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Promoting Learner Autonomy in an EFL Context: Learners’ Readiness and Teachers’ Roles. (The Case of First Year Pupils in Secondary Education in Algeria)

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English as a Partial Fulfillment for the Degree of «Magister» in Applied Linguistics and TEFL

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Dedication

I dedicate this research work to my parents who switch candles of hope around me, and devoted their lives to see me succeed. To my sisters, brothers, uncles and aunts. and to my lovely nephew Mouàad. This dissertation is dedicated also to all my teachers from the primary school to the university and to all my pupils, study mates, and colleagues. Special dedication to my friends who stand by me in my hour of grief and give me belief, to my intimate friend Naima, to my pain sharer Touria, and to my two angels and gifts from God: Naima and Zahra. To my close bosom friends: Nawel, Kamila and Chafia.
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<tr>
<td>AF</td>
<td>Absolute Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>Année Moyenne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS</td>
<td>Année Secondaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcast Channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEF</td>
<td>Brevet d’Enseignement Fondamental</td>
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<tr>
<td>BEM</td>
<td>Brevet d’Enseignement Moyen</td>
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<tr>
<td>CALL</td>
<td>Computer-Assisted Language Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>CBA</td>
<td>Cometency-Based Approach</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEF</td>
<td>The Common European Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>C.L.A.S.S.</td>
<td>Confidence- Link- Association- Security -Self governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLL</td>
<td>Community Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRAL</td>
<td>Centre de Recherches et d’Applications en Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>English for Specific Purposes</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA</td>
<td>Learner Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MKO</td>
<td>More Knowledgeable Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAL</td>
<td>Project for Autonomy in Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>RF</td>
<td>Relative frequency</td>
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<tr>
<td>SBI</td>
<td>Strategy- Based Instruction</td>
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<td>ZPD</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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VIII
ABSTRACT

This research is concerned with learner autonomy in formal language learning contexts (secondary education). It is a case study designed to investigate learners’ readiness for autonomous learning. The purpose of the study is to discover whether or not pupils attending English Language in secondary school are ready to take on autonomous language learning. Before any interventions aiming at fostering autonomy are implemented, it is necessary to explore learners’ readiness for autonomous learning. The study contains four chapters: Chapter one is a literature review that covers general areas of learner autonomy. Chapter two provides an overview of ELT in Algeria. It sheds light on the notion of learner autonomy in the newly introduced approach in Algerian schools, i.e, the Competency-Based Approach. Chapter three deals with a methodological design in order to answer the research questions. A triangulation method is used in this work; it includes data collection from questionnaires that have been put to both secondary teachers and pupils. In addition to a classroom observation and an interview with a general inspector of English. Chapter four provides suggestions and recommendations about how to promote learner autonomy for learners and teachers. The research argues that ELT in Algeria should aim at cultivating learner autonomy through attributing new roles for the language teacher and learning strategy training for the learner. Finally, this study insists on the need to integrate learner autonomy in English learning not only as a top-down decision but as a gradual procedure based on training of EFL teachers and learners towards the development of autonomy.
GENERAL INTRODUCTION
GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In order to bridge the gap between the knowledge acquired at school and real life, new approaches have been introduced in language teaching throughout the world, mainly because the traditional ones have proved to be inadequate to meet the demands of modern society. This society is not only requiring the mastery of language, but also a life-long study skill. This is the aim behind introducing the notion of learner autonomy in the educational context. It intends to develop responsible learners who are capable to take charge of their own learning. That is to say learners who share responsibility with the language teacher in the classroom and, moreover, do further research in real life situations so as to improve their level in language learning. An autonomous learner is that sort of learner who continues learning when teaching stops. This is in fact, one of the fundamental objectives of the new approaches in language teaching. In this context, and in order to make the educational system more developed and more fruitful, Algeria has implemented certain reforms in the field of education.

The Algerian Ministry of Education launched educational reforms in the academic year 2002-2003 so as to change the teaching methodologies. And as a result the Competency-Based Approach was implemented in Algerian schools. It is supposed that the CBA has reshaped teacher and learner roles and their responsibility in the language classroom. This approach aims at producing responsible and autonomous learners who are expected to take charge of their learning. This does not mean that learner autonomy aims at marginalizing the teacher; on the contrary, the teacher’s role is essential in setting a suitable atmosphere that encourages learners to be gradually autonomous in English learning.
There is no doubt that the notion of autonomy in English learning can be partially or gradually implemented in the secondary education. When learners reach university they find themselves able to take charge of their own learning. However, Algerian English learners who reach university do not have the capacity of learning English autonomously. This is because they have been accustomed to spoon-feeding in the secondary education. They consider English as a secondary subject (except for those in foreign languages stream). For this reason, they are not highly motivated and feel that the teacher is more responsible for the learning process. And even for their success or failure in English learning. Though teachers in the secondary education invest endless amount of energy in their students and they generally get a very little response. In other words, learners are over reliant on the English teacher. One of the solutions lies on promoting learner autonomy so that learners become gradually independent from the teacher, and rely much more on themselves in English learning both inside and outside the classroom.

Fostering learner autonomy aims at changing learners’ attitudes towards English class and making them assume more responsibility in learning. However, English teachers need to investigate first how much learners view themselves as responsible for their learning, whether or not they are aware of the importance of learner autonomy, and are ready to develop it in learning. Just after doing this, looking for ways to foster learner autonomy seems to be highly recommended. The present investigation is carried out under four research questions:

1 - Are first-year pupils in secondary education ready to be involved in autonomous learning?

2- How do learners perceive their own and their teacher’s responsibilities in learning English?

3- Are they using learning strategies that help them become more independent from the teacher?

4- In what ways can learner autonomy be fostered in an EFL context?
These are but a few questions that arise when one addresses the notion of learner autonomy in English learning. All in all, the above questions investigate whether or not learner autonomy is a reality in our educational system and more particularly in secondary education. The answer to these questions concerns two levels: the first one is concerned with a brief description and an analysis of ELT in Algeria with reference to teachers and learners attitudes and roles. The second concerns the requirements and ways for fostering learner autonomy in secondary education and how to make it a reality. These two elements govern the general layout of this dissertation in which we try to give evidence to the following hypotheses:

1- First year pupils are not yet ready to be involved in autonomous learning. Their over reliance on the language teacher is the main cause of this behaviour.

2- Pupils consider the teacher as more responsible in the learning teaching process. The reason why they may be reluctant to take responsibility, i.e,they have teacher-dependent learning characteristics.

3- Learners generally do not know which strategies to select and how to use them in order to learn English independently.

4- Autonomy can be fostered only if learners change their attitudes towards the language learning, and if both teachers and learners have autonomy-oriented training.

To follow up this study, chapter one presents different theories, findings and assumptions underlying learner autonomy, the rise of it in the educational contexts, and how it has become a desirable goal in language learning. Chapter two provides
insights on English language teaching in Algeria and describes the notion of learner autonomy in secondary education in Algeria with reference to the CBA and the ELT textbook for 1AS. Chapter three addresses the research methodology used in this dissertation. This chapter deals with a sampling of English secondary teachers and pupils and a general inspector of English. The reason behind this choice first lies on the fact that English teachers and the inspector of English are aware of pupils’ level of autonomy. And second, pupils of 1AS who have already finished four years of English learning and are supposed to have developed a certain level of autonomy. Moreover, these pupils are having lessons on computing in schools that will help them to be self-reliant in doing research far away from the teacher’s presence. Furthermore, pupils of 1AS are about to decide which stream to join in their second year. Thus, they are aware of their strengths and weaknesses in learning. As for research instruments, we have used a questionnaire for teachers and pupils, classroom observation and an interview with the general inspector of English.

Finally, this research work is an attempt to contribute in promoting learner autonomy in secondary education in Algeria. It is in fact an attempt to expand an awareness of teachers and students concerning the necessity of autonomy in English learning. No doubt autonomy is essential; however, this concept often causes frustration among teachers and learners, because they are not in the best position for implementing it, due to the lack of formation, training and preparation for change. This may justify why change in educational setting is often resisted and difficult to implement. In fact, what both teachers and pupils really need is autonomy-oriented training.
Chapter One

A Literature Review
CHAPTER ONE

A Literature Review

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1.10 Conclusion

Notes to Chapter One
1.1 Introduction

Language teaching nowadays is seen not as an ability to teach but as an ability to make learners learn. For this reason, learner centred education puts the learner at the center of classroom organization. There is a change in the view of language learning from a set of rules to be transmitted to learners from teachers to a process in which the learner takes more responsibility in learning. By doing this, the learner becomes autonomous in language learning. Autonomy is one of the bases on which learner –centredness stands on because: “autonomy is a precondition for an effective learning.”(Benson, 2001:24). In fact, learners nowadays are expected to assume responsibility and take charge of their learning. However, this does not mean that learner autonomy aims at establishing a “teacher less” learning. On the contrary, the teacher role is necessary in fostering his learners’ autonomy. In this context Little says that: “in formal educational contexts learners do not automatically accept responsibility for their learning, teachers must help them to do so.” (Little, 1996:176). So, teachers’ help is essential in promoting learner autonomy through giving a helping hand to learners.

1.2 What is Learner Autonomy?

There is no consensus on the concept of autonomy in education. It is a multifaceted concept whose meaning has been discussed from many perspectives. One of the fields in which the concept of autonomy was firstly developed is politics. Autonomy as a political concept originated in the Ancient Greek, philosophers such as: Aristotle, and Socrates who claimed for citizens’ right to self-government. Cities were governed according to citizens own laws. In this sense, individuals were considered free beings in command of themselves and not subjected to others’ authority. In the same context, Yule (1996) says that the autonomous person (like the autonomous state) must not be subject to external interference or control but must rather freely direct the course of his own life.
In the field of education some consider it as taking charge of one’s learning. Others see it as a decision making, and others think autonomy is a cognitive and self-management process.

Imported originally from the fields of politics and moral philosophy, autonomy as a political concept was popular in the Enlightenment period and the French revolution in 1789. The word autonomous comes from the Greek words "auto-nomus" referring to someone or something which lives by his/her own rule. It is therefore understood that autonomous learning is related to self directed studies. The concept of autonomous learning has been given a great importance since the 1970’s; it is one of the most valuable spin-offs of communicative language learning environment. It is generally agreed that the concept of autonomy first entered the field of learning and teaching through the council of Europe ‘s Modern Languages Project which was founded in 1971. The current debate about autonomy in second and foreign language learning originated in Holec’s Autonomy and foreign language learning first published in 1979, where he provides a definition of learner autonomy as:

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

(Holec , 1981:3)

Holec supports his definition by a set of roles the autonomous learner is supposed to play such as:
- Determining the objectives.
- Defining the content and progression.
- Selecting the method and the techniques to be used.
- Monitoring the procedure of acquisition.
- Evaluating what has been acquired.

According to Holec learners take their first step towards autonomy when they recognize that they are responsible for their own learning. This can be achieved through the involvement in all aspects of the learning process such as: planning, implementing and evaluating. The above mentioned roles cannot all be played by the Algerian pupils in secondary education, (mainly those of 1AS level). Thus,
learner autonomy as viewed by Holec is really a far reaching aim in the Algerian context.

Although Holec’s (1981) definition covers all the areas that involve the transfer of control over learning from the teacher to the learner, other researchers do not agree with him and maintain that Holec’s account of learner autonomy does not take into consideration “the nature of the cognitive capabilities underlying effective self-management of learning.” (Benson, 2001:49). Little (1991) also realizes this in Holec’s definition and argues that:

Autonomy is a capacity - for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action. It entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning.

( Little, 1991: 3-4)

For this reason, Benson (2001) is for Little’s definition and argues that this definition adds a vital psychological aspect to Holec’s one in that it describes autonomy as a cognitive and self - management processes of learning. In fact, learners will develop and their autonomy grows as a result of their never ending effort to understand the "Why", the "What" and the "How“ of their learning. (Dam, 1995)

Dickinson (1987) on the other hand, views learner autonomy as decision making in leaning context. According to him autonomy refers to the situation in which the learner is responsible for the decisions concerned with his or her learning and the implementation of these decisions. (Dickinson, 1987:81). A more elaborated definition of learner autonomy is also put forward by Jeffries (1990) who views it as “learning in which an individual or a group of learners study on their own possibly for a part or parts of a course, without direct intervention from a tutor, so that to take a greater responsibility for what they learn.”(Jeffries, 1990:35). Jeffries definition of learner autonomy seems to be the most suitable for the purposes that are dealt with in this dissertation. This is because we are much more concerned with this kind of partial autonomy not with the full or total autonomy, i.e, absence of
the teacher either throughout all the phases of the overall learning process (total autonomy) or throughout one or a number of these phases (partial autonomy).

The difficulty of defining learner autonomy is mainly due the fact that there are degrees of autonomy, and that the behaviour of autonomous learners can change depending on their age, and how far they have progressed with their learning.

1.2.1 Autonomy Terms in the Literature

Learner autonomy in this study is not synonymous to self-instruction. Because self-instruction as applied to foreign language learning has been defined as: "a deliberate long-term learning project instigated, planned and carried out by the learner alone, without teacher's intervention". (Benson, 2001: 131). This means that the process of learning is carried out individually by the learners without teacher intervention. While the key concern of learner autonomy is not so much whether learning is carried out by the learner, but whether it is controlled by the learner. In autonomous learning, learners should have the ability to take charge of their own learning. However, self-instruction is the techniques used in order to direct one’s own learning (Pemberton,1996). Thus, autonomy is the capacity for learning while self-instruction is a way of learning. What needs to be stressed is that autonomy is a universal human capacity that cannot be created in the educational setting; it can only be encouraged, nurtured, promoted, or fostered (Benson, 2001). Moreover, autonomy should be seen as an essential goal of learning.

Dickinson (1987) and Benson (1996) identify different terms in the literature on autonomy, some of which are used synonymously, and some others with separate meanings:

1. **Individualized instruction**: designed to meet the needs of individual learners, but the teacher prepares materials, sets objectives and evaluates the learners.
2. **Flexible learning**: the teacher or department provides materials and activities;
the learner has some choice over what to do and when, but there is usually little negotiation about learning goals.

3. Self-Access learning: learning from materials and facilities that are organized to facilitate learning. The term is neutral as to: “how self-directed or other-directed the learners are.” (Dickinson, 1987:11).

4. Self-direction: a particular attitude to the learning task, where the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions of his learning, it is: “the process or the techniques used in directing one’s own learning”. (Dickinson, 1987:11).

5. Distance learning: involves a teacher who, though physically removed from the learners, still oversees their learning. Distance teachers and learners traditionally communicate by post and telephone, but now e-mail and web contact is more common.

1.2.2 Individual and Group Autonomy

Learner autonomy is not only individual but also collaborative and entails some: “capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others.” (Dam, 2003:1). Learning does not necessarily imply learning individually, in fact, interaction; negotiation and collaboration are important factors in promoting learner autonomy. Littlewood (1999) attributes two characteristics to the practice of autonomy, which he calls proactive and reactive autonomy. Proactive autonomy according to Littlewood (1999) is when: “learners take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and evaluate what has been acquired.” (Littlewood, 1999:75). whereas reactive autonomy is: “the kind which does not create its own directions but one direction has been initiated.” (ibid). This is an important distinction since it allows the practice of autonomy as a matter of individual expression, and a feature of collaborative environments such as the project workshops which are introduced in the middle and the secondary school. The individual is supposed to interact negotiate and share responsibility and work within the parameters laid down by the group.
Another distinction is made by Dam (2003) who puts forwards full and partial autonomy. With full autonomy learners are in charge of their own learning decisions and actions. With partial autonomy a learning programme combines autonomous and non-autonomous elements. This may happen in the classroom (Classroom Autonomy see 1.5), where autonomous activities are done both individually or in peer and group work, within the interference of the teacher so as to provide guidance. Before dealing with full autonomy in the Algerian context, partial autonomy should be fostered as a first step in the long journey towards full autonomy.

1.2.3 The Rise of Autonomy in Language Education

It was not until the beginning of the 1970’s that the word autonomy started to be used in the field of language learning. But it has been long used in other fields such as Philosophy, Religion, and Medicine. Then in the early 1970’s, Benson (2001) says that : “the idea of autonomy first appeared in language learning along with the establishment of Centre de Recherches et d’Applications en Language (CRAL), which was aimed at adult education.” (Benson, 2001: 8). Autonomy in language learning has become a necessity since then. Galileo has affirmed the importance of autonomy saying you cannot teach a man anything; you can help him find it within himself. In other words, teachers should not provide learners with knowledge but rather help them finding it.

The concept of autonomy in language learning is linked to the communicative approach both historically and theoretically. The rise of autonomy in language learning in the 1970’s and 1980’s was connected to a broad rejection of behaviorist assumptions about the nature of second language acquisition. Some researchers started looking at language as a tool for communication. Individuals learn to express themselves as members of their groups. Indeed the communicative approach has put an emphasis on communicative functions of language, individuals’ needs, social norms and autonomy. In the 1990’s, several researchers associated with the development of the communicative approach have explored the relationship of autonomy to their work (Littlewood, 1997, 1999; Nunan, 1995). By doing research on autonomy in language learning, researchers within the sociology and psychology of
education have argued persuasively that the idea of autonomy and self-direction are beneficial in general and to second language acquisition in particular. Similarly, Little argues that:

> Over the past twenty years or so, the concept of autonomy together with related concepts such as independent learning, self-direction and self-regulation, has become increasingly important in the educational literature, where it has been viewed as both a desirable goal of education and a constituent element of good teaching and learning.

(Little, 1991: 4)

Therefore, autonomy starts to be used in the educational context as goal of learning rather than just a philosophy, i.e, cultivating language learners to be both competent and autonomous in their learning of a language.

### 1.2.4 Levels of Autonomy

In the late 1990’s a number of researchers claimed that the notion of autonomy is a matter of levels, there are several models of autonomy levels. First, Nunan’s (1997) attempt involves a model of five levels of autonomy in the learner action: awareness, involvement, intervention, creation and transcendence. At the awareness level, for example, learners would be made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials. In the involvement and the intervention level learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks. Then identify their own preferred learning styles and strategies. At the transcendence level, learners would make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.

Second, According to Littlewood (1997) there are three dimensions of autonomy that involve first, an ability to operate independently with the language and use it to communicate personal meanings in real, unpredictable situations,(autonomy as a communicator). In the context of classroom organization, it involves learners’ ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active strategies (autonomy as a learner). And in a broader context, it involves a higher and a greater generalized autonomy as individuals (autonomy as a person).
Third, at around the same time, Macaro (1997) proposed a somewhat similar three-stage model (as stated in the table 1.1 below) and finally, Scharle & Szabó’s (2000) proposes three phase model involving: raising awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles.

The above mentioned classifications are summarized in the table 1.1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Awareness.</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a communicator</td>
<td>- Autonomy of language competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Involvement</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a learner</td>
<td>- Autonomy of language learning competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Intervention.</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a person.</td>
<td>- Autonomy of choice and action.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Creation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Transcendence</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Raising Awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Changing attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Transferring roles.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.1 : Levels of autonomy.

In this study we are much more concerned with Littlewood’s model mainly its second stage “autonomy as a learner”. The aim of this research, in fact, is as stated in Scharle and Szabó’s model, to rise teacher’s and learner’s awareness of the importance of learner autonomy, changing their negative attitudes towards it and transferring roles.

1.2.5 Main Versions of Autonomy in EFL Context

Benson (1997) is the first to introduce the idea of different versions, or ways of representing the idea of autonomy. The terms ‘technical’, ‘psychological’ and ‘political’ are used to describe three major versions of autonomy in language education circles. Other writers have cut the cake in different ways. In the recent literature Smith (2003) has made a more general distinction between ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ pedagogies for autonomy. While other researchers make a distinction between ‘narrow’ and ‘broad’ views of autonomy. These models are again related to
the movement of the idea of autonomy in language education. Smith (2003), for example, associates weak pedagogies with the idea of autonomy

As a capacity which students currently lack (and so need ‘training’ towards). ‘Strong pedagogies’ on the other hand, are based on the assumption that students are ‘already autonomous’ to some degree, and focus on ‘co-creating with students optimal conditions for the exercise of their own autonomy’.

(Smith, 2003: 131)

According to Smith (2003) stronger versions are more legitimate than the weaker ones. From this perspective a gradual step by step approach may foster the development of autonomy. According to Smith’s view of pedagogies, we can say that the pedagogy implemented in Algeria is not strong enough or not well developed, since pupils in the secondary education really lack autonomy and need training to rely on themselves and be independent in English learning.

1.2.6 Learner Autonomy “The Let-Me-Learn” Drive

If a learner cannot apply the knowledge acquired in the classroom in real life context, the teaching procedure as well as the approach should be put to question. In fact, learning a language does not mean learning grammar and vocabulary only, but also learning how to use the language to communicate and develop a set of autonomous competences. According to a study made by Heyworth (2004) The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF) provides important insights into the range of different competences in learning a language, beyond the narrowly linguistic ones. More specifically, these competences include [1]

-Pragmatic competence.
-Sociolinguistic competence.
-Intercultural competence.
-Strategic competence.
-Existential competence.
A question to be asked, “Who is called on to develop these competences?” In other words, who is expected to plan, monitor and evaluate his or her learning with the aim of achieving the above mentioned educational goals? The answer is the learner, the autonomous learner, who will take control of his learning and will be able to learn how to learn, once teaching stops. According to CEF(2004) by learning how to learn, they ensure life-long learning, which allows them to learn independently from teachers. Learner autonomy is not only a major goal but also a social and educational priority. That is to say, the aim behind implementing autonomous learning all over the world and in Algeria is to produce learners who do not stop learning when teaching stops. But continue learning by relying on themselves, by doing this learners do not become autonomous learners only but also autonomous responsible citizens. This is just one of the reasons behind autonomy in education.

1.3 Reasons for Learner Autonomy

Many scholars and researchers in the domain of language teaching have believed that autonomy is a very essential characteristic of successful learners. The fact that justifies the rationale behind introducing it into the language classroom. Autonomy has become a desirable goal for three reasons: psychological, practical and philosophical.

First, the psychological rationale is the most appealing to educationalists, simply because learners in general learn better when they are in charge of their own learning. In this context, Candy states that: “When learners are involved in making choices and decisions about the content and the mode of what they are studying, learning is more meaningful, and thus, effective.”(Candy, 1991:24). Moreover, learners involved in the process are more likely to feel motivated in their learning and motivated learners are generally successful learners.
We find an illustration of this in Dickinson (1987) who says that

“...there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning (proactive learners) learn more things and learn better than do people who sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught (reactive learners)...they enter into learning more purposefully and with greater motivation.”

(Dickinson, 1987:14)

Similarly, in EFL classrooms in Algeria, one can notice that successful learners are to some extent psychologically free and independent from the teacher. This feeling will motivate them more and more to be involved in their learning. While the unsuccessful ones just wait passively to be provided with knowledge.

The second rationale behind autonomy is practicability which emerges from the need of more suitable teaching situations. The traditional approaches are not practical according to Van Lier (1988) there is a wide gap between knowledge obtained at school and the real life outside of it. i.e, learners could use the language neither in conversation nor in writing tasks. For this reason, a continuous adoption of new approaches is now one of the distinctive feature in the field of language teaching and learning. Another problem that faces teachers even recently is that in the classroom the teacher may not always be available to assist, due to the large number of students in a classroom, so learners need to be able to learn on their own (this is the case in Algerian schools in which sometimes the number of pupils in one class is more than 40). A society may not provide the necessary resources to all its members in every area of learning as an example the computers and even the internet provided for pupils in secondary education may be insufficient or in a bad quality. In such circumstances, learners need to obtain their own learning needs, either individually or cooperatively, so as to get the knowledge and skill they desire.
Third, the philosophical rationale behind autonomy is the belief that the individual has the right to be free to make his or her own choices not only in learning a language but also in other subjects. According to Knowles (1975) societies are happier and healthier with free individuals who have not become victims of choices made by social institutions. He has emphasized that it is important to prepare learners for a swiftly changing future, where independent learning will be indispensable for effective functioning in society. With such preparation for independent learning, learners will also maximize their life choices, since the attitude and the conception of the role of the individual in society has been a move from: “man as product of his society” to “man as the producer of his society” (Janne, 1977: 15 In Holec, 1981:3). If democratic states are to develop and flourish as democracies, they must undertake educational measures to develop the capacity of their citizens to think and act as free and self-determining individuals. So if Algeria is to flourish as a democratic country, plenty of educational measures should be made first so as to make Algerian learners and from an early age autonomous in their learning, free and self-determining simply because children of today are men of tomorrow. Once they have developed their autonomy as learners in a later stage they develop their autonomy as persons and citizens.

1.4 Dominant Philosophies Underlying Learner Autonomy

The notion of autonomy in learning has long been part of a wide range of educational philosophies and has recently been identified in educational policy as crucial to the development of lifelong learning. Three dominant philosophies of learning connecting up with learner autonomy have been discussed. They are: humanism, constructivism and experiential learning. But before dealing with the above mentioned theories, it is necessary to refer learner autonomy to its natural context or what is known as biological autonomy. That is to say, before being an autonomous learner the human being has passed through stages in which he has developed his biological autonomy first (autonomy as a human being) and in later stage he develops his autonomy as a learner.
In this context, Varela in his book *Biological Autonomy* says: “Scientists would benefit if they take a look at principles of biological autonomy before doing research in cognition and social sciences.” (Maturana & Varela, 1979:55). In fact, as the human being starts his life by over reliance on the mother and develops his self reliance gradually. The learner of a language also starts his learning by over reliance on the teacher and in a later stage develops his self-reliance and be gradually independent from him.

1.4.1 Developmental Learning

The term “autopoiesis” was introduced to semiotics in 1973 by the Chilean Biologists Maturan and Varela. It refers to: “the self-producing organization that is unique to living things.” (ibid). According to the theory, the living system has a self-producing or autopoietic organization. Autonomy in living systems can be noticed as an example through what the American physiologist W. Bradford Cannon (1975) called “homoeostasis”. It is the ability of mammals as an example to keep the body temperature constant in the changing circumstances as the temperature of the external environment varied.

Biological autonomy is a universal characteristic an unavoidable part of what is to be human. According to Ushioda (2001) in biological terms we are autonomous in two related sense: First, according to our own laws which are encoded in our genes we grow. Our personalities and abilities grow as a process of maturity. They are in no way the ones our parents or teachers decide to impose on us. Second, we are autonomous in the sense that we are self-contained, for example, we can think our own thoughts but not any one’s else. We are autonomous even in the level of to which we can express ourselves and communicate ideas to others. However, Biological autonomy does not mean that the human being is cut off from his environment. Little puts that: “human beings do not produce themselves in vacuum....growth depends on nurture-the provision of physical or emotional care-with a particular environment.” (Little, 2002:8). Thus, the child while acquiring a language is influenced mainly by the speech of his mother, and the learner while learning starts by over-reliance and try gradually to be independent from the teacher.
1.4.2 Humanism and Learning Theory

Since the early 1970’s language teaching methodologists and teachers have been influenced by insights from humanist psychology, which emphasizes the importance of affective factors in learning, such as: motivation, age, aptitude, and learners’ attitudes towards the language. Humanism as a philosophy is a paradigm that emphasizes sensitivity and compassion towards learners, and the rejection of whatever makes pupils feel not at ease while learning. That is to say, to remove any obstacle or a psychological barrier that can undermine learning a language such as: stress, anxiety, and shyness, etc. In this vein, Roberts et al. claim that: “the affective aspects of language learning are as important as the cognitive aspects, [and therefore] the learner should be treated in some sense as a ‘whole person.’” (Robert et al. 1994:101). That is to say, the teacher should not be concerned with the mental or the cognitive side of the learner personality only but also with him as a whole person with fears, needs and desires.

According to this approach of philosophy Moskowitz (1988) provides a list of characteristics which are supposed to be found in learners taught by the humanistic approach, they:
- are natural and spontaneous rather than conforming.
- accept themselves and others.
- have a strong sense of responsibility.
- are independent and look to themselves for their own growth.
- have a mission in life. (adapted from Moskowitz,1988:12 In Candy, 1991)

Thus, humanism as an approach of language learning encourages taking responsibility and being independent in learning a language. The most famous methods illustrating the humanistic approach in ELT are the Silent Method and Community language learning (CLL). The techniques of the silent method make it possible for the teacher to say less and the students to say more for the reason to produce autonomous learners and speakers of a language. CLL views learning as a collective experience in which learners engage in various group tasks for promoting group dynamics to lower their anxiety and the impact of other affective factors.
As for the application of this theory in ELT context, humanistic teachers should look for how to motivate their learners. To find out whether they are learning English because it is a part of the curriculum and they have to. Or because they like it and want to be integrated in its speech community. Certain roles are attributed to the humanistic language teacher such as:

- To foster an emotional secure environment.
- To search for how to motivate learners to learn effectively.
- To develop learners awareness and develop their independence.
- To be comprehensive and play the role of facilitator and mainly that of a counselor.

Generally speaking teachers in secondary schools are aware that treating pupils with consideration and compassion is really motivating. Because pupils quite often repeat for instance: We like Physics because we like the teacher and we do not like learning English because of the teacher. In this context Candy (1991) views that: “In a language course, success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom”. (Candy, 1991:45). That is to say, if the atmosphere of the classroom does not make learners relaxed and the relation between teachers and learners is not based on mutual respect, and humanistic side, motivation and success in this context are hard to be achieved.

1.4.3 Constructivism

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning which considers learning as an active, constructive process. In other words people actively construct or create their own knowledge. Constructivism is founded on the basis that, knowledge cannot be taught but only learnt (that is to say constructed). In other words, knowledge is built up: “by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in.” (Thanasoulas, 2000:12). Constructivism is the label given to a set of theories about learning which fall somewhere between cognitive and humanistic views. It is often articulated in contrast to the behaviorist model of learning. Unlike behaviorism, the constructivist cognitive theory recognizes the importance of the mind
in making sense of the material with which it is presented. It is interested in changes in mental states of learning on which Richardson (1997) argues that from the constructivist perspective, learning is not a stimulus-response phenomenon. It requires self-regulation and the building of conceptual structures through reflection and abstraction. (Richardson, 1997:14).

Furthermore, there are several guiding principles of this theory, some of them are put by Jacqueline and Martin (2008) as follows:

1- Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning.

2- Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.

3- In order to teach well, we must understand the mental models that students use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models.

4- The purpose of learning is to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the “right” answers. The only valuable way to measure learning is to make the assessment part of the learning process what is referred to as continuous evaluation that is used in secondary education in Algeria in which pupils are evaluated while engaging in learning tasks in the classroom.

   We can distinguish between:

- **Cognitive constructivism**: which is about how the individual learner understands things in terms of developmental stages. Starting from the work of Piaget who demonstrated empirically that children’s minds were not empty, but actively processed the material with which they were presented.

