different which may produce a change in the obtained results. To eliminate the effect of this variable, the pre-test and post-test are identical and the conditions within which the subjects answered the tests are similar. They all take the tests in the classroom with the presence of the researcher.

e) Statistical regression: It is a threat operating when subjects are selected on the basis of their extreme scores, which indicates the reduction of higher scores and the increase of the lower scores to the average rank. This variable is controlled through ensuring that both CG and EG have good achievers and poor achievers based on the results of the placement test for language level and the pre-test for autonomous learning.

f) Differential selection of subjects: It is a threat of bias selection of subjects in the CG leading to potential difference between characteristics of the CG and EG. To control this variable, both CG and EG are tested at the level of subjects' personal and individual variables respectively. These variables include age, gender, language level, learning styles, learning strategy use, learning anxiety level, learning motivation. The results of these tests for EG and CG are claimed to be relatively homogeneous.

g) Experimental morality: is the threat of losing respondents due to attrition or dropout from the research. To eliminate this variable's affect, the researcher used many incentives, such as praising and thanking the active subjects and distributing diaries and pens for subjects of the EG, in addition to the experiment's short period.

4.10.1.3 Establishing External Validity

External validity is defined by Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle (2006) as “the extent to which the results are generalizable beyond the sample used for the study” (p.189). It has to do with the degree to which a sample is representative of the target population. The small number of the sample (n=51) may affect external validity and generalizability of the results. However, the researcher’s sampling technique is meant to select homogeneous EG and CG in terms of age, gender, language level, learning style, learning strategy use, learning anxiety and learning motivation. In this respect, Lodico et al (2006) claim that sample’s homogeneity increases the degree of representativeness of the population and hence the external validity of the findings.

4.10.2 The Quasi-experiment on Learning Autonomy

The quasi experiment on LA is conducted during the first semester of the academic year 2017-2018. The treatment started on October 11th, 2017 and ended on December 21st for 11 weeks period. The main purpose of the experiment is to examine the role of an SBI tutoring in promoting EFL learning autonomy.

4.10.3 Tutoring Course Design

According to Tassinari (2012), “learning autonomy is the capacity of the learners to take control of their learning processin different ways according to the learning situation” (p.120). To achieve this, the learner should create a balance among four major components, which are cognitive/metacognitive, affective/motivational, action-oriented and social (Tassinari, 2012, p.120). Accordingly, to become autonomous, learners are required to have a repertoire of learning strategies, which correspond to those components. Awareness of metacognitive strategies of how to plan, monitor and evaluate learning is essential for developing LA. Successful learning is considered as a result of knowing how to learn independently.

4.10.3.1 A Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring Course

In the current research, the tutoring course falls under the wings of SBI, which is a learner-centred approach in which learning strategies are to be included either explicitly or implicitly into the course content. Strategy-based instruction aims to “help students to consciously control how they learn so they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners” (Chamot, 1998, p.1). Generally, it is offered as specific classes or short courses on language learning strategies (Oxford 1990; Chamot et al 1999, Reinders, 2010). In this respect, the tutoring course of the treatment is designed adapting the CALLA instructional model introduced by Chamot et al. (1999). This model is based on explicit SBI, which “essentially involves the development of students’ awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modelling of strategic thinking, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks” (Chamot, 2004, p.19). The CALLA framework entails teaching, practicing, transferring and evaluating the declarative knowledge about strategies, which becomes gradually, procedural knowledge. This model is applied with some modifications according to the objectives of the course and learners’ needs. The final instructional model consists of eight major stages as follows:

Table 15. Structure of the SBI Tutoring Session (duration 90-270 minutes)

Procedures	Responsibility	Time
Preparation	Teacher and learners	5 minutes
Presentation	Teacher	20-60 minutes
Practice	Learners	30-90 minutes
Teachers’ Feedback	Teacher	10-30 minutes
Reflection	Learners	10-30 minutes
Learners’ Evaluation	Learners	5-15 minutes
Expansion	Learners	Outside the classroom
Learners’ Ask	Learners and teacher	10-30 Minutes

Within this SBI framework, the responsibility of using strategies for learning is gradually transferred from the tutor to the learners reflecting the principles of the learner-centred approach. In what follows, the aim behind each stage is provided.

- 1) **Preparation:** The teacher elicits learners' prior knowledge about the use of the target learning autonomy component and strategies as a lead-in phase.
- 2) **Presentation:** The teacher introduces the new component/strategies, explains and models it/them. S/he describes the features, usefulness and application of the component and strategies. Sometimes, the teacher reports a situation in which s/he used the learning component or strategies.
- 3) **Practice:** Learners apply and practice the new strategies to different language learning skills, including speaking, listening, reading and writing and two language systems of vocabulary and grammar. The practice activities are provided by the teacher on separate worksheets. Learners work individually, in pairs or in groups.
- 4) **Teacher's Feedback:** The teacher gives feedback about learners' use of strategies and its impact on their performance.
- 5) **Reflection:** Learners think about the usefulness of the strategies of the component taught and the difficulties encountered while applying them. They hold small group or whole class discussion.
- 6) **Learners' Evaluation:** Learners self-evaluate the strategies practiced and their success in using the strategies inside and outside the classroom.
- 7) **Expansion:** Learners are asked to practice the strategy with tasks similar to those practiced in class or connect the target strategies to new learning tasks and contexts outside the classroom. Then, report their experience using diaries.

- 8) **Learners' Ask:** Learners ask questions about the target strategies and their applicability to the learning process. Learning difficulties are also discussed at this phase.

The first four stages are covered during the tutoring sessions, as the teacher introduces, explains and models the LA component along with the necessary strategies, then provides students with worksheets containing activities to practice the target strategies. Then, the teacher provides feedback and assessment for learners' performance on strategy use. For reflection, it is dealt with inside the classroom as the teacher asks learners to think about the importance of the strategies, and outside the classroom using the diary for extra reflections. For the sixth and seventh stages of evaluation and expansion, they are introduced as part of home works to be completed outside the classroom using a diary. For the last stage, the tutor devotes the end of the session to listen to learners' questions and the encountered difficulties when applying the strategies or when learning in general.

4.10.3.2 Lesson Plans

In order to integrate the ten components of autonomous learning into tutoring course, there is a need to design ten lesson plans. Accordingly, there is a need to identify course objectives, design the teaching content, the instructional materials and learning activities. Since structured tutoring courses have proven to be more effective than non-structured ones (Allen, 1976), it is required to design the lesson plans based upon a theoretical model. Accordingly, the course adapts the CALLA model; and the themes, objectives, and activities of the SBI tutoring course designed follow the Dynamic Model of Learning Autonomy (Tassinari, 2010, p.203), and its corresponding checklist, which is adapted as the pre-/post-test in the current study. The purpose of the tutoring course is to provide instruction that enables first year

undergraduate learners to acquire and use strategies to enhance their autonomous learning. The content of the course includes, strategies for motivating one's self, strategies for dealing with one's own feelings, strategies for planning, strategies for choosing learning materials and strategies, strategies for completing a task, strategies for monitoring, strategies for evaluating, strategies for cooperating, strategies for managing one's own learning, and structuring one's own knowledge. All of these areas contain learning strategies to be used by the learner to develop independent autonomous learning. Some of the activities provided during the treatment are designed and others are adapted from Oxford (1990), Dembo (2004) and Chamot et al (n.d). The researcher selects and designs the activities bearing in mind the learners' language level (pre-intermediate), as well as their learning styles (visual, auditory and kinaesthetic). The activities provided during the experiment are divided into practice activities to be dealt with inside the classroom, and homework assignments to be worked on outside the classroom using a diary. The practice activities are designed to train learners to use the different strategies of autonomous learning inside the classroom under the supervision of the tutor. The homework activities are meant to engage students in autonomous learning situations outside the classroom and encouraging them to think aloud and report their independent learning experiences in a diary then submit it to the tutor for feedback and evaluation. English language is used as the only medium of classroom communication.

4.10.3.3 Worksheets

Worksheets are distributed to students after the presentation stage. They are meant for practice. Each worksheet contains a brief explanation of the strategies taught and a range of activities for practice. Some activities are authentic and cover different language skills (speaking, listening, writing and reading) and two language

systems (grammar and vocabulary) to reflect autonomous language learning in general. Learners work individually, in pairs or in groups according to the nature and the objective of the task. The homework assignment is explained at end with the deadline for its submission. The activities are either adapted from Oxford (1990), Dembo (2004) and Chamot et al (n.d), or designed by the researcher according to the objectives of the lesson, the language level of students and their learning styles. The teacher, then, assesses learners' performance on the activities and discusses their answers, providing feedback when necessary.

4.10.3.4 Diaries

Diaries provide learners with opportunities to think about their learning through recording their thoughts, reflections and feelings about a variety of learning experiences. They are “also used to collect information about language learners' strategies” (Chamot, 2004, p.16). In this respect, at the beginning of the treatment, the researcher provides learners of the EG with diaries. They are meant for learners to reflect on their learning and think aloud about the strategies they use. Learners are asked to use the diary to deal with the homework activities and to report their autonomous learning experiences and problems. Rubin (2003) claims that using diaries for instructional purposes helps learners develop awareness of their learning processes and strategies. In this research, the diary is meant for the stages of evaluation, expansion and reflection. Learners are asked to report their use of strategies inside and outside the classroom, with evaluation and reflection of such a usage. The teacher corrects the diaries weekly for extra feedback.

4.10.3.5 Instructional Treatment

The tutoring treatment for developing LA is provided through 11 weeks with the researcher as the tutor. The tutorials are scheduled in respect to the EG timetable which consists of one session of an hour and a half weekly with an extra session scheduled by the researcher. The total of the tutorials is two sessions per week with one hour and a half each, as follows: Wednesday (12.30-14.00) and Thursday (8.00-9.30).

The time devoted for the designed tutoring course is decided upon depending on the lesson objectives, content and activities. The time allotted for each lesson ranges from an hour and a half and four hours and a half. Each lesson incorporates one major component of autonomous learning following the Dynamic Model of Learning Autonomy presented by Tassinari (2010). The tutorials organization according to the number of sessions is presented in the following table:

Table 16. Allotted Time for the Themes of the SBI Tutoring Course

Tutorial Themes	Overall Time of Presentation
Introductory Session	1.5 hour (1 session)
Motivating myself	3 hours (2 sessions)
Dealing with my feelings	3 hours (2 sessions)
Planning my learning	3 hours (2 sessions)
Choosing materials and strategies	4.5 hours (3 sessions)
Completing a task	3 hours (2 sessions)
Monitoring my learning	3 hours (2 sessions)
Evaluating my learning	3 hours (2 sessions)
Cooperating with others	3 hours (2 sessions)
Managing my learning	1.5 hours (1 sessions)
Structuring my knowledge	1.5 hours (1 sessions)
Total	30 hours (20 sessions)

The treatment is divided into 11 tutorials: an introductory session (cf. Appendix M) and 10 tutoring sessions, corresponding to the ten components of autonomous learning with a temporal sum of 30 hours. Prior to each tutorial, the researcher prepares a lesson plan and a worksheet, according to which the session will proceed

(cf. Appendix N). In the introductory session, the researcher introduces learners to the context of the experiment. She introduces herself, explains the purpose of the experiment and the role of the participants and distributes diaries, pens and the participation consent letters. *Session One: Strategies for Motivating Myself* provides learners with a number of strategies to motivate themselves to raise learners' awareness of the importance of these strategies in autonomous learning. *Session Two: Strategies for Dealing with My Feelings* trains learners on how to use strategies to recognize and control negative feelings while learning. *Session Three: Strategies for Planning* teaches learners how to plan their learning, through recognizing their needs and setting objectives then following the steps of the plan to reach their learning objectives. *Session Four: Strategies for Choosing Materials and Strategies* allows learners to use a number of learning materials and strategies suitable to tasks, learning styles and needs. *Session Five: Strategies for Completing a Task* trains learners to use strategies for completing a learning task or a series of tasks. *Session Six: Strategies for Monitoring* provides learners with strategies for monitoring learning, and recognizing strengths and weaknesses. *Session Seven: Strategies for Evaluating* trains learners with strategies for self-evaluating learning. *Session Eight: Strategies for Cooperating* provides students with strategies of cooperating with others while learning. *Session Nine: Strategies for Managing My Learning* trains learners to deal with all the learnt strategies to manage learning as a synthesis. *Session Ten: Strategies for Structuring Knowledge* is meant to structure learners' cognitive and metacognitive knowledge of all the learned strategies. In all sessions, opportunities to practice inside and outside the classroom are provided for learners.

4.11 Data Analysis Procedures

The following is an explanation of the procedures adopted by the researcher to analyse the data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative instruments.

4.11.1 Analysis of Exploratory Tools

With regard to the informal discussion and the FGD conducted during the exploratory phase, they are recorded, transcribed and analysed in order to ground the research problem and devise the research questions and hypotheses.

4.11.2 Analysis of Quantitative Tools

Quantitative data of the pre-experimental phase, including placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety level test, learning motivation test, the pre-/post-test and the satisfaction scale, are analysed using either Excel or the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). 22. The frequencies, percentage and mean ranks on these tests are considered at the heart of analysis.

4.11.3 Analysis of Qualitative Tools

Qualitative data gathered from the post-reflection survey are analysed by viewing and reviewing patterns and themes as far as document analysis is concerned.

4.11.4 Statistical Analysis

The quantitative data of the research are analysed using the SPSS. 22 version. The stages of data analysis are imposed by the research questions and hypotheses.

- Pre-post-test validity is calculated across the test sections and through the entire test using Spearman Coefficient.
- Pre-/post-test reliability is calculated using the Split half technique and the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient.

- Frequencies and Percentages are calculated to determine data distribution of the tests used for controlling individual differences. They are presented in frequency and percentage charts.
- The statistical difference between the EG and CG in terms of the individual personal and academic features is tested using the Chi-Square Test (X^2).
- The mean ranks are used to calculate the Mann Whitney U test across the subjects before and after the quasi-experiment to compare the results for any significant statistical difference between the subjects of the EG and CG on the pre-test and post-test.
- Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test is used to compare the results for any significant statistical difference among the subjects of the EG and CG on the pre-test and post-test.
- The Friedman Test is used to compare the results for any significant difference across multiple test components among the subjects of the EG on the pre-test and post-test.
- The significance p-value is set at $p \leq .05$ to decide about the significance of results and differences.
- The median and percentage are calculated for the data of the satisfaction scale test.

All of these statistical treatments are accomplished with the help of an expert in the domain of statistics.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are at the heart of any research. In the current study, the researcher tries to address the common ethical issues. As a first step, the researcher asks for the administrative permission from the head of the department. A request for permission to conduct research is signed by the head of the English department (cf. Appendix A). Afterwards, the informed verbal consent of all participants engaged in the current research in terms of the research procedures, objectives and participants' roles is established prior to the administration of the research instruments or the introduction of the treatment (cf. Appendix B). Furthermore, the participants' confidentiality and anonymity for any written or recorded answers is guaranteed at the beginning of any research procedure. Their scores or contributions are coded with numbers and are not associated with the participants' names or personal identifying information. Moreover, the pre-post-test is adapted from the Checklist of Autonomous Learning (Tassinari, 2010) after receiving a letter of consent from Dr. Maria Giovana Tassinari prior to starting the experiment (cf. Appendix C). Finally, researcher's ethics are accentuated in terms of not intervening in or modifying the collected data or the obtained results.

4.13 Delimitations of the Study

The scope of the current study is bounded to the population of first year undergraduate learners of English at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine University, Setif2- Algeria, during the academic year 2017-2018. Besides, it is limited to the operational definitions of the key concepts used in this research.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the research process, which frames the study, is discussed in details. It covers the research design, methods, setting, participants, population and sampling technique, data collection instruments, materials used in the study, pilot testing of instruments, administration of instruments, description of the quasi experiment, data analysis procedures, ethical considerations and delimitations.



Chapter Five: Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

Chapter Five: Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

Introduction.....	197
5.1 Data Analysis.....	197
5.1.1 Analysis of Exploration Phase Data.....	197
5.1.1.1 Analysis of Informal Discussion.....	197
5.1.1.2 Analysis of Focus Group Discussion.....	199
5.1.1.3 Analysis of Tests of Validity and Reliability of Pre-/Posttest.....	200
5.1.1.3.1 Internal Consistency Validity Test.....	200
5.1.1.3.2 Reliability Tests.....	201
5.1.1.3.2.1 Test Retest Reliability Test.....	201
5.1.1.3.2.2 Split half Reliability Test.....	201
5.1.1.4 Analysis of Personal and Individual Differences Information.....	202
5.1.1.4.1 Age.....	202
5.1.1.4.2 Gender.....	203
5.1.1.4.3 Placement Test.....	204
5.1.1.4.4 Learning Style.....	204
5.1.1.4.5 Learning Strategy Use.....	205
5.1.1.4.6 Learning Anxiety.....	206
5.1.1.4.7 Learning Motivation.....	207
5.1.2 Analysis of Experimental Data (Hypothesis Testing).....	208
5.1.2.1 Mann Whitney U Tests.....	209
5.1.2.1.1 Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Pre-Test' Results of EG and CG.....	219
5.1.2.1.2 Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Post-Test' Results of EG and CG.....	219
5.1.2.2 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Tests.....	210
5.1.2.2.1 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG.....	210
5.1.2.2.2 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of CG.....	211
5.1.2.2.3 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pretest-Posttest Results of EG in Relation to Ten Components of Learning Autonomy.....	212
5.1.2.3 Friedman Test.....	219
5.1.3 Analysis of Post-Experimental Data.....	221
5.1.3.1 Analysis of Satisfaction Scale.....	221
5.1.3.2 Analysis of Post-Reflection Survey.....	221
5.2 Data Interpretation.....	223
5.2.1 Interpretation of Homogeneity of Research Sample.....	223
5.2.2 Interpretation of Results Concerning the Efficacy of the SBI Tutoring Course in Enhancing Learning Autonomy.....	224
5.2.3 Interpretation of Post-Experimental Results.....	228
5.2.3.1 Satisfaction Scale.....	228



5.2.3.2	Post Reflection Survey.....	228
5.3	Discussion of Findings.....	234
5.4	Pedagogical Implications & Recommendations.....	236
5.5	Limitations & Suggestions for further Research.....	239
	Conclusion.....	241
	General Conclusion	242

Chapter Five:

Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the analysis of data gathered, which are to be interpreted in relation to previous literature or to the participants' responses. In light of the results, a discussion of the research questions and hypotheses is to be provided in an attempt to resolve the research problem.

5.1 Data Analysis

This section is dedicated to the analysis of data generated in the exploratory, experimental and post-experimental phases. The analysis of the exploratory phase entails a description of the results from the FGD and the informal discussion, which serves in stating the problem on solid ground. In addition to that, the statistical analysis of tests of reliability and validity of pre-/post-test along with the tests of ensuring homogeneity are provided. In the experimental phase, the analysis of the participants' pre-test and post-test' performances are provided for hypothesis testing. The post experimental data are analysed to cross validate findings of the experimental phase.