- **Social constructivism**: emphasizes how meanings and understandings grow out of social encounters. The most significant bases of a social constructivist theory were laid down by Vygotsky (1896-1934) in his theory of the ZPD (zone of proximal development). It is the difference between what a learner can do with help of teachers and peers and what he can do without help, i.e, the child first follows adults’ example and gradually develops the ability to do certain tasks without help.
1.4.3.1 Cognitive Constructivism (Piaget’s Theory)

Formalization of the cognitive developmental theory is generally attributed to Jean Piaget (1896-1980) a Swiss biologist and psychologist, most of his studies dealt with the development of children’s understanding. His view of how children minds work and develop has been enormously influential particularly in educational theory. His particular insight was the role of maturation (simply growing up) in children’s increasing capacity to understand their world. They cannot undertake certain tasks until they are psychologically mature enough to do so. Piaget proposes four stages in human development: the sensorimotor stage in which children discover the reality of their environment, the preoperational stage, the concrete operational stage and formal operational stage. These stages are better summarized in the table1.2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of stage</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensorimotor Stage</td>
<td>Newly –born to Two years old</td>
<td>- Constructs set of concepts about reality and how it works.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoperational Stage</td>
<td>Between two and seven years</td>
<td>- The child cannot conceptualize abstractly</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- The child needs concrete physical situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete operations</td>
<td>Between seven and eleven years</td>
<td>- Child starts to conceptualize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Create logical structures which give meaning to physical experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Solves problems like arithmetic equations with numbers not just with objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal operations</td>
<td>Between eleven and fifteen years</td>
<td>- Child cognitive structures are like those of an adult and include conceptual reasoning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2 The Child’s four developmental Stages. (source: www.lfecircle-inc.com/constructivism/piaget/html)
It is noticed that just like child maturation, the learner of the language develops his autonomy as a process of maturation too. In the beginning he is too much reliant on the teacher and later on develops his self-reliance.

According to Piaget, three fundamental processes contribute to the child’s cognitive development. These are assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium. When individuals assimilate, they incorporate the new experience into an already existing framework without changing that framework. Accommodation is the adjustment involved in the formation of new mental structures needed to accommodate new information. Equilibration involved the person striking a balance between him and the environment, between assimilation and accommodation. Richardson summarizes Piaget’s idea as follows:

When a child experiences a new event, disequilibrium set in until he was able to assimilate and accommodate the new information and thus attain equilibrium which varied with the levels of development and the problems, which needed to be solved.

( Richardson, 1997:18)

Thus, Piaget brought a mechanism by which knowledge is constructed. Individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences. Here the notion of autonomy is clearly stated through the construction of knowledge in a cognitive way relying on assimilation, accommodation and equilibrium.

As far the implications of the theory in educational context are concerned, Piaget maintains that the ultimate aim of education is for the individual to develop the autonomy of thought to create new original ideas rather than just recycle old ones. Similar aim is stated by Jarvis& Chandler who say that: “the development of a kind of person whose thought and action in his life are to be explained by reference to his own choices, decisions, reflections, deliberations in short, his own activity of mind.” (Jarvis& Chandler, 2001:139). Therefore, as a first step towards autonomy in learning a language the learner should first develop his own reflections and activity of mind, in other words, the learner is supposed to be
responsible for his actions and thoughts and independently capable to justify them.

1.4.3.2 Social Constructivism (Vygotsky’s Theory)

Learning a language is not only a cognitive but also a social activity, through which children learn to interact with other people such as family members, friends, teachers and peers. Therefore, learners construct understanding together that wouldn’t be possible alone. This idea is the basis of Social Constructivism—a theory led by Vygotsky (1896-1934) a Russian psychologist and philosopher who suggests that knowledge is first constructed in a social context and after it is appropriated by individuals. In 1962, he published Social Development Theory, This theory stresses the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition, that is to say community plays a central role in the process of making meaning.

According to Vygotsky the major themes of this theory are as follow:

1- Social interaction plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development. In contrast, to Jean Piaget’s understanding of child development (in which development necessarily precedes learning), Vygotsky thinks social learning precedes development. He states: “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological).” (Vygotsky, 1978:124).

2- The More Knowledgeable Other (MKO): refers to anyone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner. The MKO is normally thought of as being a teacher, coach, or older adult, but the MKO could also be peers, or even computers.

3- The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the distance between a student’s ability to perform a task under adult guidance and/or with peer collaboration and the student’s ability solving the problem independently.

According to Vygotsky, humans use tools, such as speech and writing, to mediate their social environments. Vygotsky’s theory promotes learning contexts in which students play an active role in learning from each others in peer and in group.
Roles of the teacher and student are therefore shifted, as a teacher should collaborate with his or her students in order to facilitate meaning construction in students. Learning, therefore, becomes a reciprocal experience for the students and teacher.

Both Piaget and Vygotsky are regarded as constructivists. The key ideas of their theories differ. Piaget found that children act independently on the physical world to discover what it has to offer. Vygotsky, on the other hand, thought that human mental activity is the result of social learning. As children master tasks, they will engage in cooperative dialogues with others. Finally, we have no interest in arguing the virtues of one man's ideas over the other, however, both include the notion of learner autonomy in somehow different ways in their theories.

Learning activities in constructivist setting are characterized by active engagement, inquiry, problem solving and engagement with others. Accordingly the teacher here is a guide and facilitator. (The actually implemented approach in Algerian context CBA is referred to as constructivist approach) . Constructivism tends to value learners' freedom to think as they wish; it encourages and promotes learner centeredness and learner autonomy as necessary conditions for success in language learning.

1.4.4 Experiential Learning

Kolb (1984) is a Professor of Organizational Behavior, he is known by his highly influential book entitled Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development. It was first published in 1984, his ideas have had a dramatic impact on the development of lifelong learning models. Of course, Kolb's work can be traced back to that famous dictum of Confucius around 450 BC: "Tell me, and I will forget. Show me, and I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand." Experiential learning is the process of making meaning from direct experience. Aristotle once said, for the things we have to learn before we can do them, we learn by doing them.
Similarly David Kolb believes that: “learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience.” (Kolb, 1984: 38). Kolb presents a cyclical model of learning, consisting of four stages. One may begin at any stage, but must follow each other in the sequence:

- Concrete experience (or “DO”) where the learner actively experiences an activity such as reordering, summarizing, and doing a project work.
- Reflective observation (or “OBSERVE”) When the learner reflects on that experience.
- Abstract conceptualization (or “THINK”) to form a model of what is observed.
- Active experimentation ( “PLAN”) To plan how to deal with next similar experiences.

Kolb identified four learning styles which correspond to these stages. The styles highlight conditions under which learners learn better. These styles are:

- Assimilators, who learn better when presented with sound logical theories to consider.
- Converges, who learn better when provided with practical applications of theories.
- Accommodators, who learn better when provided with “hands-on” experiences.
- Divergers, who learn better when allowed observing and collecting a wide range of information.

Kolb’s four-stage learning cycle shows how experience is translated through reflection into concepts, which in turn are used as guides for active experimentation and the choice of new experiences.

As far as the application of experiential learning in the process of teaching and learning is concerned, learners need to manage their own learning by taking responsibility, by doing this, they will be producers rather than consumers of language courses. So, experiential learning, which is basically ‘learning-by-doing’ gives learners freedom to use their capacities independently. Project work is a common practice of experiential learning in language learning. It is supposed to be an effective method of facilitating autonomy. In fact, through it learners have the opportunity to learn autonomously. Other characteristics of the experiential method are provided in the diagram 1.1 below:
Creating an experiential learning environment in the Algerian secondary schools can be seen as a challenging task. Since most teachers have been taught through the traditional classrooms. It has been always a difficult task to get pupils out of their chairs and involve them in experiences. This is due to the lack of motivation and the noise made by pupils. So teachers have to do their best in order to provide direct experience. Sometimes they need the use of written, audio and visual materials. One of the major aims of experiential learning is developing students as individuals who are capable to use their capacities independently to do experiences and reach results. Thus this theory encourages the notion of autonomy in learning a language.

1.5 Classroom Autonomy

Autonomy of the classroom is a relative concept with multi-dimensional meaning. It is relative in the sense that students cannot be completely out of the control of teachers and teachers cannot go beyond the existing educational system. The teacher is still the main source of learning materials. The syllabus is still an important document to guide students to learn. In order to create the real autonomy of the classroom, we must foster a truly learner-centered philosophy of education. Benson (2007) discusses the implications of the rise of ‘classroom autonomy’ by arguing that it has led to a re-conceptualization of autonomy from a theory or a
philosophy to a usable construct for teachers who want to help their learners develop autonomy. The teachers’ attitudes towards the learner change from considering them passive recipients to collaborators as it is put by Reinders & Lamb: “While introducing autonomy in the classroom teachers consider students collaborators in the learning process.” (Reinders and Lamb, 2006:47). To see learners as collaborators and partners means to share responsibility with them in language learning.

Reinders and Lamb (2006) further explain that autonomy support can be manifested in the classroom in at least 3 distinct ways:
- Organizational autonomy support e.g., allowing students some decision-making role in terms of classroom management issues.
- Procedural autonomy support e.g., offering students choices about the use of different media to present ideas.
- Cognitive autonomy support, i.e., affording opportunities for students to evaluate work, correct their mistakes, correct each other’s, etc.

In addition to fostering time management and organization, teachers can lead discussions in which they help students plan, schedule, and prioritize their tasks and activities, making daily lists of tasks to complete, writing reminder notes, carrying a notebook, scheduling weekly events and preparing for the next day the night before, etc. so the teacher’s role is very important because:

In formal educational contexts learners do not automatically accept responsibility for their learning; teachers must help them to do so; and they will not necessarily find it easy to reflect critically on the learning process, teachers must first provide them with appropriate tools and with opportunities to practise using them.

(Little, 1991:176-77)

English teachers have plenty of roles to play in establishing an atmosphere that really encourages autonomy and enhance learners’ motivation.
Nunan (1996) presents a picture of what an autonomous classroom and non-autonomous classroom look like (see the table1.3 below):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autonomous classrooms</th>
<th>Non-autonomous classrooms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Decisions are made with much reference to students.</td>
<td>- Teachers make all decisions about content and classroom norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Teacher introduces range of activities by taking students ‘needs and interests into consideration.</td>
<td>- Students are exposed to the activities they are expected to perform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Students are allowed to reflect on, assess and evaluate their learning process.</td>
<td>- The assessment and evaluation part are structured in a traditional manner in a way that tests and exams are carried out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table1.3: Comparison between autonomous and non autonomous classrooms ( Adapted from Nunan, 1996: 21)

As far as secondary classes in Algeria are concerned, they are supposed to be learner-centered with a gradual application of learner autonomy. This is what the CBA advocates, but reality is different, since nearly most of these classes are non-autonomous in which the teacher makes all the decisions. Therefore, in order to promote autonomy and integration, pupils in secondary education are required to take more responsibility in the classroom through selection of the material to work, time management, and self-evaluation. All these requirements can’t be achieved unless the language teacher gives a hand to the pupils so as to step in the autonomous learning environment.

1.6 Learner Autonomy and Language Proficiency

Autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning. In other words, the development of autonomy implies better language learning. This is one of the bases almost all research in the field of autonomy is based on.
There are researchers who explore the relationship between learner autonomy and language proficiency among them: Ablard and Lipschultz (1998), Corno and Mandinach (1983), Risenberg and Zimmerman (1992), and Zhang and Li (2004). First, Corno and Mandinach (1983) initially proposed that learner autonomy could help to improve the language proficiency of learners and concluded that autonomous learners were the learners of high language proficiency.

- Risenberg and Zimmerman (1992) further pointed out that a high degree of learner autonomy among the high-achieving students would achieve high scores and the learner with low degrees of learner autonomy achieves low scores. Thus learner autonomy could augment the academic scores.

Deng Dafei, a Chinese EFL teacher, has conducted a study in 2004 to investigate the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency in a sample of 129 secondary pupils in different schools in China among which 42 are male and 87 are female. They have studied English for seven years. By means of a questionnaire, proficiency tests and an interview. The results of the study indicate that the students' English proficiency is significantly and positively related to their learner autonomy.

To sum up, research can help to test the hypothesis that autonomy in language learning is equivalent to better language learning, and

“.. research is likely to be most valuable if it establishes proficiency criteria and assessment tools relevant to autonomous learning, and documents the ways in which the development of autonomy and proficiency interact.” (Benson, 2001: 191-192)

The research conducted give a legitimacy of asking for autonomy to be a fundamental goal in language learning. This is another reason that pave the way to the notion of learner autonomy in educational context. (See Reasons for Learner Autonomy 1.3).
1.7 Conditions for Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is not a product ready made for teachers to apply, nor is it an article of faith (Bassou, 2008). Learner autonomy is obtained when certain conditions are available: motivation and attitudes and learning strategies on the part of the learner, and materials. To attain autonomy there has to be a teacher on whom it will be incumbent to show the way to autonomous learning. Thus, in our secondary schools without the teacher’s role and learners’ positive attitudes, maintaining autonomy in EFL classroom seems to be difficult if not impossible.

1.7.1 Learners’ Attitudes and Motivation

It is evident that people learn differently and at different paces because of their biological and psychological differences. Success of a learning activity is, to some extent, contingent upon learners’ attitude towards the learning activity and their desire to learn. In other words, language learning has an affective component. Jhonson (1998) claims that meeting and interiorizing the grammar of a foreign language is not simply an intelligent, cognitive act. It is a highly affective one too. Affective variables can impact the process of learning either positively or negatively. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define affective variables as the: “emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation.” (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993:128). So it is necessary to shed some light on learners’ attitudes and motivation.

Wenden defines attitudes as: “learned motivations, valued beliefs, evaluations, what one believes is acceptable, or responses oriented towards approaching or avoiding.” (Wenden, 1998: 52). For her, two kinds of attitudes are crucial: attitudes learners hold about their role in the learning process and their capability as learners. In a sense, attitudes are a form of metacognitive knowledge. At any rate: “learner beliefs about their role and capability as learners will be shaped and maintained by other beliefs they hold about themselves as learners.” (ibid, 54). For example, if learners believe that certain personality types cannot learn a foreign language such as English and they believe that they are
that type of person (I am not good at language learning), then they will think that they are fighting a "losing battle". Furthermore, if learners think learning is successful only within the context of the traditional classroom, where the teacher knows best, they must follow in the teacher's footsteps. Therefore, they are likely to be resistant to learner-centered strategies which seem for most of them as insecure steps, though these strategies are aiming at autonomy. In this situation success is likely to be undermined.

It seems clear that positive attitudes are conducive to increased motivation, while negative attitudes have the opposite effect. Thus, motivation also is a basic condition for autonomous learning, it is one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), motivation is comprised of three components: desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task. As a second condition, motivation plays a key role in the learners' readiness for autonomous learning. The more motivation they have, the more effort they tend to put into learning the language. So, it is very important to motivate learners to learn a foreign language. A strong link between motivation and autonomy is perceived by Dickinson (1995) who concludes that:

**Enhanced motivation is a conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, noticing that their successes or failures are related to their own efforts rather than to the factors out of their control.**

(Dickinson, 1995:14)

There is clearly an intimate but rather a complex relationship between the concepts of autonomy and motivation. On a simple level, we can state with confidence that autonomy relies on motivation, but we cannot state with equal confidence that motivation relies on autonomy. According to Ryan and Deci, (2000) Intrinsic motivation decreases as autonomy decreases. Autonomy is the opposite of being controlled. According to them there is a difference between “I choose to do this” and “I have to do this”. Autonomous learners become highly motivated and autonomy leads to better and more effective work.
In this context Knowles' claim is illustrative:

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

(Knowles, 1975 : 14)

Thus, one cannot talk about fostering learner autonomy without solving the problem of motivation. If pupils are not motivated in learning English they will not succeed, no matter how well the teacher does his job.

1.7.2 Language Learning Strategies

Research into language learning strategies has begun in the 1960’s. In most of the research the primary concern has been on identifying what good language learners do to learn a second or foreign language. Rubin (1975) has focused on the strategies of successful learners, once identified; such strategies could be made available to less successful learners. Rubin (1975) has classified strategies in terms of contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. Naiman et al. (1978), Cohen and Aphek (1981), Wenden (1982), Chamot and O’Malley (1987), and many others have studied strategies used by language learners during the process of second and foreign language learning.

The term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers. Rubin (1975) defines learning strategies as any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Similarly, Wenden (1998) defines them as follows: “learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so.” (Wenden, 1998: 18). All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom, this one feature of language learning strategies [2]. In English learning our pupils are using certain strategies which they learn to use in the middle school and learn how to use others in
the secondary level. Learners can face challenging tasks that present a real difficulty for them. So they attempt to find the quickest or the easiest way to do tasks. That is to say, using language learning strategies is inescapable.

1.7.2.1 Classifications of Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O’Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992, etc.) Rubin has pioneered much of the work in the field of strategies. Some of these classifications are illustrated in the table 1.4 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Communication strategies</td>
<td>- Cognitive strategies</td>
<td>- Indirect strategies: metacognitive,</td>
<td>- Cognitive Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Social strategies</td>
<td>- Scio-affective strategies</td>
<td>- Affective and social.</td>
<td>- Communicative - Experiential Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Interpersonal Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Affective Strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table1.4 Classification of Language Learning Strategies.

It is noticed from the table that (other than Stern’s classification), the other classifications reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

A central research project on learning strategies is the one surveyed in O’Malley and Chamot (1990). According to them, learning strategies are special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information. We will briefly discuss some of the main learning strategies: Cognitive strategies are used for manipulating information to be learned in ways that
enhance learning, as examples of these strategies: translation, note-taking and deduction, etc. While metacognitive strategies are used for planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity such as; self-monitoring, self-evaluation. In addition to social affective strategies which are used for controlling emotional reactions, and to reduce anxiety and promote self-motivation and for cooperating with others some of the strategies included in this category are: cooperation, questioning for clarification, feedback and reinforcement. The table 1.5 below illustrates O’Malley and Chamot maximal list of strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive Strategies</th>
<th>Cognitive Strategies</th>
<th>Social Affective strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention: deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspect of a learning task.</td>
<td>Resourcing: making use of language materials such as dictionaries.</td>
<td>Cooperation: working with fellow students on language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective attention: deciding to pay attention to a specific part of the language input</td>
<td>Deduction: conscious application of rules to processing the L2.</td>
<td>-question for clarification: asking a teacher or native for explanation, help, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management: trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning.</td>
<td>Translation: using the first language as a basis for understanding and producing L2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced preparation: planning the linguistic components of the language task.</td>
<td>Note taking: writing down details of a text.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Monitoring: checking one’s performance as one speaks.</td>
<td>Key word: using key words memory techniques</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Evaluation: checking how well one is doing.</td>
<td>Transfer: using previous knowledge to help language learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Reinforcement: giving oneself rewards for success.</td>
<td>Inferencing: guessing meaning of a word from the context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table:1.5 Maximal list of learning strategies. (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990: 44)
The selection of this classification is due mainly to the fact that we are concerned with pupils of secondary education mainly those of 1AS, and these strategies seem to be suitable for them, their age and their level of language proficiency. According to Oxford (1990) the choice of strategies used among students learning a second language differs according to certain factors such as: Motivation, age, Gender, etc. Learning style also, for example, global students used strategies to find meaning such as guessing, predicting, etc. Cultural background as well for example, in a culture that prizes individual competition and has organized its educational system around competitive tasks. Successful language learners may prefer strategies that allow them to work alone rather than social strategies that call for collaboration with other. In addition to the attitudes and beliefs, i.e, negative attitudes and beliefs often cause poor strategy use. The nature of the task also helps in determining the strategies to be employed.

1.7.2.2 Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy

Rubin and Thompson (1982) have developed a set of strategies that help language learners becoming more successful and more autonomous:
- Self-management Strategies: key strategy recommended by Rubin and Thomson, they include the identification of one’s successful learning experiences and organizing one’s study approach.
- Planning strategies: students are provided with suggestions on how to plan and get a general idea of the content.
- Monitoring strategies: students are advised to use their own errors in the language to identify their areas of weakness, what is referring to as “self-evaluation”.

Learning strategies improved learning among students. According to oxford the use of certain language learning strategies made the process of learning more “self-directed” that is to say more autonomous. Learning strategies are regarded by Oxford as: “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations.” (Oxford, 1990: 8). In foreign language teaching and learning there is a shift from teacher centered to learner centered instruction.
Language learning strategies are made in the center of attention for some educators because the use of such strategies can broaden the horizons of the learner and may empower him or her to become autonomous in some or all aspects of language learning.

in order to help learners enhance learner autonomy, Wenden (1998) illustrates five general strategies:
- Directed attention, when deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a task
- Selective attention, paying attention to specific aspects of a task.
- Self-monitoring, i.e., checking one's performance as one speaks.
- Self-evaluation, i.e., appraising one's performance in relation to one's own standards.
- Self-reinforcement is rewarding oneself for success.

Pupils of 1AS level are supposed to develop certain strategies in the middle school, and they are required in this level to consolidate the strategies already acquired and to learn how to use new ones. This research will investigate whether or not some of these strategies are used by these pupils in EFL classroom.

1.7.2.3 Strategy Training for Learners

It has been said that teaching is nothing more than showing someone that something is possible, and learning is merely discovering that something is possible. In this process learners need learning how to learn or what is referred to as learner training. Dickinson (1995) adds that learner training should aim to help learners develop the ability to take more responsibility for their own learning. Thus, help learners become autonomous. So what is 'Learner Training'?

‘Learner Training’ is not a term which is accepted by everyone working in the field of autonomy in language learning. (Sinclair, 1989). Those who object to the term ‘training’ for being too narrowly and too functionally focused, tend to use other terms, such as ‘learner development’, ‘learning to learn’, ‘learning learning’ and ‘promoting autonomy’. It is training learners to use specific strategies in order to function successfully without a teacher.
It is also referred to as strategy training. In this context Ellis and Sinclair (1989) define learner training as enabling learners of English to discover learning strategies that suit them best. So they can learn more effectively. Effective strategy training according to Ellis and Sinclair (1989) should be based on the followings:
- Learners’ attitudes, beliefs and needs.
- It should fit learners’ styles of learning.
- Affective issues such as: anxiety, motivation and interests all of which influences strategy choice should be directly addressed by strategy training.

To sum up, learner training is seen as a ‘technical’ approach for promoting learner autonomy. The focus is on how to learn not on what to learn. When strategy instruction is done successfully, students will be able to use some of the strategies independently. As example pupils will be able to correct themselves, to evaluate their learning, and to apply the knowledge obtained in the class outside of it successfully. Strategy training is effective in promoting the establishment of learner autonomy.

### 1.7.3 Materials of Learning

One of the most important conditions of learner autonomy is the availability of authentic materials and study aids so as the learner can work independently far away from the teacher, there are many materials such as:
- Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries that help learners finding the meaning of words, they build learners confidence and benefit them greatly while reading and writing.
- Grammar books make students more responsible for their learning, and since not all activities can be done in the classroom because of the lack of time, learners can consolidate the knowledge acquired in the classroom and do further practice, they can as well prepare the next grammar lesson. Thus, learners can be autonomous and independent and get away from the idea that the teacher knows best.
- Homework allows learners to check their understanding and progress in learning and rely on themselves to solve activities.
Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is a form of computer-based learning.

- The Internet also may be an excellent source of authentic listening and reading texts, blogs, chat rooms, etc.

- Authentic reading and listening texts provide opportunities to develop reading and listening strategies, (i.e. reading in the target language). Authentic texts, and authentic experiences, are by far the richest source of language. Navarro and Brady note that authentic texts: “can play a key role in enhancing positive attitudes to learning, in promoting a wide range of skills, and in enabling students to work independently of the teacher.” (Navarro and Brady, 2003:7). Learners in Algeria, being not in the target language country, they are presented with somehow considerable opportunity to raise to this challenge of independence so that to learn English effectively. (See Suggested Materials for Promoting Learner Autonomy 4.5.1)

1.8 Teacher Autonomy and Learner Autonomy

According to Little (1995), It has been stressed that learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent, and that teachers wishing to promote greater learner autonomy need to: “start with themselves, reflecting on their own beliefs, practices, experiences and expectations of the teaching/learning situation.” (Little, 1995:47). Teacher autonomy is one of the most significant and problematic concepts that have emerged from the field of autonomy in recent years. The idea has been introduced into the language teaching literature by Allwright (1988) and later developed by Little (1995). Teacher autonomy appears to be understood somewhat differently in language teaching and broader educational contexts. It primarily refers to teachers’ freedom in curriculum implementation. Teacher autonomy has been generally referred to as teachers’ control over their own teaching (Smith 2003). Little (1996) describes teachers with autonomy as having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching, with continuous reflection and analysis for better control of the teaching process, and exploring the freedom that this confers. Aoki (1999), for example, suggests that teacher autonomy could be defined by analogy with learner autonomy.
If learner autonomy is the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own learning . . . teacher autonomy, by analogy, can be defined as capacity, freedom to make choices concerning one’s own teaching.

(Aoki, 1999:111)

She finds this analogy problematic, because it does not imply in itself that teacher autonomy has a relation to do with the development of the autonomy of learners. The shift of autonomy to classroom contexts has raised complex issues concerned with the teacher’s role as a mediator between educational authorities and students. From one side the teacher is asked to follow the curriculum made by the educational authorities. And from the other hand, he has to assure his freedom so as he can cultivate it in his learners. Clearly said, the notion of freedom of teachers is relative. It can be seen in freedom of choice of reading texts as an example, different project works other than those proposed in the textbook and different materials to be used. Generally speaking applying the theme of a file or unit in the textbook relying on his artistry and skillfulness. Though sometimes insufficient formation is provided by authorities, autonomous teachers find it better to rely on themselves so that to improve their teaching.

Users of the term ‘teacher autonomy’ have focused on different dimensions, as it is clear from the following examples (Little, 1995):

1- Self-directed professional action: Teachers may be autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching, exercising via continuous reflection and analysis . . . affective and cognitive control of the teaching process. (Little, 1995).

2- Self-directed professional development: one who is aware of why, when, where and how pedagogical skills can be acquired in the self-conscious awareness of teaching practice itself. (Little, 1995).

3- Freedom from control by others over professional action. Undoubtedly this is the most widely accepted sense of the term ‘teacher autonomy’ in the general educational literature. In this sense the term means freedom from external control.
this freedom seems to be relative, since the teacher may be free in the selection of the techniques of teaching not in the choice of the content and the approach. In this sense the term ‘teacher autonomy’ may be employed in the field of second language education.

There is a fine balance between supporting students on the one hand, and being too prescriptive or directive on the other. It is part of the tension described by McDonough (1999) as the ‘double-edged relation between teaching people to learn and learner autonomy as: “every learner-trainer's dilemma is how to best help learners discover their most satisfactory way of learning without stifling the very independence they are trying to develop.” (McDonough, 1999:12)’. However we may notice that teaching learners how to learn is just a first step in the process of promoting learner autonomy, and later they will be gradually independent.

1.9 Instructional Materials and Learner Autonomy

The field of language teaching and learning could not be far from the huge technological advance. In the modern world computers are becoming more and more indispensible and powerful means in education, the internet also. A common justification of the establishment of such a powerful presence of both in foreign language learning and teaching is that they promote learner autonomy which researchers now set as a very important goal in the field.

1.9.1 Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

CALL was invented in 1960s. It puts a strong emphasis on student-centered lessons that allow the learners to learn on their own, it is essential in the sense:
- It helps teachers to facilitate language learning process.
- CALL can be used to reinforce what has been learned in the classrooms.
- It can also be used as remedial to help learners with limited language proficiency.
- It carries two important features: individualized learning and bidirectional learning. The focus of CALL is learning, and not teaching that is why it helps at accelerating self-directed learning (autonomous learning). CALL is generally referred to as just one part of information and communication technologies.
1.9.2 Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

According to Davies and Hewer (2008) ICT is a term that is currently favoured by most businesses and educational institutions. It describes the new technologies and reflects the important role that computers and the web play in the educational context. ICT has been introduced in Language teaching and learning since the 1980’s. It is originally intended to serve as a means of improving efficiency in the educational process. Certainly ICT in modern EFL classroom could help learners. For many students, learning English via e-mail or working on the Internet may appear to be motivated and interesting. The use of the World Wide Web as a tool may change not only the contents, but also the teaching procedures. Some learners (not all of them) use the net as a source of authentic material for the study of English and doing project work.

Emails and internet in general can be attractive, they offer students the opportunity to use writing and speaking skills out of the classrooms. One example is provided in the textbook of 1AS in the secondary education, in which pupils learn how to open an e-mail account. They are asked to write a reply to an e-mail sent to them from an English speaking key-pale. E-mail is a useful teaching tool that helps students develop their language awareness and allows for learner autonomy, since students participate in real communication. They also decide by themselves what topics to discuss and so become more aware of their language needs. Last but not least, they keep up with the rapid changes in modern communication technology.
1.10 Conclusion

Most of the relevant research studies highlight the importance of promoting learner autonomy in language classrooms. No matter what kind of research it is. Most of the autonomy studies emphasize the importance of changing teacher-dependent learning habits, increasing learners’ motivation, and the use of effective learner strategies throughout the development of learner autonomy in language classrooms. Autonomous learning is seen by Holec (1981) as a double process. On the one hand, it entails learning the foreign language; on the other, learning how to learn.

The task of promoting learner autonomy in EFL classroom in Algeria is not an easy struggle, and it would be a mistake to expect too much soon from the teachers who have traditional experience and learners to be involved in autonomous learning environment. In fact, promoting learner autonomy can be seen as a burden which is so much heavier on the English teachers in Algeria, because he or she should change his role, reshape his responsibility in the classroom as well as inculcating in his learners the sense of autonomy so that they become able to take charge of their own learning. And since the research is concerned with the Algerian context, chapter two will provide a bird’s eye view of ELT in Algeria and shed light on the notion of autonomy in the Algerian educational context.
1- Autonomous Competences

- **Pragmatic competences:**
  The user’s knowledge of the principles according to which messages are:
  - organised, structured, and arranged (discourse competence).
  - used to perform communicative functions (functional competence).
  - sequenced according to the user’s internal models of how communication takes place (design competence).

- **Sociolinguistic competence:**
  The knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use.

- **Intercultural competence:**
  Knowledge, awareness, and understanding of the relation between the user’s world and the world of the target language users.

- **Strategic competence:**
  Being aware of the communicative process and being able to “manage” it.

- **Existential competence:**
  The user’s personality features, motivations, attitudes, beliefs, and so on.

2- Features of Language Learning Strategies Oxford (1990)

- Allow learners to become more self-directed (autonomous).

- Are specific actions taken by learners.

- Support learning both directly and indirectly.

- Are not always observable.

- Can be taught.

- Are flexible.

- Are influenced by a variety of factors.
Chapter Two
Learner Autonomy in Secondary Education in Algeria: Situation Analysis
CHAPTER TWO

LEARNER AUTONOMY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ALGERIA: SITUATION ANALYSIS

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Notes to Chapter Two
2.1 Introduction

The English language enjoys a great importance as a world language. It is spoken now by more than 508 million people. No one can consider himself as part of this globalization if he does not master two things: English and computing. Concerning the first skill, Burchfield believes that: "Any literate, educated person on the face of the globe is deprived, if he does not know English." (Bruchfield, 1998: 14). English is the world's language not because it is the most widely spoken as a native language (Mandarin is the first more than 1 billion speakers), but because it is widely spoken outside its native countries, either as a second or a foreign language. The importance of English is due to its wide use rather than to the number of its speakers.

The necessity as well as the wide spread of English over the world may justify the constant changes and developments of teaching methods and approaches. This can be justified also by the fact that a given method or approach carries certain limitations which render it unable to meet the needs of the learners. Each new method or approach is built on the limitations of the preceding one. The Algerian education system was not far from this shift. The continuous adoption of approaches made Algerian schools experienced different methodologies of teaching. The CBA is the approach currently used in ELT in Algeria. This chapter deals with autonomous learning in the CBA as well as autonomy within the 1AS Textbook. The aim is to shed light on the notion of learner autonomy in the Algerian educational context in general and the level of first year pupils in the secondary school in particular.

2.2 An Overview of ELT in Algerian Schools

After the Algerian independence in 1962, French became the official language. Giving such value to French language led to a revolution undertaken by the Arabophones, which attempted to marginalize the French language and the local variety Tamazight through the process of status planning called Arabisation process. (Benmoussat, 2003).
At the time of independence in 1962, the Algerian government inherited an education system focused on European content and conducted in a foreign language by foreign teachers. Algerian authorities have tried to make the system more suited to the needs of a developing nation. The focus was on arabization, and on scientific and technical studies so as to meet the needs of Algerian industrial and managerial sectors. (Lekhal, 2008). They look for increasing literacy, provide free education, make primary school enrollment compulsory, remove foreign teachers and curricula, and replace French by Arabic as the medium of instruction. Regarding the English language, Algeria like many other countries has witnessed changes in objectives, syllabuses as well as the teaching methodologies from 1960’s onwards.

As far as its linguistic map is concerned, Algeria enjoys a linguistic plurality (or diversity). The national language used in administration and the media is Modern Standard Arabic. Algerian Dialectal Arabic and Berber are spoken in everyday life and informal situations. For historical reasons, French stands as a second language. Though many laws and policies were followed so as to weaken the influence of the French language in favour of Modern Standard Arabic. This did not succeed to make it disappear from the Algerians' lives and culture. English on the other hand stands as a foreign language in Algeria. Learners meet it only in the classroom. The teaching of English as a foreign language in Algeria can also be another way to diminish French interference. In the same vein Miliani claims that:

In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environments of the country; the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills-including economic, technological and educational ones.

(Miliani, 2003: 13)

Whatever the cause may be, English is actually taught in Algerian middle, secondary schools and in most Algerian universities. The first English Department was founded in the University of Algiers in 1964.
2.2.1 A Summary of ELT Methodologies in Algeria

The Grammar Translation Method dominated English language teaching in Algeria in the 1960’s. It was based on rote learning of grammar rules and on translation tasks. It was criticized by favoring accuracy rather than fluency. After the Second World War, there was a general feeling of discontent with traditional methods namely the Grammar translation. It was a necessity to develop new methods such as audio-lingual method that implies the acquisition of oral language skills through oral practice based on repetition and learning by analogy.

However, this approach was criticized: according to Rivers (1981) the audio-lingual is a mechanical way of teaching language that gave birth to well-trained parrots able to recite whole utterances while given a certain stimulus, but uncertain of what they were saying. This Approach was used in Algeria through “Success With English” Course book I 1970 and “Success With English” II 1971.

The ever growing need for good communication skills in English paved the way to the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching. CLT aims to develop fluency in language use. This approach began a movement away from traditional lesson format where the focus was on the mastery of different items of grammar and practice through controlled activities. It includes both the usage and use of the language. Therefore, the approach does not deny the importance of mastering grammatical forms, so long as they are taught as a means of carrying out meaningful communication. In Algerian schools in the 1980’s, many ELT textbooks had been designed : Newlines (1981), Midlines (1981) and Think it Over (1982-1983) And later My New Book of English, New Midlines, and Comet in the 1990’s.

The communicative approach had been in use in secondary educaton until the recent educational reform which was launched in 2003. In fact, the CBA has been implemented first in middle schools during the year 2003-2004 and two years later in secondary schools.
The CBA, as its name suggests, seeks to establish competences in learners so as they can put in practice the skills that have been acquired in school, in other extra school settings. The CBA according to the Algerian Ministry of Education aims at establishing three competences in learners:
1. To interact orally in English.
2. To interpret authentic, oral or written documents.
3. To produce simple, oral or written messages.

In addition to the three targeted competences, the CBA also seeks to help learners act as effective users of language in real-world contexts, through the establishment of: a know-how-to-do, and a know-how-to-be in learners.” (Programmes de la Deuxième Année Moyenne: 43). The textbooks illustrating the approach in Algeria mainly in secondary schools are as follows: At The Crossroad (for 1AS), Getting Through (for 2AS) and New Prospects (for 3AS).

As far as our research is concerned, and throughout the history of teaching methods in Algeria, the notion of autonomy is about to be absent in certain approaches such as: the grammar translation method. Though learners were asked to do plenty of activities on translation at homes for which they use bilingual dictionaries. Thus, autonomy was not fully absent in this method. However, in the audio lingual method the notion of autonomy was more reduced no room is left for learners to learn autonomously as teaching was based on repetitions and drillings. Autonomy is supposed to be gradually implemented in CLT, since learners were encouraged to do self-study tasks so as to improve their pronunciation and communicative skill in general. Autonomy is now highly esteemed and very much emerged with the CBA in secondary education. Partly due to the shift from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness. In the CBA autonomy is one of the bases of language learning mainly through doing project works and the use of self-evaluation strategies.
2.2.2 Diachronic Overview of ELT Textbooks in Algerian Schools

During the first period of the post-Independence. Hayane (1989:45) points out the prestigious image the English language holds in Algeria, even by governmental authorities, who never equated it with the language of colonialists and imperialists, in contrast to French. This is explained further by Fishman (1987):

The relative unrelatedness of English to ideological issues in much of the Third World today must not be viewed as a phenomenon that requires no further qualification. Westernization, modernization, and the spread of international youth culture, popular technology and consumerism are all ideologically encumbered and have ideological as well as behavioral and econo-technical consequences.

(Fishman, 1987: 8)

In fact, In Algeria the Arabophones did not fight English but French since according to them French is no more than a remaining of a long and painful colonial era.

However, according to Hayane (1989), the educational authorities had a lack of confidence in the textbooks used in the 1960’s such as L’Anglais Langue Secondaire 1 and 2 and L’Anglais par La Literature 1 and 2 books authored by Richard and Hall (1960/1961/1962/1963) because the level was too high for the pupils. The textbooks were originally designed to suit French pupils, and consisted of four manuals. But since in Algeria, the pupils started studying English two years after their French counterparts, it was thought that a-two-year program could not meet Algerian pupils’ needs. On that ground the authorities prompted the design of an Algerian textbook. (Lekhal, 2008). Moreover, most English teachers in the mid of the 1960’s were foreigners. They knew no Arabic. On this ground, a revision of pupils’ needs in terms of the language they know was required. But it seems to us that at the time, students were much more competent in French (considered as the first language) than Arabic which was rather the foreign language. (Lekhal, 2008). These textbooks were not so Algerian, since they were written by a foreigner to all foreign language learners, not specifically Algerian.
Period from 1970 to 1980

From 1970, many changes took place in the educational system. The Ministry of Education was split into two ministries: the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. The first objective of the new textbook designers aimed at improving the standards in English as well as meeting the pupils’ needs. Three textbooks designed by Alexander (1967a, 1967b) were provided for the Secondary cycle: Practice and Progress, Developing Skills, and Fluency in English. But the latter was never used as it was considered too much difficult for the learners. Instead, Practice and Progress was used for the first two grades and Developing Skills for the third grade.

In 1975, the first really Algerian textbook was published: Andy in Algeria. It is the result of the experience of Success with English method (see the table 2.1). The Algerian textbook is a more precise adaptation of the method and techniques in use since 1969, to the particular situation of English teaching in Algeria (Hayane, 1989). Only now we can say ELT in Algeria has become an autonomous process itself since it has ceased to rely on textbooks designed by foreigners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year of Publication</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4eme</td>
<td>-Success with English1</td>
<td>-Broughton</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Andy in Algeria</td>
<td>-Ministry of Education</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3eme</td>
<td>-Success with English</td>
<td>-Broughton</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Madjid in England</td>
<td>-Ministry of Education</td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2eme</td>
<td>Practice and Progress</td>
<td>Alexander</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1ere</td>
<td>Practice and Progress</td>
<td>Alexander</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminals</td>
<td>Developing Skills</td>
<td>Alexander</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 English textbooks (1970-1980) (source: Hayane, 1989)
Period from 1980 to 2003

A major change took place with the 1976. The whole school system was reviewed, with the implementation of the Fundamental School. As for English, a new textbook *New Lines 1* was published, intended for the 1st year Secondary Cycle, and would be used for all streams. The textbook consisted of 18 units. The allocation of time a week for literary and scientific streams was naturally different: four for the former, and three for the latter. There was a major drawback concerning this textbook because literary streams used it in the first grade and finished it in the beginning of the second grade and naturally, neither stream would actually finish the program. Teachers had no other choice than to go back to Alexander’s *Practice and Progress*. (Lekhal, 2008). We can see further details in the table 2.2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year of Publication</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3AM</td>
<td>Spring One</td>
<td>Belkaid et al</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4AM</td>
<td>Spring Two</td>
<td>Belkaid et al</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1AS</td>
<td>-Newlines 1</td>
<td>Kisserli Breksi</td>
<td>1981</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2AS</td>
<td>Midlines</td>
<td>Menasseri et al</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3AS</td>
<td>Comet</td>
<td>Benzian et al</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2 English Textbooks (1980/2003). (source: Lekhal, 2008)
Period from 2003

Algerian authorities have decided to make new reforms. A Higher Council for Education was appointed, charged with the reorganization and reorientation of the Algerian educational system. The national commission in charge of the reform was assigned to work on the revision of the programs. This commission, often referred to as Benzaghou Reform, under the name of the person at its head (K. Lekhal 2008). This made changes to the teaching of foreign languages. French would be taught starting from the second grade in the primary school (however, this experiment was a total failure the reason why French is recently taught until the fourth grade). And English from the first grade of the middle school. Educational reforms were launched in 2002, first applied in primary and middle school and later in the secondary schools. New textbooks have been designed. Details concerning them are shown in the table 2.3 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cycle</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Year of Publication</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>Spot Light On English 1</td>
<td>Merazga et al.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Spot Light On English 2</td>
<td>Merazga et al.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>Spot Light On English 3</td>
<td>Arab S A et al.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>On The Move</td>
<td>Arab S et al.</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>At The Crossroads</td>
<td>Arab S A et al.</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Getting Through</td>
<td>Rich B et al.</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>New Prospect</td>
<td>Rich B et al.</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3 New English textbooks. (source: Lekhal, 2008)
2.2.3 Educational Context

The Algerian school system consists of thirteen years grouped in three main cycles:
- The Primary Cycle which is divided into two levels. There is only one national exam at the end of the fifth year, unjustifiably called The Sixth Grade Exam. Pupils pass from one class to another on the basis of their yearly evaluation. The New reform has not affected this cycle in the number of grades.
- The Intermediate Cycle consists of three years, at the end of which pupils were examined nationally in order to pass into the following cycle, and get their certificate (B.E.F) Brevet d'Enseignement Fundamental. From 2003, this cycle consists of four years. At the end of which a national exam (B.E.M.) Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (equivalent to the BEF) is held.
- The Secondary Cycle which lasts three years, at the end of which pupils sit for the Baccalaureate which is a national exam that gives access to university.

English in the Curriculum as a subject has had a different status in the period before and after independence. During French colonization, English was taught as a first foreign language, sharing this status with Arabic, and introduced in the first year of the Intermediate Cycle. Once pupils reached university, they would have spent eight years studying English. During the first years of the Independence, English was still taught as a first foreign language, but no longer in the first but the third year of the Intermediate Cycle. At the end of the Secondary level, pupils would have studied English for five years (two years in the Intermediate Cycle and three years in the secondary cycle), as it was still the case until the New Reform in 2004. With the New Reform, nothing is being said on the place of English as a second foreign language. French in fact regains its original position as the privileged first foreign language. Nowadays, English is taught from the first year in the middle level. By the time they reach university, pupils will have studied English for seven years.

Before teaching English as a foreign language, the Algerian learners study Arabic for five years in the primary school, and French language as first foreign language starting from fourth year at the same level.
In middle school the ultimate goal for studying English consists in helping students solve the various difficulties they frequently encounter throughout their language studies. As regards the time devoted to teaching English in middle schools, it does not generally exceed four hours per week for first and second years, and five hours per-week for third and fourth years.

In secondary school there are different streams: scientific & technological, and arts every learner holding B.E.M degree is put into one of these streams according to his average. English is part of the curriculum in all streams taught for three years until the Baccalaureate exam, with different coefficient and weekly time allotted for each stream (details are provided in the table 2.4 below). At this level the teaching of English consolidates linguistic items some are new and others already acquired in middle school: syntax, vocabulary, study skills, grammar, etc. The teaching method is supposed to encourage learner –centeredness, it varies according to each level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Stream</th>
<th>Time allotted</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 AS</td>
<td>Literary stream</td>
<td>4 hours</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science and technology</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2AS</td>
<td>Experimental science</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economy and management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technique and Maths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literary and philosophy</td>
<td>4 hours</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign languages</td>
<td>4 hours</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3AS</td>
<td>Experimental science</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economy and management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technique and Maths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literary and philosophy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign languages</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4 Time allotted and coefficient of English in secondary education

In this dissertation the empirical phase concerns the teaching/learning of English is done in Tafna secondary school situated in Hassi El Ghella, in the wilaya of Ain Temouchent. This school was founded in 1996. The material used for
teaching English in this school, in addition to the routinized materials textbooks, whiteboards and pens, there are other materials such as: tape-recorders and data-show. There are three teachers of English each one is in charge of five classes. Pupils of first year are 164 pupils divided into (95) in the science and technology stream whereas (69) in the literary stream. There is a library in which several books are available (about 329 English books) mainly those of grammar and exams.

2.3 Final Objectives of ELT in Secondary Education

The objectives of English language teaching, as they may be envisaged by the Algerian authorities can be specified as follows:
- To provide the learners with a cultural experience via the English language. This will enable them to adapt a mature view of the world around them.
- To provide the learners with an ability to speak, understand, read and write the English language with sufficient accuracy and fluency to enable them to obtain access to the literary, scientific and commercial worlds.
- Teaching English at the secondary school aims at consolidating the objectives that have been reached at the middle school and to reach other complementary objectives through the three years of secondary education.

According to the Ministry of Education. By the end of secondary education, students should be able to:
- Listen to, comprehend English text, and distinguish between different intonations.
- Participate in conversations discussions using paper English.
- Read and comprehend English texts through different reading types (e.g. loud reading and silent reading) and reading strategies (e.g. scanning, skimming)
- write a free-essay of three paragraphs using correct English.
- Realize the importance of English in the local job market.
- Appreciate the importance of English, as an international language of communication, for introducing Islam, our culture and our culture achievements to others.
- Appreciate the importance of English, as an international language of communication, to benefit from the achievements of other cultures in accordance
with ours, through texts representing various life situations. And gain a reasonable command of English in order to be in a better position to defend Islam and participate in the dissemination of Islam culture.

According to the educational reforms in 2003 the teaching of English must participate in the development of the learner in all dimensions. They must also favor national values, open-mindedness, mutual respect with others and the development of tolerance. Therefore, the final objectives of teaching /learning of the English language in the secondary education is to allow the learner to communicate, to keep in touch with the latest scientific and technological research and to get in touch with the culture presented within this language. Thus, to make the learner use the English language as cultural, scientific and technical tool.

2.3.1 General Objectives

In accordance with the general objectives set to the teaching and learning of the English language in Algeria, the learner should achieve communication in its various forms, aspects, and dimensions, three main categories of objectives can be distinguished: linguistic, methodological, and cultural objectives. The Ministry of Education affirms that:

La deuxième langue étrangère est couvrant sept Années d'études (quatre dans le cycle moyen et trois dans le cycle secondaire) l'enseignement de la langue anglaise se propose d'asseoir et de développer des compétences d'ordre communicatif, linguistique, culturel et méthodologique qui permettront à l'apprenant de faire face à des situations de communication orale et / ou écrite compte tenu de ses besoins futurs et de ceux de la société dans laquelle il évolue.

(Ministry of Education, 2005:4)

Linguistic Objectives
- To consolidate and develop the basic knowledge acquired in the intermediate school to help the learners carry on with their learning of the English language.
- To keep them equipped with the necessary tools to pursue their general training.
- To consolidate and develop the strategies of learning and of self evaluation that the
learners have already acquired in the intermediate school.
- Reinforce and strengthen the study skills and techniques of what has already been acquired.

**Methodological Objectives**
- Promoting the learner with autonomous learning strategies which will allow him to deepen and broaden his knowledge.
- Reinforcing the learner’s mental and intellectual aptitudes such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation through pertinent activities.
- To place the learners in an environment which suits their needs and interests in conceiving and planning activities in real-life situations.

**- Cultural Objectives**
To favor the pedagogy of success by creating an environment in which the learners will develop positive attitudes towards learning English. From this angle, the teaching of English is seen as a means to broaden the learners’ cultural outlook. By giving them a clear understanding of different cultures other than their own which will help them to understand the differences between world cultures, and develop more positive attitudes towards other cultures. In this context Wilkins stresses that:

*Whereas the second language learner needs language for use within his own community, the foreign language learner needs it so that he can form contacts with the community other than his own. The context of his learning therefore should be not his own culture, but that of the group whose culture has provided the justification of his language in the first place.*

( Wilkins ,1972:154)

So, to put the general objectives into practice, the learners must be equipped with basic language acquisition in order to cope with it fluently and accurately. They must not only acquire the skill and knowledge of the target language, but also the practice and use of the language and how to learn. Promoting learner autonomy is stated above at the top of methodological objectives of ELT in the secondary level. That is to say according to the Ministry of Education learner autonomy is an objective to attain.
2.3.2 Final Objectives of English Language Teaching for First Year Pupils

The Algerian learners at the end of 1AS have different needs which will vary from one stream to another. What will the learners do with the English they will have learnt is a worth asking question. At the end of the first year in secondary education, a decision is made by pupils to join either literary or scientific streams. This is based on the wishes of the pupils, their average, and the exigencies of the academic program. As far as the learners choosing the literary stream are concerned, they feel greater need for English since they will use it in their university studies and professional careers. They will use it for oral communication, teaching, interpreting, journalism, and for written communication as well. However, those who choose the scientific streams will use it basically for scientific research purposes and experimental reporting. Furthermore, they will use it to consult and exploit documents and literature written in English.

For consolidating, deepening and developing the skills and the knowledge acquired at the level of the middle school, the Teaching English at the 1AS according to the Ministry of Education aims at reaching the followings:

**Linguistic Objectives**
Consolidating and developing the bases acquired at the middle school level and providing learners with tools so as to follow up the general formal education.

- **Methodological Objectives**
  - Consolidating and developing the self-assessment strategies acquired at the middle school.
  - Reinforcing the working methodologies used to work with in the middle school.

- **Cultural Objectives**
  - Exposing the learner to diverse civilization contexts and cultures.
  - Stimulating pupils’ curiosity and contributing to his open-mindedness.
  - Encouraging interdisciplinary learning by studying themes seen in other school subject matters.

Thus, the syllabus for English as the foreign language in 1AS is to follow up the syllabi in the middle school. So, the pupil will be exposed to nearly the same theoretical and methodological principles. That is to say the Competency-Based
Approach. It is supposed that this latter is taking into account the needs and the interests of the learners for whom it is destined. Even the textbook designers of fourth year in middle school and the first year in the secondary school are the same (Arab et al 2005-2006) so as to assure the continuation of the program.

From the above mentioned general objectives, we notice that promoting the learner through the use of autonomous learning strategies is one basic objective of the teaching and learning English in the secondary education. And as far as the objectives of that process for 1AS, it is stated that consolidating and developing the self-assessment strategies acquired at the middle school level is also a basic objective. Thus, promoting learner autonomy in teaching and learning English in general and for 1AS in particular is considered one of the basic objectives of secondary education in Algeria.

2.3.2.1 Entrance Profile

Pupils of 1AS have already accomplished four years of English learning, they are supposed to have developed the following strategies:
- To face problem solving situations.
- To broaden their knowledge about the culture of the English speaking countries.
- To be able to produce a piece of writing of about 100 words (about ten lines) in relation to a given instruction. And to communicate using simple correct English.

2.3.2.2 Exit Profile

The basic objectives of 1AS are to consolidate the knowledge acquired in the middle school, as well as acquiring a new knowledge. By the end of the year pupils in this level should be able to deal with simple communicative tasks. And to produce a piece of writing of about 120 words (about twelve lines). Using several writing styles such as: narrating, describing, instructing and comparing in close relation to the text they read and with the communicative situation suggested in the instruction. (1 AS program, 2005:4-5).
2.4 The Notion of Learner Autonomy in the Algerian Educational Context

Autonomy is now a defining characteristic of language learners around the world, and in Algerian schools, autonomy is also supposed to be a defining characteristic of learner-centered classrooms, as major educational objective in language learning resulting from the shift from traditional to learner-centered models of teaching as Allright puts it: “the idea of learner autonomy was associated with a radical restructuring of language pedagogy that involved the rejection of the traditional classroom and the introduction of wholly new ways of working.” (Allright, 1988:35). However, he adds that autonomy needs to be re-conceptualized if it is to be applied to the classroom. Autonomy could, for example, be recognized in students’ unpredictable contributions to classroom activities that could temporarily throw the teacher’s plans off course. Dickinson (1992) also argues that learners often act ‘independently’, both cognitively and behaviorally in the classroom, while Dam (2003) demonstrates how principles of autonomy could be integrated into secondary school classrooms without self-access or formal learner training. This turn towards classroom applications led a second wave of interest in autonomy in the 1990’s.

As far as the Algerian educational context is concerned, the Competency-Based Approach focuses on measurable and useable skills and abilities. It claims that learners should mobilize their values, knowledge, attitudes and behavior in a personal way (autonomous) to address the challenges successfully. In other words, this alternative approach applied in the Algerian educational system is to allow learners to attain a level that makes them rely on themselves (to be independent), and to compete with other people around the world either in the field of work or in other situations. So what is CBA? And what is the rationale of implementing such approach in Algerian educational context?
2.4.1 The Competency-Based Approach

Language teaching field witnessed the emergence of various approaches which rise, either as an extension or a reaction to one another. In this chapter we will examine one of those approaches, that is the CBA in Algerian secondary education, and try to give an overview of how learner autonomy is viewed under the CBA. In fact, the CBA is an approach that revolves around three main concepts that are

- Competence.
- Problem situation.
- Transfer of knowledge.

First, In Programme de La Deuxième Année Moyenne (2002), Competence is defined as: “a know how-to-act process which integrates a set of capacities, skills, and knowledge mobilized to face problem-situations.” Second, problem situation is an obstacle to surmount, or a problem to solve. Teachers are urged to place learners in front of problems to reflect on, instead of receiving passively information presented by the teacher. In front of problem-situations learners rely on their previously acquired knowledge to find a solution, and this will result in the construction of new knowledge. (see constructivism 1.4.3). Learners are also put in their Zone of Proximal Development (see 1.4.3.2). Vygotsky termed the ZPD as a difference between what learners can do on their own, and what they can do with assistance of more competent adults or peers. Third, the application of knowledge acquired in one situation to new situations is one of the main objectives of the CBA. But this transfer of knowledge from one situation to another, or to real-life situations should not be taken for granted. It is not because students do well on tests that their teachers can ensure that they can transfer to real life contexts what they have learned.
In this context Slavin (1998) beholds that

“students must receive specific instruction in how to use their skills and information to solve problems and encounter a variety of problem-solving experiences if they are to be able to apply much of what they learned in school.”

(Slavin, 1998:241)

Accordingly, problem-based learning provides training in transfer of what has been learnt to other contexts. (this is lacking in our secondary schools).

To sum up, the CBA is typically a learner-centered approach. The latter according to Nunan (1988) has these objectives:
- To provide learners with efficient learning strategies. [1]
- To assist learners to identify their own preferred ways of learning
- To develop skills needed to negotiate the curriculum
- To encourage learners to set their own objectives
- To encourage learners to adapt realistic goals and time frames
- To develop learners' skills in self-evaluation. (Nunan, 1988: 13)

As it is clearly mentioned above the objectives of the CBA such as providing learners with efficient strategies, encouraging them to set objectives, negotiating the curriculum, and develop their self-evaluation all these are objectives of learner autonomy in the secondary education. So, learner autonomy is fundamental within the CBA which is actually used in the Algerian secondary education without asserting firmly that these objectives have been achieved, though the approach has been implemented for nearly a decade. Thus, we consider the above mentioned objectives far reaching ones as regard to learners’ level of proficiency as well as their perception of responsibility in teaching and learning English in secondary education in Algeria. For this reason: “there is an apparent dissatisfaction with regards to the quality of English language learning that students come with to university.” (Lekhal, 2008:1). That is to say, we cannot assert firmly that once they reach university, students are fairly autonomous in English learning. The CBA will reach
these aims if Algerian EFL learners can be sufficiently self-reliant and take charge of their English learning at least partially in secondary education and fully at university.

2.4.2 The Rationale for implementing CBA in the Algerian Educational System

The schools incapacity to form effective adults, able to transfer to real life situations what they have been inculcated, an opinion backed by Slavin (1998) who says that if a student can fill in blanks on a language arts test but cannot write a clear letter to a friend or a prospective employer. Or can multiply with decimals and percents on a math test but cannot figure sales tax. Then that student's education has been sadly misdirected. For Slavin (1998) if a student cannot apply what has been acquired in school, in extra school contexts then his or her education needs reconsideration. An approach, namely the CBA came in an attempt to bridge the gap between school life and real life, by relating school acquisitions to varied contexts of use inside as well outside school.

According to the general objectives assigned to the teaching of English in the Algerian Educational System, the implementation of the CBA is due to according to chellei (2010) the failure of the communicative approach to enable the learners to reach an acceptable level of performance which allows them to communicate whenever it is needed, especially in the era of globalization and job requirement. Why choosing CBA according to Chellei (2010) This logic has a series of implications:

- Making the school acquisition viable and sustainable.
- Developing the thinking process of the learner.
- Presenting learning contexts in relation to the needs of the learner.
- Putting an end to disciplinary barriers.
- Choosing a personalized pedagogy.
- Adopt increasingly autonomous conducts and responsible behaviors.
To sum up, educational experience in many countries shows that one way of updating the content of education is the orientation of the training programs towards the CBA. Scientists in European countries consider that knowledge, skills, working habits acquired by young people if transformed into competencies would enable intellectual development of an individual and the formation of the ability to quickly respond to the demands of the time. According to Chellei (2010) in order to integrate in the globalized world, Algeria underwent such a reform to enable young people to reach an international level in terms of required competencies.

2.4.3 Autonomy Within the CBA

According to the principles of CBA, an important part of mastering a foreign language is mastery of the fundamentals of learning:
(1) consolidating vocabulary,
(2) acquiring basic structures and
(3) accumulating the necessary linguistic and communication skills.
Such mastery of learning skills puts the learner in active control of their own learning processes. The process of becoming successful at learning nurtures learners who are autonomous and seek individualized approaches to specific learning objectives. Clearly said learning a foreign language is not only learning grammar and vocabulary but developing certain competencies such as the “autonomous competence”[2] which is characterized by relying on oneself in the use of strategies to perform activities and transferring knowledge in real contexts. The autonomous competence is referred to as a central feature not only in language learning but also in modernity, democracy and individualism.

2.4.4 Autonomy, Competence, and Relatedness

According to the American social psychologist Deci (1996), autonomy is one of three basic needs that we must satisfy in order to achieve a sense of self-fulfillment. We are autonomous, he proposes, when we are: “fully willing to do what [we] are
 doing when we are: “fully willing to do what [we] are doing and [we] embrace the activity with a sense of interest and commitment.” (Deci&Ryan1996:2). Three needs are important in educational context: autonomy,(defined see1.2) competence and relatedness. Competence is defined as a know how-to-act process which integrates a set of capacities, skills, and knowledge mobilized to face problem-situations (Programmes de La Deuxième Année Moyenne :44). Competence is being effective in dealing with the environment a person finds himself/herself in, and Relatedness is the universal want to interact, be connected to and experience caring for others. (Deci& Ryan,1996:15)

According to Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 1996), autonomy and competence are essential for growth and well-being in any learning environment. Educational contexts differ in their relative support for these two needs. The authors have examined the role of autonomy and competence in various educational settings (Germany and Japan). Though the research made in this field, it is now difficult to assert firmly which one enhance the other autonomy enhances competence or vice versa. That is to say are autonomous learners more competent or competent learners are more autonomous?

The Self-Determination Theory, as to be applied in the context of language learning encourages the competence (know how to act process) of the learner, his autonomy( relying much more on oneself) in learning as well as his relatedness, i.e, interaction, cooperation and respect for successful and fruitful language learning, this theory is summarized in the diagram 2.1 below:

In the secondary education throughout Algeria, learning second and foreign language is based on the theory of self-determination. This is what the CBA advocates but we cannot say that all language learners (in this level) are competent, autonomous and have a sense of relatedness. Moreover, if this theory is applied successfully in our educational context, one can say that the CBA will reach its aims.

2.4.5 Teacher’s Role in the CBA

Since CBA is learner-centered and action oriented, it requires teachers’ in action. Teachers who will reflect on their professional skills, and be continuous inquirers on the validity of their teaching. The teacher’s role in any approach is closely related to the assumption about language theory and language learning theory. The teacher in the CBA is no more just a transmitter of knowledge whose unique duty is to fill in empty vessels. But rather is assigned the role of facilitator who engages learners in tasks, and helps them develop learning strategies for an effective learning. He is a counselor and a resource person consulted about information or advice. He is a very important element in this new approach.
In fact: “The teacher must guide, help, and encourage the learner to take part in his own learning.” (Document d’accompagnement 2AM:80-81) a comparison between the traditional as well as the newly attributed roles of the teacher is provided in the table 2.5 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional approach</th>
<th>Competency-based approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Holds knowledge</td>
<td>- Gives guidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Provides knowledge</td>
<td>- Facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Takes decisions</td>
<td>- co-learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Authoritarian</td>
<td>- Aware of learners’ needs and strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Develops learner autonomy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.5 Teacher’s role according to language approaches (source: Document d’accompagnement des programmes de la 3AM:77)

The CBA brought new roles for language teachers; from the table above we notice that one of the new roles of the teacher is developing learner autonomy. Therefore: “the role of the teachers changes. They are not presenters of language elements as lesson planners; autonomy shifts the teacher more into the role of counselors.” (Edwards, 1998: 80). But a question is posed here: are teachers really informed on how to develop their learners’ autonomy? Or it is just a role put by authorities? It seems that most EFL teachers in Algeria are not provided with techniques and strategies so as to develop their learners’ autonomy.