5.1.1 Analysis of Exploration Phase Data

This section includes the analysis of the informal discussion, the FGD and information about personal and individual differences.

5.1.1.1 Analysis of Informal Discussion

In the current research, the researcher holds an informal discussion with eight EFL teachers at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Setif2 University in order to pinpoint the problem from the teachers' perspectives. The researcher asks her colleagues about

whether they think their learners are autonomous or not and to justify their answers. Their answers are negative as the majority think that their learners display a low level of LA due to a number of reasons such as the Algerian educational system with its teacher-centred classrooms and spoon-feeding methods of teaching make students passive relying on the teacher as the only source of knowledge. This leads to students reaching college with no previous experiences for LA. Other reasons for the low level of autonomy are learners' lack of self-awareness, responsibility for their learning and progress, motivation, self-confidence, and interest. After that, teachers are also asked whether they provide their students with opportunities or strategies to learn independently or not and to justify their answers as well. Some teachers argue that promoting LA is the responsibility of learners (self-instruction) and teachers should not intervene. Other teachers argue that they try to promote LA but face some constraints such as the dominance of the exam oriented education, which is controlled by the centralized government with its prescribed canvas and materials leaving a small room for teachers or educational courses to promote independent learning, despite the fact that the LMD system is meant to enhance LA. Other factors such as the crowded classrooms, the absence of a tutoring course to support students towards autonomous language learning and teachers' lack of training in LA are all cited as the main obstacles in implementing LA in EFL classroom. Some teachers suggest addressing the promotion of learning autonomy through instructing learners how to become independent. Finally, the researcher asks those teachers in favour of promoting LA about their preference of either integrating strategies of autonomous learning as part of the subject, arranging separate sessions to teach students strategies of autonomous learning or implementing both. They agree that devoting separate

sessions for strategies instruction would be more practical than integrating them as parts of the subjects due to the previously mentioned constraints.

5.1.1.2 Analysis of Focus Group Discussion

As part of the exploration phase, an FGD was held with a group of twelve second year EFL learners, aiming to learn more about the population for a detailed description and identify the problem at hand from learners' perspectives. The FGD contained six questions as follows:

- 1) How do you understand the term independent learning?
- 2) Have you ever had an experience of independent learning?
- 3) Do you believe that you are independent language learners? If no, what are the reasons that hinder you from becoming independent?
- 4) During your first year at university, did your teachers instruct you on how to learn independently?
- 5) Provided that your teachers instructed you some strategies of how to learn independently, do you think that this would be worth the efforts? Why?
- 6) How about devoting regular extra sessions each week to instruct you on how to become independent language learners?

For *question one and two*, the majority of learners show a lack of understanding of and few previous experiences of autonomous (independent) learning. They believe that independent learning entails learning individually with little or no support from the teacher (self-instruction).

For *question three*, the majority of the participants believe that they have a low level of LA due to a number of reasons such as the fact that they are accustomed to the spoon-feeding teaching methods and that they do not know how to learn independently. Besides, the majority think that developing LA requires them to learn without the support of the teacher, which is perceived negatively as they believe the teacher to be the main source of knowledge.

For *question four*, learners argue that their teachers give them homework or projects to work on outside the classroom. They do not mention any explicit strategies or techniques for learning independently. They all agree that doing homework, projects or revising for exams individually is an independent learning.

For *question five and six*, learners welcome the idea of teachers' instruction of strategies of how to learn independently. They insist that the instruction should be during their first year at university since novice students are so anxious about the new university settings and language learning context and experience.

5.1.1.3 Analysis of Tests of Validity and Reliability of Pre-/post-Test

5.1.1.3.1 Internal Consistency Validity Test

The scores of the pre-post-test are used to calculate the internal consistency of the instrument and its sections, and the correlation of these constituent sections to each other, using Spearman correlation coefficient.

Table 17. The Results of Internal Consistency Validity Test

Internal Validity between Pre-/post-test & Sections	Correlation	Significance
1- Motivating Myself	.274	0.18
2- Dealing with My Feelings	.604	0.05*
3- Planning	.791	0.05*
4- Choosing Materials and Strategies	.808	0.05*
5- Completing Tasks	.756	0.05*
6- Monitoring	.756	0.05*
7- Evaluating	.683	0.05*
8- Cooperating	.728	0.05*
9- Managing My own Learning	.779	0.05*
10- Structuring Knowledge	.882	0.05*
Internal Validity of the Questionnaire	.770	0.05*

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

The validity index of the test and most of its sections are statistically significant, with .77 across the test and a range of .60 to .88 for the sections. However, a non-

significant value (.27) is detected with the first section, which can be justified due to the small number of statement (4) at that section.

5.1.1.3.2 Reliability Tests

5.1.1.3.2.1 Test Retest Reliability Test

The pre-/post-test is administered to 15 students twice with a temporal interval of 15 days. Then, the stability of these participants' scores across time is statistically measured using a consistency test.

Table 18. The Results of Test Retest Reliability Test

		Correlations	
		Group 1	Group 2
Group 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.791**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
Group 2	Pearson Correlation	.791**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

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

Pearson correlation test is used and the observed value of the reliability index for the pre-/post-test is .791, which is superior to .70 which means that the test is reliable in terms of its consistency over time.

5.1.1.3.2.2 Split half Reliability Test

This technique functions by dividing the pre-/post-test into two equal parts, calculating their correlation, and applying the Guttman formula to determine their overall stability.

Table 19. Results of Split half Reliability Test

Reliability Statistics			
Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	.923
		N of Items	114 ^a
	Part 2	Value	.932
		N of Items	114 ^b
Total N of Items			228
Correlation Between Forms			.930
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length		.964
	Unequal Length		.964
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			.962

The index of reliability in this test is .96 which is highly satisfactory and confirms the reliability of the pre-/post-test as a research instrument.

5.1.1.4 Analysis of Personal and Individual Differences Information

This section is a comparative data analysis of personal and individual information of the EG and the CG in terms of age, gender, language level, learning style, learning strategy use, learning anxiety and learning motivation.

5.1.1.4.1 Age

Table 20. Age Distribution between CG and EG

Age	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
[18 – 19]	24	92.3	24	96
[20 – 21]	2	7.7	1	4
Total	26	100	25	100

According to table 20, the majority of participants' (CG: 92.3% and EG: 96%) age ranges from 18 to 19 years old with few students (CG: 7.7% and EG: 4%) with a range of 20 to 21.

Table 21: Chi Square Test for Age Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Age	EG	25	2	0.689	0.709
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 21 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**0.689**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant ($p = 0.709 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of age. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of age distribution, which contributes to the homogeneity of the EG and CG and controls the effect of age on the results of the experiment.

5.1.1.4.2 Gender

Table 22. Gender Distribution between CG and EG

Gender	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	7	26.9	6	24
Female	19	73.1	19	76
Total	26	100	25	100

In terms of gender, the majority of the subjects in both groups are females, with 76% and 73.1 % in EG and CG, respectively, which makes the distribution of gender very close.

Table 23. Chi Square Test for Gender Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Gender	EG	25	1	0.057	0.811
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 23 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**0.057**) at the degree of freedom was statistically not significant ($p = 0.811 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of gender. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of gender distribution. This confirms

the homogeneity of the groups and reduces the potential effect of gender on the quasi-experiment results.

5.1.1.4.3 Placement Test

Table 24. Placement Test Scores Distribution between CG and EG

Placement Test Scores	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Elementary	2	7.7	1	4
Pre-intermediate	24	92.3	24	96
Total	26	100	25	100

From table 24, it is illustrated that the majority of respondents in both groups (CG: 92.3%, EG: 96%) are pre- intermediate learners with a score that ranges from 40 to 80 on the placement test.

Table 25. Chi Square Test for Language Level Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Placement Test	EG	25	24	24.723	0.421
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 25 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**24.723**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant ($p = 0.421 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of this language variable. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of language level distribution. The obtained frequencies indicates that subjects from both EG and CG are homogeneous in terms of language level.

5.1.1.4.4 Learning Style

Table 26. Learning Styles Distribution between the CG and the EG

Learning Styles	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Auditory	5	19.2	5	20
Kinaesthetic	11	42.3	10	40
Visual	10	38.5	10	40
Total	26	100	25	100

From table 26, the respondents' learning styles are similar at the three styles. For Kinaesthetic style, the corresponding results are similar with CG: 42.3% and EG: 40%. Similarity is also detected at the level of Visual learning style with a corresponding 40% and 38.5% for the EG and CG respectively. Auditory learning ranked last but with similar results of 19.2 % for CG and 20% for EG.

Table 27. Chi Square Test for Learning Style Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	Values X^2	Sig
Learning Style	EG	25	2	0.028	0.986
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 27 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**0.028**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant ($p = 0.986 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of learning style. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of learning style distribution.

5.1.1.4.5 Learning Strategy Use

Table 28. Learning Strategy Use Distribution between CG and EG

Learning Strategy	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Highly used	1	3.8	0	0
Moderately used	13	50	12	48
Lowly used	12	46.2	13	52
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 28 indicates similarities in the levels of using learning strategies. The majority of respondents show a low level of Strategy Use (EG: 52%, CG: 46.2%). On the other hand, similarities at the level of Moderate Strategy Use (EG: 48%, CG: 50%) and High Strategy Use (EG: 0%, CG: 3.8%) are detected.

Table 29. Chi Square Test for Learning Strategy Use Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Learning Strategy Use	EG	25	37	31.659	0.717
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 29 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**31.659**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant at ($p = 0.717 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of learning strategy use. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of learning strategy use distribution. This homogeneity in students' strategy use neutralizes the effect of this variable on the quasi experiment results.

5.1.1.4.6 Learning Anxiety

Table 30. Learning Anxiety Distribution between CG and EG

Learning Anxiety	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Low level	0	0	0	0
Moderate level	25	96.2	25	100
High level	1	3.8	0	0
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 30 indicates that the majority of participants (CG: 96.2% /EG: 100%) suffer from a moderate level of learning anxiety.

Table 31. Chi Square Test for Learning Anxiety Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Learning Anxiety Test	EG	25	31	34.194	0.317
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 31 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**34.194**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant at ($p = 0.317 > 0.05$). This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of learning anxiety. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of learning anxiety

distribution, which reduces the effects of the factor of anxiety on the results of the experiment.

5.1.1.4.7 Learning Motivation

Table 32. Learning Motivation Distribution between CG and EG

Learning Motivation	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Low Level	0	0	0	0
Moderate Level	7	28	11	44
High Level	18	72	14	56
Total	26	100	25	100

Table 32 shows a similarity in terms of learning motivation with both CG and EG showing a moderate or high level of learning motivation.

Table 33. Chi Square Test for Learning Motivation Difference between EG and CG

Variables	Groups	N	DF	ValuesX ²	Sig
Learning Motivation Test	EG	25	37	37.328	0.454
	CG	26			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 33 demonstrates that the value of Chi-Square test (**37.328**) at the degree of freedom is statistically not significant at ($p = 0.454 > 0.05$) level. This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of motivation. Thus, the EG and CG are equal in terms of motivation distribution, which helps neutralizing the effect of this variable on the results of this quasi-experiment.

It is demonstrated that all values of Chi-Square test at the different degrees of freedom are statistically not significant at $p = 0.05$ level. This indicates that there are no statistical significant differences between the EG and the CG at the level of the personal and individual differences. Thus, the EG and CG are homogeneous in terms of those variables.

5.1.2 Analysis of Experimental Data (Hypothesis Testing)

This section is devoted to the analysis of the data collected from the pre and post-tests following non-parametric procedures in order to examine the research hypotheses. The most commonly used statistical procedures for non-parametric ordinal data are the Mann Whitney U test and the Wilcoxon matched pairs test. The Mann Whitney U test is used when two compared groups or samples are independent and not related by shared participants; whereas, the Wilcoxon test is used when the two compared ranks are assigned to the same participants under two different conditions, for example pre-test and post-test (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 586-587). In the current research, the Mann Whitney U test is used twice to compare the mean ranks of the EG and CG on the performance of the pre-test and post-test. Similarly, the Wilcoxon matched pairs test is used to compare the mean ranks within the EG on the performance of the pre-test and the post-test as well as to compare the mean ranks within the CG on the performance of the pre-test and post-test. This test is also used to compare the EG performances on the pre-test and post-test in relation to the ten components of LA. Additionally, Friedman test is used twice to compare the EG performances on the pre-test and post-test in relation to the two dimensions (affective/motivational and action-oriented) of LA.

5.1.2.1 Mann Whitney U Tests

5.1.2.1.1 Mann Whitney U Test to Compare the Pre-test' Results of Experimental and Control Groups

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test = Mean rank of CG on the pre-test

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test \neq Mean rank of CG on the pre-test

Table 34. Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Pre-test' Results of EG and CG

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
EG	25	24.06	601.50	276.500	-0.914	0.361
CG	26	27.87	724.50			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 34 reveals the results of **Mann Whitney U test** for the pre-test of the students in the EG and CG do not show any statistically significant difference (**Z=0.914; p=.361>.05**). The mean rank of the pre-test scores of the EG (**n=25**) students is **24.06**, while the students in the CG (**n=26**) have a pre-test score mean rank of **27.87**. These close mean ranks of the pre-test scores of the EG and CG indicate that at the pre-experimental phase, the experimental and control groups have a fair degree of homogeneity at the level of language learning autonomy. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with respect to the existence of no statistically significant difference between the EG and the CG on the performance of the pre-test is **supported**.

5.1.2.1.2 Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Post-test' Results of EG and CG

H0: Mean rank of EG on the post-test = Mean rank of CG on the post-test

H1: Mean rank of EG on the post-test \neq Mean rank of CG on the post-test

Table 35. Mann Whitney U Test to Compare Post-test' Results of EG and CG

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
EG	25	31.26	781.50	193.500	-2.478	0.013*
CG	26	20.94	544.50			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 35 reveals the results of **Mann Whitney U test** for the post-test of the students in the experimental and control groups reveals a statistically significant difference at the level of **p<.05 (Z= -2.478; p=.013<.05)**. The mean rank of the post-test scores of the EG (**n=25**) students is **31.26**, while the students in the CG (**n=26**) have a post-test score mean rank of **20.94**. Table 34 demonstrates no significant difference between the mean ranks of the groups' pre-test scores; however, the mean ranks of their post-test show that the students in the EG had higher level of LA than those in the CG. This result indicates that the EG students attained higher level of LA after the application of the treatment when compared to their peers in the CG. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with respect to the existence of no statistically significant difference between the EG and the CG on the performance of the post-test is **rejected**.

5.1.2.2 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Tests

5.1.2.2.1 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test = Mean rank of EG on the post-test

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test

Table 36. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG

Pre - Post-test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranking	1	4.00	4.00	4.265	0.000*
Positive Ranking	24	13.38	321.00		
Equal	0				
Total	25				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 36 shows there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG (**Z=4.265, p=.000<.05**). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **4.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **321.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it could be argued that

introducing the treatment has significantly increased the LA levels of the EG. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the performances of the EG on the pre-test and post-test is **rejected**.

5.1.2.2.2 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare the Pre-test-Post-test Results of the CG

H0: Mean rank of CG on the pre-test = Mean rank of CG on the post-test

H1: Mean rank of CG on the pre-test \neq Mean rank of CG on the post-test

Table 37. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of CG

Pre-test – Post-test	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranking	13	11.62	151.00	0.622	0.534
Positive Ranking	13	15.38	200.00		
Equal	0				
Total	26				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

Table 37 demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the CG ($Z=.622$, $p=.534>.05$). The sum of the negative ranks for the CG students' scores is found to be **151.00**, while their sum of positive ranks is **200.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores as a result of the analyses, the observed difference is not significant and is in favour of neither positive nor negative ranking. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the performances of the CG on the pre-test and post-test is **supported**.

5.1.2.2.3 Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Ten Components of Learning Autonomy.

➤ **Motivating myself (C1)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C1) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C1)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C1) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C1)

Table 38. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Motivating Myself Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Motivating Myself	Negative Ranking	12	8.46	101.50	2.389	0.017*
	Positive Ranking	3	6.17	18.50		
	Equal	10				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the CG ($Z=2.389, p=.017>.05$). The sum of the negative ranks for the CG students' scores is found to be **101.50**, while their sum of positive ranks is **18.50**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of negative ranks, i.e. the pre-test scores of the EG. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the experimental on the component of “motivating myself” is **rejected**. However, this difference in favour of the negative ranking could be justified due to the small number of items (4 items) about the component “motivating myself” in the pre-/post-test is insufficient to measure students' progress in this component. Learners' responses on the post-reflection survey are to be used to check this finding.

➤ **Dealing with My Feelings (C2)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C2) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C2)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C2) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C2)

Table 39. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Dealing with my Feelings Strategies.

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Dealing with my Feelings	Negative Ranking	6	8.50	51.00	2.468	0.014*
	Positive Ranking	16	12.63	202.00		
	Equal	3				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=2.468$, $p=.014<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **51.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **202.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it could be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “dealing with my feelings” is **rejected**.

➤ **Planning (C3)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C3) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C3)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C3) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C3)

Table 40. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Planning Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Planning	Negative Ranking	3	3.67	11.00	3.973	0.000*
	Positive Ranking	21	13.76	289.00		
	Equal	1				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=3.973$, $p=.000<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is

found to be **11.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **289.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Consequently, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Therefore, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “planning” is **rejected**.

➤ **Choosing Materials and Strategies (C4)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C4) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C4)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C4) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C4)

Table 41. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Choosing Materials and Strategies.

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Choosing Materials and Strategies	Negative Ranking	7	8.36	58.50	2.800	0.005*
	Positive Ranking	18	14.81	266.50		
	Equal	0				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG (**Z=2.800, p=.005<.05**). The sum of their negative ranks was found to be **58.50** while their sum of positive ranks is **266.50**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it could be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “choosing materials and strategies” is **rejected**.

➤ **Completing Tasks (C5):**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C5) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C5)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C5) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C5)

Table 42. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare the Pre-test-Post-test Results of the EG in Relation to Completing Tasks Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Completing Tasks	Negative Ranking	2	3.00	6.00	4.115	0.000*
	Positive Ranking	22	13.36	294.00		
	Equal	1				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=4.115, p=.000<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **6.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **294.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “completing a task” is **rejected**.

➤ **Monitoring (C6)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C6) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C6)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C6) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C6)

Table 43. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Monitoring Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Monitoring	Negative Ranking	2	9.50	19.00	3.864	0.000*
	Positive Ranking	23	13.30	306.00		
	Equal	0				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=3.864$, $p=.000<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **19.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **306.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “monitoring” is **rejected**.

➤ **Evaluating (C7)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C7) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C7)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C7) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C7)

Table 44. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Evaluating Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Evaluating	Negative Ranking	3	6.33	19.00	3.864	0.000*
	Positive Ranking	22	13.91	306.00		
	Equal	0				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=3.864$, $p=.000<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **19.00** while their sum of positive ranks is **306.00**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “evaluating” is **rejected**.