The approach based on competency leads to a serious revision of the teacher’s profession. This implies a change in the teacher’s attitude toward knowledge and towards teaching. The teacher will have to:
- Do more than teaching as merely communicating knowledge
- Make the learner learn.
- Quit his function of monitoring and evaluating in order to get involved in all activities.
- Create various means of teaching.
- Share his power, negotiate with the learners and accept their point of view.
- Work on projects, and to do so, he must have a perfect knowledge of the project procedures.
- Enhance the value of co-operation between the learners.
- Be able to conduct discussions, to act as a mediator between the learners and learning.
- Encourage and guide the learner’s efforts by showing the learner that he is allowed to make errors and to have doubts.
- Open to other disciplines and have discussions with his colleagues about methods and interdisciplinary concerns.

In short, the teacher needs to help learners feel responsible for their learning. If these are the roles attributed to teachers under the CBA what roles are assigned to learners?

2.4.6 Learner’s Role Within the CBA

The CBA is learner-centered. The learners are no more passive receivers of knowledge. They play an active rather than a reactive role in the learning process. They are required also to construct and mobilize their resources to face sufficiently a problem-situation. Hence, learners have to develop strategies to overcome such obstacles, acquire problem-solving skills. Additionally, they are required to collaborate and negotiate information.

The CBA initiates learners into self-assessment, in an attempt to render learners more responsible for their learning, and to help them evaluate their acquisitions, in the CBA learner’s role can be summarized as follows:

- To know what to learn.
- Act upon what he learns.
- Build strategies.
- Solve problems.
- Learn to cooperate and collaborate.
- Work autonomously and puts into question his learning process.

-Assess oneself. (Programme de la 3AM, 2006:79)
The language learner is supposed to create situations of learning and assessment relating both to the interactions with his classmates and his teacher, he should be able:
- To make a representation of situations.
- To find various ways of performing tasks.
- To construct and call upon various resources.
- To proceed to an assessment of his progress during the activities and at the end of activities.

Therefore, within this approach, the notion of autonomy brings along new roles of the teacher as well as a change in the teacher’s attitude towards knowledge and teaching. Edwards explains,

... When students are compelled to assume greater responsibility for directing their learning, they will gradually learn to see themselves as the controllers of their own learning. Learning is seen as self-initiated and not other-initiated.  

(Edwards, 1998: 80)

The CBA aims at developing the learner’s awareness of his learning and of his progress. This approach calls for a more independence and autonomy for learners to do research and use resources independently others than those brought by their teachers. In fact, these are the roles advocated by the CBA. Whether or not these roles are really played by both teachers and learners in the Algerian secondary education, we cannot assert firmly. We may say that they are to a larger extent keeping the traditional way of teaching and learning, simply because they used to do so, and the alternative is new and they are not informed how to apply it.

2.4.7 Learning Strategies for Learner Autonomy within the CBA

To learn effectively and more autonomously learners are supposed to use certain learning strategies such as: self-monitoring, self-evaluation and learning through action. However learners in the secondary education are not fully aware of
these strategies, their use and their importance (utility) in facilitating learning.

The learner-centered approach to instruction is characterized by:

1. a focus on how students learn.
2. explicit instruction in learning strategies.
3. explicit goal setting by students for themselves, and
4. student self-evaluation.

Pupils in the secondary education in Algeria are not yet capable of setting goals themselves and engage successfully in self-evaluation. When the language teacher explicitly teaches learning strategies. He or she shares responsibility for the students’ learning with the students themselves. To help them gain greater independence. The case of Algerian English teachers, they often tend to focus more on how they teach than on how their students learn. Learning strategies instruction forces us to examine not just what we do to teach effectively, but what our students do to facilitate their own learning (Oxford, 2003). They think most of the time about curriculum, lesson design, and less on how to respond to student questions, and teaching learning strategies which are fundamental in establishing an autonomous environment in the language classroom as shown in the diagram 2.2 below:

**Diagram 2.2: Learning strategies in the CBA** (Adapted from Belouahem, 2008:134)
As shown in the diagram above, the explicit teaching of language learning strategies pave the way for altering teachers’ and learners’ behavior and roles in the classroom and establishing a more autonomous language learning.

2.5 Projects within the CBA

Project work involves a group of learners working together, and investing their school acquisitions so as to achieve a common end product. The aim behind introducing project works for 1AS pupils is to develop autonomous learning and cooperation, this is what the Ministry of Education claims: “The projects boosts the learners’ sense of achievement resulting in an increasing sense of responsibility, self-esteem, self-confidence, and autonomy in learning.” (Teacher’s guide of 1AS, 2003:21). Pupils of 1AS present a project at the end of the unit to prove that they have learnt information and that they can use it adequately out of the classroom. A good project requires learners to do autonomous research to find information for their project, they can look for information in books, magazines from the school library, they can ask their parents, friends or each others. If they have access to the internet they can search there. They may add pictures or posters.

The project work is a real-world task, a suitable teaching method that links knowing with doing. Projects change radically the relationship between school and all the social practices. It is more than writing what has been learnt in the classroom, it has some typical features that distinguish it from other learning activities. Project work emphasizes learners’ involvement and responsibility. One of the most distinctive features of the CBA is its integration of project work as part and parcel of learning strategy. Over all, if the CBA expands on communicative approaches, it is in the sense that it seeks to make the attainment of objectives visible, i.e, concrete, through the realisation of projects in selected domains of instruction. It is all good to fix specific learning objectives. (Teacher’s guide of 1AS, 2003:26).
Pupils of 1AS are required to present a project at the end of each teaching unit, as an example at the end of unit one entitled: “Getting through”, they present a job application booklet. In unit two they are expected to write a book review in which they write a biography of the writer, a short summary of the book, characters, setting (time and place) and a short appreciation of the story. In unit three pupils should be able to conduct a survey and write an interview. In unit four, pupils make an invention profile in which they write an evolution of the invention, its models, and biographies of different inventors. The last project is about making a consumer guide in which they analyze the product and made adverts and labels. The layout of the project is presented at the end of the unit. However, the project is assumed to run in parallel with the courses. The fact that makes the learner start to think with his peers about what to do and where to get information from. It is worth mentioning that letting learners free to join the group they want is highly recommended so as to foster learner autonomy.

However, whether or not the projects in secondary education are really fostering learner autonomy a question is to be answered in chapter three of this dissertation (see 3.6.3). It seems that neither teachers nor pupils have the necessary ingredients for the realization of a project work. This is what Bassou (2008) confirms in his research in which he found that most of secondary teachers seem not to have prior knowledge on the way the project should be done. Their attitude is negative towards the project.

### 2.6 Classroom Paradigm Shift

Theories of Piaget and Vygotsky focused on how students learn, they are primarily responsible for the move to student-centered learning which means reversing the traditional teacher-centered understanding of the learning process and putting students at the centre of the learning process.
2.6.1 From Teacher -Centredness to Learner- Centredness

The teacher-centered model views the teacher as active and the student as fundamentally passive. The teacher is responsible for transmitting all of the information to the students. The teacher talks; the students listen and absorb. The teacher-centered model may be still attractive to some teachers in Algeria for several reasons:
- It is the method by which they were taught.
- The teacher should be the focus of the classroom, since the teacher knows the language and the students do not.
- It requires relatively little preparation, all the teacher needs to do is present the material outlined in the appropriate chapter of the book.
- It requires relatively little thought about student or student activities. Student listen to the same (teacher) presentation, then do related exercises. However, experienced language teachers who reflect on their teaching practice have observed that the teacher-centered model has certain drawbacks such as:
  It gives students knowledge about the language, but does not necessarily enable them to use it for purposes that interest them. To overcome the drawbacks, a new model of teaching and learning has been introduced.

A number of learner-centred approaches to language education emerged in the 1980’s and 1990’s, all of which include autonomy and independence of learning in their aims. Nunan compares teacher and learner-centeredness and finds that:

\[
\text{The key difference is that in a learner-centered curriculum, key decisions about what will be taught, how it will be taught, when it will be taught, and how it will be assessed will be made with reference to the learner.}
\]

(Nunan, 1995:134)

Learner-centered environment is communicative and authentic. It trains students to work in small groups or pairs and to negotiate meaning in a broad context. It advocates also taking more responsibility in one’s learning. That is to say more autonomy in learning.
Algerian secondary education is supposed also to witness a shift from teacher centeredness to learner-centeredness, and a gradual implementation of autonomous learning, though not all secondary classes in the country are typically learner-centered ones. The table 2.6 bellow compares in details between the two paradigms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-centered paradigm</th>
<th>Learner-centered paradigm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge is transmitted from professor to students</td>
<td>Students construct knowledge through gathering, synthesizing information, problem solving and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students passively receive information</td>
<td>Students are actively involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on acquisition of knowledge outside the context in which it will be used</td>
<td>Emphasis is on using and communicating knowledge effectively to address emerging issues and problems in real life contexts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor’s role is to be primary information giver and an evaluator</td>
<td>Professor’s role is to coach and facilitate. Professor and students evaluate learning together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and assessing are separated.</td>
<td>Teaching and assessing are intertwined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis is on right answers</td>
<td>Emphasis is on generating better questions and learning from errors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desired learning is assessed through the use of objectively scored tests.</td>
<td>Desired learning is assessed through papers, projects, performances, portfolios and the like.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture is competitive and individualistic</td>
<td>Culture is cooperative, collaborative and supportive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only students are viewed as learners</td>
<td>Professor and students learn together.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.6: Comparison of teacher-centered and learner-centered paradigms. (adapted from Huba and Freed, 2000).*
The above table has illustrated basic differences between teacher centeredness and learner –centeredness. Learner autonomy is highlighted and esteemed in the learner centered approach unlike the teacher -centered one.

2.6.2 Classroom Autonomy

English teachers in general and Algerian ones in specific use different techniques so as to establish a suitable climate for learning in the classroom. Those techniques are based mainly on teachers’ artistry and skillfulness. Borich (1996) identified three types of classroom climate that the teacher can use in different situations: competitive, co-operative and individualistic.

- In competitive classrooms, students are encouraged to compete with one another. These classrooms are usually teacher led with little autonomy for students. As for 1AS pupils the teacher asks pupils to compete in doing tasks so as to see who is going to finish first and does the task correctly. There may be also competition between pupils about whose paragraph is the best so that to be written on the black board and other techniques.

- In co-operative classrooms, cooperative learning skills are developed effectively. Students are encouraged to collaborate with one another which can enhance their achievement. Another example in the textbook of 1AS there is a task called “pair work” and “your turn” in which pupils are somehow independent from the teacher in doing tasks through cooperation for instance: in unit one pupils are asked to write a dialogue about their country Algeria (location, area, borders, population and climate....) They divide the task into one asking and the other answering. The teacher provides guidance only.

- In individual classrooms, the emphasis is on individual work with a minimum of teacher intervention. This type of classrooms can help in developing independent learning skills. This type is not generally used in Algerian secondary schools.
But language learning in Algeria is not autonomous, but relatively traditional. The autonomy of learning highlighted the dominant and the active participation of students. However the teacher is still the dominant and the active figure in the classroom. For this reason, we can say that there is no well-designed and appropriate guidance or so-called autonomous mode that will enable students and teachers alike to step towards classroom autonomy in Algerian schools. Even though, pupils of 1AS in Algeria are required to take more responsibility in the classroom through selection of the material to work, time management, and self-evaluation. All these requirements can't be achieved unless the language teacher gives a hand to the pupils so as to step in the autonomous learning environment as it is stated in teacher's guide of 1AS:

> the classroom becomes a stage for learners’ dress rehearsal of the targeted competencies wherein the teacher plays the role of director setting stage directions, assessing, and giving feedback to the players in order to bring the final touch to the performance.  
> (Teacher's Guide of 1AS, 2003: 12-13)

The teachers are required to be as the directors of films and pieces of theatres, their touch is so important in the realisation of the final performance of pupils.

**2.7 First Year ELT Textbook and Learner Autonomy**

In EFL settings, materials are of paramount importance as they may be the only contact that learners can have with English and provide them with opportunities to study target texts. The instructional materials are described as: “anything which is used by teachers and learners to facilitate the learning of a language, and which is deliberately used to increase the learners' knowledge and experience of the language.” (Reinders and Lamb, 2006: 22). In fact, Textbook is a form of printed ELT instructional materials, commercial or non-commercial, Textbooks include course books, self-access materials, supplementary materials and workbooks.
As far as the 1AS pupils are concerned, the ELT textbook designed for them is called *At The Crossroads*. It compels with the relevant Ministry of National Education curriculum as laid down in January 2005. There are two reasons why the textbook is called *At The Crossroads*. First, it is intended for learners who have come at a crossroads in their educational career. Indeed, at the end of 1AS they will choose to specialize in different streams. Second, the course places the learners at a crossroads of disciplines (school subjects) and cultures in that it seeks to establish cross curricular and cross-cultural linkages. (teacher’s guide:3) The overall aim of *At The Crossroads* is to: “**consolidate and extend the competencies acquired at the Middle School level.**” (teacher’s guide, 2003:5). These broad competencies are worded in the syllabus as follows:

- Interacting orally in English.
- Interpreting oral and written texts.
- Producing oral and written texts.

It has to be observed that the notion of competency in the first year syllabus is viewed as an on-going process extending from the first year in middle school until the first year of the secondary education.

### 2.7.1 General Presentation of the Textbook *At The Crossroad*

The textbook is basically designed for learners aged 15 to 16, who have already four years tuition in English at middle school. In the section “*To the Teacher*”, the author (Arab) explains that the textbook is designed to comply with the relevant Ministry of Education curriculum, on the basis that these students have completed the four years of English in the new middle school EFL syllabus. At the crossroads is composed of:

- Contents (p.2)
- Map of the book (pp 3-7).
- A note to the teacher (pp 8-9)
- A note to the pupil. (pp 10-11)
- Phonetic symbols (pp 12-13)
- 5 Units (pp 15-175)
From the general presentation, it can be noted that although it introduces clearly who the textbook is addressed for, its purpose, and its contents. It has not presented techniques and useful ideas on how to use it, how to teach different language skills, how to plan and manage texts, how to handle evaluation. We can conclude, therefore, that the presentation of the textbook is rather poor and does not provide firm methodological guidelines to facilitate the learning / teaching process. (Belouahem, 2008). This textbook is intended for all streams and consists of five units. The units can be detailed in the table 2.7:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit Titles</th>
<th>Number of pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Getting through</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Once upon a time</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Our findings Show</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Eureka !</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Back to nature</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.7 Teaching units in At The Crossroads.**

The textbook has five units distributed on the basis of 20 hours teaching load per unit, each unit comprises four sequences and includes the following sections:

**sequence 1**: listening and speaking

**sequence 2**: reading and writing

Each according to its own specificity aims to encourage pupils to anticipate before listening and reading, check out their prediction, communicate with the proper pronunciation, stress and intonation. That is to say they aim at producing oral and written discourse.

**sequence 3**: developing skills

At The Crossroads follows the principles of a multi – skills syllabus and therefore attempts to cover both productive (speaking and writing) and receptive skills (listening and reading). A sequence called Developing Skills is devoted to achieve this purpose wherein the learners are encouraged to apply the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing together with the functions and language forms they have learnt in the previous sequences. We find for example: telephoning,
conducting a meeting, writing a letter of application, etc.

**Stop and consider**: a language reference section, exercises based on the implementation of grammar rules.

**Sequence 4**: It is called Extension and Consolidation, consisting of two rubrics, write it out, and work it out, its aim is to elaborate language and social skills acquired earlier so as to flesh out in writing their communicative abilities; the two rubrics "Combine knowledge and know-how to obtain objectives conducive to a competency." (1AS textbook, *At The crossroads*, 2005)

**Check your progress**: is a self-evaluation section.

**Project workshop**: the learners are assigned projects to carry out and are asked to follow a checklist of instructions for its realization. Different projects throughout the textbook are as follows:

1. Making a job application booklet
2. Writing a book review
3. Conducting a survey
4. Making an invention profile
5. Making a consumer guide

### 2.7.2 The Notion of Autonomy within *At The Crossroads*

In the 1AS textbook and in the beginning of each unit there is an anticipating phase in which pupils predict the unit’s theme. This technique renders them somehow more autonomous since they try to rely on their previous knowledge and predict. We may notice that the notion of autonomy can be observed also in project workshop, in which pupils will do autonomous research without direct interference of the teacher who will be just a guide and advisor. Learners, through the project work, learn some kinds of behaviors in the class that are required of them in real-world. Though these projects as mentioned earlier are actually done in non-autonomous way, just getting information from the internet and copy them, sometimes only one of the group members takes in charge.
Self-assessment in *At The Crossroads* offers the learners the opportunity to assess their progress on a unit-by-unit basis in a section called *Check your progress*. Learners are supposed to measure their own progress by themselves. This section comes naturally at the end of the unit. It comprises a series of assessment tasks built around a master text as well as a checklist to be completed by the learners on the basis of their level of performance in the tasks.

The self-assessment grid, to be completed by the learners at the end of each unit, closes up the whole procedure teachers and learners go through in the whole unit. Self-assessment seeks to render pupils more responsible for their learning as it is stated in the teacher’s guide of 1AS:

> Its aim is to give learners and teachers alike the opportunity to monitor progress and decide whether remedial work is needed before moving on to the next unit.


Check your progress also helps teachers in programming a remedial work if needed. Whether or not this evaluation section is done by the learners and the teachers alike, this will be investigated in chapter three of this research. An example of this evaluation section is provided in the table 2.8 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I can</th>
<th>Very well</th>
<th>Fairly well</th>
<th>A little</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe people’s regular activities using frequency adverbs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe a process using sequencers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express obligation using “have to” and “had to”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read and write short notes to invite, refuse and accept invitation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read and write short notes to express sympathy and apology.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write a short letter of inquiry.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fill in a résumé form.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write a letter of application.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a telephone conversation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronounce two-syllable words with the right stress.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express purpose using “in order to” “so as to” and “to”.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use degree adverbs (very, extremely...).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send message through the internet.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table2.8   Evaluation section in 1AS textbook.**

Though “check your progress” is so much important for both teachers and learners, we cannot say firmly that teachers and learners are sufficiently aware of its usefulness so not all of them are using it in our secondary schools.
In conclusion, the above presentation of the At The Crossroads enables us to deduce three main flaws:

- First, the textbook is so crammed with sequences and activities that the teachers do not have much time to cover the whole unit adequately. English program being distributed on the basis of 20 hours’ teaching per unit. Secondary teachers cannot teach, finish their programme and direct pupils in doing project work.

- The second serious flaw of the textbook has to do with the autonomous use. It is difficult for pupils to use the book alone without the teacher’s help and guidance just like physics and Maths textbooks. So At The Crossroads cannot be used without external help.

- The third flaw is that the textbook is not so rich by reading passages and activities (self-study tasks) so that pupils can practise doing them independently. Though the above mentioned flaws of the textbook, some teachers insist on following it blindly. They sometimes rely heavily on it and dare not change or supplement anything even if necessary.

Learners should see the textbook as a framework or guide that helps them to organize their learning both outside and inside the classroom. While doing activities and exercises, doing homework and preparing for tests. A good textbook enables them to learn better, faster, clearer, and easier. Thus, materials should also allow learners to make choices from a variety of activities. They should contain self-study tasks to study outside the class as well (this does not exist in the 1 AS textbook). We believe that certain aspects of learner autonomy can be promoted with the textbook as a useful tool. By encouraging pupils to anticipate, to guess and to prepare the lesson before coming to school. Moreover, pupils may be capable of evaluating the unit’s content. In addition to self-evaluation in which they are supposed to determine their strengths as well as their weaknesses while learning a language.

2.8 The System of Evaluation and Learner Autonomy

Not only textbooks can impact learner autonomy in Algeria, the system of evaluation also has a certain impact. Pupils in the secondary education emphasis is not on how well they progress in a language skill but rather on scores. They seem
not interesting in course participation since it was not marked and focus on exams only. In fact, course participation is an important factor to judge pupils' progress in language learning.

Within the CBA, there is a reform in evaluation. In the past, pupils were evaluated three times in a term: one exam and a test (devoir surveillé). In the new system, a first difference appears at the number of tests and continuous evaluations: two for the main subjects (Mathematics, Arabic, Natural Sciences and Physics) and the other subjects (such as English) are evaluated once. Except for the stream of foreign languages. The continuous evaluation is supposed to make pupils more motivated for course participation, doing homeworks, and projects since all these tasks can be marked. Within the secondary school evaluation, the passage to the next level is based on the results obtained. Parents are told the results of the evaluations periodically by means of regular bulletins containing each teacher's observations and a report at the end of the academic year stating whether the student passed, would repeat, or would be excluded.

It is difficult to evaluate pupils in term of autonomy because levels of autonomy vary dramatically from one learner to another. In Algeria pupils have a certain cultural expectation about their roles and that of the teacher, who is supposed to impart knowledge and their duty is to memorize it so as to have better scores in exams. Questions of the exam require pupils to repeat what was written in their copy-books. This undermines autonomy as no room is left for pupils to show their artistry and skillfulness (except sometimes in writing essays in which it seems apparent for the language teacher that the pupils is doing further reading). Moreover speaking and listening skills are not so focused on while evaluating pupils in the secondary education. As a result pupils do not do the least of effort to improve their level in these skills since they are not marked. Here lies the impact of the system of evaluation on our pupils' autonomy.
2.9 Conclusion

This chapter provides an insight on the notion of autonomy in the Algerian EFL context. We have found that the notion of autonomy is not so valued in certain ELT methods implemented in Algerian schools. It has started to gain popularity as soon as the CLT is adopted in Algeria. And now it is clearly stated as a goal of the CBA due mainly to the shift from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness, which is supposed to open a larger room for pupils to take more responsibility in their learning and to be (to certain extent) independent from the teacher.

The Ministry of Education considers developing Learner autonomy as one of the objectives of ELT in the secondary education in general and for 1AS in particular. The reason why project works are introduced so as to foster learner autonomy. However, these projects are not done in a way that really contributes in promoting learner autonomy. Moreover, the EFL textbook designed for 1AS At The crossroads lacks self-study tasks to be done independently, besides the fact that this book cannot be used by pupils alone without external help of the teacher. Moreover, the system of evaluation undermines autonomy more than it fosters it. All these factors show that learner autonomy is still in its infancy in ELT in Algeria. In order to promote it a great work is waiting for book designers, authorities, as well as teachers and learners whose attitudes towards autonomy are analysed in the next chapter. It is more concerned with the research methodology used in this dissertation. It deals with the sampling, instruments used in data collection, and finally the analysis of data obtained both quantitatively and qualitatively.
Notes to Chapter Two

1- Examples of learning strategies used in the CBA

Example 1: In order for students to learn effectively, they must make connections between what they already know (prior knowledge) and new content to which they’re exposed. Such strategies stimulate students’ thinking and prepare them to learn. One useful strategy is to open the lecture with a question. Present an "opening question.

Example 2: "Think-Pair-Share" is an active learning strategy that engages students with material on an individual level, in pairs, and finally as a large group. It consists of three steps. First, the instructor poses a prepared question and asks individuals to think (or write) about it quietly. Second, students pair up with someone sitting near them and share their responses verbally. Third, the lecturer chooses a few pairs to briefly summarize their ideas for the benefit of the entire class.

Example 3: Focused listing is a strategy in which students recall what they know about a subject by creating a list of terms or ideas related to it. To begin, the instructor asks students to take out a sheet of paper and begin generating a list based on a topic presented.

Example 4: Most instructors set aside time for student questions when planning their lectures. In the heat of the moment, when brief question breaks or other active learning strategies are planned every fifteen minutes throughout the lecture, students' attention is less likely to wander and they’re more likely to understand and remember the material after the lecture is over.

Example 5: Question and answer pairs is an exercise in which teams of students practice asking and answering challenging questions. To begin, the instructor asks students to partner with someone nearby. Each student takes a minute to formulate one question based on the information presented in the lecture or course readings. Student A begins by posing her question for student B to answer. Then the roles are reversed, with student B becoming the questioner. The instructor may choose to ask for a sampling of student questions.

2- Autonomous competence: involves the cognitive strategies needed to perform cognitive activities and apply the gained knowledge and skills to processing information, adapting and transforming knowledge, to construct knowledge and judgements. This is viewed as a central feature of modernity, democracy and individualism.
Chapter Three
Methodology: Learner Autonomy in Secondary Education:
Data Analysis
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY: LEARNER AUTONOMY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION: DATA ANALYSIS

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Sampling
  3.2.1 Teachers' Profile
  3.2.2 Pupils' Profile

3.3 Instruments for Data Gathering

3.4 Limitation of Data

3.5 Data Analysis
  3.5.1 Questionnaire Addressed to Secondary Teachers
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    3.5.2.1 Pupils' Responses.
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Notes to Chapter Three
3.1 Introduction

The present chapter of this work is concerned with the research design and methodology. During this phase we have tried to gather data that enable us to investigate learners’ view of autonomy and teacher’s role in promoting it. The data collection has been carried out in an analytic approach. By analytic we mean: “.. an approach that will identify and investigate a single factor or a cluster of factors which at some level are constituents of one of the major systems.” (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989:27). Thus, during the gathering of data we have collected information to analyze learners’ readiness for learner autonomy and how can this autonomy be promoted. That will be done through the following research instruments: a questionnaire to learners and teachers, because autonomy in learning is a process resulting first from interdependence between teachers and learners. Questionnaires are addressed to both of them, and an observation of the classroom practices, in which learners’ autonomy and their dependence on the teacher will be observed and analyzed. In the same vein, the General inspector of English language is interviewed about teacher training programs and how much they are helpful in putting the teacher in the right road towards autonomy.

3.2 Sampling

To follow up this study, we have chosen our informants among teachers and learners, both of them are required to fill in respective questionnaire that would serve as tools of data collection.

3.2.1 Teachers’ Profile

The informants are teachers of English in the Wilaya of Ain Temouchent. Their teaching experience varies from one another, they are in charge of different levels 1AS, 2AS, 3AS. The questionnaire is addressed to randomly selected teachers holding “License” in English language throughout the 16 secondary schools existing in the wilaya of Ain Temouchent, without reference to their age, gender
or experience. Their number is estimated around 58 teachers, some of them are trainees, others substitutes and others full time teachers. The choice of the secondary teachers is due mainly to the fact that those teachers are much aware of their pupils' level of proficiency and their autonomy in learning English. These pupils are supposed to be matured enough to take charge of their own learning. It is quite difficult to speak about autonomy in middle school, since learners are still beginners they rely so much on the teacher. The questionnaire is given to the teachers in an EFL seminar that was planned by the Ministry of Education and supervised by the General inspector of English in the 13th March 2011. Only 50 have filled and handed me the questionnaire back.

3.2.2 Learners’ Profile

The study is concerned also with first year pupils, their age is about (16-17) years old. They are holders of BEM degree. They have learnt the English language since the first year in the middle school. As these pupils come from government schools, they share nearly the same educational background. Arabic is their mother tongue. French is their first foreign language and English is their second foreign language. The pupils of first year in the lycee are exposed to basic knowledge in English along the lines of the CBA. It is worth pointing that these pupils are supposed to start developing a sense of self-reliance through the project works and a sense of awareness of what they are learning.

During the study, data has been collected from First-year secondary school learners. They have been chosen precisely because they have been learning English through the CBA for five years. Moreover, these pupils are actually taking lessons in computing in school, which would normally allow them to do individual researches on the internet for their projects. Furthermore, these pupils are in the right age to decide about their studies, either to join literary or scientific streams. That is to say, they are aware of their strengths and weaknesses not only in language learning but also in other subjects. The classroom that has been observed is 1AS literary stream 1, in Tafna secondary school which is situated in Hassi El Ghella, an area 20 KM West of Ain Temouchent.
3.3 Instruments for Data Gathering

The selection of the type of research is based mainly on the nature of the research itself. Learner autonomy is a phenomenon that actually happens both inside and outside the class. Yin (1984) states that: “a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context.” (Yin1984 In Nunan, 1997:76) Through the use of a case study we have tried to discover learners’ view of autonomy as well as their perception of their role as well as that of their teachers in learning. Before any intervention aimed at promoting learner autonomy, an investigation about learners view and readiness for learning autonomously should be made first. In this case study we have carried out a plan to be used in collecting data and finally reporting the results obtained. According to Nunan methodologically, the case study is: “a “hybrid” in that it generally utilizes a range of methods for collecting and analyzing data, rather than being restricted to a single procedure.” (Nunan, 1997:74). Thus, we use a questionnaire for teachers, another one to learners, in addition to a classroom observation and an interview with a General inspector of English.

First, teachers’ responses to the questionnaire are very essential data simply because no one can be aware of pupils’ level, their motivation, and their readiness to autonomy in learning more than the teacher himself. The data obtained are helpful in answering the research questions which deals with learners’ readiness and teacher’s role as well as ways for promoting learner autonomy in EFL classroom.

Second, the pupils of 1AS class are handed a questionnaire written in English and translated into Arabic. They have carried the questionnaire and completed it at home away from their friends so as not to have the same answers. Learners’ responses are useful in answering one of the research questions related to learners’ readiness for autonomy. Promoting learner autonomy should start first by the learners themselves, their motivation, their attitudes as well as their views of autonomy. Without learners’ readiness the language teacher may fail in fostering autonomous learning both inside and outside the classroom, even if he or she does their best in teaching. Similarly, the Chinese proverb says: “you can bring a horse to water, but you can’t make him drink.”

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Third, Classroom observation is pointed out as a complementary research tool which will provide us with extra empirical data of teachers’ classroom practices. It is held in Tafna secondary school in Hassi El Ghella with the aim to discover if the classroom is really autonomous. And last, a semi-structured interview as another contributory research instrument has been conducted during the correction of the Baccalaureate exam held in Ain Larbaa in Ain Temouchent in 24th June. It was a fairly good opportunity to conduct an interview with the General inspector of English who has been asked to give his opinion on learner autonomy in secondary schools in general. And asked as well about teacher’s training programs, and if they are prepared in a way that helps teachers fostering their own as well as their pupils’ autonomy.

Oxford (2003) argues that: “research on autonomy should combine as many perspectives as possible and no “single” perspective should be considered antithetical to any other.” (Oxford, 2003:90). In fact, autonomy is multifaceted process in which the learner, the teacher, book designers, and even inspectors have a role to play so as to foster it in language learning. For this reason, tools used in data collection are considered as a crucial triangulation component aimed at obtaining a richer description of learner autonomy in the secondary education in Algeria. This has been done to cross-check the validity of the results and to collect as much data as to help us tackle the problem from different angles. This is similarly stated by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) who draw attention to the importance of using multiple data collection methods in research. In the same line of thought Robert et al. (1994) say that:

A combination of data source is likely to be necessary in most evaluations, because often, no one source can describe adequately such a diversity of features as is found in educational settings, and because of the need for corroboration of findings by using data from these different sources, collected by different methods and by different people(i.e triangulation).