➤ **Cooperating (C8):**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C8) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C8)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C8) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C8)

Table 45. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Cooperating Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Cooperating	Negative Ranking	4	8.38	33.50	3.188	0.001*
	Positive Ranking	19	12.76	242.50		
	Equal	2				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=3.188$, $p=.001<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **33.50** while their sum of positive ranks is **242.50**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Consequently, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Therefore, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “cooperating” is **rejected**.

➤ **Managing my own Learning (C9):**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C9) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C9)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C9) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C9)

Table 46. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare the Pre-test-Post-test Results of the EG in Relation to Managing my own Learning Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Managing my own Learning	Negative Ranking	5	6.50	32.50	3.363	0.001*
	Positive Ranking	19	14.08	267.50		
	Equal	1				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG ($Z=3.363$, $p=.001<.05$). The sum of their negative ranks is

found to be **32.50** while their sum of positive ranks is **267.50**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “managing my own learning” is **rejected**.

➤ **Structuring Knowledge (C10)**

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C10) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C10)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (C10) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (C10)

Table 47. Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test Results of EG in Relation to Structuring Knowledge Strategies

Component	Pre – Post Test- EG	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Structuring Knowledge	Negative Ranking	1	5.50	5.50	4.226	0.000*
	Positive Ranking	24	13.31	319.50		
	Equal	0				

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

There is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the EG (**Z=4.226, p=.000<.05**). The sum of their negative ranks is found to be **5.50** while their sum of positive ranks is **319.50**. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, i.e. the post-test scores of the EG. Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this component. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the component of “structuring knowledge” is **rejected**.

5.1.2.3 Friedman Test

➤ Affective and Motivational Dimension (D1)

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (D1) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (D1)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (D1) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (D1)

Table 48. Friedman Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test of Affective and Motivational Dimension' Results of EG

Dimension	Component	N	Mean Rank	Chi- Square	DF	Sig*
Affective/ Motivational	Motivating myself	50	1.96	44.083	1	0.000*
	Dealing with my feelings	50	1.04			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

The Friedman test of differences is conducted among the components of the affective/motivational dimension (motivating myself and dealing with my feelings) and the value of Chi-Square test (**44.083**) at the degree of freedom is statistically significant at ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$). Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this dimension. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H0**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the affective/motivational dimension is **rejected**.

➤ Action-oriented Dimension (D2)

H0: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (D2) = Mean rank of EG on the post-test (D2)

H1: Mean rank of EG on the pre-test (D2) ≠ Mean rank of EG on the post-test (D2)

Table 49. Friedman Test to Compare Pre-test-Post-test of Action-oriented Dimension' Results of EG

Dimension	Component	N	Mean Rank	Chi- Square	DF	Sig*
Action- Oriented Component	Planning	50	6.82	291.826	6	0.000*
	Choosing materials and strategies	50	6.18			
	Completing tasks	50	3.99			
	Monitoring	50	4.89			
	Evaluating	50	2.02			
	Managing my own learning	50	3.10			

*Significant at the $p = .05$ level

The Friedman test of differences is conducted among the components of the action-oriented dimension (planning , choosing materials and strategies, completing tasks, monitoring, evaluating, and managing my own learning) and the value of Chi-Square test (**291.826**) at the degree of freedom is statistically significant at (**$p= 0.000 < 0.05$**). Accordingly, it can be argued that introducing the treatment has significantly increased the performance levels of the EG on this dimension. Consequently, the null hypothesis (**H₀**) with regard to the fact that there is no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the action-oriented dimension is **rejected**.

For the cognitive/metacognitive and social dimensions, no Friedman tests are performed since these two dimensions consist of one component each. The Wilcoxon test performed previously indicates significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the EG on the cognitive/metacognitive dimension and social dimension respectively. Accordingly, the introduction of the treatment had a positive effect on the four dimensions of autonomy (Cognitive/Metacognitive, Affective/Motivational, Action-oriented and Social) which are suggested by Tassinari (2010).

5.1.3 Analysis of Post-Experimental Data

In order to cross validate the results from the quantitative data, learners' voice has to be considered. Therefore, an analysis for the satisfactory scale and post-reflection surveys of learners is to be provided in this section.

5.1.3.1 Analysis of Satisfaction Scale

Table 50. Satisfaction Scale Results

N	Items	Median	Percentage	Response
1	Tutorials are easy to follow	4	80 %	Agree
2	Tutoring was helpful in enhancing my learning	4	80 %	Agree
3	I enjoyed developing my autonomous learning through tutoring	4	80 %	Agree
4	I am satisfied with tutoring	4	80 %	Agree
	Total Degrees	4	80%	Agree

In table 50, results of students' satisfaction with participation in the experiment show that the majority of students (80%) agree with the four items of the scale with a median of 4 for each item.

5.1.3.2 Analysis of Post-Reflection Survey

Following the principles of document analysis, the researcher analyses the reflections of the participants in the EG after completing the treatment. Accordingly, three recurring codes emerged and are demonstrated in table 51:

Table 51: Analysis of Post-Reflections of EG

Codes	Themes	Labels
Autonomous learning	Development of the cognitive and metacognitive skills	Development of cognitive knowledge Development of learning' awareness
	Development of the affective and motivational skills	The ability to motivate and re-motivate oneself when learning Controlling negative feelings and turn them into positive ones
	Development in the action-oriented skills	Planning a task or learning to achieve a goal Planning time and place for learning Choosing appropriate materials and strategies to deal with a task effectively. Completing a task effectively Monitoring and correcting learning Evaluating the learning process Making right decisions about learning
	Development in the social skills	Cooperating with others while learning
The positive effects of the SBI tutoring course	The positive effects on the affective sphere	Participants' enjoyment of the tutoring course Participants' satisfaction with the tutoring course Participants' positive attitudes towards EFL learning Participants' feeling of being assisted Participants' feeling of self-discovery Participants' development of positive optimistic vision of future learning situations
The permanent effects of the SBI tutoring course	Developing successful language learning	Dealing successfully with any learning task Revising effectively for exams Becoming a more organized effective learner
	Developing life-long learning	Development of autonomous features in other fields of life Development of continuous learning

5.2 Data Interpretation

In this section, the interpretation of the findings is provided to ensure the homogeneity of the EG and CG prior to the treatment, to establish the effectiveness of the SBI tutoring course on the participants' language learning autonomy and to elicit the attitudes of students in EG towards the treatment.

5.2.1 Interpretation of the Homogeneity of Research Sample

Homogeneity of the EG and CG is to be established on two levels: personal and individual differences. From the analysis of demographic information, it is confirmed that the EG (**n=25**) and CG (**n=26**) are homogeneous in terms of number, age and gender distribution of their members. Both groups' participants are within the age range of **18 to 21** years old with predominance of females **N (19)** in each group.

With respect to participants' individual differences, five tests are provided and analysed. To start with, the students' performance on the placement test is similar indicating the language level (pre-intermediate) of the EG and CG to be statistically alike. The results of the learning style test reveal similar distributions of the three main learning styles (visual, auditory and kinaesthetic) between the EG and CG with the dominance of kinaesthetic and verbal styles in both groups. Another similarity is detected for the learning strategy use between the EG and CG with similar moderate levels of use. Furthermore, the majority of participants in the EG and CG show a moderate level on the learning anxiety test, with only one participant in the EG showing a high degree of anxiety. For the learning motivation test, the results reveal that all participants in the EG and CG show a moderate or high level of learning motivation. Consequently, the Chi Square test confirms the non-existence of any significant differences between the EG and CG in relation to the personal/demographic and individual differences of the participants. Besides, the pre-test

results indicate a similar low level of LA of the EG and CG prior to the implementation of the experiment.

All these findings are congruent with Lodico et al.'s (2006) and Cohen et al.'s (2007) emphasis on the importance of establishing a certain degree of homogeneity between the EG and CG in the quasi-experimental design to increase its internal validity.

5.2.2 Interpretation of Results Concerning the Effectiveness of Strategy-based Instruction Tutoring Course in Enhancing Learning Autonomy

The main purpose of conducting this research is to investigate the effect of incorporating an SBI tutoring course on language LA of first year undergraduate EFL learners at Mohammed Lamine Debagine-Setif2 University. Consequently, the findings from the experiment reveal a significant difference between the LA level of the EG in comparison to the CG in favour of the former after incorporating the SBI tutoring course.

The interventional tutoring course indicates similar results from previously introduced courses meant to promote LA. The findings of this research are consistent with the majority of strategy-based instruction and tutoring research (Cohen Kulik & Kulik, 1982; Powell, 1997; Cohen, 2000; Cotteral, 2000; Chi et al, 2001; Nakatani, 2005; Huang & Ma, 2007; Gu, 2007; Garvillidou & Papins, 2009; Mizumoto & Takeushi, 2009; Almassaad & Alotaibi, 2012; Bragangolo, 2012; Medina, 2012; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Chan, 2014; Khademi, Mellati & Etela, 2014; Liu, 2015; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015; Wang, 2016; Course, 2017) as they all result in positive effect on language learning. More specifically, the results of the current research further validate the empirical findings of the studies (Cohen Kulik & Kulik, 1982; Kalkowski, 1995; Cotteral, 2000; Hedge, 2000; Huang & Ma, 2007; Gu, 2007;

Garvillidou & Papins, 2009; Mizumoto & Takeushi, 2009; Mclachlan & Hagger, 2010; Nguyen & Gu, 2013; Liu, 2015; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015; Wang, 2016; Course, 2017) in which positive effects of SBI on LA are accentuated.

In the light of the results after the completion of the experiment, the development of participants' LA is in terms of ten components, which are classified into four major dimensions of learning autonomy as follows:

1) Cognitive and Metacognitive Dimension (Structuring Knowledge)

Results about learners' development in this area go hand in hand with findings of Liu (2015), in which the "use of cognitive strategies turned out to contribute the most to the prediction of learner autonomy, followed by the use of metacognitive strategies" (p.31). In the same line, Little (2007) claims that the development of learner autonomy necessitates learner critical reflection, which in turn requires the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning. Additionally, Naktani (2005) argues that the degree of target language learning is highly affected by learners' awareness of their own learning. Similarly, Turan et al (2009) assert that metacognitive skills and awareness of planning, monitoring and evaluating are among the most important skills to achieve LA. Accordingly, participants in the current research demonstrate enhancement in their cognitive and metacognitive strategy use which is an indicator of developing autonomous learning as a result of the strategy-based intervention.

2) Affective and Emotional Dimension (Motivating Myself, Dealing with my Feelings)

The development of learners' use of affective and emotional strategies confirms the results of previous studies (Cohen, Kulik & Kulik (1982); Cohen, 2000; Kawachi, 2006; Huang & Ma, 2007; Medina, 2012; Sarafianou & Garvillidou, 2015), in which SBI results in positive effect on learners' affective level and motivation. Participants in these studies show higher levels of self-confidence, motivation and positive attitudes towards the subject matter and towards learning in general. Similarly, findings of this research show a significant improvement in participants' use of strategies related to motivating themselves, discussing their feelings, and controlling their negative feelings and turning them into positive ones. In this respect, Zimmerman (1989) claims that "students can be described as self-regulated learners if they are able to manage their own learning actively using motivational abilities" (p. 4). On the other hand, Chamot and Rubin (1994), report that "the good language learner cannot be described in terms of a single set of strategies but rather through the ability to understand and develop a personal set of affective strategies"(p.372). The interventional SBI tutoring course of the current research introduces and familiarizes learners with the affective strategies, which are not encouraged within our examination educational system.

3) Action-oriented Dimension (Choosing Materials and strategies, Completing Tasks, Planning, Monitoring, Evaluating and Managing my Learning)

Participants in the current research demonstrate a significant enhancement in the action-oriented component of LA. This finding is congruent with Little's (2007) claim that in order for learners to develop autonomously, they need to take more initiatives when learning. Similarly, Dörnyei (2003) agrees that “autonomous learners are those who apply learning strategies with ‘their own free will’ to learn more effectively” (p.16). Accordingly, learner involvement in learning activities and tasks is an essential indicator of developing autonomous language learning. In the current research, the SBI tutoring course proves its effectiveness in engaging participants in learning through introducing them to a wide range of action-oriented strategies, which help them take charge of and be involved in the process of learning.

4) Social Dimension (Cooperating)

Learners' improvement in this area validates the results from the study of Sarafianou & Garvillidou (2015), in which the participants demonstrate the highest gains in the use of social strategies such as ‘asking questions and cooperating with others’. In the current research, the interventional SBI tutoring course encouraged learners to use more social strategies, which are not much prompted within our exam-orientated educational system. This finding entails that knowing when and how to cooperate with others is crucial for autonomous learning. However, this result disagrees with teachers and learners' misconceptions of autonomous learning as a form of self-instruction, which should not be accomplished with the help of a teacher.

5.2.3 Interpretation of Post-Experimental Results

5.2.3.1 Satisfaction Scale

The results from the satisfaction scale indicate participants' positive attitudes towards the SBI tutoring course. Similar results are explored by studies of Almassaad, & Alotaibi (2012), Khademi, Mellati & Etela (2014) and Wang (2016), in which positive attitudes are expressed towards using SBI tutoring courses. In this respect, Powell (2007) claims that "the educational research literature on tutoring programmes generally, reported definite and positive effects on ... attitudes of students who received tutoring" (p.21). On the other hand, findings of Kalkowski's (1995) and Hedge's (2000) studies reveal that tutoring help learners develop positive attitudes towards the tutor, their classmate and school in general. Consequently, learners express more positive attitudes towards the subject matter and learning as a result of their positive attitudes towards the tutor and the tutoring course offered. In the current research, all participants reveal positive attitudes towards the SBI tutoring course. They express satisfaction towards the usefulness of the course in developing their learning independence, which is perceived as an enjoyable experience.

5.2.3.2 Post-Reflection Survey

According to the reflections of participants of the EG, three main codes emerged: 'autonomous learning', 'the positive effects of the SBI tutoring course', and 'the permanent effects of the SBI tutoring course'. Accordingly, various themes are established in relation to each code, and each theme has been labelled differently by the participants. On the one hand, the frequently recurring code, in all learners' reflections, is associated with the improvement of their autonomous learning, which is displayed in four major themes.

First, the development of the participants' cognitive and metacognitive skills, which is illustrated in the following quotations:

Participant 8 says: "I developed my level and realized a huge background and rich knowledge. First, I learned how to make clear vision about my goal and how to achieve it".

Participant 27 adds: "this system [tutoring].... gave me information and vision about learning and how to control it".

Second, the development of students' affective and motivational skills, which is manifested as follows:

Participant 16 states: "During the first tutoring session at the beginning of the year, I was so disappointed because I never imagined that I would study English. However, I could later motivate myself and change the negative thoughts I had thanks to the tutoring programme".

Participant 15 claims: "I have learned how I can motivate myself by using some positive statements.....and how I can deal with my feelings by lowering anxiety".

Third, the development of participants' action oriented skills, which is exemplified in the following quotations:

Participant 12 admits: "I'm able now to make the right decisions [about learning]".

Participant 1 says: "I learnt how I can make a good plan to learn".

Participant 26 added: "I have learned how to complete a task by setting place and time".

Participant 2 reports: "Tutoring helped me to know how to start a task correctly using the right materials and strategies".

Participant 22 adds: "I can finally evaluate and monitor my learning process and correct my own mistakes".

Last, the development of the learners' social skills, which is manifested as follows:

Participant 25 claims: "I became adapted to cooperating because I was against this idea but now I find that cooperating is an opportunity to correct mistakes and exchange information".

Participant 22 states: "I also learned to cooperate with others, share thoughts and ask for advice"

Participant 2 concludes: "cooperating was very helpful, especially for me, because it was very hard for me to work with others or when should I work with them, but now I know how to do that".

These findings cross validate the results from the analysis of the quantitative data of the pre-test and post-test, which indicate the positive effect of the SBI tutoring course in developing learners' LA. This development is manifested according to the four LA dimensions namely cognitive/metacognitive, action oriented, motivational/affective and social as suggested by Tassinari (2010).

On the other hand, another frequently recurring code is 'the positive effects of the SBI tutoring course' which entails positive effects on the affective sphere of the participants. This is illustrated by the following quotes:

Participant 4 says: "I really enjoyed the tutorials and they [assisted] me a lot in my tasks".

Participant 7 adds: "those tutorial sessions.... [helped] me see my future in a very positive way [and to be] so optimistic about achieving my goals".

Participant 2 admits: "I used to hate English.... but now, I think it is a good language and I want to learn it".

Participant 27 claims: “[Tutoring] was an amazing experience that made me discover myself and what I can do”.

Participant 8, expressing his satisfaction with the SBI tutoring course, says: “If I have the chance, I am ready to repeat it [tutoring course] from the first session until the end”.

Finally, the last recurring code is in terms of ‘the permanent effect of the tutoring course’ on the participants’ learning, which has two themes: developing successful language learning and developing life-long learning.

The first theme of “developing successful language learning” is expressed in the following quotes:

Participant 5 claims: “now I can deal with any task”.

Participant 2 states: “during the revision [for my exams], I used what I learnt in these tutorials and it really helped me”

Participant 3 says: “my study became so easy [because] I organized it”.

Participant 10 adds: “I see that a university student should study them [tutorials] at the beginning of his first year in order to succeed in his studying career”.

The second theme of “developing life-long learning” is labelled by the following participants:

Participant 1 admits: “I learned a lot of things about learning not just in the domain of study, but in life in general”.

Participant 7 says: “those tutorials.... made a new person of me”

Participant 12 adds: “these tutorials changed me to a better person, to an independent learner. I feel more confident, [freer], [and] more intelligent”

Participant 8 concludes: “the benefits of this experience encouraged me to [deal] with any problem in my daily life and motivate me to carry on and complete any task

or activity.... I feel that I have the power to face anything. This experience built my personality.... and directed me to the right path after I was lost at the beginning”.

These findings are endorsed by tutoring and successful lifelong learning. Karpinska-Musial & Dziedziczak-Foltyn, (2014) state that “Tutoring ...[is] for those individuals... who are ready to face an intellectual challenge, and who want to continue their personal development instead of only getting a diploma” (p. 6057). Therefore, tutoring helps to integrate lifelong learning strategies into learners’ repertoires, which is considered as the ultimate goal of fostering LA (Holec’s, 1981). This finding is in accordance with the policies of the European Higher Education Area introduced in the LMD system.

Interestingly, five participants reveal that they face difficulty with monitoring and evaluating. The following quotes are for illustration:

Participant 15 says: “I have a problem with monitoring because it is very difficult”

Participant 2 adds: “Two tutorials that I had some difficulties to deal with which are monitoring and evaluating, because sometimes I cannot know what is wrong with my strategies whether I need to change them or even change all the plan”.

Participant 3 states: “I don’t like monitoring and I never use it”.

Participant 26 claims: “and the [most difficult] thing I have learnt is how to evaluate my learning independently”.

Participant 29 says: “There are two strategies I did not understand which are monitoring and evaluating”.

The problems faced by participants in terms of monitoring and evaluating are similar to findings of Huang & Ma (2007) and Nguyen & Gu (2013). Those problems can be justified by Alvarez’s (2010) claim that the process of monitoring stops working due

to students' failure to choose the right strategies to be applied to specific language tasks and the misunderstanding of the task requirements, which might lead to confusion when completing a learning task. On the other hand, it is not easy to acquire the strategies of self-evaluating because they are at the end of the task with a risk of insufficient time and a threat of comparing one's level to other learners' levels.

Finally, participants mention the positive effect of using diaries, which help them reflect on their learning process as expressed by the following participants:

Participant 2 says: "I used the diary to talk about my learning experiences and to deal with tasks.... This helped me to think [about] and evaluate my learning.

Participant 22 admits: "The diary helped me express my feelings about learning and to write my ideas and procedures of learning".

Participant 5 adds: "when I use the diary, I feel like talking to myself about my feelings, learning strategies and problems..... the diary was very beneficial for practicing the strategies".

This finding is similar to that of Course (2017), through which she claims: "the diaries were vital in increasing reflection... [and] prompted the students to regularly use metacognitive strategies... diaries helped create a systematic framework encouraging the learners to practice metacognitive and meta-affective strategies" (p.136). On the other hand, this result confirms Oxford (2000, p.122) claim about the implications of strategy training in that students should be instructed on how to identify and analyze their preferred learning strategies by means of diaries, learning journals, interviews and surveys. In this study, encouraging participants to use diaries is essential to provoke their reflection and awareness of learning process, which in turn provide a suitable environment to practice autonomous learning strategies outside the classroom.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

In order to answer the first research question, the quantitative data from the analysis of participants' performances on the pre-test and post-test are to be discussed. These quantitative results are to be cross-validated by the qualitative findings of the post-reflection surveys, which in turn, provide an answer to the second research question.

According to the quantitative findings of the current research which entail: 1) the existence of no statistical significant difference between the EG and CG in terms of the initial levels of LA prior to the experiment; and 2) the existence of a statistical significant difference between the EG and CG (in favour of the EG) in terms of their level of LA after taking the SBI tutoring course; the alternative hypothesis H1, which predicts the existence of significant differences in levels of LA between the EG and CG, is *supported*. Consequently, the current research indicates that introducing an SBI tutoring course can help learners' to a great extent develop their LA, which answers the first research question.

On the other hand, to answer the second research question and cross-validate the results of the first research question, the findings of the satisfaction scale and the post-reflection survey are to be discussed. First, the analysis of the satisfaction scale reveals that the majority of the participants from the EG show positive attitudes towards the SBI tutoring course, which means that participants react positively to the experiment. Second, the data gathered from the EG participants' post-reflections further validate and confirm the enhancement of their language LA through developing its four major dimensions: cognitive/metacognitive, affective/motivational, action-oriented, and social. Additionally, the results entails learners' positive attitudes towards the role of the SBI tutoring course in promoting

their LA, which is expressed through a range of benefits such as the positive impact on the affective sphere and the development of successful language learning and lifelong learning.

Overall, the explicit SBI training course provided proves its effectiveness in enhancing LA, which is manifested through strategic skills in language learning. This makes the relationship between autonomy and strategy use reciprocal as stated by Little (1997): “If the pursuit of autonomy requires that we focus explicitly on the strategic component of language learning and use, the reverse should also be the case: focus on strategies lead us to learner autonomy” (p.2). In the present research, the SBI tutoring course can promote the level of learners’ autonomy, which is measured by learners’ ability to use a number of strategic components for language learning. On the other hand, the CALLA framework developed by Chamot et al (1999) seems to be efficient for the current experiment. First, to explicitly, rather than implicitly, instruct learners on strategy use in order to promote their LA leads to a gradual shift of responsibility from the tutor to the learners. This might be explained due to the designed lesson plans with direct and clear presentation and application of the strategy use. Second, the integration of the strategy instruction into language learning activities and the practice with the main language skills might contribute greatly to the effectiveness of the SBI tutoring course. Learners are effectively learning the strategic component of learning within contexts then applying the learned strategies in different learning situations.

Furthermore, designing the SBI tutoring course systematically based on the strategies presented in the Dynamic Model of Learning Autonomy (Tassinari, 2010) seems to prove that LA is teachable, which agrees with Holec’s (1981) view that LA is mostly acquired within a structured and systematic process. Moreover, raising

learners' awareness of the effectiveness of the use of LA strategies results in activating learners' metacognitive skills to manage the whole learning process. This can be explained through the fact that "SBI helps learners to become more aware of available strategies, understand how to organize and use them systematically and efficiently and to learn when and how to transfer strategies to new learning contexts" (Khademi, Mellati & Etela, 2014, p.357). This might entail that LA is internal to the learner (White, 1995) and the job of the tutor is to trigger its development through tutoring in the form of strategy training. Finally, providing learners with diaries helps them practice the target metacognitive strategies outside the classroom as an extended space for developing independent learning.

5.4 Pedagogical Implications & Recommendations

This research provides evidence that introducing an SBI tutoring course can be significantly effective in developing first year undergraduate learners' LA. The findings of the current research hold a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations for researchers, teachers, learners, administrators and decision makers. The following are some major pedagogical recommendations about the effectiveness of the SBI tutoring in enhancing EFL learning autonomy within the LMD system in the Algerian context.

For researchers in the domain of SBI and LA, the use of SBI tutoring course based on CALLA model seems to be effective for the promotion of learners' LA within the LMD system. The course helps fostering the cognitive/metacognitive, action-oriented, affective/motivational and social aspects of LA. Besides, learners reveal positive attitudes towards its role of this pedagogical accompaniment in enhancing their autonomous learning as a first step towards successful life-long learning. These findings give support for and against some universal claims of SBI

tutoring contribution to language LA and serve as a reference to be agreed or disagreed upon in future research.

The main implication for teachers lies in raising their awareness of their crucial role in enhancing LA. Teachers are required to correct their misconceptions of LA as a form of self-instruction, and take responsibility for helping learners to develop autonomous learning. Teachers are invited to implement the principles of learner-centred approach, which informs the suggested SBI tutoring course in order to step away from the teacher-centred EFL classrooms. This research provides a range of practical ideas, information, strategies and carefully designed activities for teachers who are eager to help learners take more responsibility for their learning. Furthermore, providing a separate tutoring course of strategy use to learners would be more beneficial when teachers of different subjects provide their learners with learning opportunities and designed activities to practice the strategies with the different language skills and systems to expand the provision of independent learning. Additionally, teachers are invited to use the SBI presented within the CALLA model to enrich their background knowledge of SBI tutoring and as a reference when participating as tutors if any tutoring course is programmed. In this regard, teachers should be introduced to different approaches of SBI for promoting LA, and trained on how to implement them into a tutoring course. Moreover, teachers can improve their instruction through developing expertise in implementing SBI tutoring principles suggested within the tutoring intervention.

The implications of the current study's findings for EFL learners seem to be of great benefit. First, the results of the present research might correct learners' misconception about LA as a form of self-instruction and raise their awareness of the importance of LA in higher education. Second, first year undergraduate learners

would be more aware of the effectiveness of tutoring courses and develop readiness and motivation to attend regularly the tutoring sessions if programmed in the future. Third, the findings would motivate and assist learners of all levels to make use of the suggested strategies of LA with all language skills and systems, and to deal with different language tasks and activities. This entails learners' gradual development as independent language learners inside and outside the classroom. This implication reflects the major tenets of LMD system, with its emphasis on targeting LA as the prerequisite of a successful generation in order to avoid the shortcomings of the classical system

For decision makers and administrators, the empirically established effectiveness of the intervention on LA seems to encourage the consideration of the suggested SBI tutoring course when designing a national course for tutors. This implication seeks to facilitate the process of tutoring, with its ultimate aim of triggering lifelong learning, which is a major tenet inside the LMD system. In addition to that, the positive effect of the SBI tutoring course is a clear invitation for decision makers to set clear regulations about the compulsoriness of programming tutoring courses in all the Algerian universities departments including the department of English at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine- Setif 2 University. Furthermore, the SBI tutoring course seems to fit the objectives of the Study Skills subject, which is meant for first year undergraduate LMD students. Therefore, the suggested course might be used as a syllabus for that subject until an actual running of tutoring is established.

Moreover, the possibility of developing LA over 11 weeks of instruction suggests that policy makers and administrators incorporate a short SBI course at first year learners' timetables at the beginning of the academic year in an attempt to

integrate them into the new EFL university setting and help them gain learning independence. This can be a temporary solution until an actual activation of tutoring is set at the Algerian universities with no pedagogical accompaniment programs. Finally, for universities with tutoring programs, the appended SBI tutoring course can be considered as a guiding document for teachers to cover the pedagogical, methodological and psychological roles of a tutor within the LMD system as assigned by the Ministry of Higher Education in its Executive Decree N° 09.03 (January, 2009).

5.5 Limitations & Suggestions for Further Research

In the field of human social sciences, it is not possible for research to be flawless. The following limitations of the current research provide useful suggestions and directions for further research.

Random selection of the sample could not be possible due to the learners' different schedules and the administrative constraints on assigning students randomly to extra groups. Despite the fact that the researcher tried to take a number of measures to control the confounding variables, the non-random selection of the sample eliminated the possibility of conducting a true experiment and might have negatively affected the external validity of the findings. Therefore, future researchers are invited to replicate the study following a true experimental design with other population samples in order to establish external validity.

The time allocated for conducting the whole experiment is 14 weeks (one semester), which makes the study cross-sectional. However, “developing learner autonomy is a slow and long-term process that requires considerable practice” (Lui, 2015.p31). Therefore, a longitudinal pre-test/post-test study might provide an in depth

insight and more comprehensive explanations for the effect of the SBI tutoring course on LA.

The researcher delivered the treatment, herself, for it is difficult to convince and train another teacher to conduct the experiment. This limitation might affect the findings of this research. Therefore, future researchers are invited to replicate the current study with trained tutors to eliminate the effect of the researchers' involvement in delivering the intervention.

Within the LMD system, tutoring is meant to develop LA with no specific relation to a language skill or system. Therefore, this SBI tutoring intervention is designed to instruct learners on a number of strategies for autonomous learning which are applicable to different language skills and systems. However, for further confirmation of the results of the current research, future research might investigate the effect of the SBI tutoring course on learners' autonomy in relation to a specific language skill (writing, listening, speaking and reading) or system (grammar and vocabulary).

Another limitation is related to the first section of the pre-/post-test, which consists of only four items. This makes it difficult to quantitatively measure the effect of the intervention on developing the "motivating myself strategies" component. Accordingly, future researchers are requested to modify the first section of the pre-/post-test to include more items for an accurate measurement of that component.

Additionally, future research should experiment with other types of strategy training approaches (awareness training, general training on study skills and techniques, peer tutoring, language counselling) and compare the results with the findings of the current research in order to design an eclectic SBI tutoring course for the promotion of LA. Furthermore, researchers are invited to make use other models

(Murase, 2010; Dixon, 2011; Cooker, 2012) to design a pre-/post test to measure LA level among learners. On the other hand, it is highly suggested that future research replicates the current research using learning diaries and think-aloud protocols as the main source of data or as a cross-validating tool for other quantitative instruments. In addition, in-depth semi structured interviews with teachers and classroom observations during tutoring sessions, if programmed, should be used as cross-validating instruments.

Moreover, similar research can be conducted taking into consideration the effect of individual differences (age, gender, learning styles, learning motivation and learning anxiety) on the development of LA. Finally, it is highly suggested to conduct a comparative study of the effect of the SBI tutoring course on LA of learners from different departments (Arabic, French and English) in order to reach some universal principles for designing a unified tutoring course for the faculty of letters and languages at Mohammed Lamaine Debaghine-Setif 2 University.

Conclusion

In summary, this chapter presents the heart of the current research. The empirical analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings are provided to suggest a solution to the research problem. Based on the research findings and variables, a number of pedagogical implications for researchers, teachers, learners and decision makers are also presented along with the encountered limitations of the study and corresponding suggestions for further research.



General Conclusion

General Conclusion

Within the LMD system, tutoring is proposed as a pedagogical accompaniment for developing LA, which is misconceived as a form of self-instruction by teachers and students. The purpose of this research is to investigate the role of a tutoring course in enhancing English language LA as a reaction to the current research problem about first year undergraduate learners' low level of LA.

This problem is approached from the perspective of investigating the role of an SBI tutoring course in promoting LA among a sample of 51 first year undergraduate English students at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine-Sétif 2 University. The study seeks to provide answers to two main research questions about the extent to which the integration of an SBI tutoring course would enhance students LA, and learners' attitudes towards the role of the tutoring course in enhancing their autonomous learning. To this end, the research is conducted through three main phases.

First, the pre-experimental phase is conducted to ensure the homogeneity of the research sample with a number of tests for individual differences being administered to participants of the EG (**n=25**) and CG (**n=26**). The tests administered are Pearson placement test, learning style test, learning strategy use test, learning anxiety test, and learning motivation test, respectively. Second, a quasi-experimental pre-test/ post-test non-equal group design (NEGD) is conducted to examine the effect of the interventional course on increasing LA. Following the CALLA Model (Chamot et al.1999), ten lesson plans are integrated into an explicit SBI tutoring course design adopting strategies from the Dynamic Model of Learning Autonomy (Tassinari, 2010). The designed course is presented as a treatment for the EG over a period of 11 weeks, with 3 hours each. Data about the EG and CG participants' LA level are gathered using an adapted pre-post-test from the Learning Autonomy Checklist of

Tassinari (2010). Third, the post-experimental phase in which a satisfaction scale and a post-reflection survey are used to gather information about the attitudes of the EG participants about the role of the intervention in enhancing their autonomous learning. The quantitative and qualitative data are analysed using SPSS .22 software (2014) and document analysis, respectively.

Findings from the first phase reveal the homogeneity of the research sample prior to introducing the intervention. The results of the experimental phase demonstrate valuable insights about the relationship between the SBI tutoring and LA, with a significant improvement in EG participants' LA which is detected after accomplishing the SBI tutoring course. The development of learners' autonomy is manifested in the four LA dimensions: cognitive/metacognitive, affective/motivational, action-oriented, and social as suggested by Tassinari (2012). The post-experimental phase results entail learners' positive attitudes towards the SBI tutoring as a course meant to develop their autonomy. Positive effects on learners' affective sphere, language learning and life-long learning are revealed as an additional impact of the tutoring course.

Based on these findings, it is pedagogically implied that teachers, learners and policy makers should consider the importance of tutoring as an important component of the LMD system to enhance learners' autonomy. Moreover, policy makers are recommended to consider the SBI tutoring course proposed in this research when designing a tutoring course as a pedagogical accompaniment for EFL learners inside the LMD system. Finally, this study would be a basis for further true experimental studies to investigate the effect of the SBI tutoring course on learners' autonomy in relation to a specific language skill (writing, listening, speaking, and reading) or system (grammar, vocabulary).



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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix A

Request for Permission to Conduct Research

السيدة: ستوسي مدلحة
أستاذ مساعد قسم أ.
السيد: رئيس قسم اللغة
والأدب الإنجليزي
جامعة محمد لمين دباعين

الموضوع: طلب إجراء دراسة ميدانية

يشرفني أن أتقدم إلى سيادتكم بهذا الطلب والمتمثل في الموافقة على إجراء دراسة ميدانية مع طلبة السنة الأولى ليسانس مع ضرورة تكريس أحد الأقسام للمشاركة في الدراسة التجريبية وذلك استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراه، وأحيطكم علماً أن هذا الطلب بموافقة الأساتذة المشرفين نوال عبد اللطيف. فقبلوا فائق التقدير والاحترام

! مضاء المعني

عن

رئيس قسم اللغة والأدب الإنجليزي
الأستاذ: كوسية توفيق

Avis Favorable



! مضاء المشرف

Dr. Hameur

Dr et approuvée

Dr - Hameur Abdelaziz Mami

Appendix B

Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

TITLE OF STUDY

Tutoring to Enhance English Language Learning Autonomy inside the LMD System.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR

Department of English Language and Literature

Name: Senouci Madiha

Email: madiha_senouci@yahoo.fr

Phone number: 0658025481

INTRODUCTION

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study I am conducting as part of my PhD degree in the Department of English Language and literature at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University under the supervision of Pr. Naouel Mami Abdellatif.

I would like to provide you with some information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you decide to take part.

Please read the following information carefully.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of a tutoring course on enhancing language learning autonomy.

STUDY PROCEDURES

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things.

First you will sit for tests in order to evaluate your level as regards your language competence, learning style, leaning strategy use, learning anxiety and learning motivation. Second you will be given a test for learning autonomy, after weeks you

will be re-tested to see whether there are any improvements or changes in your learning autonomy.

Probably this treatment will last at least 10 weeks, twice per week. In addition to the tests (pre-test, and post-test).

BENEFITS

Your participation may provide me with a better understanding of the topic and help me in my research study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your responses to this research study will be anonymous. And participant data will be kept confidential.

Please do not write any identifying information on your test papers. For the purposes of this research study, your comments will be anonymous. Every effort will be made by the researcher to preserve your confidentiality by assuring the following:

- Assigning code numbers for participants that will be used on all research notes and documents.
- Keeping notes and any other identifying participant information in the personal possession of the researcher.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions at any time about this study, or you experience adverse effects as the result of participating in this study, or even you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact the researcher whose contact information is provided on the first page.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this study. If you decide to take part in this study, you will be asked to sign a consent form. After you sign the consent form, you are still free to withdraw at



any time and without giving a reason. Withdrawing from this study will not affect the relationship you have, if any, with the researcher. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be returned to you or destroyed.

CONSENT


I have read and I understood the provided information and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and without cost. I understand that I will be given a copy of this consent form. I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

Participant's signature _____ Date _____

Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

Appendix C

Letter of Consent to Adapt the Pre-/Post Test

Freie Universität  Berlin

ZE Sprachenzentrum

Freie Universität Berlin, ZE Sprachenzentrum
Habelschwerdter Allee 45, 14195 Berlin

Madiha Senouci

Department of English Language & Literature

University of Mohammed Lamine Debaghine

University- Setif 2- Algeria

Dr. Maria Giovanna Tassinari

Habelschwerdter Allee 45

14195 Berlin

Berlin, 1.09.2017

Telefon +49 30 83853079

Fax +49 30 83855671

E-Mail giovanna.tassinari@fu-berlin.de

Internet

Consent to use the Dynamic Model for Autonomy for research purposes

Dear Madiha Senouci,

With the present letter I confirm you the consent to use and/or adapt the Dynamic Model for Autonomy as well as the descriptors as a pre- and post-test for your research.

I will be pleased to read the results of your research and wish you all the best for your doctoral project.

Best regards



Dr. Maria Giovanna Tassinari

ZE Sprachenzentrum

Selbstlernzentrum



Appendix D

Focus Group Discussion Schedule with Students

Introduction

Dear respondents, My name is Senouci Madiha. I am a PhD student of English at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University, Sétif 2. I am conducting a research for my PhD dissertation. As you are directly involved in the current research, your opinions are highly appreciated. Besides, bear in mind that your names are to be held anonymous and confidential.