(Robert et al. 1994:137 )

We are looking for ways to promote learner autonomy in the context of second and foreign language learning. And as learner autonomy is the product of an interactive
process in which teachers, learners, and even inspectors are involved in, the three can provide reliable data and they can help greatly in fostering learner autonomy in the secondary education in Algeria. The different steps of data collection in this research investigation are summarized in the following diagram:

![Data Collection Procedure Diagram]

**Diagram 3.1 Data collection procedure**

### 3.4 Limitation of Data

The research instruments contribute somehow in the limitation of data due to certain drawbacks. Our choice of the already mentioned research instrument is based on Cohen (1997) summary in which he provides the main approaches used for gathering information about behaviors that are not easily observed such the exercise of autonomy.
Cohen (1997) summarizes these tools as: written questionnaires and interviews, observation, verbal reports, diaries and dialogue. Cohen further notes that each approach brings problems such as: distortion of the learning process being described, producing data that are highly individualized and findings that are not easily generalized. Thus, so as to limit the drawbacks of these tools, many writers suggest that trustworthiness of data is enhanced by the use of “triangulation”. In this study the data has been triangulated by employing three different instruments, each instrument aims at collecting data from different angle.

The data collected in this research would provide an incomplete picture of learner autonomy, and mainly ways to foster it. Because this study is based on only one EFL classroom in one secondary school in Algeria. The selected sample size of 36 students and 50 English teachers might not be able to provide the qualitative data support for any conclusive findings, which may be a representative of the whole Algerian student population. Nevertheless, the results obtained from the selected sample in this study can provide some useful insights in promoting learner autonomy in Algerian EFL context.

3.5 Data Analysis

The selection of a specific data analysis technique according to Seliger and Shohamy (1989) depends fundamentally on the nature of the research problematic, the design chosen to investigate it, and the type of data collected. Data analysis is sifting, organizing, summarizing and synthesizing the data collected to reach results and draw conclusions. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are used so as to treat the data collected. In quantitative analysis:

The data is in numerical form, or some form which can be converted into numbers, and the analysis almost utilizes statistics, qualitative data analysis techniques deal with non-numerical data usually linguistic units in oral or written form.

(Seliger and Shohamy, 1989:2001)

In this research both quantitative and qualitative analyses have been used for analyzing results of teacher and learners’ questionnaires and the qualitative only in
analyzing the classroom observation and the interview.

3.5.1 Questionnaire Addressed to Secondary Teachers

The questionnaire is chosen as an instrument of research due mainly to the fact that questionnaire saves time and effort; one can collect a huge amount of information in a short time. Furthermore, if the questionnaire is well structured, processing data can be fast and relatively straightforward. In the present investigation, a questionnaire has been chosen for eliciting data from the informants to investigate the research questions and hypotheses (see Appendix 1). It has been administered to around 58 teachers.

The questionnaire contains three types of questions: closed, open and mixed:
- Closed questions request the informant to opt for one of the proposed possibilities without commenting.
- Mixed questions: ask the informants to choose one of the proposed possibilities, and then justify his answer.
- Open questions: invite the informant to express freely his point of view.

The teachers’ questionnaire comprises a set of twenty questions divided into three rubrics:
- Rubric One: aims at eliciting data from the informants (teachers) about their teaching experience and their beliefs about the learners’ level of autonomy. It attempts also to give information about learners’ attitudes towards autonomous learning.
- Rubric Two: intends to get an idea about classroom autonomy, whether or not teachers view learners as capable of selecting the content and setting goals, and to get an idea about the teacher opinion about learners’ use of metacognitive strategies.
- Rubric Three: at this level, the researcher draws teachers’ attention towards promoting learner autonomy. Teachers are asked whether the teacher training programs and the 1AS textbook really enable them to make their learners more autonomous. And the project works as well. Teachers are asked also to propose ways for fostering learner autonomy.
3.5.1.1 Teachers’ Responses and Suggestions

After collecting data through administering the questionnaire to the informants (teachers and pupils) and after observing an EFL classroom as well as interviewing the General inspector of English. It comes the phase of analyzing and interpreting the collected data through tables, and statistics:

A common misconception of the novice researcher is that not using statistics makes the research ‘easier’ to conduct. In fact, analyzing data with the aid of statistics usually makes the research more manageable and more efficient.

(Seliger and Shohamy, 1989: 202)

The researcher uses tables, pie charts and bar graphs for better illustration of the data obtained and analyzed.

Rubric One: teachers and learners ‘attitude towards learner autonomy.

The questionnaire is submitted to 58 secondary teachers. Only 50 teachers have handed the questionnaire back, among those teachers 33 are females and 17 are male. What is noticed in the table 3.1 is that in Ain Temouchent most English teachers are female; their number is nearly the double of males as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Teachers’ Gender

As for their teaching experience, it is stated by the Ministry of Education that 32 years is the teaching life time for secondary teachers. It is noticed through the table 3.2 that 62% of the teachers are still in the first half of their teaching career. Whereas, 38% of them are in midway teaching experience (see table 3.2 below).
Whereas, 38% of them are in midway teaching experience. Some teachers are still novice with only one or two years experience and others are experienced enough. Some are veteran in the sense they taught through the traditional and the learner-centered approach. Whereas others started their career within the new approach. We wish this variety of informants made the data obtained more valid.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience per years</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From 1 year to 15 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 16 years to 32 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 ; Teaching experience

Teachers are asked whether learner autonomy is important in English learning. The aim is in fact to reveal their attitude towards learner autonomy. 96% of the informants have given positive answer. According to most of them autonomy is important except 04% claim the opposite. Generally most teachers have a positive attitude towards learner autonomy. Question (04) is how teachers assess pupils' level of autonomy. The reason behind this question is to show to what extent pupils in 1AS are actually autonomous. Teachers provide adequate answers since they are much more aware of their pupils' level. 04% only think that pupils have a good level in self reliance. 26% of them consider 1AS pupils as average in autonomous learning. The lion’s share 70% is that of teachers who consider their pupils as weak, i.e, not autonomous or a low level of autonomy in English learning as shown in the graph 3.1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils level of autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3 Pupils’ level of autonomy
If secondary teachers' attitude towards learner autonomy is positive, how about that of 1AS pupils? To discover this, another question is addressed to teachers whom 10% consider their attitude positive, however, according to 40% of them, pupils’ attitude is negative, and half of the informants 50% think they are indifferent. In a word pupils of 1AS are either indifferent or have negative attitude towards learner autonomy. Question (07) aims at eliciting teachers' views of a possible change in pupils’ attitude. Most of the informants are optimistic for a possibility of change, 80% think that pupils' attitude can be positive. They justify their answer by saying that through motivating learners, raising their awareness as well as the use of variety of materials inside and outside the classroom pupils’ attitude can be changed so they enjoy English learning and become more and more independent. 20% seem to be pessimistic, they claimed that it is not easy to change pupils’ attitude as they are much more reliant on the teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils attitude towards autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4 Pupils’ attitude towards autonomy.
As for proficiency in English learning, teachers are asked whether there is a relation between proficiency and autonomy. The aim is to discover to what extent autonomy effects proficiency. 84% of the respondents claim that both are tightly related. They argue that 1AS pupils are not in general highly proficient because they feel satisfied with the knowledge provided in the classroom but if they do further research their level will surely be improved. In the contrary, 16% of teachers do not find relation between the two. According to them the pupils are neither autonomous nor proficient. Furthermore, they claim that the notion of autonomy should be dealt with at the level of university not in secondary education.

The question (08) is one of the pillars on which our research is built up on. It is addressed to teachers so as to veil the ambiguity on pupils’ readiness for learning autonomously. As expected 86% of the informants considered pupils not ready to take responsibility in English learning. They think that they are so reliant on the teacher and have no readiness for relying on themselves. Only very few teachers (14%) think that pupils are ready to rely on themselves in English learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils’ readiness for autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>14 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 Pupils’ readiness for autonomy
Rubric Two: Classroom autonomy

The teachers are required to answer whether or not pupils are capable to select the content and set objectives of the English lesson. And as it has been mentioned earlier in chapter one according to Holec (1980) the autonomous learner is supposed to select the content and set objectives (see, 1.2). Pupils are incapable to do such tasks according to 62% of the respondents. On the contrary, it seems for 38% of them that they are capable to do so.

Readiness of pupils is essential to foster autonomy. Teachers' readiness too, whether or not teachers are ready for such a change, the answers show that 70% of them are not yet ready to make pupils more responsible in English learning. According to 54.28% of them if responsibility is put in pupils' hands learning is not going to advance since most of them are indifferent. It seems to 24.12% that those pupils are not highly proficient in English to the degree that allows them to be responsible. 11.42% of the informants think that responsibility should not be given to such pupils since they are not provided with strategy based training in learning autonomously.
### Table 3.6 Teacher’s readiness for learner autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher readiness</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers are asked if they are giving opportunity to pupils to choose techniques in the learning practice such as choosing between working individually or in groups. In fact, both are beneficial in language learning. 12% of them give a freedom of choice whereas 52% do not. 18% only give the opportunity from time to time. In fact, providing pupils of 1AS at this phase with freedom to choose will allow them to be more responsible in English and other subjects.

The autonomous learner uses certain learning strategies that allow him or her to be to certain extent independent from the teacher (see Language Learning Strategies, 1.6), as example of these strategies self monitoring, and self evaluation. 84% of secondary teachers believe that 1AS pupils are not using such strategies unlike 16% who think the opposite. In order to make pupils step towards learner autonomy, teachers are supposed to train them how to use certain strategies.
To show whether or not teachers are actually doing this, question (14) is directed to them. 34.78% of them opt for explicit teaching of learning strategies, i.e., explaining openly the strategy and show them how to use it. 65.21% of the teachers claim that implicit teaching is better. That is to say the strategy is introduced within the activity, as an example taking notes, 1AS pupils are supposed to be capable to take notes during a listening session; some teachers explain how to take notes while others make pupils taking notes without explanation.

Teachers who aim at promoting their learners’ autonomy should start by themselves (Little, 2002). In fact, we cannot expect secondary teachers in Algeria to foster pupils’ autonomy if they do not know what autonomy is. Unexpectedly 55.81% of the informants considered that learner autonomy is dependent on that of the teacher. In contrast, 44.18% of the teacher claimed that the notion of autonomy should be dealt with at the level of university not in secondary education. Since according to them English secondary teachers are not independent since the curriculum, the syllabus as well as the approach of teaching are imposed on them, thus, no room for freedom is left for them.

Since the general objective of this dissertation is looking for ways to promote learner autonomy, secondary teachers are asked about the bases on which they should rely in promoting learner autonomy. 40% considered learners’ readiness as the first basis while 34% of them think that teacher’s role is basic in making pupils gradually relying on themselves in English. Whereas 26% of the informants consider that the availability of materials and study aids are the first condition that should be provided for learners so that they become self-reliant and autonomous. (see graph 3.5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promoting learner autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s role</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners’ readiness</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of materials</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 Promoting learner autonomy
Rubric Three: Promoting learner autonomy

As for English teachers in the secondary school their pre-service training is mainly done at universities. The informants are required to give their opinion towards the training programs. Surprisingly 94% of the teachers consider themselves as poorly trained towards developing pupils’ autonomy. Clearly said, the training programs did not offer them any strategies or techniques so that they make their learners more self-reliant. Few other teachers' opinion is dissimilar 06% of them consider the programs beneficial in paving the way to autonomous learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher training programs adequacy for autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.7 Teacher training programs adequacy for autonomy.
The availability of materials and study aids such as textbooks, grammar books, internet and other opportunities are useful for pupils in order to improve their level in English. The textbook designed for 1AS pupils is *At the Crossroads*. It is dealt with in details in chapter two (see 2.6). In this context teachers are asked whether or not this textbook helps both teachers and pupils in fostering autonomy in learning. 74% of teachers are not in favor of the textbook as a tool for promoting learner autonomy, unlike 26% who consider it useful. At the end of each unit, pupils of 1AS are supposed to fill in a table called: check your progress, an example has been given earlier (see 2.6.2). They tick in the appropriate box so as to discover how well they master certain skills. This table is helpful for teachers since relying on them teachers prepare remedial works. 28% of the informants use such tables and say that this task help the teacher becoming aware of his strength and weakness as a teacher. 72% of them do not use such task due mainly to the lack of time. Since 20 hours allotted for one unit are insufficient. Some others believe that the pupils are subjective in filling the table; sometimes they copy the answers from each others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 AS textbook adequacy for learner autonomy</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>74 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.6 Textbook adequacy with learner autonomy
To investigate whether or not project works made by pupils of 1AS are really fostering autonomy in English learning, teachers are required to answer question (19). Only 26% of them think that project works benefit pupils and help them develop their self-reliance. 74% of the informants do not agree with the others claiming that pupils are just copying from the internet. They do not make any effort, sometimes one pupil only take charge to gather money and get a readymade project from the cyber space. Therefore, no autonomy can be achieved from such project works.

Finally, Relying on their classroom experience, teachers are required to make suggestions on how to promote learner autonomy in and outside the classroom. Teachers made the following suggestions:

1- Change the textbook or at least enrich it with self-study tasks, reading texts, games, further activities, etc.
2- Provide teachers with autonomy oriented training and learners with strategy based training.
3- Give secondary teachers a larger room for exercising freedom and do not impose on them what and how to teach.
4- Provide teachers with step-by-step project preparation and presentation.
5- Motivate learners and augmenting the coefficient of English.
6- Teachers must avoid being spoon feeders.
7- Train teachers to do needs analysis and accept the change in the way of teaching.
8- Reducing the number of pupils in the classroom.

3.5.1.2 Results Interpretation

EFL teachers in Algeria seem not familiar with the notion of learner autonomy, though they are aware of its usefulness in English learning. In fact, introducing learner autonomy for teachers and learners who have used to certain roles in the classroom is not an easy task at all. Miliani (1991) questions in his paper on self-access learning, whether an educational system that is known for its conservatism could lead to learner’s autonomy. Teachers have usually a domineering role and in order to create environment which will develop learner’s emancipation, they have to move towards a more tolerant role of counselors and guides. Miliani (1991) is rightly cautious about teachers’ new role, they have to cater for the participative role of the learners, and be themselves convinced. Besides, the Algerian reform of the educational system (2003) has already predicted changes in curricula and methodologies and advocates the autonomy of the learners together with the shift from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach. However, in secondary education, though the positive attitude teachers hold about autonomy, they are not ready to apply it, because the teacher is still considered the first and the most responsible element in English learning process, so any change will not be easily accepted and applied, in this context Miliani (1991) explains:

Some teachers see themselves as unique fountains of knowledge not to be questioned. This means that any new technique brought into such a pedagogical landscape which seems to challenge the teacher’s authority is something of a blasphemy.

(Miliani, 1991:70)

Changing pupils’ attitude towards learner autonomy is in no way an impossible task. On the contrary, pupils need training for such a change they should not be thrown in the sea of autonomy without a serious training.
Moreover, Miliani (1991) think that teachers will lose nothing of their competence if they release pedagogical partners from the shackles of routine and conservatism, by offering their students various options in the mode of learning, even to the extent of losing some of their power.

Fostering learner autonomy in secondary education is not based only on change in both teachers’ and learners’ roles, but also on some pedagogical matters such as teachers’ training programs, textbooks, and projects works. In fact, pre-service training programs are the basis which the whole career of teaching stands on. Thus, teachers should be well prepared and provided with the methodological and the pedagogical techniques so as to be successful in their career, and help pupils becoming more autonomous. However, the results obtained show diverse shortcomings of the teacher’s training programs. The teachers questioned have highlighted the mismatch between teacher’s pedagogical preparation and what actually happens in the classroom (Semmoud, 2007). Most teachers do not find these programs beneficial in introducing and promoting learner autonomy. Similarly the textbook designed for 1AS pupils is not appropriate if we deal with autonomy since they cannot use it without teachers help. Moreover this textbook do not contain self-study tasks. Certain innovations are added to the book such as a glossary at the end of each unit in which words are translated in Arabic, but the innovations are not enough. The textbook can be enriched by further reading texts, activities as well as games.

The project work first aim is promoting learner autonomy, however according to the teachers no autonomy can be achieved from these projects since they are ready made, they do not benefit the pupils. In this context Baiche (2008) ironically says: “the only person who benefits from the project works is the cyber space manager because he is paid to do it.” (Baiche, 2008:116). As for learners they are as Bassou (2007) puts awkwardly guided, they appear to be in “no man’s land”, not knowing where to go and how to reach their destination. In the minds of their teachers they are working in groups, fairly dividing the tasks among themselves, doing their own research and collaborating to construct their projects, but the reality revealed in the data has proved the contrary. (Bassou, 2007:128).
In his research Bassou (2007) has deduced that 1AS pupils are not given the full ingredients of classroom practices for project work realizations that make of them more aware, responsible and autonomous learners. Similarly Baiche (2008) says: “...We understand that the project is not carried out seriously, and seems to be a useless work altogether.” (Baiche, 2008:162). Moreover, the project work is a demanding task on the language teacher. We conclude that the project is a fundamental means of promoting learner autonomy in secondary schools this is why it should be done seriously and effectively to contribute in promoting learner autonomy. This was the interpretation of data collected from secondary teachers, how about that collected from 1AS pupils?

3.5.2 Questionnaire Addressed to 1AS Pupils

To see whether first year pupils are ready to engage in learning autonomously a questionnaire is designed for them, it contains closed and mixed questions, (most of the questions are closed). There is also an Arabic version (appendix 2) of the questionnaire to ensure content validity and to avoid any misunderstanding. It is formed of a set of eighteen questions grouped in two rubrics:

- Rubric One: is about classroom autonomy includes two parts:
  - Part one: is reserved to questions about pupils’ motivation in learning English, and how they view their responsibility in the class as well as that of the teacher. The aim is to see whether pupils have a traditional view of English learning in the class where the heavy responsibility falls on the teacher. Or they view themselves capable of assuming more responsibility in learning.
  - Part two: Aims to provide data about pupils ‘use of metacognitive strategies (autonomous strategies) while learning. Such as: self-monitoring advanced preparation, self-management and self-evaluation.

- Rubric two: Is about outside classroom autonomy. Pupils are asked about how much time they spend on learning English outside the classroom. And which activities attract them most in promoting their English outside the classroom. The questions aim at discovering how autonomous the pupils are in the absence of the teacher, and how much they really take charge to improve their level in English.
3.5.2.1 Pupils’ Responses of the Questionnaire

The first question is about pupils’ age, it varies from 16 to 18 years old, in that young age pupils of 1AS are still teenagers. If they start relying on themselves, they will surely be successful language learners, because the first years of language learning are crucial in determining the future of learning. The gender also varies, more than half of the informants are female 55.55% whereas 44.44% of them are male. Most of the informants enjoy learning English in a ratio of 77% while 22 do not. Those who enjoy learning English claim that English is the global language. It helps them in travelling, it is language of science and technology, some think that English is as easier than French. And some others enjoyed learning English simply because they love their EFL teacher. 02 pupils want to be English teachers in the future. However, those who do not enjoy it justify their answer by saying that English is difficult, they cannot communicate within it. They cannot understand what the teacher says. The aim behind asking such question is to discover pupils’ attitude towards English learning in general, unexpectedly pupils’ attitude seemed to be positive, though the results showed that pupils were expressing their attitude towards English as a language in general, not towards learning such language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enjoyment in learning English</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.8 Pupils’ enjoyment in studying English.
What is contradictory is that pupils have positive attitude, this makes us think that they are to some extent taking charge of their learning or at least doing independent research. However the informants while asked about the responsible of English learning in the classroom most of them (72.22%) consider the teacher as the first and the most responsible. 22% of them are somehow more autonomous while claiming that the responsibility of English learning in the classroom is shared between pupils and teachers. only 5.55% of the informants seem to be autonomous (see graph 3.9). The informants whose answers are negative justify this by saying that they used to rely on the teacher since he knows best. Whereas 5 pupils do not know which strategies to follow so that to be independent in one's learning in a ratio of 15.62%. 4 of them only think that the lack of materials is the first cause of their over-reliance on the teacher in a ratio of 12.5%. Moreover, 72% of the informants complain that the teacher does not train them using techniques and strategies that help them becoming autonomous 27% of them claimed the opposite.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils perception responsibility</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ responsibility</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>72.22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner’s responsibility</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>05.55 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared between the .....</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>22.22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.9 Responsibility in learning English in the classroom
As for decision making in the classroom, pupils of 1AS do not consider themselves able to set the goal of the lesson. According to half of the informants (52%) setting time for each activity as a decision can be sometimes taken by them. 27.77% of pupils think themselves capable of selecting the materials, and for assessing the learning progress only 04 pupils thought they can do such a task in the classroom in a ratio of 11.11%. only 03 considered themselves able to do so. Besides decision making other classroom management procedures are questioned. The informants are inquired whether or not they are given freedom in choice of the place of sitting down in the classroom. Surprisingly no pupil has the right to choose, so the teacher is the authority that decides even the place where pupils should sit in.

Grammar books, dictionaries play a role in making pupils more independent from the teacher (see, 1.7.3), through the use of dictionary pupils can find meaning of words themselves without referring to the teacher. Unexpectedly only 2 pupils bring with them a dictionary in the classroom in a ratio of 5.55% and 94.44% did not. In order to know whether or not pupils’ mistakes are self corrected and to which extent they are reliant on the teacher in error correction. Pupils are asked whether they prefer their mistakes to be corrected by themselves, their teacher or their classmates. The lion’s share 83.33% is that of pupils preferring the teacher to correct them. 19.44% are capable for self-correction.
Similarly when asked how to find the meaning of words in a reading task most pupils ask the teacher for clarification while 07 rely on themselves in finding the meaning through referring the concept in its context. 02 only use the dictionary in a ratio of 5.55% as mentioned above since only 2 bring with them a dictionary to the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identifyng pupils weaknesses &amp; strengths</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pupil</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>69.33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>91.66 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>classmate</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.10 Identifying pupils’ weaknesses and strengths in learning English

The autonomous learner is the one who can discover his strengths and weaknesses in learning English. Pupils of 1AS are supposed to be capable to do so. However, only 3 consider themselves capable for such a task whereas no one thinks the classmates could do so. Surprisingly 33 pupils point out that the teacher is the responsible for assessing them in a ratio of 91.66% (see graph 3.10 above). Preparing the lesson before coming to the classroom is beneficial for both teachers and learners. However when they are asked if they really do so, 04 pupils only give positive answer and that of 32 pupils is negative.
The autonomous learner is never satisfied with what he learns in the classroom instead he makes efforts outside the classroom and makes further research. Unfortunately, this is not the case of the informants since most of them 77.77% are satisfied with the knowledge provided by the teacher and only few enrich it. What is contradictory is that pupils point out that they are not capable to assess their learning and find their strengths and weaknesses. However when asked which skill seem the most difficult for them they answer and as shown in the graph 3.12 below writing skill is the most difficult for 52.77% of them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language skills</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>listening</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>08,33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27,77 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reading</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>11,11 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>52,77 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.12 Pupils' weaknesses in the four skills

![Graph 3.12 Pupils' weaknesses in the four skills](image)

English learning should not stop as the session finishes, instead the successful language learners tend to work out, doing independent research. Pupils who
sometimes do are 15. Those who rarely do are about 13 and only 5 pupils always
learn English outside school. Those who never do are about 03 pupils. Since most of
them are not autonomous and independent enough in learning English. We try to
discover which activities they do outside the classroom so that to improve their level in
English. Most of pupils are watching films in English language 41.66%. 13 of them
navigate on the internet, whereas, 5 of them read books and magazines in English,
only 3 pupils use dictionaries and grammar books. In fact, watching films is the easiest
and the most comfortable way for pupils to improve their English (of course if they
really do it for that purpose).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning English out of school</th>
<th>AF</th>
<th>RF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>13.88 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41.66 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36.11 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly ever</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>08.33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.13 Times for learning English out of classroom

Graph 3.13 Time for learning English out of classroom
3.5.2.2 Interpretation of Pupils Responses

In basic terms autonomy is defined as taking the responsibility for one’s learning. However, this is not as simple as it may look. Pupils responses to the questionnaire show that they are neither ready to be independent from the teacher nor to take charge of their learning. This confirms the hypothesis made so far in the general introduction of this research. They still consider the teacher as more responsible for most of the tasks during their own learning process. This study has also showed that pupils do not perceive themselves as sufficiently autonomous. They are unwilling to take responsibility and continue to see the teacher as a dominant figure who is the decision maker in the classroom. In fact, this is one of the remainings of the traditional approach both teachers and pupils are used to. Therefore, the change in language teaching and learning is not easily accepted and applied. That is to say neither teachers nor pupils are prepared for such a change towards autonomy. Moreover, the pupils are not sufficiently motivated. If they lack motivation and the right attitude in learning a language, pupils will deal with learning a language like English in an uninteresting manner.

During learning English in the classroom pupils do not use strategies that help them becoming more independent such as: advance preparation, self-monitoring and self-evaluation. Most of them do not prepare the English lesson before coming to school. They are not aware of the benefits of using these strategies in learning English. The pupils think themselves incapable to set objectives in their learning. This may be justified by teachers ‘resistance to change that is to say teachers seem not ready yet to put some decisions on pupils hands.

As it was expected, most of pupils feel satisfied with the knowledge provided by the teacher without doing further research so that to enrich it. This feeling of satisfaction or indifference justifies the fact that these pupils spending only the least of the time learning English outside school. Though English learning is vast to be dealt with in classroom sessions only. For this reason, productive skills are considered as the most difficult ones for the respondents. It is generally said that the good writer is a good reader and since those pupils do not read much in English
they find great difficulty in writing which is according to them the most difficult skill. Similarly speaking English was considered as highly complex for them, this is simply because most of them stop listening and speaking English once the class session ends.

Pupils' weakness in certain skills is due to a lack of self-learning at home. Within an approach aiming at autonomy, it is by no means necessary to motivate and prepare pupils for self-learning at home (i.e, outside the classroom). The majority of pupils tend to be spending quite little time for out-of-class activities to improve their English. Only few pupils use the dictionary and the grammar book as study tools contributing to self instruction. Whereas, most of them prefer watching films in English language, though they do so generally for entertainment not for learning. Furthermore, most of pupils seem interesting in doing research on the internet, reading books and magazines in English is not an interesting task for them. As a conclusion, we may say that pupils refuse to be independent from the teacher in English learning because they lack motivation and training towards autonomy. There is a need to motivate learners and to establish learner training or strategy training. What is referred to as learning how to learn as a basic requirement if authorities wanted to make autonomy a reality in secondary education.

3.5.3 Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is one of triangulation data-collection techniques; it facilitates the gathering of various aspects of teacher's teaching practices. It is worth mentioning that in this study both teacher and pupils are targeted. It is not a way of evaluation but rather a way of gathering information to what extent the observed classroom is an autonomous one. The classroom observed consists of 36 pupils, 16 boys and 20 girls. Their curriculum comprises 10 subject matters. They attend 32 lectures hours a week, four hours are devoted to the English lessons. The teacher is a man who has been teaching English for twenty years.
3.5.3.1 Type of Data Collected

To collect the required data, we have attended different lessons of a teaching unit prescribed by the syllabus. The observation has lasted more than two months. The researcher selected the observation to have such length so as to observe learner engagement, teaching method as well as learners’ use of learning strategies in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). The observation aims also to observe the different materials used by the teacher as well as how much the pupils are engaged in collaborative work. We choose also the observation to have such length because the notion of autonomy in the classroom needs sufficient time to be observed, we need sufficient time to decide whether or not learner autonomy is a part of the learning strategies used in the classroom activities.

During the period of classroom observation we have tried to collect information about teacher’s as well as learners’ practices of autonomy in the classroom. The observer while observing the class bears in mind to answer the following questions:
1- Does the teaching method make the pupils less dependent on the teacher?
2- Are pupils positively engaged in the learning activity?
3- Is the type of class activities really fostering learner autonomy?
4- How are learners’ errors corrected?
5- In which instructional activity pupils seem to be more independent (reading, writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary…..)?
6- Does teacher plan classroom collaborative activities?
7- How does teacher teach learning strategies (explicitly or implicitly)?
9- Does he use appropriate material so that to make the lesson interesting?
10- Does he present the project in an appropriate way so that to foster learner autonomy?

3.5.3.2 Results and Interpretation of the observation

After having observed this classroom over a period of nearly two months, the observation confirmed that this classroom was far to be autonomous. Still the teacher centeredness appears. The teacher was still the dominant and the most responsible
of learning. In fact, pupils are not motivated enough, the teacher talks more than pupils do. What is clearly noticeable is that only few pupils are actively engaged in their learning (about six). Surprisingly, the same pupils participate and answer teachers’ questions. In other words only few of them are motivated whereas, most of the others are not. Some of them cause noise and really disturb both the teacher and the brilliant pupils. Though, most of them claimed before that they enjoy English learning. While observing the classroom we discover how much it is hard to introduce autonomy to pupils who are not motivated and not making the least of the efforts to learn English.

It is said if the lesson is the journey the lesson plan is the map, in fact, after having a look at the lesson plan, it is prepared in accordance with principles of the CBA. However, during the lesson the teacher has found himself altering many techniques and replacing many questions, because he has spent much time waiting in vain for pupils’ responses. He started talking, explaining, and giving examples so that at the end only six or eight seemed to understand. What is noticeable in this teacher is that for the sake of making pupils learn he has talked a lot and explained every detail. His intention is helping them; however, his method makes them more reliant on him. Most of pupils are just listeners, they do not bother themselves to discuss, ask questions or provide additions. Thus, the teaching method makes pupils more dependent on the teacher. Most pupils are not positively engaged in the learning process, and here one should mention that the low coefficient of English can be one cause since:

“...Low coefficient as well as limited teaching time and resources allocated to French and English language teaching..led the younger generations..to encounter real learning problems in both foreign languages.”

(Hamzaoui, 2006:73)

In secondary education pupils give much attention to subjects of high coefficient. In English learning pupils in addition to the habit of overreliance on the teacher that they develop in their middle school. They are also not aware enough that they are no longer beginners and that it is high time for them to be responsible for their learning.
Self-correction and self-evaluation are the first steps in fostering learner autonomy. However, in the observed classroom the teacher has stopped the pupils and corrected them, even the smallest error has been corrected. While speaking pupils did not correct each other. Even self-correction is rarely used (only by good pupils) or sometimes in written tasks in which pupils have been asked to do self-correction, peer correction is in fact very rare. So in the whole unit peer and self correction have been dealt with twice only.

Pupils’ interest and even their motivation vary from an instructional task to another. Along my presence in the classroom I noticed that they have been active and so has been the teacher in grammar lessons, by giving examples, deriving rules and doing activities. In reading tasks they seem less motivated in answering comprehension questions and filling tables. In speaking tasks they are poorly motivated since they fear embracement and making errors. It has been clear that in writing tasks they feel difficulty; sometimes they ask the teacher to translate certain words for them from Arabic to English. Mainly because they do not bring dictionaries with them to the classroom except two who have brought bilingual dictionaries.

All along my presence with him in the classroom the teacher has not given any task where pupils work together, collaborate, negotiate and discuss. Nevertheless few pair work tasks have been given. Because the classroom is overcrowded, the teacher decides to keep order. However, the teacher has not prepared collaborative tasks for his pupils, mainly because they are not presented in the textbook, and since he was blindly following the textbook he dared not to change or add tasks missing in the textbook such as collaborative tasks even if necessary[1].

One of the ways learners become actively involved in controlling their own learning is by using strategies. In the results obtained from teachers’ questionnaire most of them opt for implicit strategy instruction. Though the explicit instruction is better for 1AS pupils who should know the strategy: how is it used? And why? Those questions could not be answered unless the teacher provided explicit teaching of strategies. This what is lacking in the observed classroom. The teachers ask pupils to do certain tasks. They use certain strategies unconsciously, example task listen and check they
Have been asked to take note (without explanation of how to take notes and why they are using such strategy). In other task they have been asked to read information written in bold type in a text and choose the most suitable title. However they are not informed that those words are called key words and are used to give a title or a general idea of a reading passage. Teachers must teach explicitly certain learning strategies so that to help pupils becoming autonomous.

According to Julia Dobson (1981) teaching English without a language laboratory is just like teaching swimming without swimming pool. In fact, the laboratory is of great importance. However, it is not available in the secondary level, other than the routinized materials: white board, pens and the textbook, the teacher use some pictures of inventions (microwave oven, vaccume cleaner, washing machine, telephone) and photos of inventors and scientists such as: Thomas Edison, Louis Pasteur, Brothers Right, etc. Other than those visual aids no other material has been used by the teacher. In fact, the existing of materials in the classroom made the session more interesting since it breaks the routine and makes it more memorable than other tedious class sessions.

In the first session with the teacher on February 20th, 2011 at 08 am, I have remarked that he did not introduce the topic of the project work[2], after finishing I inquired why, the teacher answered that it was better to introduce the unit’s theme first and later to introduce the project. In fact, in the next session on February 21st he has introduced the project. He asked pupils to open their textbooks on page131 where the instructions were written. The project is about making a profile of an invention. After referring them to the textbook the teacher took exactly 14 minutes to read and explain the steps of the project. After this session neither the teacher has talked again about the project, nor pupils have brought their works to be checked by the teacher. It was until the day of presentation (March 07th, 2011) when the project was mentioned, we attended two presentations, one about the typewriter and another one about the telephone. Well typed with pictures, i.e, ready made from cyber space. (See appendix 4). Surprisingly during the presentation pupils were unaware of what they were reading. They were incapable to answer their classmates’ questions. The teacher was just listening and maintaining order.
It is true the aim behind introducing the projects in the Algerian schools is fostering learner autonomy as stated by the Ministry of Education. However, most pupils do not make sufficient efforts in them. In the contrary, according to Belouahem. R (2008): “… seeking information from the internet never helps the learner to provide a personal effort. It would be better if it was simplified into a simple report since the learners are not ready to be in such a wide complex dimension. (Belouahem R, 2008:211). According to him, simple reports written in pupils’ own style is better than a readymade project work. Moreover, the project work is too demanding for both the teachers and the pupils.

To conclude with what E. Ushioda (2003) says: “The concept of autonomy in the classroom invariably brings to mind the vision of learners working happily in groups, pairs or individually while the teacher hovers in the background.” (E. Ushioda, 2003:9). Taking into consideration what she says and the results obtained from the classroom observation we confirm that the observed classroom is not an autonomous one. The problem is that neither teachers nor pupils can be blamed since both have been poorly prepared for autonomy. English teachers should create an atmosphere that foster autonomy such as introducing activities[3] that stimulate learners’ and motivate them so that to make pupils more successful, As suggested by Littlewood: “for students, the ability to behave autonomously is dependent upon their teacher creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted.” Littlewood (1999: 33). The success of the learner autonomy is, to a great extent, determined by the educational system and the role of the teacher.

3.5.4 The Interview

In order to broaden the scope of research we have added an interview with the General inspector of English in the Wilaya of Ain Temouchent. He has been asked open-ended questions in order to collect data on his general understanding of learner autonomy. Whether or not it is included in teacher training programs, and how can it be fostered both inside the classroom and outside of it. He has been questioned about how much autonomous the pupils in the secondary school are. Some
questions have already been prepared by the researcher so as to be answered by the English inspector, though the questions have been modified according to the inspector answers and comments.

3.5.4.1 Types of Data Collected

Thanks to his experience as an inspector and his visits to teachers in classrooms, his observations to pupils' engagement in learning activities as well as his knowledge of problems teachers in secondary education are facing, make the general inspector of English in a good position to answer the questions and provide a reliable data about autonomy in English learning. Some of these questions are presented below:

1- What is your understanding of learner autonomy?
2- Do you consider learner autonomy important in the secondary level? Why? Why not?
3- Are project works really helping pupils in the secondary school to be autonomous?
4- On the basis of your visits to several classes in the wilaya, how good are pupils at learning English autonomously in secondary schools?
5- According to you does the teaching and learning environment in Algeria help or hinder the development of autonomy? In what ways?
6- What should be done to encourage students to become more autonomous in and outside the classroom?
7- At university, students in the first year came with no capacity to study independently from the teacher, mainly because they are used to spoon feeding provided for them in the secondary schools, according to you what are the solutions for this problem?
8- Are teacher training programs really helping English teachers to foster their learners’ autonomy? How?
9- Do you provide teachers with techniques how to reduce learners’ dependence on them, and fostering their independent learning? (During seminars or study days).
10- Which pieces of advice would you give English teachers in order to give their learners more responsibilities and independence in learning English?
3.5.4.2 Data Interpretation

According to the General inspector of English, learner autonomy is very important in English learning not only in the secondary education but in the middle school. It is through autonomy that the skills and knowledge acquired can be reinvested in real life situations. The project work if suggested in an appropriate way can prove to be a very interesting tool to make students learn, be enthusiastic in their learning and eager to learn more. Unfortunately, added the inspector this rarely happens in our classrooms as teachers seldom take time to foster autonomous learning. They rather deal with the project work as a burden and suggest it to their students just because it is part of the approach they are supposed to implement in their teaching. The students are left without any assistance and make of their project a meaningless ‘copy and paste’ patchwork from the Internet which neither their teachers nor themselves have read entirely.

According to the interviewee various factors prevent the teacher from implementing the CBA in his teaching. This approach which has been adopted for a decade now and which advocates autonomous learning meets some limits in the Algerian classroom for a number of reasons:

a) Overloaded classes that do not leave much space to promote pupil-centered teaching and autonomous learning.

b) Lack of equipment and material.

c) Insufficient teacher development.

d) Resistance to the new approach.

e) Fear to lose authority.

f) Use of official yearly distributions of the syllabus which are content-based.

g) Discordance between teaching which is meant to develop competences in using a language and certificative assessment which is content-based: teachers choose and concentrate on teaching what is tested in the baccalaureate at the expense of enabling pupils to learn and use a language.

These obstacles, among others, hinder the development of learner autonomy in Algerian schools.
Before answering the seventh question, the inspector liked to precise that spoon-feeding is present in all the schooling cycles, not specific to secondary teaching. The remark is present in the majority of the teachers’ inspection reports but for the reasons indicated above, student autonomy cannot be reached unless solutions to these reasons are found.

Fostering students’ autonomy according to the inspector is at the heart of every teacher development program whether during seminars or during teacher conferences following an inspection visit to a teacher. Methods and techniques are provided to the teachers in order to ‘stop teaching and let students learn’. Some of them put them into practice in their everyday teaching but many remain reluctant to operate changes claiming that students are weak, unwilling to make efforts, too many in class and that will cause too much noise if the teacher applies these techniques. In reality, the problem is different. Some teachers have negative attitudes towards implementing students’ autonomy in their teaching strategies since they have not been trained themselves in an autonomous way. Some others prefer to follow the book page after page, activity after activity even if the contents of the textbook do not meet their students’ interest or level.

As he has explained before in question 3 the inspector claims that the teaching/learning environment in Algeria is not ideal to promote autonomous learning. Much effort has to be made from the different stakeholders: a more realistic and adequate schooling system, smaller classes, equipped classrooms and laboratories, rich libraries, more pertinent syllabuses and textbooks that develop students’ autonomy, more teacher development as well as a redefinition of the teacher’s role. Whether present or not, it is up to the teacher to motivate his students become autonomous and responsible for their learning. One important factor to encourage autonomy is to make the learning objectives clear and arousing the student’s curiosity. It is only then that the student is given the tools and supports to work autonomously.

In light of the interview data, the following suggestions and pieces of advice are provided by the inspector for promoting learner autonomy in Algerian schools:
The first thing to start with is to tell the student that he is part and parcel of the learning process, that the teacher is not a knowledge dispenser, but rather a guide and facilitator who helps students acquire competencies that enable them learn English.

He ought to reassure learners that he can assist them individually when they need help.

At the very beginning of the year he should suggest a diagnostic test to be aware of his students’ individual strengths and weaknesses so as to provide remedies.

Students need to know the learning objectives, to know what is expected from them, the way they are going to be assessed and the different supports they may use.

Teachers should link the learning objectives to the students’ own experiences and their interests and provide meaningful choices congruent with the learning objectives so as to develop a sense of students’ ownership over the learning process.

The teacher should encourage group work, peer and self assessment so as to leave space to peer negotiations and individual involvement.

The teachers should engage the students’ curiosity and promote active learning. They should make use of problem solving situations that are challenging.

Teachers should provide feedback on the students’ acquisition and what is left to improve. They should praise them for their effort and help them overcome their disappointment if they failed to succeed by reassuring them.

The use of journals and portfolios is recommended and encouraged to make students evaluate their own progress. This will motivate them do better and develop a sense of responsibility for their own learning.

### 3.6 The Research Findings

As put by Seliger and Shohamy (1989), once the data have been analyzed and the results obtained, the last phase in the research process is to summarize the main
findings. In the light of the data analyzed we can argue that the very idea of autonomy is part of the Western cultural tradition and thus by definition alien to non-Western learners (Jones, 1995. In Little, 1996). An extension of this argument claims that the methods used to foster the development of learner autonomy are likewise alien to non-Western pedagogical traditions. The idea seems to be a bit racist since what is applicable in western countries can be applied in non western countries through training and preparation. As for Algeria, autonomy has been introduced as top to down procedure within the CBA without step by step procedure of training and preparations for both teachers and learners.

3.6.1 Pupils Readiness for Autonomous Learning

One of the assumptions underlying the learner –centered approach is that the learner is able to take charge of the learning experience without any kind of difficulty. But in reality pupils in the secondary education in general and those in the first year in particular are not ready for taking much more responsibility for their English learning. This is due mainly to pupils' lack of motivation; their inability to solve problems on their own or the inadequacy of their modes of learning. Learners may not be able or ready to use this system because:

1- Pupils feel more secure in the presence of the teacher, because first they are used to rely on the teacher, second because of a lack of self-confidence.
2- The educational system does not provide learners with autonomy oriented training before implementing the learner centered approach. Therefore, pupils are not ready to be even a bit independent from the teacher because they do not know how to do this, which strategies to use so as to be autonomous, as put by Miliani (1991): “such an approach to learning is not part of the learning strategies acquired previously. Therefore, change can be a bad experience.”(Miliani,1991:69)
3- Even self assessment cannot be conducted by pupils themselves owing to the lack of training. They are evaluated through exam and test marks and teacher comments, the fact, that makes them subjective in assessing themselves. This was teachers’ opinion towards self assessment.
4- Pupils readiness is tightly related to their motivation in learning English. The results reveal that motivation has a strong impact in this readiness. So motivating pupils is the first step that can be taken towards autonomy.

Furthermore, the teacher will not lose all the responsibility in the English classroom, instead he or she had better start sharing it with their learners (partial autonomy), and withdrawing step by step, so that at the third and the final year in the secondary level pupils will be ready for full autonomy when they reach university. In the secondary education pupils should select from a wide range of activities, limit times for doing them, selecting materials to be used, doing independent research (projects), use grammar books dictionaries and evaluate learning. According to Miliani autonomy in the secondary level deals with decision –taking (i.e. choice of activities) not so much with decision-making (i.e. design of these activities). Similarly M. Ouakrime (1991) a university teacher in Fes Morocco claims that the hope is that after their three years of study at the Lycee, pupils will be in a position to continue studying. They will know how to use a book, a library, study skills, etc, he says:

They will not suddenly be cut off from their life support machine, the teacher. They will be responsible for their own learning. You cannot learn all there is to learn in three years at school but you can be set on the right path, by being equipped to continue learning.

(Ouakrime, 1991:16)

In this research some Algerian EFL teachers claim that autonomy should be dealt with in the level of university. In contrast, the secondary level is preparatory phase for university, so spoon feeding will not make pupils go further in English learning. In this respect, a strategy for developing autonomy in language teaching will require enhanced metacognitive skills, self-awareness to improve motivation and willingness to take charge of learning.

3.6.2 Secondary Teachers and Learner Autonomy

EFL teachers in Algeria face numerous difficulties in fostering learner autonomy. They still consider that there is no room for autonomy in the secondary
level. It has to be dealt with at university according to them. They justified this by claiming that the curriculum, the content, and the method are imposed on the secondary teacher, no room for freedom is left for him. However, most university teachers complained from the spoon feeding students used to have in the secondary education, this spoon feeding is the cause of students’ incapability and unwillingness to learn English autonomously. Most of the questioned EFL teachers seemed not ready yet to share responsibility with their learners. They used to such a dictatorial type of teaching as put by Miliani (1991):

\[
\text{The teacher must also go through a stage where he will have to relinquish power. But how many teachers are ready to share their power and establish a new pedagogical contract, contrary to their usual authoritative and domineering roles to become consultants and guides?}
\]

(Miliani, 1991:70)