Discussion Schedule

- 1)** How do you understand the term independent learning?
- 2)** Have you ever had an experience of independent learning?
- 3)** Do you believe that you are independent language learners? If no, what are the reasons that hinder you from becoming independent?
- 4)** During your first year at university, did your teachers instruct you on how to learn independently?
- 5)** Provided that your teachers instructed you some strategies or techniques of how to learn independently, do you think that this would be worth the efforts? Why?
- 6)** How about devoting regular extra sessions each week to instruct you on how to become independent language learners?

Thank you very much!



Appendix E

Pearson Placement Test

Choose the best option and mark **A, B, C** or **D** as in the example 0.

0 A horse has got legs.

A for **B** fore **C** fort **D** four

1 We tennis at five o'clock every Thursday.

A playing **B** are playing **C** play **D** plays

2 Last year I to Costa Rica.

A go **B** am going **C** have gone **D** went

3 Where Paul work now?

A do **B** is **C** does **D** have

4 Cats.... to eat fish.

A like **B** are liking **C** likes **D** is liking

5 Did you see Susan yesterday? – *No, I* .

A haven't **B** hadn't **C** don't **D** didn't

6 There's a cinema in the town centre.... there?

A isn't **B** hasn't **C** wasn't **D** doesn't

7 Look! The cat on your bed.

A sleeps **B** is sleeping **C** sleep **D** sleeping

8 It's Sunday so I get up early.

A haven't to **B** didn't had **C** hadn't to

D don't have to

9 Does Marcus earn money?

A many **B** lots **C** the **D** a lot of

10 Have you ever to Bangkok?

A go **B** been **C** went **D** gone

11 If the weather is good, I the children to the park.

A took **B** taken **C** take **D** have taken

12 any students from Hungary in my class.

A It isn't **B** There isn't **C** It hasn't

D There aren't

13 In the future, everyone a computer in their car.

A is having **B** has **C** having **D** will have

14 It's late. Let's go home.

A along **B** through **C** back **D** down

15 Helena to Paris last year.

A went **B** has gone **C** goes **D** did go

16 This is the film I've ever seen.

A worse **B** most bad **C** bad **D** worst

17 When the party?

A have you left **B** do you left **C** did you left

D did you leave

18 Dad can't come to the phone because he the dinner.

A will cook **B** is cooking **C** cooks **D** cooked

19 Terry drives too fast, he?

A isn't **B** doesn't **C** won't **D** don't

20 happened to your car? It's scratched!

A Which **B** Who **C** What **D** Why

21 If you ice, it melts.

A will heat **B** heated **C** heats **D** heat

22 He needs new printer. He should buy one soon.

A some **B** the **C** a **D** an

23 I in ghosts.

A am not believe **B** don't believing **C** aren't

believe **D** don't believe

24 Only students in my class wear glasses.

A a little **B** a lot **C** a few **D** any

25 The train has probably left

A yet **B** already **C** still **D** just

26 There is at home. I've been ringing all day.

A no one **B** everyone **C** someone **D** anyone

27 I thought the book was very

A excitement **B** exciting **C** excited **D** excite

28 Dolphins are more intelligent chimpanzees.

A as **B** from **C** than **D** to

29 The dentist told me my teeth after every meal.

A to clean **B** clean **C** cleaning **D** cleaned

30 Mercedes a new car. It's called the Smart car.

A had built **B** have built **C** build **D** building

31 I haven't seen John 2001.

A for **B** since **C** until **D** before

32 I think your letter is on my desk.

A anywhere **B** everywhere **C** nowhere

D somewhere

33 I tried the trainers but they didn't fit me.

A on **B** in **C** into **D** for

34 from Italy?

A Does you come **B** Am you come

C Do you come **D** Are you come

35 Everyone to learn a musical instrument.

A should **B** can **C** must **D** ought

36 Where can I get information about the sports

centre?

A any **B** an **C** a **D** some

37 The hotel by a large fire.

A is destroyed **B** destroy **C** was destroyed

D destroys



38 The dog is hungry. She something to eat.

A must B has to C can D needs

39 Is that car over there?

A they B their C them D there

40 Paulo is Brazilian, ?

A is he B isn't he C does he D doesn't he

41 Ouch! I.... my finger!

A 'm just cutting B had just cut C 'll just cut

D 've just cut

42 What's ?

A your hotel name B your hotel's name

C name your hotel D the name of your hotel

43 The manager will see you Tuesday morning.

A in B on C at D during

44 Next year, I.... seventeen.

A 'll be B 'm being C be D can be

45 Nicky a film when the fire started.

A was watching B is watching C watches
D will watch

46 'Have you ever seen an eclipse?' – 'No, I :

A didn't B don't C hadn't D haven't

47 Nathan is very selfish. He never thinks about
.... people.

A every B any C other D some

48 The Mona Lisa by Leonardo da Vinci.

A paint B painted C is painted D was painted

49 I'm sorry. Peter isn't here. He out.

A goes B has gone C will go D is going

50 help you to carry your suitcase?

A Shall he B Shall they C Shall I D Shall you

51 a lot of rain in Colombia.

A It's B There are C Is D There is

52 Diana hasn't got money.

A any B some C no D many

53 I need milk for my coffee.

A some B any C a D an

54 Look! The cat is in the tree. We should it.

A help B helping C to help D will help

55 Who your car?

A stole B to steal C stolen D steals

56 If you me with my homework, I'll buy you
a burger.

A helped B will help C help D helping

57 Alan his dog for three walks a day.

A is taking B takes C take D taking

58 Soon cars use petrol. They'll all be electric.

A don't B can't haven't C aren't D won't

59 Simon looked at me and

A laugh B laughs C laughed D to laugh

60 He's the best football player in the school.
is as good as him.

A No one B Nothing C Anyone D Everyone

61 What to do?

A are you want B is you want C do you want

D does you want

62 Are these books?

A yours B you C yourself D your

63 talking, please!

A Stopping B Stop C To stop D Stopped

64 What is the mammal in the world?

A big B bigger C biggest D most big

65 Can you see people over there? They're
dancing.

A them B these C those D that

66 I your jacket is in the sitting room.

A think B thought C am thinking D will think

67 a lot of people on this train.

A There is B It is C There are D They are

68 My brother can cook very , can't he?

A best B well C good D better

69 Do you clean your bedroom at home?

A have to B ought to C must D need

70 Is this the boy bike you found?

A who B whose C that D which

71 When finish?

A did you B you C have you D are you

72 Usually Sue cycles to college but today she

.A walking B walks C is walking D walk

73 The sign says no parking. You park here.

A must B mustn't C don't need to D should

74 Write soon and give me all your

A information B stories C news D facts

75 What are you doing Sunday afternoon?

A in B at C to D on

76 Could you pass me my diary? It's the desk.

A at B on C from D to

77 Everybody says that Rio de Janeiro is very

A beauty B beautifully C beautiful

D more beautiful

78 Excuse , can I order a cheeseburger, please?

A you B I C it D me

79 these shoes in size 37, please?

A Are you got B Have you got C Do you got

D You got

80 My friend is coming to stay with me two
weeks in the summer.

A since B until C for D during

[Total 80 marks]



Answer Sheet

Number

0	A	B	C	D
1	A	B	C	D
2	A	B	C	D
3	A	B	C	D
4	A	B	C	D
5	A	B	C	D
6	A	B	C	D
7	A	B	C	D
8	A	B	C	D
9	A	B	C	D
10	A	B	C	D
11	A	B	C	D
12	A	B	C	D
13	A	B	C	D
14	A	B	C	D
15	A	B	C	D
16	A	B	C	D
17	A	B	C	D
18	A	B	C	D
19	A	B	C	D
20	A	B	C	D
21	A	B	C	D
22	A	B	C	D
23	A	B	C	D
24	A	B	C	D
25	A	B	C	D
26	A	B	C	D
27	A	B	C	D
28	A	B	C	D
29	A	B	C	D
30	A	B	C	D

Score _____/30

31	A	B	C	D
32	A	B	C	D
33	A	B	C	D
34	A	B	C	D
35	A	B	C	D
36	A	B	C	D
37	A	B	C	D
38	A	B	C	D
39	A	B	C	D
40	A	B	C	D
41	A	B	C	D
42	A	B	C	D
43	A	B	C	D
44	A	B	C	D
45	A	B	C	D
46	A	B	C	D
47	A	B	C	D
48	A	B	C	D
49	A	B	C	D
50	A	B	C	D
51	A	B	C	D
52	A	B	C	D
53	A	B	C	D
54	A	B	C	D
55	A	B	C	D
56	A	B	C	D
57	A	B	C	D
58	A	B	C	D
59	A	B	C	D
60	A	B	C	D

Score _____/30

61	A	B	C	D
62	A	B	C	D
63	A	B	C	D
64	A	B	C	D
65	A	B	C	D
66	A	B	C	D
67	A	B	C	D
68	A	B	C	D
69	A	B	C	D
70	A	B	C	D
71	A	B	C	D
72	A	B	C	D
73	A	B	C	D
74	A	B	C	D
75	A	B	C	D
76	A	B	C	D
77	A	B	C	D
78	A	B	C	D
79	A	B	C	D
80	A	B	C	D

Score _____/20

Total _____/80

Answer Key

0	A	B	C	D
1			C	
2				D
3			C	
4	A			
5				D
6	A			
7		B		
8				D
9				D
10		B		
11			C	
12				D
13				D
14			C	
15	A			
16				D
17				D
18		B		
19		B		
20			C	
21				D
22			C	
23				D
24			C	
25		B		
26	A			
27		B		
28			C	
29	A			
30		B		

Score _____/30

31		B		
32				D
33	A			
34			C	
35				D
36				D
37			C	
38				D
39		B		
40		B		
41				D
42				D
43		B		
44	A			
45	A			
46				D
47			C	
48				D
49		B		
50			C	
51				D
52	A			
53	A			
54	A			
55	A			
56			C	
57		B		
58				D
59			C	
60	A			

Score _____/30

61			C	
62				D
63		B		
64			C	
65			C	
66	A			
67			C	
68		B		
69	A			
70		B		
71	A			
72			C	
73		B		
74			C	
75				D
76		B		
77			C	
78				D
79		B		
80			C	

Score _____/20

Total _____/80



Appendix F

Self-Scoring Learning Styles Modality Preference Inventory

Number:

For each Learning Preference Modality read all the ten corresponding statements then select the appropriate number response as it applies to you using the scale provided below.

	Often (3)	Sometimes (2)	Seldom/Never (1)	Score
Visual Modality	1. I remember information better if I write it down.			
	2. Looking at the person helps keep me focused.			
	3. I need a quiet place to get my work done.			
	4. When I take a test, I can see the textbook page in my head.			
	5. I need to write down directions, not just take them verbally.			
	6. Music or background noise distracts my attention from the task at hand.			
	7. I don't always get the meaning of a joke.			
	8. I doodle and draw pictures on the margins of my notebook pages.			
	9. I have trouble following lectures.			
	10. I react very strongly to colors.			
				Total
Auditory Modality	1. My papers and notebooks always seem messy.			
	2. When I read, I need to use my index finger to track my place on the line.			
	3. I do not follow written directions well.			
	4. If I hear something, I will remember it.			
	5. Writing has always been difficult for me.			
	6. I often misread words from the text (i.e., "them" for "then").			
	7. I would rather listen and learn than read and learn.			
	8. I am not very good at interpreting and individual's body language.			
	9. Pages with small print or poor quality copies are difficult for me to read.			
	10. My eyes tire quickly, even though my vision check-up is always fine.			
				Total
Kinesthetic Tactile Modality	1. I start a project before reading the directions.			
	2. I hate to sit at a desk for long periods of time.			
	3. I prefer first to see something done and then to do it myself.			
	4. I use the trial and error approach to problem-solving.			
	5. I like to read my textbook while riding an exercise bike.			
	6. I take frequent study breaks.			
	7. I have a difficult time giving step-by-step instructions.			
	8. I enjoy sports and do well at several different types of sports.			
	9. I use my hands when describing things.			
	10. I have to rewrite or type my class notes to reinforce the material.			
				Total

Appendix G

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Number: Answer in terms of *how well the statement describes YOU*. Do not answer how you think you *should* be, or what *other* people do. *There are no right or wrong answers to these statements:*

N°	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
01	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
02	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
03	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.					
04	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used					
05	I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
06	I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
07	I physically act out new English words.					
08	I review English lessons often.					
09	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					
10	I say or write new English words several times.					
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12	I practice the sounds of English.					
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.					
14	I start conversations in English.					
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16	I read for pleasure in English.					
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.					
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20	I try to find patterns in English.					
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27	I read English without looking up every new word.					
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					

N°	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.					
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38	I think about my progress in learning English.					
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43	I write down my feelings in a language-learning diary.					
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47	I practice English with other students.					
48	I ask for help from English speakers.					
49	I ask questions in English.					
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

Appendix H

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Number: Instruction: Statements (1) through (33) describe how you feel about learning English. Please read each statement carefully, give your first reaction to each statement, and mark an answer for every statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.					
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.					
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.					
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.					
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.					
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.					
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.					
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.					
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.					
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.					
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.					
12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.					
14. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.					
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.					
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.					

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
17. I often feel like not going to my English class.					
18. I feel confident when I speak in English class.					
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.					
21. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.					
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.					
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.					
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.					
25. The English class moves so quickly I worry about being left behind.					
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.					
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.					
28. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.					
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.					
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.					
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.					
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.					
33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.					

Appendix I

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

Number:..... Please rate the following items based on your behavior when learning English. Your rating should be on a 7- point scale where **1= not at all true of me** to **7=very true of me**.

N°	Statement	Rating
01	In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things.	
02	If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course.	
03	When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students.	
04	I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.	
05	I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.	
06	I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for this course	
07	Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now.	
08	When I take a test I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer	
09	It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course.	
10	It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.	
11	The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade.	
12	I'm confident I can learn the basic concepts taught in this course.	
13	If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students.	
14	When I take tests I think of the consequences of failing.	
15	I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course	
16	In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn.	
17	I am very interested in the content area of this course.	
18	If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material.	
19	I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.	
20	I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.	
21	I expect to do well in this class.	
22	The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as thoroughly as possible.	
23	I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.	
24	When I have the opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even if they don't guarantee a good grade.	
25	If I don't understand the course material, it is because I didn't try hard enough.	
26	I like the subject matter of this course.	
27	Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.	
28	I feel my heart beating fast when I take an exam.	
29	I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this class.	
30	I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends, employer, or others.	
31	Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this class.	

Appendix J

Descriptive Statistics of the EG and CG Group

N	Group	Gender	Age	PT	LST	LSUT	LAT	LMT
1	EG	Female	18	64	V	3.82	88	4.32
2	EG	Female	18	70	K	3.88	83	4.69
3	EG	Female	18	66	K	3.56	94	4.46
4	EG	Female	18	68	V	3.00	100	4.25
5	EG	Female	18	68	A	3.72	103	4.97
6	EG	Female	18	66	V	3.34	108	4.80
7	EG	Female	18	70	V	3.76	104	5.25
8	EG	Female	18	71	K	3.92	119	5.46
9	EG	Female	18	59	V	3.04	115	5.25
10	EG	Female	18	72	V	4.24	93	5.91
11	EG	Female	18	63	A	3.12	96	5.47
12	EG	Female	18	61	V	3.40	118	5.75
13	EG	Female	18	27	A	3.50	100	5.58
14	EG	Female	18	59	K	3.42	104	4.67
15	EG	Female	18	58	V	2.84	107	5.69
16	EG	Female	18	59	K	3.64	93	4.89
17	EG	Female	18	44	K	3.58	100	5.36
18	EG	Female	19	42	K	2.98	115	4.91
19	EG	Female	19	57	K	3.18	118	5.08
20	EG	Male	19	72	V	3.90	110	5.15
21	EG	Male	19	41	A	2.82	98	4.91
22	EG	Male	19	66	V	3.84	90	5.09
23	EG	Male	19	55	A	3.46	120	5.08
24	EG	Male	19	60	K	3.58	96	5.25
25	EG	Male	20	69	K	2.98	90	4.58
26	CG	Male	18	66	A	2.62	100	5.36
27	CG	Female	18	63	A	3.16	114	5.91
28	CG	Female	18	78	K	1.54	94	4.91
29	CG	Female	18	58	K	3.00	96	5.47
30	CG	Female	18	66	V	3.82	115	5.75
31	CG	Female	18	70	K	3.60	100	3.13
32	CG	Female	18	70	K	4.20	97	5.75
33	CG	Female	18	50	A	3.04	111	5.13
34	CG	Female	18	69	K	2.96	89	5.75
35	CG	Female	18	58	K	2.70	104	4.82
36	CG	Female	18	70	K	3.34	94	4.82
37	CG	Female	18	55	K	4.00	92	5.59
38	CG	Female	18	55	V	3.86	106	6.58
39	CG	Female	18	72	V	4.08	146	5.48
40	CG	Female	18	58	V	4.32	126	5.18
41	CG	Female	19	56	V	3.87	111	5.51
42	CG	Female	19	69	A	3.78	99	5.11
43	CG	Female	19	71	K	2.68	86	5.53
44	CG	Female	19	72	A	2.80	102	3.93
45	CG	Female	19	65	V	3.88	105	4.05
46	CG	Male	19	67	V	3.60	95	5.37
47	CG	Male	19	69	V	3.34	85	5.60
48	CG	Male	19	40	V	3.40	105	4.68
49	CG	Male	19	23	V	2.98	86	5.40
50	CG	Male	20	65	K	3.64	115	5.23
51	CG	Male	20	56	K	3.46	132	4.89



PT = Placement Test

LST = Learning Styles Test

LSUT = Learning Strategy Use Test

LAT = Learning Anxiety Test

LMT = Learning Motivation Test

Appendix K

Pilot Testing of the Pre-/ Post Test to the Experts

My name is Madiha Senouci. I am a PhD student at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University, Sétif, Algeria. I am conducting a research for my PhD dissertation, and it will be highly questionable if the experts' words are not accounted for. Thereby, I am asking you to enlighten this work with your due insights.

The Research's Title: "Tutoring to Enhance English Language Learning Autonomy inside the LMD System: Case of First Year Students at Setif 2 University-Algeria"

The Test's Objective -This test is adapted from Tassinari (2010) and aims at measuring students' language learning autonomy at 10 components as proposed by the dynamic modal: Motivating myself, dealing with my feelings, planning, choosing materials and strategies, completing a task, monitoring, evaluating, cooperating, managing my own learning, and structuring knowledge.

Elements to Look at:

- The language of the test: Does it match the target population level (pre-intermediate)?
- The number of the statements.
- The difficulty/easiness of the statements.
- The potential vocabulary difficulties.
- Time allocation: Within an hour and a half time span
- Scoring fashion (1-5 point Likert scale).

Thank you for your collaboration



A Checklist of Autonomous Learning

Please, put a (✓) where appropriate.

1. Motivating myself

To motivate oneself is an important skill in autonomous (independent) learning. This includes motivating oneself at the beginning of the learning process, but also re-motivating oneself when the initial motivation **wears thin**.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.1	I want to organize my own learning autonomously (independently).					
1.2	I can motivate myself in a way that works for me.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.2.1	I am aware of my motivation for learning and can reflect on this.					
1.2.2	I can motivate myself to learn (for example, by choosing materials that interest me, by learning together with others, by rewarding myself when I succeed).					
1.2.3	I can re-motivate myself when I notice that my initial motivation is decreasing.					
1.2.4	<p><u>Think about things that really motivate you to learn then complete the following sentence:</u></p> <p><u>I can motivate myself to learn by:</u></p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>					

2 Dealing with my feelings

Feelings play an important role in autonomous (independent) learning. That is why it is important to recognize feelings that occur when learning and to process these in order to organize learning effectively.

2.1	I can control my feelings when I am learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2.1.1	I am aware of my feelings when learning and can reflect on them.					
2.1.2	I can recognize particular feelings that spur me on when I'm learning (for example, the feeling of satisfaction that comes from success).					
2.1.3	I can recognize that certain feelings can prevent me from (effectively) completing a task (for example, boredom, fear of speaking in front of others, or emotional blocks).					
2.1.4	I can control negative feelings when I am learning and can sometimes turn them into something positive.					
2.1.5	I can motivate myself to speak the language I am learning, even when I am nervous about it or worried about making mistakes.					
2.1.6	I can talk about my feelings when necessary (for example, with a student or with a learning advisor).					

3. Planning

Planning is a key part of autonomous (**independent**) learning: to recognize one's own needs, to formulate these into realistic learning objectives, and to structure these into steps and create a learning plan. To plan, one has to be flexible enough to change the learning plan if one's situation or needs should change.

3.1	I can evaluate my own language level.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.1.1	I can evaluate my starting level:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor					
	○ with the help of checklists (for example with those of the European language portfolios)					

3.2	I can analyze my own needs.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.2.1	I can identify my needs (why I want to learn)					
	o on my own					
	o together with others					
	o with a learning advisor.					
	o with the help of checklists or learning tips					
3.2.2	I can prioritize my learning needs.					

3.3	I can set myself goals.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.3.1	I can set myself goals (what I want to learn, for example, I want to be able to start a conversation, keep it going and finish it):					
	o on my own					
	o together with others					
	o with a learning advisor.					
	o with the help of checklists or learning tips.					
3.3.2	I can set myself goals while taking into consideration:					
	o my needs					
	o my language level					
	o the conditions I have to work within (for example, the time available).					
3.3.3	I can prioritize my goals.					

3.4	I can plan a time and place for my learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.4.1	I can plan where I want to learn (for example, at home, in the library, in the learning center etc.).					
3.4.2	I can structure my time in order to have enough time for language learning to achieve my goals.					

3.5	I know what I need to complete a task or to achieve a goal (for example the level, steps of a task and language materials).	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.5.1	When I have a task to complete I can recognize:					
	○ the goal of the task (for example with a listening comprehension, the goal is understanding the main information)					
	○ whether I need to learn something to complete the task (for example, if I need to revise the past forms in order to talk about past events)					
	○ which language materials I need to complete a task (for example, a dictionary, or a grammar book)					
	○ whether the task is easy or difficult for me.					
3.5.1	With reference to my language level, I can recognize which steps I need to take and which materials I need to use to achieve my goals. For example, to prepare for an interview I recognize that I need to:					
	○ learn specific vocabulary and expressions					
	○ revise specific grammatical forms					
	○ work on certain pronunciation aspects					
	○ work with certain worksheets or authentic materials					
	○ prepare for the interview structure					
	○ practice listening and interacting.					
3.5.2	<p><u>Please complete the table below with one of your goals. Use the example above as a guide.</u></p> <p><u>With reference to my language competencies I can recognize which steps I need to take and materials I need to use to achieve my goal of:</u></p> <p>:-</p> <p>:-</p> <p>:-</p> <p>:-</p> <p>:-</p>					

3.6	I can put together a learning plan.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.6.1	I can put together a learning plan in order to achieve my goal:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of a checklist, model or form					
3.6.2	I can put together a learning plan with reference to :					
	○ long-term goal (for example, writing a personal letter)					
	○ interim goals, where necessary (for example, learning salutations and closing phrases)					
	○ concrete steps of a task (for example, a reading task, a vocabulary exercise, a written task)					
	○ learning materials					
	○ the conditions I have to work within (for example, the time available)					
	○ my learning style					
	○ the form of evaluation (for example, evaluating the letter by my teacher).					
3.6.3	I can put together a learning plan in order to achieve my goal:					
	○ for a task					
	○ for a series of tasks (for example, a presentation in the foreign language)					
	○ for a project (for example, to prepare a brochure about my university or to prepare a report).					
	○ for an entire programme of learning.					
3.6.4	After I have started learning, I can revise my learning plan.					

4. Choosing materials and strategies

Choosing materials and strategies: A key element of autonomous (independent) language learning is choosing and working with suitable learning materials and strategies. **These competencies are required and developed bit by bit.**

4.1	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.1.1	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning, for example:					
	<input type="radio"/> textbooks (coursebooks, workbooks ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> reference works (dictionaries, grammar books ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> authentic materials (films, newspaper articles, songs ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> interactive CD-ROMs					
	<input type="radio"/> websites					
	<input type="radio"/> <u>Tandem (language exchange partner)</u>					
	<input type="radio"/> native speakers					
	<input type="radio"/> learning advisors					
	<input type="radio"/> <u>Others (please specify):.....</u> <u>.....</u>					

4.2	I can choose materials.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.2.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose materials :					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor.					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of learning tips					
4.2.2	I can choose materials to help me achieve my goal taking into consideration:					
	<input type="radio"/> my language <u>competence</u>					
	<input type="radio"/> my learning style.					
4.2.3	I can choose authentic materials, for example, films, different text types, radio and television programmes to help me achieve my goal taking into consideration:					
	<input type="radio"/> my language <u>competence</u>					
	<input type="radio"/> my learning style.					
4.2.4	I can choose materials to help me achieve my goal:					
	<input type="radio"/> for a task					
	<input type="radio"/> for a series of tasks (for example, a presentation in the foreign language)					
	<input type="radio"/> for a project (for example, to prepare a brochure about my university or to prepare a report)					
	<input type="radio"/> for an entire programme of learning.					

4.3	I am familiar with a variety of language learning strategies.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.3.1	I am familiar with different language learning strategies, for example					
	○ completing grammar exercises					
	○ asking questions in order to get explanations					
	○ analyzing structures and sentences in order to deduce grammar rules					
	○ looking something up in a dictionary					
	○ searching the internet for words and expressions					
	○ preparing before speaking					
	○ speaking in the foreign language					
	○ reading in the foreign language					
	○ completing simulations in the foreign language					
	○ summarizing something in the foreign language					
	○ translating from the foreign language					
	○ repetition words or sentences					
	○ <u>Others</u> (please specify)					

4.4	I can choose strategies.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.4.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose strategies:					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor.					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of learning tips					
4.4.2	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose strategies suited to:					
	<input type="radio"/> the selected material (for example, listening and repeating tasks with a listening text)					
	<input type="radio"/> the task (for example, when completing a reading comprehension, predicting the meaning of new words from the context)					
	<input type="radio"/> my learning style (for example, preparing a table of grammar rules if I am a visual learner).					
4.5	I can try out new strategies.					
4.5.1	I can try out new and unfamiliar strategies (for example, new methods to learn vocabulary or new exercises to improve my listening skills):					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor.					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of learning tips					

5. Completing tasks

Part of **completing tasks** consists of equipping the place of study with the necessary language materials. Other important aspects include organizing time to learn, completing individual or multiple tasks, and employing appropriate **methods and strategies**.

5.1	I can organize my time and space for learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.1.1	I can set up my workspace to optimize learning (for example, equipped by learning materials and references).					
5.1.2	I can manage my learning time effectively (for example, by setting a sensible time limit for a particular task).					

5.2	I can set myself a task.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.2.1	I can choose a task that I already know in order to achieve my goal.					
5.2.2	I can choose an unknown task in order to achieve my goal (for example, a task that was recommended to me).					
5.2.3	I can change an existing task to achieve my goal. For example, instead of writing down answers to questions in a listening comprehension task, I can give an oral summary.					

5.3	I can structure my learning independently.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.3.1	I can work alone (for example, to complete a given task).					
5.3.2	I can complete individual tasks that I set myself.					
5.3.3	I can complete tasks that I have set myself even in more difficult phases (for example, if they are not as enjoyable as I had hoped, or if they are difficult).					
5.3.4	I can complete several connected tasks in order to achieve my goal. For example, to prepare for an interview I can :					
	o learn specific vocabulary and expressions					
	o revise specific grammatical forms.					
	o work on certain pronunciation aspects.					
	o work with certain worksheets or authentic materials					
	o prepare for the interview structure					
	o practice listening and interacting.					
5.3.5	I can realize a project (for example, prepare a project about my university or prepare a report).					

5.4	I can use a variety of materials for language learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.4.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can use materials:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of learning tips					
5.4.2	In order to achieve my goal, I can use learning materials (for example, a textbook) bearing in mind					
	○ my language level					
	○ my learning style.					
5.4.3	In order to achieve my goal, I can use authentic materials (for example, analyze a newspaper article in order to learn the form of indirect speech).					
5.4.4	In order to achieve my goal, I can use learning materials:					
	○ for a single task					
	○ for a series of tasks with regard to my goal (for example, to give a presentation in the foreign language)					
	○ for a project (for example, to prepare a brochure about my university or to prepare a report)					
	○ for an entire program of learning.					

5.5	I can employ a variety of language learning <u>methods and</u> strategies in order to achieve my goal.					
5.5.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can employ different learning methods and strategies					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with the help of learning tips					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
5.6	I can carry out my learning plan.					
5.6.1	I can carry out my learning plan (making changes where necessary) in order to achieve my goal.					
<u>5.7</u>	<u>I can analyse elements of the foreign language to detect regularities, irregularities and recurring patterns.</u>					
<u>5.7.1</u>	<u>I can analyse structures and patterns in the foreign language and draw conclusions from my observations about the structure</u>					

	<u>and use of the language (for example, I observe how the plural is formed, or the past tense forms are used).</u>					
<u>6.7.2</u>	<u>I can analyse individual aspects of the foreign language and compare them with my first language or other languages I know (for example, I can compare grammatical structures, vocabulary, sentence structure and text structure).</u>					
<u>5.8</u>	<u>I can analyse texts, conversations and other communication in the foreign language and recognize specific (cultural) aspects of the communication.</u>					
<u>5.8.1</u>	<u>I can analyse a communication in the foreign language and compare it with a corresponding situation in my first language in order to recognize culturally specific similarities and differences (for example, how to address someone politely, or how to end a conversation politely).</u>					

6. Monitoring

Monitoring means reflecting on topics, tasks, the learning process, and thinking about oneself as a learner. This enables one to identify one's own learning strengths and weaknesses and to structure one's learning accordingly.

6.1	I can recognise my strengths and weaknesses as a learner and reflect on these.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1.1	I can recognise my own learning style (for example, whether I am a visual or auditory learner, whether I am a perfectionist or a risk taker) and/or reflect on this.					
6.1.2	I can recognise my learning strategies (for example, whether I am a deductive thinker, associate words, can see the global picture) and/or reflect on this					
6.1.3	I am aware of my motivation for learning and/or can reflect on this.					
6.1.4	I am aware of my feelings when learning and/or can reflect on them					
6.2	I can recognise what prevents me from completing a task.					
6.2.1	I can recognise when a language deficit prevents me from completing					

	a task (<u>for example, I can't tell someone about my degree course because I am lacking appropriate vocabulary.</u>)					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.2.2	I can recognise whether I have chosen the right steps to complete a task (for example whether I should take notes while reading a text in order to produce a short summary).					
6.2.3	I can recognise whether certain feelings hinder me from (effectively) completing a task (for example, boredom, fear of speaking in front of others, or emotional blocks).					
6.3	I can reflect on materials and resources which I have used.					
6.3.1	I can reflect on materials and resources I have used, in particular					
	o Whether they are suited to the task					
	o whether they are suited to my goal					
	o whether they are suited to my learning style					
6.4	I can reflect on <u>methods and strategies which I have employed.</u>					
6.4.1	I am aware of which methods and strategies I apply when learning.					
6.4.2	I can reflect on the methods and strategies I have employed, in particular					
	o whether they are suited to the task					
	o whether they are suited to my goal					
	o whether they are suited to my learning style					
6.5	I can reflect on my learning.					
6.5.1	I can monitor and/or reflect on my learning (for example, by keeping a learning log).					
6.5.2	I can recognise when I need to discuss something with a learning advisor.					
6.5.3	I can regularly check my learning progress, in particular					
	o whether I have chosen a suitable goal for my language <u>competencies</u> and my needs					
	o whether the materials <u>and resources</u> I am using are appropriate to my goal					
	o whether the tasks are suited to my					

	goal and my learning style					
	○ whether the methods and strategies I use are suited to the goal, to the tasks and to my learning style					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	○ whether my learning plan is suited to my language competencies , my goal, the given conditions (for example, the time available), and my learning style					
	○ whether I can stick to my learning plan.					

7. Evaluating

Evaluating is at the core of the autonomous learning process. This term includes the evaluation of learning progress (i.e. what have I learnt?) and of the learning process itself (i.e. how have I learnt?). Evaluating one's own progress and one's own language competencies is the hardest part of autonomous language learning. **It requires practice and normally exchange with other learners, native speakers, learning advisors and teachers.**

7.1	<u>I can evaluate my own language competencies.</u>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.1.1	After I have started learning, I can check my initial evaluation of my starting level on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with the help of checklists (<u>for example with those of the European language portfolio</u>)					
	○ with a learning advisor					
	○ with a test.					
7.1.2	I can evaluate my progress on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with the help of checklists (<u>for example with those of the European language portfolio</u>)					
	○ with a learning advisor					
	○ with a test.					
7.2	<u>I can evaluate materials and resources for language learning.</u>					
	I can evaluate the materials and resources I have used, in particular I can state					
	○ whether they are suited to the specific task					
	○ whether they are suited to my goal					
	○ whether they are suited to my learning style.					

7.3	I can evaluate language learning <u>methods and strategies</u>.					
7.3.1	I can evaluate the methods and strategies I used, in particular I can state					
	o whether they are suited to the specific Task					
	o whether they are suited to my goal					
	o whether they are suited to my learning style.					
7.4	I can evaluate my learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.4.1	I can evaluate my learning and in particular I can state					
	o whether I have achieved my goal					
	o whether I have chosen a suitable goal for my language competencies and needs					
	o whether the materials and resources I have used are appropriate to my goal					
	o whether the tasks are suited to my goal and my learning style					
	o whether the methods and strategies I have used are suited to the goal, to the tasks and to my learning style					
	o whether my learning plan is suited to my language competencies , my goal, to the conditions (for example, the time available) and to my learning style					
	o whether I have been able to stick to my learning plan.					
7.4.2	I can evaluate my learning					
	o on my own					
	o together with others					
	o with the help of a checklist					
	o with a learning advisor					

8. Cooperating

Cooperating is the social and interactive dimension of autonomous language learning. One can learn together with others – complete tasks, speak and discuss, realise a project – but one can also plan and reflect on the individual steps of one’s own learning process.

8.1	I can learn from and with others (for example, other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers, and competent non-native speakers).	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1.1	<u>When I hear something in the foreign language I can focus my attention on aspects which interest me particularly (for example, accent, intonation, vocabulary and expressions, or the structure of the text).</u>					
8.1.2	When I don’t understand something I can					

	ask my interlocutor to speak more slowly, to repeat something or to explain something.					
8.1.3	I can ask native speakers and competent non-native speakers or other learners to help me (for example, with a formulation or to correct a text).					
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1.4	I can practice the language with native speakers, competent non-native speakers, or other learners.					
8.1.5	I can learn by taking part in or observing a communicaton.					
8.1.6	I can work with a partner or in a group.					
8.1.7	When I work together with others I can					
	o listen to the others (for example, in order to understand their stance)					
	o express my stance					
	o compare my stance with the others'					
	o where applicable, modify my stance to reach a group decision.					
8.2	I can decide when I want to learn with others – for example, other students, teachers, learning advisors, competent non-native speakers – in order to structure my learning better.					
8.2.1	I can decide whether it is better for me to complete a task with others, rather than on my own.					
8.2.2	I can decide whether I want to work with a native speaker to achieve my goal (for example, with a tandem partner).					
8.2.3	I can recognise when I need to discuss something with a learning advisor					
8.2.4	I can talk about my feelings when necessary (for example, with a fellow student or with an advisor).					
8.2.5	I can decide which steps of the learning process I want to carry out with others (for example, planning, choosing materials and methods, completing tasks, monitoring, evaluating).					

9. Managing my own learning

Managing my own learning is a superordinate area, which connects all aspects of the learning process and summarises important steps and phases of autonomous learning **from the other areas.**

9.1	I can structure my learning independently.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
9.1.1	I can structure my learning and in particular:					
	○ set goals					
	○ set a time and place for learning					
	○ choose materials and resources					
	○ apply methods and strategies					
	○ carry out learning					
	○ monitor my learning					
	○ evaluate my learning.					
9.1.2	When I have a task to complete I can					
	○ plan my work (for example, set a goal, set a time and place, choose materials and resources, choose methods and strategies, and plan the steps of the task)					
	○ complete the task					
	○ monitor my learning (for example, during or after the task, check my performance and the use of materials and methods)					
	○ evaluate my learning (for example, during or after the task, evaluate my performance, the use of materials and language tools and strategies).					

10. Structuring Knowledge

Structuring knowledge is an area, which plays a role in all autonomous (independent) learning phases and activities. It is about having an idea about all the necessary elements of autonomous learning.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
10.1	I can evaluate my own language level.					
10.2	I can analyze my own needs.					
10.3	I can set myself goals.					
10.4	I can plan a time and place for my learning					
10.5	I know what I need to complete a task or to achieve a goal (for example the level, steps of a task and language materials).					
10.6	I can put together a learning plan.					
10.7	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning.					
10.8	I can choose materials.					
10.9	I can try out new materials					
10.10	I am familiar with a variety of language learning strategies.					
10.11	I can choose different strategies.					
10.12	I can try out new strategies.					
10.13	I can organize a time and place for my learning					
10.14	I can set myself a task.					
10.15	I can structure my learning independently.					
10.16	I can use a variety of materials when learning.					
10.17	I can employ a variety of strategies when learning.					
10.18	I can carry out my learning plan.					
10.19	I can recognize my strengths and weaknesses as a learner and reflect on these.					
10.20	I can recognize what prevents me from completing a task.					
10.21	I can reflect on materials, which I have used.					
10.22	I can reflect on strategies, which I have employed.					
10.23	I can reflect on my learning.					
10.24	I can evaluate language-learning materials.					
10.25	I can evaluate language-learning strategies.					
10.26	I can evaluate my learning.					
10.27	I can learn with and from others (for example, other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers and competent non-native speakers).					
10.28	I can decide when I want to cooperate with others (for example, with other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers and competent non- native speakers) in order to structure my learning better.					