EFL teachers in Algeria view change as a real difficulty because they are not well prepared for it. Most of them seemed resistant to change, since it is demanding in time, energy and preparation as clarified in the diagram 3.2 below:

```
Fears of loss of employment

Fear of loss of status ———— Why Change ———— Fear of loss of confidence

Fears of loss of employment

Fear of loss of status

Demand Time

Demand Energy

Why Change

is Resisted

Diagram 3.2: Resistance to change. (In Baiche, 2008:24)
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The resistance to change and the lack of readiness are not the only obstacles in fostering learner autonomy in the secondary education in Algeria. Pupils’ attitude towards autonomy is also negative according to most of the teachers. They are so much reliant on the teacher in English learning that they are incapable to set goals.
and evaluate their learning. They are even unaware of the use of strategies that render them somehow more independent from the teacher in learning English. That is to say, not only teachers are resistant to change (autonomy) in English learning teaching process, pupils also are resistant. Learners’ readiness, teachers’ roles, and the availability of materials are the bases on which we should stand so as to foster learner autonomy. However, teachers stresses that autonomy and motivation go hand in hand because if pupils are not motivated to learn English, they will not be autonomous no matter how well the teacher plays his role and no matter how much material and study aids they have at hands.

3.6.3 Promoting Learner Autonomy in English Learning

The core interest of this research is looking for ways in order to foster learner autonomy in the secondary education. In the light of the results obtained from the questionnaires, the classroom observation and the interview, major findings are as follows:

First, pupils are not aware of the important role autonomy plays in English learning, so the first thing teachers have to do is rising pupils awareness, because learners have become accustomed to being taught language rather than being taught how to learn. In fact, the teacher must try to rise his learners awareness. Learner strategies should also be given a lot of attention in foreign language classrooms. “Without developing such strategies, students will remain trapped in their old patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never be fully autonomous” (Wenden, 1998: 90). Both secondary teachers and the inspector of English admit that Algerian pupils in general are ill-prepared for autonomy in English learning. Thus, strategy based training is an essential pillar on which autonomy stands. It makes students think about their own learning, they can then begin to notice how they learn, how others learn, and how they can learn more efficiently. An essential aspect of autonomous learning is that the learner develops awareness of language and learning. Developing awareness does not come naturally to most learners. It is the result of conscious effort and practice, so a lot of work needs to be done in order to bring these students around to accept the usefulness of autonomous learning.
Second, the learner centered approach necessitates changes in the language teacher’s role. Numerous attempts to redefine the teacher’s role as facilitator, counselor, and manager of learning resources have generated. The CBA catch phrase is “stop teaching let pupils learn”, however, if teachers stop teaching, most learners will stop learning. So promoting learner autonomy is not based only on rising pupils’ awareness and strategy training and change in teachers’ role. It is also based on “pedagogical dialogue” (Little 1996: 175). Why dialogue is important? Because human nature is innately dialogic, persuasive communication (see 4.22) purports to help bring these facts to light and identify the causes that underlie them.

Third, both the textbook of 1AS and the project works are considered inadequate in fostering learner autonomy. To promote autonomy textbooks should, therefore, place sufficient authentic texts at the learner’s disposal so that he can choose a text which he finds interesting. A text which accommodates his needs and interests. Authentic texts are also essential for discovering language as culture. Project works also should be done in a way that really foster autonomy.

So to promote learner autonomy we should start first by rising pupils’ awareness and motivation and in a later stage adopting a strategy based training. Innovations should be done in the textbooks, and the project work presentations. Finally teachers make several suggestions for ways of promoting learner autonomy in the Algerian EFL context. Such as, advocating autonomy – oriented training, in addition to providing secondary teachers with a larger room to exercise their autonomy as teachers. Moreover, raising the coefficient of English as well as reducing the number of pupils in the classroom.

The findings indicate that pupils are to a large extent negatively predisposed to many of the components of autonomous learning. It suggests that a lot of work needs to be done in order to bring them around to accepting the usefulness of autonomous learning. According to Ellis & Sinclair (1989) as learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent, it is proposed that future teacher education program should provide trainee teachers with the skills to develop autonomy in learners.
3.7 Conclusion

The analysis of data has veiled the ambiguity on the notion of autonomy in secondary education. It has confirmed the hypotheses made so far in the introduction. Pupils of 1AS are neither aware of the importance of autonomy nor ready to engage in it. Furthermore, neither project works nor the textbook of 1AS, nor teacher training programs are adequate and helpful in providing teachers and pupils alike with the skills to develop autonomy in English learning. In fact, the idea of autonomy is somehow new in the Algerian context; both teachers and pupils should have training towards it.

In English learning learner autonomy cannot be realized overnight. Due to the long-term traditional spoon-feeding method. Students will undoubtedly have some difficulty shifting their learning styles and taking the responsibility for their own learning. In this case, teachers’ encouragement is highly demanded to help those passive learners improving their autonomy, and help them to realize that successful language learning largely depends on themselves not on the teacher. In this context a Chinese proverb may serve to clarify farther it is saying: “when you offer me one fish you feed me one day, but when you show me how to fish you feed me all the life.” What pupils really need is not offering them knowledge but rather showing them how to find it. In this way, teachers can succeed in establishing what is called life-long learning which is unfortunately lacking in our schools. This study highlights the need to integrate learner independence into the language curriculum, not only as top to down decision imposed on both teachers and pupils, but as step by step procedure based on rising awareness, motivating learners and train them alike with teachers towards autonomy. Thus, we can deduce that a hard work is to be done if we want autonomy to be a reality in the secondary education. On the basis of the findings of this chapter, it would make sense to offer suggestions and recommendations for teachers to enable them lift barriers in pupils’ minds concerning learner autonomy. Since the language research will have no value if it does not bring some light to the process of learning.
Notes to Chapter Three

1-The textbook designed for 1AS pupils do not contain much peer and group work. It was the duty of the English teacher to prepare such activities for the EFL learners, so as to reduce their anxiety and promote their autonomy. Here lies the negative side of over reliance on the textbook.

2-Project work presentation: making an invention profile.
- The profile should include the followings;
  -Selecting an invention (some are proposed such as electric iron, hairdryer, typewriter, train….., etc.
  -The evolution of the invention: background or initial invention, improvements and innovations.
  -Presentation of different models.
  -Writing a timeline of inventors (biographies).notes to chapters)

3- Certain class activities are intended for developing learner autonomy such as the warming up procedure in which pupils are asked to make connections between what they already know (prior knowledge) and new content to which they’re exposed. Such strategies stimulate students’ thinking and prepare them to learn. This what in fact was the teachers doing as an example in the beginning of the unit 4 entitled “Eureka!” he asked his pupils to give names of famous inventors and their inventions and even the date of invention if possible.
Chapter Four

Recommendations and Suggestions for Promoting Learner Autonomy in Algerian Secondary Education
CHAPTER FOUR: RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR
PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY IN
ALGERIAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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4.1 Introduction

Nowadays learner autonomy is becoming more and more important in learning. But in the Algerian secondary education we have noticed a certain unreadiness for implementing learner autonomy in the language classroom. In fact, both teachers and pupils have not been trained for such a change. Little (1999) believes that all the participants in learning environment including the human participants: teachers and learners, institutional rules and instruments, tools such as textbooks and computers, need to work in an integrated fashion towards the goal of autonomy. However, according to Little (1999): “-autonomy is not something that can be developed within few lessons and that in fact autonomy is “hard-won.”” (Littlewood, 1999:44). Though developing autonomy is somehow hard won, it is possible, but efforts should be done by all the participants in language learning.

This chapter attempts to offer directions to secondary teachers hopefully to improve learners’ awareness and motivation in learning English. And to foster their autonomy rather than measure it. Multiple implications and suggestions have been proposed to both teachers and learners to alleviate the learning problems and prevent difficulties. Teacher’s training and learning strategy instructions are basic requirements in fostering learner autonomy in the secondary education.

4.2. Some Recommendations: How Can Learner Autonomy be Promoted?

The task of moving from learner autonomy as a philosophy to an application in the classroom is really a demanding one on teachers since they must learn to “let go” and pupils must learn to “stand on their feet”. Thus, learner autonomy can be promoted only if pupils are sufficiently motivated and aware of the necessity of autonomy for successful learning. Besides certain factors that should be available such as learners’ training to find out the learning strategies that suit them best. The language teacher also plays a role in promoting learner autonomy, and instructional materials too. (see the diagram 4.1 below)
Diagram 4.1 Promoting learner autonomy (source: Ellis & Sinclair, 1989:98)

This part will be devoted for suggesting some creative solutions to address the issues that learners face in their daily learning as far as autonomy is concerned. These difficulties concern the lack of awareness-raising, that can be cured only if some roles and responsibilities are to be assumed by teachers and learners.

4.2.1. Preparing Teachers to Promote Learner Autonomy

Convincing teachers of the value of learner autonomy as a pedagogy in the abstract seems to be insufficient. It is necessary to focus on the development of teachers’ own autonomy. Pedagogy for autonomy appears to be particularly powerful means for developing teacher autonomy, in particular. It is necessary to prepare teachers for taking the first steps towards such an engagement or what is generally refer to as (pre-service) “teacher training”.

4.2.1.1 Learner Autonomy in Teacher’s Training Programs

Due to the Education Reform aims and demands, the Ministry of Education is recommended to establish Teacher Training Institutions to provide teachers with
adequate training, so as to be able to cope with the reform objectives. As suggested by Little (1995): “we must provide trainee teachers with the skills to develop autonomy in the learners who will be given into their charge, but we must also give them a first hand experience of learner autonomy in their training.” (Little, 1996: 179-180). However, the findings of this research assured an inadequacy of the training programs in fostering learner autonomy in the secondary education.

Teachers in the Algerian schools are generally given academic lectures in the university. However, this phase of preparation seems to be more theoretical in the sense that teachers do not have the opportunity to face pupils. Moreover, the teachers are offered a period of around one year of training, in which they start their work and try to cooperate with more experienced teachers. However, this seems to be insufficient too. For this reason, the teachers in secondary schools find it difficult to promote their learners autonomy, because they were not informed how to do so in their pre-service training. In fact, teacher training programs have to include teaching strategies of learning and also how to teach pupils to learn autonomously. Teachers need to be provided by techniques how to reduce pupils’ reliance and dependence on the them for making them more and more autonomous.

Teachers need to experience autonomous learning themselves and need to be committed to self-development. During the training programs the questions of how teachers can be psychologically prepared, and which skills and knowledge are needed for autonomy should be addressed as well. So that teachers can become familiar with independent language learning. Generally speaking, promoting autonomy involves a first experience in a school setting, a first period in which trainee teachers explore, observe and adapt to the classroom setting. In the following stages, they gradually develop their reflective analysis skills, and interact with other teachers. They become familiar with the notion of autonomy in language learning and gradually take charge of the class. Little by little, interacting with the school team, they develop their professional identity. The most important aspect in promoting learner autonomy is providing trainee teachers with techniques and strategies so as to foster pupils’ autonomy. In the final step, the teachers take full charge of the class, and may become successful in developing learner autonomy.
Secondary school teachers in Algeria must receive professional training, in other words, training that enables them to develop their career as teachers and develop their learners’ autonomy in English learning. We wonder how teachers who have not been confronted with learner autonomy in their initial teacher training develop autonomy in their classes. One obvious impact on learners’ autonomy is their teachers’ understanding of what autonomy means, and their ability to implement it in the classroom. This is especially true for beginners. As knowledge of learner autonomy is likely to be shaped in large part by the professional training they receive and the amount of attention given to the topic during their teacher education.

4.2.1.2 Teacher Development

Professional development is one of the basic needs for teachers so as to overcome all barriers in their job, and reach the aims and objectives of the process of teaching in general, and to promote their autonomy as well as that of their learners in particular. To do so, teachers have to reflect on their teaching through professional portfolios, diaries and classroom action research.

4.2.1.3 Reflective Approach to Foster Autonomy in Learning

In formal teaching, the link between teacher training and learner training is a basic requirement in fostering learner autonomy. In fact, learners are reluctant to take charge of their learning. Teachers must help them to do so by reflecting on the meaning of the concept of learning to learn a language. In so doing, the teacher himself adopts a reflective approach which helps him to implement a methodological approach towards autonomy.

As suggested by Vieira, 1996 (In Benson, 2001) reflective teaching and learner training, are like two sides of the same coin. Reflective teachers think about what went well or did not go well in a lesson. Think about the reasons why something went well. Think about how they can improve on the things which did not go well (such as learner autonomy). These questions according to Vieira (1996) may be helpful:
- Did I achieve my aims?
- What did my students learn?
- Were the materials helpful?
- Did the activities motivate the class?
- Did pupils learn autonomously?
- Was my classroom a really learner-centered?
- Did my students enjoy the lesson?
- How do I know my lesson was successful?
- What did I learn from my students?
- What changes will I make if I teach this lesson again?

Teachers in Algerian schools in general and those teaching English in the secondary education are required to reflect on their teaching through writing diaries, portfolios and doing action research, so as learner autonomy in their classes become a reality and not only a theoretical suggestion.

4.2.1.3.1 Professional Development Portfolios

A portfolio is a living history of a teaching-learning life. Like other professionals, teachers need evidence of their growth and achievement over time. The professional portfolio is a vehicle for collecting and presenting that evidence. Portfolios allow teachers to become reflective about what they do. When teachers carefully examine their own practices, those practices are likely to improve.

According to Vieira (1996) the professional portfolio should include:
- All critiques from university supervisors and cooperating teachers.
- Sample group rewards.
- Sample individual rewards.
- Positive statements made by the teacher. ‘How I used to teach and how I am teaching?’
- All remarks made by inspectors and through peer observation and even by learners - Sample Unit plan. -Sample Lesson plan.
- Video tape of a lesson at each site (optional, but recommended)
- Professional philosophy of education
- Recommendations
- Professional development activities (conferences, in services, workshops)
- Professional and personal goals.
As far as autonomous learning is concerned, if teachers notice that learners are less autonomous than they supposed to be. They should first reflect on their teaching, may be the method of teaching is encouraging reliance on the teacher. Or may be the learners need to be taught how to use appropriate strategies for better learning. On these suppositions teachers try first to reflect on their works so as to reach the goal of autonomy in learning.

4.2.1.3.2. Diaries and Journal Writing

In order to promote learners’ autonomy, teachers may benefit from certain strategies for reflective practice such as writing diaries and journals as means of professional development in the foreign language classroom. Nunan asserts in this context that “diaries, logs and journals are important introspective tools in language research.” (Nunan, 1995:118). Personal events, thoughts, and observations are recorded in a diary; this is what is referred to as a personal diary. Teachers may use a diary as a reflective aspect on their teaching. Through it the teacher can write about his experience as a teacher and express objectively all the ins and the outs of his teaching. Students’ negative perception of the classroom is one of the major worries of the language teachers who continuously wondering if things were really the way they appeared to be. (Baily, 1990).

EFL teachers in Algerian schools are advised to keep diary writing. It is based on honest reflections, and perhaps a less time consuming method, such as videotaping, to look at one’s teaching. Thanks to professional diaries, teachers truly begin to understand more about their teaching environment and themselves. Why should teachers keep a teacher diary? It provides a focus for reflecting on things which happen in the class and why they happen in the way that they do according to (Bailey, 1990) who adds:

“I wrote the diary entries straight after each class, and tried to focus not only on my emotions, but also on what I actually witnessed during my lessons. I wanted to put some distance between me and the clouds of emotions to find out if the affective issues in my classes were truly as poor as I thought they were, and also to determine if what I was seeing in class came from concrete observations or simply my own suppositions.” (Bailey, 1990:221)
Teachers record how their learners are actually engaged in the process of learning. Learner autonomy can be observed. Teachers’ roles in fostering it can be gradually recorded in the diary as a teacher development tool, Bailey (1990) adds:

The diary helped teachers to state the problem and explore why the difficulty was occurring. By recording approach to the problem, is building a bank of ideas which teachers can refer back to in the future and also use to guide other teachers. 

(Bailey, 1990:221)

Diaries not only help teachers developing themselves as teachers and improve the level of their learners. They also provide a rich source of experience that is helpful in guiding other teachers in the field of language learning. Journals also are benifical.

According to Lakshmi (2009) a journal is a teacher’s written response to teaching events. Keeping a journal serves two purposes:

- Events and ideas are recorded for the purpose of later reflection.
- The process of writing itself helps trigger insights about teaching.

Journal writing in this sense serves as a discovery process. Many different topics from classroom experiences can be explored through journal writing, for example:

- Personal reactions to things that happen in the classroom.
- Questions or observations about problems that occur in teaching.
- Descriptions of significant aspects of lessons or events.
- Ideas for future analysis or reminders of things to take action.(Lakshmi, 2009)

An example is taken from journals written by English language teachers presented by (Lakshmi, 2009)

Excerpt 1: Before Reflection

One day, when I was teaching gerund form of verb, the class was quite passive. I thought the monotony might be because of the hot afternoon. I went on explaining verbs and rules for using gerund form of the verb giving examples to each condition. My students were busily noting down my lesson in their notebooks. When I started asking them to give the sentences of their own, no one could do it correctly. Then I realized that the fifty minutes class was futile.
After Reflection

After going into my room, I pondered for a while in a disturbed mood. Later I went to the library, collected newspapers of few days, and got some funny anecdotes from the newspapers photocopied. Next day, I entered the class with confidence, distributed the articles, and asked them to underline the verbs in gerund form. Students were busy doing the exercise while enjoying the anecdotes. Thus, I could make the class interesting. Later when I asked them to give sentences, using gerund on their own, it was a child’s play for them.

Some teachers write letters to learners. Harmer (2001) has given an example of these teachers, Mario Rinvolucri (1983) who started a course by writing the same letter to all his learners inviting them to write back to him about their learning problems. And because the communication was written and personal, he was able to address learning problems in a way that was easier than in face-to-face interactions, especially during whole class discussions (Rinvolucri 1983:19 In Harmer, 2001:339). EFL teachers will surely benefit from the above mentioned recommendations and suggestions, How about EFL learners?

4.2.2 Preparing Learners for Autonomy in Language Learning

Innovation in language teaching in Algeria in general is applied without consideration of teachers and learners in the field. Before there should be a preparation for both so that the change can be easily accepted and applied. For this reason, we can blame neither teachers nor pupils for their resistance to change and their unreadiness for the notion of learner autonomy. All what pupils need is to raise their awareness, motivate them to learn English and train them using strategies that make them learning a language somehow independently from the teacher.

4.2.2.1 Creating Basic Motivational Conditions

Learning English successfully is based on the motivation of the learner himself. The teacher strives to make the learner learns in vain if the learner is uninterested as Scharle and Szabo (2000) invoke the saying: “you can bring the horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink.” (Scharle and Szabo, 2000:4). If the English teacher seeks effectiveness in his teaching, he should start first by motivating
the learners as put by Dornyei: “teacher skill in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness.” (Dornyei, 2001:116 InThanasoulos 2000). Before any attempt to motivate learners according to Thanasoulas certain conditions should be available such as: a good teacher student rapport and a pleasant supportive classroom atmosphere, cooperativeness and increasing learner self-confidence (see the diagram 4.2 below).

Diagram 4.2 Creating Basic Motivational conditions. (source: Thanasoulos, 2002).

First, teacher’s behaviour can either motivate learners or demotivate them in learning a language, in fact: “Teacher’s behaviour is a powerful motivational tool.” (Dorneyei, 2001:120). To foster learner autonomy, the language teacher has to motivate the learners first. But this aim cannot be attained unless the teacher establishes a good rapport with learners. A rapport based on trust and mutual respect. He or she will lose nothing if he discusses with the learners from time to time in a personal level, as an example ask them about the difficulties they encounter, which study skill interest them best, etc. In this way learners will hopefully become enthusiastic and interested in language learning.

Second, Just as the teacher’s behaviour, the classroom atmosphere also can demotivate learners and undermine learning. For Thanasoulas (2000) motivation will reach its peak in a safe classroom climate in which students can express themselves freely without fear of being ridiculed.

Third, cooperativeness, Learner autonomy is not only individual but also collaborative and entails some "capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others." (Dam, 2003:1). Learning does not necessarily imply learning individually, in fact, interaction, negotiation and collaboration are important
factors in motivating learners and promoting learner autonomy (see 1.2.2 Individual and Group Autonomy)

Fourth. Increasing the learners’ self-confidence is based on convincing learners that their level in English learning can be developed. Learners feel themselves confident when they perform tasks effectively. Teachers’ supportive words and encouragement are greatly helpful in making self-confident learners who can engage in their learning independently. To increase learners’ self-confidence according to (Dornyei, 2001: 130). Everyone is more interested in a task if they feel that they make a contribution. A small personal word of encouragement is sufficient. Teachers can reduce classroom anxiety by making the learning context less stressful.

Motivating learners according to Thanasoulas (2000) is based on the teacher’s behaviour, the classroom atmosphere, cooperativeness and raising learners’ self-confidence. Similarly Niemeic and Ryan (2009) In Fukuda & Hiroshi (2011) maintain that teachers can motivate learners in learning English as a basic step in fostering learner autonomy. This can be achieved through the C.L.A.S.S philosophy. Such philosophy can be incorporated throughout several learning situations inside and outside the classroom. This philosophy aims not only at enhancing motivation but also learner autonomy. (see the table 4.1 below):

| C | Confidence | Algerian students with a low sense of confidence need to feel the possibility to learn English effectively and use it comfortably. |
| L | Link | There should be a link between the language learning and the language use, a sense of purpose in the process of learning. |
| A | Association | Security and association with classmates: for example, connection with teachers, and social concern; collaboration, personal relationships are motivating factors. |
| S | Security | Building a climate of trust and an environment in which students do not fear mistakes or feel anxiety. |
| S | Self-Governance | Guided-autonomy starting with courses focused on a transfer of responsibility, such as creating own study goals and introducing self-assessment. |

Table 4.1: C.L.A.S.S. philosophy (source: Fukuda & Hiroshi S, 2011)
C.L.A.S.S philosophy can positively provide counter measures for certain demotivating factors in language learning (Fukuda & Hiroshi 2011) for example teaching style, characteristics of the classroom insecurity, disappointment from a past experience of failure. Insufficient and unsuitable materials in the class and lack of interest in English in general. The C.L.A.S.S. principles are conceived as a counter measure against these de-motivating factors (see Table 4.2 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>De-motivators</th>
<th>C.L.A.S.S Counter Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Association: Trusting relationships with teacher and classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Governance: autonomous learning making the teacher a facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Characteristics</td>
<td>Link: Studying to achieve a clear goal in the near future making content meaningful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Governance: autonomous learning will let the student decide the pace of study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experiences of failure</td>
<td>Competence: activities should promote cooperation as opposed to competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Association: trusting relation to promote the feeling of competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Environment</td>
<td>Security: a secure classroom environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Association: a trusting relationship with teachers and students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Materials</td>
<td>Self-governance: autonomously selected material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competence: promote a better feeling of doing any self-assigned material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Interest</td>
<td>Link: studying for one’s own goal makes content interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Governance: autonomous learning which calls for own material selection raises interest in material chosen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. 2 Counter measures against de-motivating factors (source: Fukuda & Hiroshi, 2011)

Both Thanasoulas (2000) and Fukuda and Sakata (2011) have insisted on the necessity of motivating learners in learning English to pave the way for learner autonomy. EFL teachers in Algeria are to certain extent aware of the demotivating factors that undermine English learning. Some of which are illustrated in the table 4.2 above. Their duty is to apply counter-measures against demotivating factors and
build a secured classroom environment characterized by a good rapport with learners. In such circumstances the learners will develop their self-confidence and interest in English learning and become gradually motivated and in a later stage autonomous in their English learning.

A good way to arouse students’ interest is to create an appropriate environment in which learners realize the importance of English as a language and as a tool for communication. Teachers can broaden learners’ horizon in learning English by providing learners with not only grammar and vocabulary, but also knowledge like culture, literature and history related to the target language. On the other hand, Thanasoulas (2000) stresses the fact that teachers may also create a learning environment outside the classroom, such as English song contest, English corner, English speech, etc. A teacher’s recommendation of certain magazines, films or websites has a great impact on fostering learner autonomy.

4.2.2.2 Persuasive Communication for Altering Learner Beliefs and Attitudes

Factors such as learners’ motivation, their desire to learn, and the beliefs they hold about themselves as learners, are basic requirements for developing autonomous learning and thus language proficiency. The language teacher had better start first by altering these negative attitudes before any intervention aiming at promoting autonomy. Changing some negative beliefs and attitudes is bound to facilitate learning. “Attitude change is basically achieved through exposure to a persuasive communication [between the teacher and the learners].” (Wenden, 1998: 126). There are several ways of bringing about this change; however, our concern will only be with persuasive communication.

A persuasive communication according to Thanasoulas (2000) is a discussion presenting information and arguments to change a learner's evaluation of a topic, situation, task, and so on. These arguments could be either explicit or implicit, especially when the topic is deemed of importance. If, for instance, a deep fear or
belief prevents the learner from engaging in the learning process successfully, persuasive communication helps bring these facts to light and identify the causes that underlie them, “the communication comprises facts that show what learners can do to attain autonomy and that learners who do so are successful.” (Wenden, 1998: 126). This approach is based on the assumption that when learners are faced with convincing information about a situation: “they can be led to re-examine existing evaluations they hold about it and revise or change them completely.” (ibid: 127). Attitudes can be changed through persuasion which can be a response to a communication between teacher and learners.

Since human nature is dialogic, EFL teachers in Algeria will not find it a hard task to communicate with their learners and try to persuade them that certain attitudes they hold about English learning are not valid. And if they want to engage in English learning successfully and their level to improve continuously, they should be to certain extent independent from the teacher and take some responsibility for their learning. Teachers may organize a session in class devoted to persuasive communication in which he or she relies on his artistry in finding techniques and strategies for convincing learners.

Relying on the findings of this research, EFL teachers in Algeria while trying to convince learners, they should focus on the followings:
1- Convincing learners that responsibility in English learning almost lays on the learner not entirely on the teacher as they believe. The teacher is a facilitator and guide.
2- Evaluation of learning should be on learners hands because self-evaluation is one of the autonomous strategies that help learners becoming self-reliant, not on teachers scores and comments only.
3- Success and failure in English learning is due to the learner first and in a later stage on pedagogical and methodological matters. So they should stop reproaching teachers for their failure in English learning.
4- English learning is vast to be dealt with in class sessions only, teachers have to convince learners to change their attitude of satisfaction of the knowledge provided in the class and do self-study tasks for the sake of becoming autonomous and successful in English learning.
In Algerian secondary education, pupils feel not secured while working far from the teacher, so he may convince them that the teacher is always present with them however, his roles have changed, and that autonomy in English learning is highly beneficial for them so as to achieve a high level of proficiency. Pupils in this level, have to be convinced not to be so much dependent on the teacher in English learning to the degree that if he stops teaching they stop learning. Convincing learners about autonomy differs from one another, intelligent and brilliant pupils may be easily persuaded while others not. Because successful learners usually tend to use learning strategies that make them somehow autonomous. So what other pupils need is strategy based instruction. What is Strategy – Based Instruction (SBI) ? and how can it be applied in Algerian secondary education? Answers to these questions are provided in details in the next section.

4.2.2.3. Stages in the Process of Developing Learner Responsibility

EFL learners in Algeria mainly those in secondary education in general are unwilling to take responsibility in English learning. According to them the first and major responsible figure in the language classroom is the teacher. EFL learners should take responsibility for their learning, and believe that their success and failure in English learning is due to their own attitudes and responsibilities in learning. However, taking responsibility for one’s learning is not an easy task because: “People do not normally wake up a fine day and find that they have become responsible overnight. More likely, they go through a slow gradual process as they are approaching adulthood.” (Scharle and Szabo, 2000:9). Developing learner responsibility is crucial in establishing learner autonomy, however, learners should go through stages so as to become gradually independent from the teacher, these stages are illustrated by Scharles and Szabo (2000) in the table 4.3 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Name of the stage</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>Raising Awareness</td>
<td>- Presenting new viewpoints and new experiences to the learner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Most activities in this stage are structured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Students are not yet very responsible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>Changing attitudes</td>
<td>- A slow process requiring a lot of practice and patience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Preparation to practice new roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Breaking away from stubborn old patterns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>Transferring Roles</td>
<td>- Considerable change in the classroom management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Demanding phase on the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Giving freedom to learners to accomplishing tasks and even deciding about tasks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 Stages in the process of developing learner responsibility. (source: Scharles and Szabo, 2000: 9)

EFL teachers in Algeria claimed that pupils are not responsible and not ready to be so in English learning. In fact, teachers might feel insecure, especially in the situation with 50 students in a class feeling it impossible and impractical to promote autonomous learning, and any attempts would result in chaos. For this reason, they keep their spoon feeding method in the English classroom. We cannot assert firmly that they are unwilling to put some responsibilities in pupils’ hands or they do not know which steps to follow so as to make their learners responsible. Instead of sticking to this method which proved to be a failure, they would better raise their pupils’ awareness, change their attitudes and transfer certain roles with them in the classroom. Fostering the sense of responsibility in learners is beneficial not only in English learning but also in all subject matters and even in real life as a responsible citizen in the society.
4.2.2.4 Keeping Learning Journals and Self-reports

In order to improve their language skills, pupils in the secondary education are recommended to keep a reflective journal. In these journals pupils can write about all what happened in school in general and in the classroom in particular. Pupils should focus on areas where they experience difficulties. The benefits of the writing of a journal is besides raising pupils’ awareness and responsibility in English learning. It helps learners in bettering their writing skill and ability in English. Keeping a reflective journal enables both the English teacher and learner to think about the issues they confront during day-to-day classroom. Journal writing makes English learners more independent and autonomous in their learning. Only through journal writing pupils really start taking charge of their own learning. A suggested lesson on teaching pupils how to write a journal is provided at the end of this research (see appendix 4).

Self-reports also are one of the good ways for collecting information about how pupils deal with certain learning tasks. According to Wenden (1998) self-reports help learners becoming aware of their own strategies by reporting what they are thinking while performing a task. Self-report is introspective in the sense that learners are asked to introspect on their learning. In this sense: “the introspective self-report is a verbalization of one’s stream of consciousness.” (Wenden, 1998:81). Another type of self-reports is retrospective. In which learners are asked to think back and retrospect their learning. Wenden (1998) has put two kinds of retrospective self-reports: semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires. The aim behind self-reports is as put forwards by Thanasouls (2000) extracting information about pupils’ feelings towards learning skills, the problems they encounter and the strategies they use. Wenden (1998) adds that self-reports help also in raising pupils’ awareness. In fact this awareness is highly recommended in Algerian schools.

4.2.2.5 Writing Diaries

Thanasouls (2000) has stressed the fact that one of the principal goals of education is to alter learners' beliefs about themselves by showing them that their putative failures or shortcomings can be ascribed to a lack of effective strategies rather than to a lack of potential. Here lies the importance of diaries that make pupils
aware of their progress and problems in language learning. Diary writing is a means for recording personal thoughts, daily experiences, and evolving insights. The advantage of writing diaries is to make pupils plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning, identifying any problems they face and suggesting solutions (Thanasoulas, 2000). EFL teachers in Algeria are highly recommended to keep a diary writing as a tool for professional development and so EFL learners. Through diary writing pupils will develop a sense of independence and self-reliance in overcoming the obstacles in English learning. For this reason, English teachers can encourage their pupils to write diaries as means for fostering their autonomy. Wenden (1998) provides samples of diaries based on authentic student accounts of their language learning, this is one of these diaries:

Dear Diary,
These first few days have been terrible. I studied English for four years, just think, four years, but I only learned a lot of grammar. I can't speak a word. I don't dare. I can't express myself in the right way, so I am afraid to speak. The other day I started watching TV, so I could get accustomed to the sound. I don't understand TV news very well - only a few words. I can't get the main point. In school it's easy to understand, but I can't understand the people in movies. What can I do?

Yours Truly,
Impatient (from Wenden, 1998: 102)

Just as writing journals, diaries can benefit pupils greatly in this level by making them putting pens to papers and write about their experiences in English learning. Diary writing is a fairly good opportunity for them to improve their writing ability in English since the obtained data show that 1AS pupils consider writing as the most difficult skill.

4.3 Promoting Learner Autonomy Through Strategy-Based Instruction (SBI)

Learning strategies have long been recognized as a key tool to empower students and promote learner autonomy. For instance, Dickinson (1993) points that learner strategy training should aim to help learners become autonomous. Similarly, McCarthy (1998) points out the relationship between autonomy and learner training by stating that the main aim of strategy training is to enhance the effectiveness of learning and fostering learner autonomy.
Wenden (1998) clarifies that learner strategies should be given a lot of attention in foreign language classrooms for the purpose of making students aware of their own learning processes. **“Without developing such strategies, students will remain trapped in their old patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never be fully autonomous.”** (Wenden, 1998: 90). However, one of the research findings is that pupils do not use strategies that help them becoming independent from the teachers. Moreover, their teachers do not teach them explicitly learning strategies. This may justify why both teachers and pupils in our secondary education are still trapped in their old patterns and beliefs. So, strategy based instruction is the ground on which learner autonomy is build. To foster their learners’ autonomy EFL teachers in Algeria should have a bird’s eye view of SBI and train their pupils.

Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI) according to Dörnyei, Z. (1996) is a learner-centered approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both implicit and explicit integration of strategies into the course content. What pupils need in the Algerian schools is a sort of training towards autonomy. In fact, such training should be made before the changes have been occurred in the teaching of English in Algeria. But before, EFL teachers themselves need formation and preparation for SBI because they seem not to be familiar with. This section aims hopefully to provide those teachers and learners alike with help for systematically applying SBI as a step towards making autonomy a reality in our schools.

### 4.3.1 Goals of Strategy-Based Instruction

It has been suggested that Strategy instruction may help learners in three ways:

- Strategy instruction help students become better learners.
- Using strategies make learners independent and confident.
- Learners become more motivated as they understand the relationship between their use of strategies and success in learning languages. (Chamot and O’Malley, 1990)

Andrew Cohen (1997) states that strategy training aims to provide learners with the tools to do the followings:

- Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning.
- Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently.
- Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills.
• Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies.
• Make decisions about how to approach a language task.
• Monitor and self-evaluate their performance.
• Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts.

In Algerian secondary education, teachers and pupils seem not aware of the importance of strategy instruction which is a necessity to overcome the shortcomings of English learning.

4.3.2 Models and Methods of Strategy Instruction

Research on strategy training contexts strongly argues for explicit strategy training (Graham & Harris, 2000). Explicit learning strategy instruction essentially involves the development of students’ awareness of the strategies they use, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of the strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks. (Chamot et al., 1999; Oxford, 1990). Most researchers in second language contexts agree on the importance of explicitness in strategy instruction. However, there is less agreement on the issue of whether strategies instruction should be integrated into the language curriculum or taught separately. While many argue that integrated instruction provides students with opportunities to practise learning strategies with authentic language learning tasks.

As far as the language of instruction is concerned. Few researchers have proposed that the strategies had better to be taught in the students’ native language in second and foreign language contexts. However, this is not the case for the pupils targeted in this research. Beginners do not yet have the L2 proficiency to understand explanations in the target language of why and how to use learning strategies. However 1AS pupils are to certain extent proficient, so English may be the language of instruction. Nevertheless, Teachers are aware of their learners needs so they can decide about the language themselves. Learning strategy instruction should not be postponed until final year in the secondary education or to the university because
beginners also need strategies that can make their language learning more successful and increase their motivation for further study.

Cohen (1997) claims that: “although no empirical evidence has yet been provided to determine a single best method for conducting strategy training, at least three different instructional frameworks have been identified.” (Cohen, 1997:14). He mentions one framework, proposed by Pearson and Dole (1987). The second framework, Oxford et al. (1990). The third one is developed by Chamot and O’Malley (1994). A number of models for teaching learning strategies in both first and second language contexts have been developed as examples: (Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998; Grenfell & Harris, 1999). These instructional models share many features. All agree on the importance of developing students’ metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies. All emphasize the importance of providing multiple practice opportunities with the strategies to be used autonomously. All suggest that students should evaluate how well a strategy has worked, choose strategies for a task, and actively transfer strategies to new tasks. We have chosen three models that are suitable for the pupils targeted in this research. The table 4.4 below compares these three current models for language learning strategy instruction.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial modeling of the strategy by the teacher, with direct explanation of the strategy’s use and importance</td>
<td><strong>Preparation:</strong> Teacher identifies students’ current learning strategies for familiar tasks.</td>
<td><strong>Awareness raising:</strong> Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided practice with the strategy</td>
<td><strong>Presentation:</strong> Teacher models, names, explain new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.</td>
<td><strong>Modeling:</strong> Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidation, where teachers help students identify the strategy and decide when it might be used</td>
<td><strong>Practice:</strong> Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent use</td>
<td><strong>General practice:</strong> Students practice new strategies with different tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent practice with the strategy</td>
<td><strong>Self-evaluation:</strong> Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice</td>
<td><strong>Action planning:</strong> Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of the strategy to new tasks</td>
<td><strong>Expansion:</strong> Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.</td>
<td><strong>Focused practice:</strong> Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating the use of strategy in new tasks.</td>
<td><strong>Assessment:</strong> Teacher assesses students’ use of strategies and impact on performance.</td>
<td><strong>Evaluation:</strong> Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan and set new goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 Models for Language Learning Strategy Instruction.
EFL teachers in Algeria may find the theoretical presentation of strategy instruction beneficial, but what they really need is how to apply strategy instruction in their classrooms and which model seems the most suitable for pupils in this level. One question worth to be asked here, it is how language strategies can be instructed? The researcher has tried to answer this question in the next section.

4.3.3 A Step by Step Design of Strategy Training for Learners

Several instructional steps in language strategy training have been developed and implemented in different educational settings. They are similar in the fact that they generally start by raising pupils awareness of the strategy training this is referred to as “consciousness raising” and “familiarization training”. According to Oxford (1990) this approach provides learners with a general idea of learner training. She describes it as: “a program in which participants become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies, and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language tasks.” (Oxford, 1990:202).

The following seven steps are based largely on suggestions of strategy training by Oxford (1990). The model is especially useful because it can be adapted to the needs of various groups of learners, the resources available, and the length of the strategy training. (For a thorough description of these steps see the table 4.5 below)

1. Determine learners’ needs and the resources available for training.
2. Select the strategies to be taught.
3. Consider the benefits of integrated strategy training.
4. Consider motivational issues.
5. Prepare the materials and activities.
6. Conduct explicit strategy training.
7. Evaluate and revise the strategy training

According to Cohen (1997) SBI is based on the following series of components: strategy preparation, strategy awareness-raising, strategy training, strategy practice and personalization of strategies.
### Table 4.5 Suggested steps for strategy based instruction (Oxford, 1990)

The models of strategy instruction have been clarified in details in the table 4.5 above. EFL teachers in Algeria can select the model that suits them and their pupils best. As a first step, they should start raising their pupils’ awareness and prepare them for the training. Later pupils are given tasks so as to apply the strategies and practice them in a meaningful context. Then expand and transfer strategy use to other tasks. And finally, learners understand the success of their strategy use and assess their progress towards more self-directed and autonomous learning. Teachers need activities for (SBI) some examples are provided below.