Appendix L

Final Version of the Pre/Post-Test

Number: Age: Gender

A Checklist of Autonomous Learning

Please, put a (√) where appropriate.

1. Motivating Myself

To motivate oneself is an important skill in autonomous (independent) learning. This includes motivating oneself at the beginning of the learning process, but also re-motivating oneself when the initial motivation decreases.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.1	I want to organize my own learning autonomously (independently).					
1.2	I can motivate myself in a way that works for me.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.2.1	I am aware of my motivation for learning and can reflect on this.					
1.2.2	I can motivate myself to learn (for example, by choosing materials that interest me, by learning together with others, by rewarding myself when I succeed).					
1.2.3	I can re-motivate myself when I notice that my initial motivation is decreasing.					

2. Dealing with my Feelings

Feelings play an important role in autonomous (independent) learning. That is why it is important to recognize feelings that occur when learning and to process these in order to organize learning effectively.

2.1	I can control my feelings when I am learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2.1.1	I am aware of my feelings when learning and can reflect on them.					
2.1.2	I can recognize particular feelings when I'm learning (for example, the feeling of satisfaction that comes from success).					
2.1.3	I can recognize that certain feelings can prevent me from (effectively) completing a task (for example, boredom, fear of speaking in front of others, or emotional blocks).					
2.1.4	I can control negative feelings when I am learning and can sometimes turn them into something positive.					
2.1.5	I can motivate myself to speak the language I am learning, even when I am nervous about it or worried about making mistakes.					
2.1.6	I can talk about my feelings when necessary (for example, with a student or with a learning advisor).					

3. Planning

Planning is a key part of autonomous (independent) learning: to recognize one's own needs, to formulate these into realistic learning objectives, and to structure these into steps and create a learning plan. To plan, one has to be flexible enough to change the learning plan if one's situation or needs should change.

3.1	I can evaluate my own language level.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.1.1	I can evaluate my starting level:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor					
	○ with the help of checklists or tests					

3.2	I can analyze my own needs.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.2.1	I can identify my needs (why I want to learn)					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of checklists or learning tips					
3.2.2	I can prioritize my learning needs.					

3.3	I can set myself goals.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.3.1	I can set myself goals (what I want to learn, for example, I want to be able to start a conversation, keep it going and finish it):					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of checklists or learning tips.					
3.3.2	I can set myself goals while taking into consideration:					
	○ my needs					
	○ my language level					
	○ the conditions I have to work within (for example, the time available).					
3.3.3	I can prioritize my goals.					

3.4	I can plan a time and place for my learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.4.1	I can plan where I want to learn (for example, at home, in the library, in the learning center etc.).					
3.4.2	I can structure my time in order to have enough time for language learning to achieve my goals.					

3.5	I know what I need to complete a task or to achieve a goal (for example the level, steps of a task and language materials).	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.5.1	When I have a task to complete I can recognize:					
	○ the goal of the task (for example with a listening comprehension, the goal is understanding the main information)					
	○ whether I need to learn something to complete the task (for example, if I need to revise the past forms in order to talk about past events)					
	○ which language materials I need to complete a task (for example, a dictionary, or a grammar book)					
	○ whether the task is easy or difficult for me.					
3.5.1	With reference to my language level, I can recognize which steps I need to take and which materials I need to use to achieve my goals. For example, to prepare for an interview I recognize that I need to:					
	○ learn specific vocabulary and expressions					
	○ revise specific grammatical forms					
	○ work on certain pronunciation aspects					
	○ work with certain worksheets or authentic materials					
	○ prepare for the interview structure					
	○ practice listening and interacting.					

3.6	I can put together a learning plan.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.6.1	I can put together a learning plan in order to achieve my goal:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of a checklist, model or form					
3.6.2	I can put together a learning plan with reference to :					
	○ long-term goal (for example, writing a personal letter)					
	○ short-term goals, where necessary (for example, learning salutations and closing phrases)					
	○ concrete steps of a task (for example, a reading task, a vocabulary exercise, a written task)					
	○ learning materials					
	○ the conditions I have to work within (for example, the time available)					
	○ my learning style					
	○ the form of evaluation (for example, evaluating the letter by my teacher).					
3.6.3	I can put together a learning plan in order to achieve my goal:					
	○ for a task					
	○ for a series of tasks (for example, a presentation in the foreign language)					
	○ for a project (for example, to prepare a report about university).					
	○ for an entire programme of learning.					
3.6.4	After I have started learning, I can revise my learning plan.					

4. Choosing Materials and Strategies

Choosing materials and strategies: A key element of autonomous (independent) language learning is choosing and working with suitable learning materials and strategies.

4.1	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.1.1	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning, for example:					
	<input type="radio"/> textbooks (coursebooks, workbooks ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> reference works (dictionaries, grammar books ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> authentic materials (films, newspaper articles, songs ...)					
	<input type="radio"/> interactive CD-ROMs					
	<input type="radio"/> websites					
	<input type="radio"/> native speakers					
	<input type="radio"/> learning advisors					

4.2	I can choose materials.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.2.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose materials :					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor.					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of learning tips					
4.2.2	I can choose materials to help me achieve my goal taking into consideration:					
	<input type="radio"/> my language level					
	<input type="radio"/> my learning style.					
4.2.3	I can choose authentic materials, for example, films, different text types, radio and television programmes to help me achieve my goal taking into consideration:					
	<input type="radio"/> my language level					
	<input type="radio"/> my learning style.					
4.2.4	I can choose materials to help me achieve my goal:					
	<input type="radio"/> for a task					
	<input type="radio"/> for a series of tasks (for example, a presentation in the foreign language)					
	<input type="radio"/> for a project (for example, to prepare a report about university)					
	<input type="radio"/> for an entire programme of learning.					

4.3	I am familiar with a variety of language learning strategies.	Agree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.3.1	I am familiar with different language learning strategies, for example					
	o completing grammar exercises					
	o asking questions in order to get explanations					
	o analyzing structures and sentences in order to deduce grammar rules					
	o looking something up in a dictionary					
	o searching the internet for words and expressions					
	o preparing before speaking					
	o speaking in the foreign language					
	o reading in the foreign language					
	o completing simulations in the foreign language					
	o summarizing something in the foreign language					
	o translating from the foreign language					
	o repetition words or sentences					

4.4	I can choose strategies.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.4.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose strategies:					
	o on my own					
	o together with others					
	o with a learning advisor.					
	o with the help of learning tips					
4.4.2	In order to achieve my goal, I can choose strategies suited to:					
	o the selected material (for example, listening and repeating tasks with a listening text)					
	o the task (for example, when completing a reading comprehension, predicting the meaning of new words from the context)					
	o my learning style (for example, preparing a table of grammar rules if I am a visual learner).					

4.5	I can try out new strategies.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
4.5.1	I can try out new and unfamiliar strategies (for example, new strategy to learn vocabulary or new exercises to improve my listening skills):					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of learning tips					

5. Completing Tasks

Part of **completing tasks** consists of equipping the place of study with the necessary language materials. Other important aspects include organizing time to learn, completing individual or multiple tasks, and employing appropriate strategies.

5.1	I can organize my time and space for learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.1.1	I can set up my workspace to enhance learning (for example, equipped by learning materials and references).					
5.1.2	I can manage my learning time effectively (for example, by setting a time limit for a particular task).					

5.2	I can set myself a task.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.2.1	I can choose a task that I already know in order to achieve my goal.					
5.2.2	I can choose an unknown task in order to achieve my goal (for example, a task that was recommended to me).					
5.2.3	I can change an existing task to achieve my goal. For example, instead of writing down answers to questions in a listening comprehension task, I can give an oral summary.					

5.3	I can structure my learning independently.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.3.1	I can work alone (for example, to complete a given task).					
5.3.2	I can complete individual tasks that I set myself.					
5.3.3	I can complete tasks that I have set myself even in more difficult phases (for example, if they are not as enjoyable as I had hoped, or if they are difficult).					
5.3.4	I can complete several connected tasks in order to achieve my goal. For example, to prepare for an interview I can :					
	○ learn specific vocabulary and expressions					
	○ revise specific grammatical forms.					
	○ work on certain pronunciation aspects.					
	○ work with certain worksheets or authentic materials					
	○ prepare for the interview structure					
	○ practice listening and interacting.					
5.3.5	I can realize a project (for example, prepare a project about my university or prepare a report).					

5.4	I can use a variety of materials for language learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.4.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can use materials:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of learning tips					
5.4.2	In order to achieve my goal, I can use learning materials (for example, a textbook) taking into consideration:					
	○ my language level					
	○ my learning style.					
5.4.3	In order to achieve my goal, I can use authentic materials (for example, analyze a newspaper article in order to learn the form of indirect speech).					

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.4.4	In order to achieve my goal, I can use learning materials:					
	o for a single task					
	o for a series of tasks with regard to my goal (for example, to give a presentation in the foreign language)					
	o for a project (for example, to prepare a project about my university or to prepare a report)					
	o for an entire program of learning.					

5.5	I can employ a variety of language learning strategies in order to achieve my goal.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.5.1	In order to achieve my goal, I can employ different learning strategies:					
	o on my own					
	o together with others					
	o with a learning advisor.					
	o with the help of learning tips					

5.6	I can carry out my learning plan.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.6.1	I can carry out my learning plan (making changes where necessary) in order to achieve my goal.					

6. Monitoring

Monitoring means reflecting on topics, tasks, the learning process, and thinking about oneself as a learner. This enables one to identify one's own learning strengths and weaknesses and to structure one's learning accordingly.

6.1	I can recognize my strengths and weaknesses as a learner and reflect on these.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1.1	I can recognize my own learning style (for example, whether I am a visual or auditory learner)					
6.1.2	I can recognize my learning strategies (the strategies I use frequently) and reflect on this.					
6.1.3	I am aware of my motivation for learning and can reflect on this.					
6.1.4	I am aware of my feelings when learning and can reflect on them.					

6.2	I can recognize what prevents me from completing a task.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.2.1	I can recognize when a language problem prevents me from completing a task (for example, I cannot participate in class because I am lacking appropriate vocabulary).					
6.2.2	I can recognize whether I have chosen the right steps to complete a task (for example, whether I should take notes while reading a text in order to produce a short summary).					
6.2.3	I can recognize whether certain feelings prevent me from (effectively) completing a task (for example, boredom, fear of speaking in front of others, or emotional blocks).					

6.3	I can reflect on materials	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.3.1	I can reflect on materials I have used, in particular:					
	○ whether they are suited to the task					
	○ whether they are suited to my goal					
	○ whether they are suited to my learning style.					

6.4	I can reflect on strategies	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.4.1	I am aware of which strategies I apply when learning.					
6.4.2	I can reflect on the strategies I have employed, in particular:					
	○ whether they are suited to the task					
	○ whether they are suited to my goal					
	○ whether they are suited to my learning style.					

6.5	I can reflect on my learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.5.1	I can monitor and reflect on my learning (for example, by keeping a learning diary).					
6.5.2	I can recognize when I need to discuss something with a learning advisor.					
6.5.3	I can regularly check my learning progress, in particular:					
	<input type="radio"/> whether I have chosen a suitable goal for my language level and my needs					
	<input type="radio"/> whether the materials I am using are appropriate to my goal					
	<input type="radio"/> whether the tasks are suited to my goal and my learning style					
	<input type="radio"/> whether the strategies I use are suited to the goal, to the tasks and to my learning style					
	<input type="radio"/> whether my learning plan is suited to my language level, my goal, the given conditions (for example, the time available), and my learning style					
	<input type="radio"/> whether I can stick to my learning plan.					

7. Evaluating

Evaluating is at the core of the autonomous (independent) learning process. This term includes the evaluation of learning progress (i.e. what have I learnt?) and of the learning process itself (i.e. how have I learnt?). Evaluating one's own progress and one's own language level is the hardest part of autonomous (independent) language learning.

7.1	I can evaluate my own language level.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.1.2	After I have started learning, I can check my initial evaluation of my starting level:					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor.					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of checklists or tests					
7.1.3	I can evaluate my progress:					
	<input type="radio"/> on my own					
	<input type="radio"/> together with others					
	<input type="radio"/> with a learning advisor					
	<input type="radio"/> with the help of checklists					

7.2	I can evaluate materials for language learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.2.1	I can evaluate the materials I have used, in particular I can state:					
	○ whether they are suited to the specific task					
	○ whether they are suited to my goal					
	○ whether they are suited to my learning style.					

7.3	I can evaluate language learning strategies	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	I can evaluate the strategies I used, in particular I can state:					
	○ whether they are suited to the specific task					
	○ whether they are suited to my goal					
	○ whether they are suited to my learning style.					

7.4	I can evaluate my learning.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.4.1	I can evaluate my learning and in particular I can state:					
	○ whether I have achieved my goal					
	○ whether I have chosen a suitable goal for my language level and needs					
	○ whether the materials I have used are appropriate to my goal					
	○ whether the tasks are suited to my goal and my learning style					
	○ whether the strategies I have used are suited to the goal, to the tasks and to my learning style					
	○ whether my learning plan is suited to my language level, my goal, to the conditions (for example, the time available) and to my learning style					
	○ Whether I have been able to stick to my learning plan.					

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.4.2	I can evaluate my learning:					
	○ on my own					
	○ together with others					
	○ with a learning advisor.					
	○ with the help of a checklist					

8. Cooperating

Cooperating is the social and interactive dimension of autonomous (independent) language learning. One can learn together with others – complete tasks, speak and discuss, realize a project – but one can also plan and reflect on the individual steps of one's own learning process.

8.1	I can learn from and with others (for example, other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers, and competent non-native speakers).	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1.2	When I do not understand something, I can ask my addressee to speak more slowly, to repeat something or to explain something.					
8.1.3	I can ask native speakers and competent non-native speakers or other learners to help me (for example, to correct the grammar mistakes of a writing task).					
8.1.4	I can practice the language with native speakers, competent non-native speakers, or other learners.					
8.1.5	I can learn by taking part in or observing a communication.					
8.1.6	I can work with a partner or in a group.					
8.1.7	When I work together with others I can:					
	○ listen to the others (for example, in order to understand their opinion)					
	○ express my opinion					
	○ compare my opinion with the others'					
	○ where applicable, modify my opinion to reach a group decision.					

8.2	I can decide when I want to learn with others – for example, other students, teachers, learning advisors, competent non-native speakers – in order to structure my learning better.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.2.1	I can decide whether it is better for me to complete a task with others, rather than on my own.					
8.2.2	I can decide whether I want to work with others to achieve my goal (for example, with my classmate).					
8.2.3	I can recognize when I need to discuss something with a learning advisor.					
8.2.4	I can talk about my feelings when necessary (for example, with a student or with an advisor).					
8.2.5	I can decide which steps of the learning process I want to carry out with others (for example, planning, choosing materials and strategies, completing tasks, monitoring, evaluating).					

9. Managing my own Learning

Managing my own learning is a superordinate area, which connects all aspects of the learning process and summarizes important steps and phases of autonomous (independent) learning.

9.1	I can structure my learning independently.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
9.1.1	I can structure my learning and in particular:					
	○ set goals					
	○ set a time and place for learning					
	○ choose materials					
	○ apply strategies					
	○ carry out learning					
	○ monitor my learning					
	○ evaluate my learning.					
9.1.2	When I have a task to complete I can:					
	○ plan my work (for example, set a goal, set a time and place, choose materials, choose strategies, and plan the steps of the task)					
	○ complete the task					
	○ monitor my learning (for example, during or after the task, check my performance and the use of materials and strategies)					
	○ evaluate my learning (for example, during or after the task, evaluate my performance, the use of materials, and language strategies).					

10. Structuring Knowledge

Structuring knowledge is an area, which plays a role in all autonomous (independent) learning phases and activities. It is about having an idea about all the necessary elements of autonomous learning.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
10.1	I can evaluate my own language level.					
10.2	I can analyze my own needs.					
10.3	I can set myself goals.					
10.4	I can plan a time and place for my learning					
10.5	I know what I need to complete a task or to achieve a goal (for example the level, steps of a task and language materials).					
10.6	I can put together a learning plan.					
10.7	I am familiar with a variety of materials for language learning.					
10.8	I can choose materials.					
10.9	I can try out new materials					
10.10	I am familiar with a variety of language learning strategies.					
10.11	I can choose different strategies.					
10.12	I can try out new strategies.					
10.13	I can organize a time and place for my learning					
10.14	I can set myself a task.					
10.15	I can structure my learning independently.					
10.16	I can use a variety of materials when learning.					
10.17	I can employ a variety of strategies when learning.					
10.18	I can carry out my learning plan.					
10.19	I can recognize my strengths and weaknesses as a learner and reflect on these.					
10.20	I can recognize what prevents me from completing a task.					
10.21	I can reflect on materials, which I have used.					
10.22	I can reflect on strategies, which I have employed.					
10.23	I can reflect on my learning.					
10.24	I can evaluate language-learning materials.					
10.25	I can evaluate language-learning strategies.					
10.26	I can evaluate my learning.					
10.27	I can learn with and from others (for example, other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers and competent non-native speakers).					
10.28	I can decide when I want to cooperate with others (for example, with other learners, teachers, learning advisors, native speakers and competent non- native speakers) in order to structure my learning better.					

Appendix M

The Introductory Session about the Tutoring Experiment

Level: 1st year

Topic: The Tutoring Course

Main aim

Students will be able to develop an understanding of the experiment.

Introductory Session about Tutoring

During the preliminary session, the researcher covers the following elements:

1. Explaining Tutoring

At the beginning of the session, the researcher introduced herself again to the participants. Then, she gave a detailed explanation of tutoring course that will be dealt with during the first semester.

2. Describing the experiment

The researcher explained to the participants the roles they play in the experiment. She made it clear for them that they need to concentrate with the strategies to be taught and practice language learning using those strategies during the whole duration of the course.

3. Passing the letter of informed consent

After making sure that the participants understand the implication of the experiment, the researcher read the letter of informed consent and highlighted the voluntary and confidential aspects of their participation.

4. Giving students diaries and pens

At the end of the session, the researcher distributed diaries with stickers and pens on the participants. Each student was required to write his experiment number on the sticker and use the diary for homeworks and self-reflection about learning.

Appendix N
The SBI Tutoring Course
Samples of Lesson Plans and Worksheets

General Adopted Approach: Learner-Centered

Specialist Adopted Approach: Strategy-Based Instruction

Adapted Model: CALLA (Chamot et al, 1999)

Proficiency Level: Pre-Intermediate Learners

University Level: First year Undergraduate Learners

Tutorial 1: Motivating myself

Topic: Strategies to Motivate Myself to Learn

Objectives:

Main aim:

Students will be able to develop motivation to learn

Specific objectives:

- 1) Students will be able to develop awareness of motivation to learn
- 2) Students will be able to use “motivation to learn” strategies
- 3) Students will be able to use “re-motivation” strategies when demotivation occurs

Materials needed:

Handouts of motivational strategies and activities about the application of these strategies.

Lead-in Phase:

Q: Have you ever heard of the word “motivation”? Tell me about the first thing that comes to your mind when you hear the word.

Introduction and Presentation Phase:

Introducing the learning strategy “motivating myself”: Today, we will be dealing with motivation in learning.

Q: What is motivation?

A: It is the force or influence that causes someone to do something. Student’s motivation has to do with student’s desire to participate in the learning process.

“Motivation to learn is characterized by long term, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning”

Q: What is the effect of motivation on learning?

A: Motivation affects learning in that motivated students outperforms demotivated students in learning accomplishments and performance. Motivated students are more attentive, organized and committed to the process of learning.

Sometimes, your motivation decreases or disappears and you become demotivated. You need to re-motivate yourself.

Q: Are you motivated to learn English? Why?

Motivation is very essential for you to be successful learners.

Example:

When I was an English major, I always used motivation strategies to keep myself eager to learn English. Being motivated helped me a lot to learn effectively and on my own.

Practice phase:

Let's discuss and practice together strategies relevant to motivation to learn. You are handed a list of motivational strategies (read; I explain then you answer the questions).

Reflection: Think about the usefulness of those motivational strategies while learning.

Expansion: Think of how motivation can be used to achieve other goals in life.

Homework: Available on (Worksheet 1: p. 2).

Worksheet 1: Strategies to Motivate Myself to Learn

- 1. Visualize your goals: Make sure you have a clear vision of what you want to achieve.** High achievers use goal setting more frequently and more consistently than low achievers. When individuals establish and attempt to attain their goals, they are more attentive to instruction, expend greater effort, and increase their confidence when they see themselves making progress. It is difficult to be motivated to achieve without having specific goals.
- 2. Making positive statements:** saying or writing positive statements for oneself in order to feel more confident and motivated in learning the new language. You simply tell yourself things like: *“Great! I did it!”* Reinforce yourself either covertly (to yourself) or aloud. At first, you may think it sounds strange or silly to use those positive statements to encourage yourself. Once you get familiar to it, you will find that it works. Here are some other examples: *“I understand a lot more of what is said to me now” “People understand me better now” “I enjoy writing in the new language” “It is OK if I make mistakes” “I had a very successful conversation today”*.
- 3. Rewarding yourself:** Giving oneself a valuable reward for a particularly good performance in the new language. You arrange a reward for success at an academic task. The following are examples reported by my students: *“If I study for 50 minutes, I’ll allow myself to speak on the phone for 10 minutes”;* or *“If I work on my term paper for an evening, I’ll get myself to a pizza”;* or *“If I find that I’m keeping up with my work, I’ll go to a movie on a weeknight.”* *“If I finish preparing for tomorrow’s presentation, I’ll go shopping”*.



Exercise: Among the above mentioned strategies,

1. Pick out the strategies you have already used and explain the learning situation you used the strategy for

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2. Pick out those strategies you are unfamiliar with and suggest how they might be used

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3. Suggest other motivational strategies you know.

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Homework:

Sometimes, you lose your motivation to learn (you become demotivated). On your diary, report some future learning situations in which you use some of these strategies to re-motivate yourself to learn (*to be submitted in two weeks*)

Tutorial 2: Dealing with my Feelings

Topic: Strategies to Control Feelings when Learning

Objectives:

Main aim:

Students will be able to develop strategies to control feelings when learning.

Specific objectives:

- 1) Students will be able to develop awareness of feelings when learning
- 2) Students will be able to recognize feelings when learning
- 3) Students will be able to recognize negative feelings which hinder their learning
- 4) Students will be able to control negative feelings and turn them into positive ones

Materials needed:

Handouts of strategies to deal with feelings and activities about controlling negative feelings.

Lead-in Phase:

Q: Tell me about your feelings now? How do you think feelings affect your daily life activities? How about your studies?

Introduction and Presentation Phase:

Introducing the learning strategy “dealing with my feelings”: Today, we tackle a new topic about dealing with my feelings when learning.

Generally, we have two types of feelings: positive and negative feelings.

Positive	Negative
Enjoyment	Boredom
Hope	Hopelessness
Pride	Shame
Relief	Anxiety
Satisfaction	Disappointment

Q: What is the effect of these feelings on learning and achievement?

A: Positive feelings foster your control over your learning leading to high achievement whereas negative feelings lead to passiveness and low achievement.

Example:

When you get a low grade in an exam, you get discouraged and disappointed; these feelings will affect your performance in other exams.

Q: How do you usually feel when you learn English? What are the reasons of these feelings?

A: all our positive and negative feelings are the result of beliefs from environmental events such as: change of social life, exam results, teachers academic demands, the new university experience.... etc

Practice Phase:

We can change and control our negative feelings using a number of strategies. Let's examine the most common strategies used to control feelings. You are handed a list of strategies to deal with feelings (read and I explain, then you do the activities about strategies to turn negative feelings into positive).

Reflection: Think about the usefulness of those strategies of dealing with feelings while learning.

Expansion and Homework: Available on (Worksheet 2: p. 2). *Anxiety test RESULTS*

Worksheet 2: Strategies for Dealing with Feelings

I. Lowering Anxiety: One of the most common strategies for reducing anxiety are:

1. **Relaxation:** For some individuals, preparing for or taking an exam, presenting an oral report, or writing a paper can present sufficient stress to negatively impact academic performance. Relaxation techniques are successful in dealing with anxiety. Many experts in anxiety reduction teach individuals breathing exercises that involve long, slow exhalation following these steps:

1. *Get comfortable.* Move your arms and legs around to make your muscles loose.
2. *Close your eyes.*
3. *Take a deep breath in and count slowly.*
4. *Let the air out very slowly.*
5. *Repeat Steps 3 and 4,* but this time place your hands on your stomach and feel it filling up with air (pushing out) when you breathe.
6. *Repeat this a few more times.*
7. *Open your eyes.*

2. **Using Music:** this strategy is useful before any stressful language task. Listening to soothing music can calm learners and put them in a more positive mood for learning. You can listen to your favorite music before dealing with a learning task. This helps relaxation.

3. **Using Laughter:** This strategy is about watching a funny movie or reading a humorous book, listening to jokes to lower anxiety.

II Dealing with Negative Feelings: This is an example of how negative or positive feelings occur and how to turn them into positive:

A. *An event occurs:* A low score on a test.

B. *Thoughts about the event:*

B1. Self-talk: “I can’t learn this stuff!” “What’s the use of studying?”

B2. Self-talk: “I have the ability to get these questions correct if I put forth extra effort.” “I’m going to study differently next time”

C. *Feeling caused:*

C1. Feeling: sadness and disappointment caused by the thoughts and self-talk/ anger.

C2. Feeling: confidence and motivation

Exercise 1: Select an environmental event that disturbs you and demonstrate how you can change your negative feeling into a positive one.

Activating Event (the situation I am disturbed about or the problem)

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Thought (helpless negative thought that followed event)

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Consequence (Feeling caused by thought)

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Changing the negative thought (how I argue against the negative thought with a more positive one)

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New Effect (the way I feel and will behave after changing the Negative thought)

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Homework: During next week, write a report, on your diary, including the following information: date, learning situation (describe where you were and what you were trying to do), and report the negative feeling you had. Finally, discuss what strategies you used to deal with that negative feeling (*to be submitted in 2 weeks*)

Date.....

Learningsituation.....

.....

NegativeFeeling:.....

.....

Strategy:.....

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Tutorial 3: Planning

Topic: Strategies to Plan my Learning

Objectives:

Main aim:

Students will be able to develop strategies to plan their learning.

Specific objectives:

- 1) Students will be able to recognize their linguistic level.
- 2) Students will be able to identify their own learning needs.
- 3) Students will be able to plan a place and time for learning.
- 4) Students will be able to recognize the requirements for completing a task or achieving a goal.
- 5) Students will be able to put a learning plan together.

Materials needed:

Handouts of strategies and activities to plan learning + a test for English language level (Pearson placement test).

Lead-in Phase:

Q: Who is responsible for designing buildings and houses? What do we call the design provided by an architect? Why do you think it is important to have that plan?

The process of learning also needs planning.

Introduction and Presentation Phase:

Introducing the learning strategy “planning”: Today, we will be dealing with planning my learning.

Planning is the “before I start learning” process in which you include what is needed to accomplish a learning task.

In order to handle planning, you should take into consideration 6 major strategies:

1. **Knowing your starting level:** you should recognize your language level so that you tackle tasks, which are just at your level (not too easy/ not too hard). You can do this with the help of your teacher or tests: Oxford language test, Test your English and many others available online.
2. **Identifying your needs:** you should ask yourself the question “why I want to learn” “what is the need of this?” This also can be done with the help of the teacher, a test/ checklist or on your own. You should also classify your

learning needs according to their priority from the most important to the least important. E.g., I need to learn some vocabulary to hold a conversation *is prior to* I need to learn the British accent.

3. **Set a goal:** setting a goal for yourself can be done by the help of your teacher, a test or by your own. The goal you set should go with your starting language level and your learning needs “*do not set goals that are beyond your language level or unrelated to your learning needs and the conditions you learn within*”. In learning, we have two types of goals:

1. **Long term goals:** to be able to speak English by the end of the year.
2. **Short term goals:** to be able to finish reading a short story in 2 days.

Goals need to be classified according to priority from the most important to the least important.

4. **Planning time and place for learning:** you should schedule the when and where to learn. In order to achieve your goal, you should be able to plan a place (library, classroom, garden...etc) and time (morning, at night) and time management to have enough time to complete the learning task.
5. **Language task purpose and plan:** you should know the purpose of a particular task e.g., you listen to the BBC to learn British accent, you read a novel for pleasure and acquiring new vocabulary. Then, you should plan for the task: you need to know what is required to complete a task (learn some vocabulary to hold a conversation), what materials are needed (a dictionary, a grammar book), the nature of the task (easy, medium or difficult), and the steps for completing a task (to write a paragraph, you need to follow these steps: 1) Learn specific vocabulary about the topic. 2) Learn strategies of writing an essay 3) Write the first draft: introduction, body and conclusion. 4) Revise ideas and sentence structure 5) Write the final draft).
6. **Putting together a learning plan:** It is the final phase in which you bring your plan into life. At this phase, you should plan your learning according to 1) Your goal. 2) Conditions of work. 3) The steps of the task. 4) Learning style. 5) Learning materials. 6) The form of evaluation).

You should be able to go through these steps to plan your learning for a task, project or the entire learning program. After you start learning, you should be able to revise your plan.

Practice phase:

Let's put the steps of planning into practice. You are handed a list of activities to plan your learning (students work on activities individually, in pairs and in groups under the supervision of the teacher).

Reflection:

Q: What benefits you might get if you plan your learning?

A: Planning is needed to complete tasks and assignments with steps; it makes it easier to reach the final objective and complete a task easily and effectively saving time and efforts.

Expansion and Homework: Available on (**Worksheet 3: p. 1-2**).

Pearson placement test + learning styles test RESULTS

Worksheet 3: Planning

Exercise 1: A test to identify your linguistic level:

You can know your starting level on your own or using different tools among which tests are the most common (Pearson placement test RESULTS).

Exercise 2: Analyzing your needs:

Work in pair to determine your needs to study English at university. Ask yourself this question: “Why I want to learn?” Then, we hold a classroom discussion about these needs.

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Exercise 3: Setting Goals:

1. Think about the academic goals you would like to achieve or obtain. Mention 2 long term goals and 2 short term goals.

Long term

1.....
2.....

Short term

1.....
2.....

2. Relate them to you language level, needs and environmental conditions (time available).

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3. Which one is prior for you and why?

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Exercise 4: Setting Place and time for learning: Set appropriate place and time for the following tasks:

- Read a novel
- Do the grammar homework
- Practice English with native speakers

Exercise 5: Language task purpose and plan:

1. **Purpose:** Guess the purpose of each of the following tasks:
 - Watching an American movie with no subtitles
 - Reading quickly through a newspaper article
 - Writing a funny story
2. **Plan:** You are preparing for an oral presentation in English about a topic of your choice, suggest an appropriate task plan:
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Exercise 6: Putting together a learning plan: Work in groups: choose a learning task and put together its appropriate learning plan according to your goal, the task, learning materials, conditions of work, learning style and the form of evaluation. (Learning style test RESULTS)

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Homework:

- On your diary, following the planning steps we dealt with
1. Report 2 future learning plans of your own
 2. Plan for these tasks: preparing for an interview/ revising for the grammar quiz
(to be submitted in two weeks)

Appendix O

Participants' Satisfaction Scale

Dear participant,

Thank you for your sincere consideration. The target end of this scale is to measure the levels of your satisfaction with the experiment. The scale is anonymous. Your response will remain strictly confidential and will be used mainly for research purposes.

Put a tick (×) in the box which corresponds most closely to the response that best describes you. Pick only one response for each statement.

To which extent do you agree with the following statements?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Tutorials were easy to follow					
2. Tutoring was helpful in enhancing my learning autonomy					
3. I enjoyed developing my autonomous learning through tutoring					
4. I am satisfied with tutoring					

Thank you for your collaboration!

Résumé

Résumé

L'autonomie de l'apprenant au sein du système LMD est façonnée par des perceptions erronées. Elle est synonyme d'auto-apprentissage et considérée comme nécessitant peu de contrôle et initiatives de la part des enseignants. Les apprenants de première année d'anglais comme langue étrangère en premier cycle manifestent un niveau d'autonomie assez bas, mais peu de tentatives systématiques ont traité la promotion de cette dernière dans la classe. Cette étude vise à examiner le rôle d'un cours de tutorat basé sur l'enseignement de stratégies pour promouvoir le niveau d'autonomie de l'apprenant de langue avec 51 apprenants de première année d'anglais comme langue étrangère en premier cycle à l'université Mohammed Lamine Debaghine-Sétif 2, en Algérie. Un modèle quasi-expérimental est suivi; les participants sont répartis dans un groupe témoin ($n = 26$) et dans un groupe d'intervention ($n = 25$). Le groupe d'intervention reçoit un cours de tutorat basé sur l'enseignement de stratégies sur une période de dix semaines, fondé sur le modèle CALLA de Chamot (1999). Les données qualitatives sont recueillies au moyen d'un questionnaire adapté (Tassinari, 2010) sous forme de pré / post-test et une échelle de satisfaction, tandis que les données quantitatives sont collectées à l'aide de réflexions faisant suite à un sondage. Les données obtenues sont analysées avec SPSS.22 ainsi qu'une analyse de documents. Après le cours interventionnel, le groupe expérimental fait état d'améliorations significatives par rapport au groupe témoin dans les aspects cognitif / métacognitif, orienté vers l'action, affectif et social. En outre, les apprenants manifestent une attitude positive à l'égard de l'intégration de l'intervention afin d'améliorer leur apprentissage autonome. Cette étude suggère l'incorporation de l'enseignement de stratégies dans les classes d'anglais comme une langue étrangère en tant que cours d'accompagnement pédagogique pour promouvoir l'apprentissage autonome de langue dans le système LMD. En outre, le cours de tutorat basé sur l'enseignement de stratégies conçu pour cette étude peut aider les enseignants à concevoir des tâches et des leçons permettant aux apprenants de prendre des décisions et d'être indépendants.

Mots-clés: LMD, tutorat, enseignement de stratégies, autonomie d'apprentissage, apprenants

الملخص

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بالرغم من الأهمية التي يوليها نظام (ل.م.د) لاستقلالية التعلم، إلا أن هذه الأخيرة تترجم خطأ كنوع من أنواع التعلم الفردي من دون أي دعم أو تدخل من طرف الأستاذ. الدافع وراء هذه الدراسة الشبه التجريبية هو ضعف مستوى استقلالية التعلم لدى متعلمي السنة الأولى لغة إنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. حيث يهدف هذا البحث إلى دراسة تأثير المرافقة البيداغوجية؛ القائمة على تلقين استراتيجيات التعلم المستقل، لتعزيز استقلالية التعلم لدى عينة ضمت واحدا وخمسين طالبا وطالبة من طلاب السنة الأولى قسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة محمد لمين دباغين سطيف 2. قُسمت العينة إلى مجموعتين: مجموعة تجريبية تتكون من خمس وعشرين طالبا، ومجموعة ضابطة تضم ستة وعشرين طالبا. استفاد طلاب المجموعة التجريبية من دورة مرافقة بيداغوجية، دامت إحدى عشر أسبوعا. تم استخدام استبيان كمي مكيف كقياس قبلي وبعدي لمستوى استقلالية التعلم لدى الطلبة، بالإضافة إلى استبيان نوعي لمعرفة اتجاهات الطلبة فيما يخص الدورة التدريبية المقترحة. وبعد جمع وتحليل المعطيات، بيّنت نتائج البحث تحسنا ملحوظا في مستوى استقلالية التعلم لدى طلبة المجموعة التجريبية مقارنة بالمجموعة الضابطة فيما يخص الجانب المعرفي والوراء معرفي والعملي والعاطفي والاجتماعي. كما أبدى طلاب المجموعة التجريبية اتجاهات إيجابية حول دور المرافقة البيداغوجية في تعزيز استقلالية التعلم لديهم. يوصي هذا البحث بإدراج دورات مرافقة بيداغوجية قائمة على تلقين استراتيجيات التعلم في أقسام اللغة الانجليزية لتعزيز استقلالية التعلم فيها. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، يمكن للأساتذة الاستفادة من هذه الدراسة لتصميم تمارين ونشاطات تساعد في حث الطلبة على التعلم المستقل.

كلمات البحث: المرافقة البيداغوجية، والتعليم القائم على تلقين استراتيجيات التعلم، واستقلالية التعلم، ومتعلمو اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية



ABSTRACT

Within the License- Master- Doctorate (LMD) system, learning autonomy (LA) is crucial but shaped by English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher and learners' misconceptions that it is synonymous with self-instruction, and that it requires little control from teachers. First year undergraduate EFL learners display a low level of LA. Therefore, this study attempted to investigate the role of a strategy-based instruction (SBI) tutoring course in promoting language LA level with 51 first year undergraduate EFL learners at Mohammed Lamine Debaghine- Sétif 2 University, Algeria. A quasi-experimental design was followed; participants were divided into a control group (n=26) and an experimental group (n=25). Over a period of eleven weeks, the experimental group received an SBI tutoring course adapting a model of Chamot et al. (1999). Qualitative data were gathered from an adapted questionnaire (Tassinari, 2010) as a pre-/posttest and a satisfaction scale; and quantitative data were collected using a post-reflection survey. The obtained data were analyzed with SPSS.22 and document analysis. After the interventional course, the experimental group showed significant improvements in LA in comparison to the control group in the cognitive/metacognitive, action oriented, affective and social aspects. Besides, learners showed positive attitudes towards integrating the intervention to enhance their autonomous learning. This study suggests the incorporation of SBI into EFL classrooms as a pedagogical accompaniment course towards promoting language LA within the LMD system. In addition, the study's SBI tutoring course can help teachers to design tasks and lessons that enable learners to make decisions and be independent.

Keywords: LMD, tutoring, strategy-based instruction, learning autonomy, EFL learners.

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