### 4.3.4 Activities for Strategy Based Instruction

A knowledge of one’s own learning style is essential in “learning to learn”. Teachers should help students discover their own learning styles [1] because: “No two learners actually require the same kind of amount of training to master a language effectively.” (Narcy et al, 1999:4 In Cotteral, 2000) In order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Learners do a task without any strategy training.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>They discuss how they did it and the teacher asks them to reflect on how their strategies may have facilitated their learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Teacher demonstrates other helpful strategies, stressing the potential benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>Learners are provided with opportunities to practice the new strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>Learners are shown how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 6</td>
<td>Learners are provided with further tasks and asked to make choices about which strategies they will use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 7</td>
<td>Teacher helps learners to understand the success of their strategy use and assess their progress towards more self-directed learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
to foster learner autonomy, the language teacher had better identify first the learning styles of his learners, so as to vary the content as well as the techniques of his teaching procedure according to these styles, in order to reach good results.

Without strategy training EFL teachers in Algerian secondary education cannot foster their learners’ autonomy. They should not consider it as an “add-on” or a separate content area; rather, strategies instruction is used to support language learning and to accomplish authentic, meaningful language tasks (Sheng, 2008). They can conduct strategy training in their classes and designate activities for such aim. Several steps of strategy instruction have been dealt with in the table 4.5 above; they are to large extent similar. The main steps are briefly summarized below:

- **Preparation:** Preparing learners for strategy training is raising their awareness. Teachers may find it beneficial to do that through small group interviews, in which the teacher gives learners the opportunity to discuss about their learning. What goes well and what does not. According to Sheng (2008) the SBI tasks are explicitly used to raise the students’ general awareness about the learning process, their learning style preferences and the kinds of strategies that they already employ. Learners should be explicitly taught how the strategy is used, in which context, and for which purpose (see the table 4.6 below).

- **Practice:** After being explicitly taught how, when and why to use a certain strategy, learners should be given opportunity to practice the learning strategy in instructional tasks.

- **Evaluation:** in this phase the teacher’s role is to: “..help learners evaluate their own success in using the learning strategy.”(Sheng, 2008:5). Learners discover how well they use the strategy, and to which extent it facilitates their learning. They can do this through self-questioning. The teacher can do this also through interviews.

- **Expansion:** in this phase learners can transfer the use of the learning strategy to other contexts, and even to other subject matters other than English.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the strategy</th>
<th>Its usefulness</th>
<th>Suggested activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>- To understand difficult and long texts.</td>
<td>- Listening or reading a text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Organizing ideas</td>
<td>- To organize the ideas according to the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Analyzing a text</td>
<td>- To analyze or summarize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key words</td>
<td>- Words for memory techniques.</td>
<td>- Reading a text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- To skim and scan a text.</td>
<td>- Identifying what is it about?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- To form a title and a general idea.</td>
<td>- Finding key words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Forming a title or an idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-monitoring</td>
<td>- Check one’s performance in speaking</td>
<td>- The teacher may repeat the utterance or stress the mispronounced or the wrong word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Become aware of one’s weaknesses</td>
<td>Or make learner writes it on the board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Develop self-reliance through self-correction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation</td>
<td>- Check how well one is learning.</td>
<td>In writing tasks as an example learners may be asked to: reflect on their written essay through checking the tense used, connectors, punctuation…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Identify strengths and weaknesses</td>
<td>Helping learners decide how well they master certain tasks(good-fairly good-bad..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Notice the progress in English learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 Suggested activities for strategy training.

The researcher has proposed certain activities in the table above as clues for removing the ambiguity EFL teachers in Algeria may have on strategy training in the English class. The above mentioned strategies have been randomly selected for illustrative purpose only. Teachers should start first by presenting the strategy through giving its name, and discuss its usefulness in the preparatory phase.
Pupils in the secondary education are less advanced learners, for this reason they need much explicit strategy training, unlike those in the university who are supposed to be advanced students. Strategy training is the basis of fostering learner autonomy in our schools because: “Promoting learner autonomy is a long-term process, and learners need plenty of opportunities for strategy training during foreign language classes.” (Sheng, 2008:7). In conclusion, SBI can help students attain long term goals in foreign language learning, not just a specific, immediate goal. In other words, developing strategies can help them become effective and strategic learners and eventually become more autonomous. (Sheng, 2008)

4.3.5 Teacher’s Role in Strategy Training

Dickinson (1992) acknowledges that developing learner autonomy is a long, painful and demanding process for teachers and learners alike, since according to him: “in-service language teachers struggle with the ways to promote learner autonomy, or at least to encourage the idea of autonomy in language classrooms.” (Dickinson, 1992:54). Thus, teachers are in real struggle so as to make learners more independent than they actually are. Nowadays, in many European countries, autonomy has become a goal in formal education this is the reason why pedagogical innovations are carried out by the Project for Autonomy in Learning. (PAL). The project focuses on teacher education for learner autonomy. It is not the case in Algeria, no pedagogical innovations are carried for the sake of preparing teachers how to foster and develop their learners’ autonomy. In fact teachers have a plenty of roles to play in this context.

Benson and Voller (1997) use three terms facilitator, counselor and resource to describe the role of the teacher within this framework. Both facilitators and counselors provide psychology-social and technical supports, the difference between the two being that the former mostly work with groups and the latter in one-to-one situations. And as a “resource” a teacher can be seen as a talking encyclopedia or a talking catalogue. That is to say, he should have a certain level of language mastery that allows him to be a model for his learners.
The table 4.7 below matches Cohen’s discussion of the different roles of the teacher during SBI (1998) and the steps of Grenfell and Harris (1999) (see table 4.4 above)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Awareness raising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>General practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Action planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.7 The teacher’s role in strategy instruction. (source: Harris, 2003)**

Caring and motivating learners are important role for teachers in the process of promoting learner autonomy since: “the ability to behave autonomously for students is dependent upon their teacher creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted.” (Voller & Benson, 1997: 103). In a word, in a classroom in which a teacher provides learners with opportunity to do projects and present them
in their own styles, to discuss, to select the materials they see suitable for their
learning, etc. by doing all this, the teacher will have established an environment that
really encourages learners to be more autonomous.

EFL teachers in Algeria once engaging in strategy instruction start playing certain
roles for the success of such framework. The table 4.7 above has clearly illustrated the
roles teachers have to play in each step of strategy instruction. If learners are well
prepared for strategy training a large step would have been taken towards fostering
learner autonomy in our schools. Autonomy in language learning means a
redistribution of roles and decision making between students and teacher. Teacher’s
role is helping students find their own balance between dependence (on the teacher
and the textbook) and on themselves as independent learners. Because language
classrooms now are supposed to be more learner-centered, in which students are no
longer soldiers waiting for orders from their commander but actors and actress taking
part in everything under the instruction of their “director”. The importance of a good
director can never be neglected. (Teacher’s Guide 1AS, 2005).

4.4. Steps Towards a Successful Project Work

We have already dealt with projects in secondary schools, the way they are
organized and presented. We have reached the conclusion that the basic tool
educational institutions designed for promoting learner autonomy is a useless work all
together. In fact, no autonomy can be achieved from readymade projects in which
students did not do the least of independent research. Projects are considered as the
best way to develop learners independence. (In fact, if they are carried out
successfully). Teachers have a great responsibility in establishing an environment in
which learners are motivated and interested in doing such task as stressed by
Papandreou (1994): “effective use of projects approach for teaching English
depends on the teacher. From the beginning, the teacher should motivate the
students to set up the right environment for this type of work.” (Papandreou,
1994:14). Motivation seems to be not the only difficulty in projects. The lack of
information and documents in the school library send pupils to cyberspaces, because
access to the internet in secondary schools is limited if not nonexistent. For this reason, textbook designers should take the level of pupils into consideration while designing the project, it should require information easy to found and collected (Baiche, 2008). The lack of time also seems to be a serious problem for teachers. For a successful realization of projects Stoller (1995) has proposed steps for orchestering project work:

**Figure 4.3 Developing a project in a language classroom. (source: Stoller, 1997)**

The model is successful after being tested in different language classrooms. The above mentioned steps need clarification for better application in the realization of the project.
Step 1: Teachers should help students develop a sense of ownership towards the project, i.e., students should be given a chance to select the project theme.

Step 2: Teacher and learners determine the final outcomes of the project as an example: a debate, an interview, handbook, oral presentation and theatrical performance, etc.

Step 3: Teacher and learners discuss the details from the starting point until the completion of the project: the source of information, role play in the group (who does what), and the time for the project (Bassou, 2008).

Step 4: Teacher provides students with language forms and skills that match the information to be gathered, e.g., in a debate the teacher may plan activities in which learners question, request clarification, give opinions, agreeing and disagreeing.

Step 5: Learners use different sources for the collection of information related to the project's theme.

Step 6: Learners analyze and synthesize information. They do this through activities presented by the teacher such as: making comparison, graphic display, charts, etc.

Step 7: Learners discuss the value of the already gathered information, select the most suitable information for the project and remove the others.

Step 8: Teacher prepares learners for the presentation of the project through focusing on activities on pronunciation, organizing ideas, etc.

Step 9: Learners are ready to present the final outcome of their projects.

Step 10: Learners are asked to reflect on their project work to check its effectiveness. They are required to reflect on what worked well and what did not (Stoller, 1997).

If they want the project to be a real means for fostering learner autonomy, EFL teachers in Algeria may follow the steps provided in the model above. However, they need further clarification about their roles as teachers, facilitators and guides in the realization of the project work. In the next section, both teachers and learners are provided with roles to play for a successful project work.
4.4.1 Teachers and Students Roles in the Project

During the classroom observation the teacher presents the project and later neither he nor the pupils mention it until the day of the presentation. This is not the right way teachers and learners should deal with the project. Instead the language teacher may be a guide, facilitator and even a group member. He may also prepare activities for learners and provide feedback. In Algerian secondary education not only EFL teachers need to be aware of their roles in the project work, pupils also have certain roles to play in the realization of the project. Papandreou (1994) contrasts the role of both language teachers and learners in the project works:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>student</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Select topic</td>
<td>Describe parameters and suggests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>Set final objectives</td>
<td>Help in setting objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>directs</td>
<td>advises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>directs</td>
<td>Contributes ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Plans schedule</td>
<td>Make suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Coordinate and implement</td>
<td>Observe and facilitate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>analyzes</td>
<td>Observes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>Performs</td>
<td>Listen as a member of the audience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Evaluation    | Participates in self-
                 | evaluation                                  | Provides feedback.                          |

Table4.8 Teacher’s and students’ roles in projects. (Papandreou, 1994:42)

It is noticeable from the table that a great responsibility in the realization of the project work lays on students hands. The verbs Papandreou (1994) uses clarifies the difference, for students roles he uses the verbs: select, set, directs, plan, coordinate; analyze, perform. Whereas, for teachers he uses describe, suggest, help, observe, listen and provide. If teachers and learners play the required roles in the project work successfully, another step would have been taken towards autonomy in our secondary schools. When they reach university, they will be prepared to engage in independent research.
4.4.2 Project Assessment and Evaluation

Project is a tool for promoting learners’ self-reliance in doing independent research from the teacher. It is also a tool that allows teachers to check whether or not learners have attained the desired objectives. It helps teachers becoming aware of the effectiveness of their teaching and their learners’ abilities. How a project can be evaluated is a worth asking question. In the evaluation both the process and the product are focused on. Before project presentation, the teacher has to set the evaluation criteria and both parents and pupils should know about the evaluation of this task. (Bassou, 2008). The teacher can give groups a checklist or a copy of the instrument that will be used to grade their project or make a poster for the classroom wall. This help learners know what to give importance to and what to spend more time on beforehand. (Oswald, 2005).

Teachers are concerned with the evaluation of the project. Learners as well through self-assessment strategy which is based on reflection. And as mentioned in the figure 4.3 above, the final step of the design is evaluation. Learners are asked to reflect on their work. Only by doing this, they can learn from their experiences and become more confident and monitor their learning. Through self-assessment learners can develop self-awareness of their strengths and weaknesses in language learning (Fleming, 2000:5)

Oswald (2005) has provided teachers with two samples of project evaluation, we have selected the one below because it seems more practical for teachers see the table 4.9 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did Learners</th>
<th>No 0</th>
<th>Slightly 1-2</th>
<th>Generally 3</th>
<th>Mostly 4</th>
<th>Yes 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-Do independent research to find information for the project?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Apply, analyze, synthesize, and evaluate somehow process the information?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Support their work with pictures, drawing, photographs or graphic organizers (charts, graphs, mind maps, Venn diagrams, etc.)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Prepare a project that is interesting for their classmates?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-Include the planning tool they used to collect and organize their ideas?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-Correctly use the required tense to develop their project writings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-Correctly use the language forms seen in the unit to develop their project writings?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-spell and punctuate their work correctly?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mark/Learners' total score…./40
=……..points of 20

4.9 A sample of project evaluation. (source: Oswald, 2005)

During the realization of the project pupils neither exercise individual autonomy nor group autonomy. Autonomy is useful for students as language learners and as social beings. In our secondary education project preparation and presentation need reconsideration. Project should not be seen as an add on task but rather a highly beneficial task that: “consolidates and extends learning, increases motivation, enhances classroom dynamics, and promote learner autonomy.”( Sandy, 2006:2) . Successful project work is one of the basic steps towards fostering learner autonomy in our schools. However, certain materials and study aids should be provided for learners for the successful realization of the project works.
4.5 Suggestions for Promoting Learner Autonomy

Both EFL teachers and pupils in Algerian schools have recognized the limitations of only studying English for an hour or two every week in the classroom. This has contributed to the increasing demand of autonomous learning methods and techniques. Pupils will not reach a good level in English mastery and fluency by relying only on their teacher and textbook. They should develop their autonomy in the language learning. In the next section, some suggestions have been provided for both English teachers and pupils in the secondary education on how to promote learner autonomy in the English classroom and outside of it.

4.5.1 Suggested Materials for Promoting Learner Autonomy

In the information age, the availability of a variety of instructional materials can facilitate the task of becoming autonomous and independent from the teacher as far as our pupils are concerned. The widespread use of information technology in several domains of life and in schools particularly enables EFL learners in Algeria to enhance and take charge of their own learning. Both EFL published and authentic materials play a great role in fostering learners’ independence and self-reliance.

According to some researchers there are certain advantages of using published material in promoting learner autonomy. They are illustrated by Navarro and Brady (2003) as follows:
- This type of material is the one most of learners are familiar with because they are a quite similar to those learners use in the classroom.
- The published material enables learners to gather a large amount of information. It provides variety and quality of references that help learners doing research such as project works.
- It helps learners developing their reading skill as well as their writing and vocabulary items.
- It generally provides key to activities and feedback for learners.
Undoubtedly published materials such as short stories, novels, newspapers in English, magazines, etc. help learners greatly in developing their autonomy as English learners. According to Navarro and Brady: “Activities provided by published material involve learners in more complex mental activities which are vital to promoting learner autonomy.” (Navarro and Brady 2003: 4). However, in Algeria these materials seem to be rare in comparison with those in Arabic or French. And even in school libraries most of the books available are grammar books. Moreover, even if these materials are available they may be costly and not all EFL learners can afford buying them. Published materials alone are not sufficient in fostering learner autonomy. There should be other opportunities for using English for communicative purposes such as listening to native speakers and having a grammar practice. All these can be achieved through the use of authentic materials mainly the computer and the internet.

Just as published materials are highly beneficial in promoting learner autonomy, authentic material also broaden the horizon of the English learner, and makes him face to face with a huge amount of information. The use of authentic materials can promote learner autonomy because access to the internet as an up to date material makes learners search and select what they consider interesting. They develop a greater self-confidence in using English in writing and communicating. Learners become freer in the selection and the design of the activities. However, authentic materials are not easily available for EFL learners in Algeria, because not all of them have a computer and access to the internet at home, and even in secondary schools, access to the internet is limited. Moreover, teachers and pupils may not be well informed in the use of such materials.

4.5.1.1 How Computer Technology can Promote Learner Autonomy

There is a perceived relationship between technology and learner autonomy in the language teaching. Students are seen as becoming increasingly empowered when using such technology because they develop their confidence.
through increased responsibility for their own learning processes. Benson and Voller have discussed these issues and state that: “Computer software for language learning is an example of a technology which claims to promote autonomy simply by offering the possibility of self-study.” (Benson and Voller, 1997:10). They go on to argue that all educational materials including the textbook and the computer can be perceived to be more or less supportive of autonomy. Computers have often been viewed as the perfect independent learning tool. They offer plenty of knowledge sources and volumes of texts, pictures, sound, and videos. According to Levy (1997) the computer can be considered as a tool and as a tutor in the programme of promoting learner autonomy. First, computer as a tutor;

- The programme should contain a tutorial.
- The programme should provide context-sensitive help.
- The computer guides the learner
- The programme should be responsive to needs of the learner.
- The computer provides appropriate error free feedback.

In this context Levy says: “If the computer tutor satisfies such criteria then it can provide real autonomy learning opportunities for the students.”(Levy, 1997:199). In addition, he notes the use of the computer as a tool in which:

- The computer role is neutral
- The computer does not evaluate the student
- The learner has responsibility for managing interaction
- The learner decides how to use the tool
- The learner determines whether the use of the tool is appropriate.

Computer as a tool facilitate fostering learner autonomy because learners make most of the decisions about how and what to learn. Though, learners need help and guidance in using such a tool. Conducting independent research will not be an easy task for pupils who do not have computers. They find themselves obliged to go to cyber space to do research without guidance. It would be better if English teachers are given the opportunity to supervise their learners while doing research on the computer and provide them with guidance. In fact, such sessions are not programmed in our schools, and if teachers take initiatives to do so, they will have to make a balance between such sessions and finishing the overloaded programme on time.
Furthermore if computers at school are not connected to the internet the opportunity of doing independent research will be less than required.

4.5.1.2. The Internet as Tool in the Development of Learner Autonomy

The internet is the up to date tool available for language learners to improve their level. It is one of the motivating and the most interesting material in English learning for most of the students. Learner autonomy can be greatly enhanced through the use of the internet of course if students’ intention is to learn English independently out of the school. The internet is a fundamental tool in fostering learner autonomy because of the followings:
1- Different forms of communication are provided in the internet such as: discussion boards, interactive blogs, online forums, etc.
2- English learners can download English movies, music and get exposure to different accents around the world.
3- According to Nowlan (2008) Social networks such as face book, My Space and Second Life create awareness about the language, and make people at a very young age motivated in learning it.
4- Thanks to the internet language learners can interact in real time with millions of subscribers around the world. The fact that broaden their horizon and enrich their cultural background of the target language.
5- Chat programs such as Skype, iChat, and messenger programs such as MSN and Yahoo can be used to improve language ability. When initial connections are made through social networks on the internet.

There are plenty of resources that can be drawn from the internet for the purpose of fostering learner autonomy. There are also other tools that can serve in promoting learner autonomy such as TV channels, mainly documentaries, news and other programmes that help language learners to enrich their knowledge in different skills. The language teacher may suggest channels or programmes for the learners to follow. Radio programmes mainly the educational ones can give a helping hand to
the English learners through listening to native speakers, and thus improving their listening and speaking skills without relying in the English teachers. For instance, The teacher may suggest for his learners to listen to BBC radio for educational programs. The teacher may also suggest certain websites that he sees beneficial for his learners in English learning. As an example he may encourage them to do research using suggested websites such as:

- http://www.bbcactiveenglish.com/
- http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/

Learner autonomy in secondary education can be fostered thanks to the wealth of resources available for learners such as multimedia and internet. All what EFL teachers in Algeria need is to raise pupils’ awareness that the use of both published and authentic materials can positively enhance their English learning, and make them gradually independent learners.

### 4.5.2 Semi-Autonomous Learning as a Preparatory Phase

Pupils are used to being taught by teachers not learning English by themselves. And if they are asked to study by themselves only for a period of time, they will find themselves in a loss. In fact, without training this move towards autonomy would be impossible in Algerian EFL context. We cannot expect pupils to be fully autonomous over night. For this reason, a transitional phase is necessary to be implemented so as to ensure a safe move to autonomy in our schools. At the same time, teachers should adopt a new teaching method to complete the transitional phase from total dependence of pupils on them to more independence in English learning. This learning process can be called “Semi-autonomous learning”. No doubt it is useful for students to learn autonomously, but through the research findings we realized how much difficult is to make pupils in our schools completely autonomous. So it is necessary to establish a semi-autonomous learning for better English learning in the classroom. Dickinson defines semi-autonomous learning as: “**The stage at which learners are being prepared for autonomy**”. (Dickinson, 1987:11). As it was mentioned before, certain steps should be taken by teachers to raise their pupils' awareness of autonomy.
such as persuasive communication and later strategy training. These are the basic steps that should be taken during the “semi-autonomous stage.” EFL teachers in Algerian schools will surely find it useful to put some responsibilities in pupils’ hands through certain language tasks such as:
- Give pupils freedom of choice between working individually or in groups.
- Freedom of choice of materials to be used in the classroom such as data show, diaporama, posters, etc.) mainly in the presenting of the project works.
- Pupils free choice of project topics and themes other than those provided in the textbook is highly recommended.
- Pupils should be provided with a wide range of activities to choose from.
- Pupils should be given the opportunity to negotiate with their teachers and peers what present difficulty for them so as the teachers can modify or delete.
- Pupils can be offered a chance to give their opinion on the teaching unit’s theme.

Semi-autonomous learning is for bridging the gap between secondary and university in term of English learning. If pupils are well prepared in the secondary level (to be at least partially autonomous) the problem of spoon feeding and overreliance on the EFL teachers will be solved. EFL learners can be fully autonomous only when they reach university, because learner autonomy in the secondary level as put by Milliani (1991) is more a decision taking rather than a decision making. Semi-autonomous learning is a first and basic step to take for promoting learner autonomy in Algerian secondary education.

4.5.3 Staying in Touch with Language outside Classroom Settings

Learning English during class sessions only is not sufficient. Language learning is too complex and varied to be dealt with in two or three sessions a week only. Learning a language needs staying in touch with the language outside classroom settings because: “not everything can be taught in class”(Nunan, 1997:3). So pupils have to do self-study tasks outside school for strengthening their abilities in reading, writing and speaking in English.
Harmer (2001) similarly puts forwards that:

To compensate for the limits of classroom time and to counter the passivity that is an enemy of true learning, students need to develop their own learning strategies so that as far as possible they become autonomous learners. (Harmer, 2001: 335)

English learners can be prolific and good communicators if they develop the habit of staying in touch with English outside schools. In the Algerian context, for instance, pupils can be in touch with English in the class session only. Once it is finished the outside environment is not so much supportive for speaking English.

4.5.3.1 Self-Study Tasks

Since pupils in secondary schools can get more knowledge from a variety of sources outside school, learner autonomy can be promoted in Algerian context. They can do plenty of self-study tasks which can be used as stand-alone activities or to supplement taught sessions. They are free tasks designed by the learner himself for developing a certain language skill, unlike the homework that is prepared by teachers. Pupils in the secondary level can stay in touch with English through: watching English movies and documentaries, listening to English radio programme such as interviews and songs. Reading newspapers, magazines, novels and short stories in English is highly beneficial for learners, as well as keeping a pocket dictionary while reading or even traveling for enriching the English vocabulary. The collected data showed that writing is considered as the most difficult skill for the informants so doing self-study tasks in writing will benefit them and promote their writing. Through the internet the motivated learners can use English in writing e-mails and corresponding with key pales. So, motivating pupils is basic in establishing the culture of self-study tasks which are a feature of an autonomous learner.

4.5.3.2 Homeworks

Homework is one of the best ways for promoting learner autonomy in the secondary education. Learners find themselves in front of a problem to be solved individually without teacher’s guidance or assistance. In fact, through this task pupils can develop a sense of independence in English learning,
because: “Learner autonomy gets a powerful boost the first time homework is set for students to do out of class. They will now have to study without the help of the teacher.” (Harmer, 2001:338). However, it seems difficult for learners and teachers alike to set and to do homework. Pupils in the secondary education have other subjects not only English and they have to do at least one homework in each subject once a month. For this reason, teachers have to adjust the homework taking into account homeworks given in other subjects.

Homework is seen by teachers and pupils alike as a burden both are obliged to deal with, for this reason: “homework is frequently seen as a necessary evil rather than an important condition to learner autonomy.” (Harmer, 2001:338).

The homework if dealt with successfully, can be a condition for promoting learner autonomy in our schools. For this reason, teachers will find it beneficial to discuss with their pupils about the homework, taking into account their proposals. The language teacher can also make pupils contribute in the evaluation of the homework (whether it was difficult, reasonable or easy). Moreover, the homework should not be a set of grammar activities only, but it should be varied and interesting so that pupils will not be bored.

Painter (1999) notices that whenever she sets homework task for her learners, they do not enjoy it, it bored them. She realizes that the homework was not sufficiently interesting, so she tries to look for alternatives. The proposals she makes are as follows:

- Scanning English language newspapers to report back stories.
- Writing a film review.
- Collecting real life language examples: articles, letters, stamps, etc.
- Presenting an English language songs to classmates (explaining the lyrics)
- Searching for a topic of interest for classmates
- Presenting or introducing a favorite football team, actor or actress in English.

In addition to Painter’s proposals, Harmer (2001) suggests formal learning hints [2].

The homework tasks proposed above undoubtedly foster pupils’ writing and speaking performances, for the sake of making them fluent users of English. Therefore, these homework tasks may contribute greatly in promoting the autonomy of our pupils in the secondary education.
4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has been reserved to recommendations and suggestions for promoting learner autonomy in secondary education. EFL teachers in Algeria and pupils alike are poorly prepared for the move to learner autonomy and training them both is necessary. In Algerian EFL context, teacher training programs should provide teachers with adequate training to foster their autonomy as well as that of their learners. As for learners, the first basic step in fostering their autonomy is to raise their awareness of the importance of autonomy in their learning. Teachers can do this through creating basic motivational conditions and establish a persuasive communication to alter learners’ beliefs and attitudes. Strategy based instruction may be the solution of pupils overreliance on the English teacher, and prepare them for taking much more responsibility in their learning.

In attempts to promote a higher level of learner autonomy in Algerian schools, it is important to encourage homework assignments and project works as well as the use of a variety of published and authentic materials, that will help students explore greater interest in autonomous learning. As English teachers, it becomes their responsibility to not only teach a language, but also inform and instruct how to study outside the classroom. This will be accomplished by presenting tasks that inspire the learner to take learning into their own hands. Finally, autonomy in learning is a process and not a product that many EFL students seek today. Autonomy requires understanding one’s own strengths and weaknesses. And as it is hard to establish learner autonomy in our schools in which both teachers and learners need preparation. Semi-autonomous learning may be the best solution. It is a preparatory step towards achieving the goal of learning autonomously in Algerian secondary education.
Notes To Chapter Four

1-Learning styles

D. Nunan in his book “Language Teaching Methodology» made focus on the learner and distinguished four autonomous learner types on the basis of the main activities that students are involved in.

Type 1: ‘concrete’ learners. These learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practicing English outside class.

Type 2: ‘analytical’ learners. These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and reading newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher.

Type 3: ‘communicative’ learners. These learners like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English, using English out of class in shops, trains, etc., learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversations.

Type 4: ‘authority-oriented’ learners. These learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, like to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them.

2- Harmer(2001) claims that students can be given tasks in which they use certain strategies for better learning. Formal learning hints can help in fostering learner autonomy in English learning. An example is provided below:

- Make your own vocabulary notebook
- List the words in the notebook alphabetically
- For each word write an example sentence showing how the word is used, for example: the verb borrow
  I went to the library and borrowed a book for two weeks.
GENERAL CONCLUSION
GENERAL CONCLUSION

It is necessary to promote learner autonomy in foreign language learning, because the knowledge provided at schools and universities is insufficient. People need to continue studies if they want to adapt to such a changeable world of science and information in which English is a vehicle for international communication. For this reason, English teachers need to pay much more attention to the development of learner autonomy, so as to help the learner foster a life–long study skill. This dissertation has dealt with promoting learner autonomy in secondary education in relation to learners’ readiness and teacher’s role to foster it. Some light has been shed on the notion of learner autonomy in different approaches and methods adopted in the Algerian EFL context. Autonomy is one of the general objectives of English learning in secondary education. After analyzing the data, the research has reached certain findings and present suggestions and recommendations for EFL teachers and learners alike for promoting learner autonomy.

The findings have given evidence to the research hypotheses. Pupils in secondary education and teachers alike are not familiar with the notion of autonomy and not ready for implementing it. Pupils still consider the English teacher as the first and the most responsible in their learning. This teacher-dependent characteristic is due to pupils’ lack of motivation, their negative attitudes towards English. Besides, there is an absence of autonomy-oriented training for them and teachers to accept the change easily. This change has never been an easy task because the agents of change have not been involved in consultations and the proponents of change are over-enthusiastic about their proposal. (Baiche, 2008: 214). So teachers and pupils need to be taken into account while designing a change or innovation, they need also be given a helping hand so as to step in the world of autonomy.

Promoting learner autonomy is a worthwhile aim even though our national language education policies include autonomy as a learning goal. We might say that the development of learner autonomy is hardly a reality in Algeria. Teachers without any autonomy-oriented training may experience difficulties in creating such a classroom culture. Hence, the earlier language teachers are made aware of the
importance and necessity of learner autonomy in their initial teacher training, the more easily they will be able to implement this approach in their own future classrooms. Though autonomy is a new concept in ELT in Algeria, teachers should not resist it and keep their traditional teaching method. Teachers who are not familiar with the concept of independent learning, and still cling to the traditional focus of teacher centered methodologies should explore this method and start their pupils towards the path of independent learning. (Benmoussat, 2003:248)

Many language teachers would agree that autonomy is a good idea in theory, but somewhat idealistic as a goal in language teaching in practice. It was concluded that autonomous learning could occur when teachers assumed the role of facilitator of knowledge, became a supporter of helping pupil build self-responsibility, self-confidence and self-direction. Learner training for better autonomous learning is more than essential. For teachers they cannot teach students to become more autonomous, but they can create the atmosphere and conditions in which they will feel encouraged to develop the autonomy they already have. This can be achieved only if training programs include autonomy.

As for EFL learners, we can argue that they are required to be motivated learners so as to succeed as autonomous learner. However, many EFL teachers in secondary education believe that providing learners with knowledge is conducive to learning. However, they lose sight of unless motivating their learners first, they will fail in introducing learner autonomy to them. So motivation is one of the basic features of learner autonomy besides the wealth of resources available for self-study through multimedia and internet. Language teaching is, now more than before, in a position to encourage learner autonomy. While classroom learning cannot provide all what learners need, autonomous learning may complement this by encouraging the learner to go ‘deep’ and exploit materials to enrich their knowledge and improve their skills.

The current study provides some recommendations that could foster learner autonomy which include first, motivating pupils and increase their awareness. It is important to inform the students of the importance of learner autonomy. Second, strategy training sessions for pupils in secondary education are highly beneficial.
Through strategy training pupils in the secondary level start taking charge of their own learning. Third, Teachers can also have students use journals and diaries as a tool to reflect on their strategies and goals. Think-aloud protocols, self-reports and Self-assessment through quizzes and tests may be another affective means in promoting learner autonomy in our schools. Moreover, textbooks as a support for teachers and learners should be designed to foster autonomy.

It seems likely that the promotion of learner autonomy in language learning is an area that will continue to grow and several researches will be done to find the best ways that foster learner autonomy. The researcher hopes that this study would provide an example of promoting pupils’ autonomy and would also be useful in helping teachers to promote it in their classes, so that the language proficiency level will gradually progress. However, a limitation of this study is that it used only a limited sample of teachers and pupils in secondary education in Algeria. Future research may include testing the notion of autonomy in English learning in the middle schools and even universities throughout the country. Further research on learner autonomy can be dealt with from different angles that remain to be explored for instance:

- To which extent are Algerian EFL learners autonomous at university?
- What learning strategies should be taught at different proficiency levels to foster learner autonomy?
- How long does it take to train specific learners in certain language learning strategies to be sufficiently autonomous?

Learner autonomy is undoubtedly important in language teaching because it is as much a skill as learning to drive, it must be taught, it requires some practice. Unless they are taught how to take the wheel for themselves, learner students like learner drivers may be at risk. (Raiton and Watson, 2005:192). Just as driving, pupils need preparation and practice in this phase where they seem reliant on the teacher, however, once they take the command of the wheel themselves they can be independent.
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Appendix 1: Teachers’ questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

The following questionnaire seeks to gather your perspectives about learner autonomy and how it can be fostered in teaching English in secondary school and more precisely the level of first year. You are therefore kindly requested to answer the following questions by putting a tick in the appropriate box and making your comments when necessary.

Thank you very much for your collaboration.

1- Male □ Female □

2- Teaching experience: number of years? .................

3- In the process of learning English do you consider learner autonomy important?
Yes □ No □

4- How could you assess your pupils’ level of autonomous learning?
Good □ Average □ weak □

5- Do you think learners' level of language proficiency is related to their autonomous learning?
Yes □ no □ how?.......................................................................................................................... ................................................................. ............................................................. ............................................. …………………………………..

6- How do you think your pupils’ assumption towards learner autonomy is?:
Positive □ Negative □ Indifferent □

7- Can pupils' attitudes be changed from traditional to a more autonomous view of learning?
Yes □ No □
If yes, in what ways?
.................................................................................................................................................................................................

8- After four years of learning English, do you think 1AS pupils are ready to learn autonomously?
Yes □ No □

9- Are pupils of first year capable of selecting the content of the lesson and setting objectives?
Yes □ No □

10- Are you ready to give your learners much more responsibility in organizing learning and setting goals?
Yes □ No □
If no why? Is it:
- Because they lack language proficiency □
- Because they are indifferent. □
- Because they are not taught the right strategies to do so. □

11- Do you give your pupils opportunity to choose between working individually or in groups?
Yes □ No □ sometimes □

12- While learning English do pupils use self-monitoring and self-evaluation strategies?
Yes □ No □

13- Do learner autonomy depends on teacher autonomy?
Yes □ No □ Why?..................................................
14- Do you opt for teaching explicit meta-cognitive strategies for promoting learner autonomy?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

15- According to you, promoting learner autonomy is based most on:
   - Teacher’s role in the classroom ☐
   - Pupils’ readiness for autonomous learning ☐
   - The availability of materials and study aids. ☐

16- Do teacher training programs help teachers to take a positive step towards the development of their autonomy as well as that of the learner?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

17- Do 1AS textbook help the teacher and the learner to step towards autonomy?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

18 - Do you use the “check your progress” table at the end of the unit?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
say why?

19- Are project works (exposés) really done in a way that fosters learner autonomy?
   Yes ☐ No ☐ If no why?

20- Is the availability of technological material (inside school and outside of it) necessary for promoting learner autonomy?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
How? ........................................................................................................................................

21- Relying on your classroom experience, what suggestions would you make to help pupils promoting their autonomous learning in and outside the classroom?

................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
Appendix 3: Learners’ questionnaire

Dear pupils, The following questionnaire is submitted to you attempts systematically to collect information about your perception of your responsibility in the classroom and that of your teacher, so as to discover your readiness to take more responsibility in your learning, i.e., becoming autonomous learners. The questionnaire assesses the strategies you may use in the classroom. Therefore you are kindly requested to answer the following questions by putting a tick on the answer you think more appropriate, and make comments where necessary.

1- Age:

2- Sex:  male □ female □

3- Do you enjoy learning English?  Yes □ No □

Say why? .................................................................

4- Which one according to you take more responsibility in teaching learning process?

Learner □ Teacher □

5- How do you consider the notion of responsibility in learning teaching process?

- Teacher’s responsibility □
- Learner’s responsibility □
- Shared responsibility between teachers and learners. □

6- Do you think you are capable to study by yourself?

Yes □ No □

7- If not, Why? is it because:

- The teacher knows best and you used to rely on him □
- You don’t know the strategies of studying independently □
- You don’t have the necessary study aids and materials □

8- Does your teacher show you how to learn by yourself?

Yes □ No □

9- Which of the following decisions you view yourself capable to take in the classroom?

- Deciding the objective of the course. □
- Deciding how long to spend on each activity. □
- Choosing materials to use in the English classroom. □
- Evaluating learning performance. □

10- Do you choose the place of sitting down in the classroom?

Yes □ No □

11- Do you bring a dictionary with you to the classroom?

Yes □ No □

12- When you use the language in the class-interaction and make mistakes do you prefer to:

- Stop to correct yourself □
- Be corrected by your classmates □
- Be corrected by the teacher □

13- While reading in the classroom, you don’t understand the meaning of a word do you?

- Refer it to its context □
- Check the meaning in the dictionary □
- Ask the teacher about it □

14- Who is responsible of identifying your weaknesses and strengths in learning?

- The teacher □ - yourself □ - Your classmates □
15- Do you prepare the learning activity before coming to school?
- Yes ☐ No ☐

16- After the English class, Do you :
- Feel satisfied of the knowledge presented by the teacher ☐
- Try to develop it and enrich it outside the classroom. ☐

17- Which skill seems to be the most difficult for you?
Listening ☐ Speaking ☐ Reading ☐ Writing ☐

18- Which activities have you done out of the class to overcome your weakness in such a skill?

19- How often do you learn English outside the classroom?:
- Very often ☐
- Sometimes ☐
- Rarely ☐
- Hardly ever ☐

20- What do you do to improve your English outside the classroom?:
- Reading books, newspapers and magazines in English ☐
- Surfing on the internet ☐
- Watching English movies ☐
- Using Grammar books and dictionaries. ☐
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
12- أثناء القراءة و عندما لا تتمكن من فهم كلمة ماذا تفعل؟
- تحيل الكلمة إلى السياق الذي وردت فيه.
- البت-تحقق من المعنى في القاموس.
- التسال الأساتذة عنها.

13- من المسؤول عن تحديد نقاط الضعف والقوة الخاصة بك في تعلم الإنجليزية؟
- بنفسك.
- الأساتذة.
- زملاؤك في القسم.

14- هل تقوم بإعداد النشاط التعليمي (الدرس) في الإنجليزية قبل المجهول في إلى القسم؟
- نعم.
- لا.

15- بعد درس الإنجليزية هل:
- ترضي بالمعرفة المتحصل عليها من الأساتذة.
- تحاول إزرافتها وتطويرها بالبحث خارج القسم.

16- ما هي القدرة التي تبدو الأصعب بالنسبة إليك في تعلم الإنجليزية؟
- الاستماع.
- الحديث.
- القراءة.
- الكتابة.

17- ما هي النشاطات التي تقوم بها للتغلب على هذا الضعف وتحسين مهاراتك؟

18- هل تخصص وقتا لتعلم الإنجليزية خارج القسم؟
- في كثير من الأحيان.
- في بعض الأحيان.
- تجاهد.
- أبداً.

19- ما هي الوسائل التي تستعملها غالبا في تعلم الإنجليزية خارج القسم؟

20- ماذا تفعل من أجل تحسين مستوىك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟
- قراءة أفلام باللغة الإنجليزية.
- قراءة مقالات إنترنت.
- مشاهدة فيديوهات باللغة الإنجليزية.
- استخدام كتاب النحو والقواعد.
Appendix 4: A sample of pupils’ project work

Telephone

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

An Olivetti rotary dial telephone, c.1940s

The telephone (from the Greek: τῆλε, tēle, "far" and φωνή, phōnē, "voice"), often colloquially referred to as a phone, is a telecommunications device that transmits and receives sound, most commonly the human voice. Telephones are a point-to-point communication system whose most basic function is to allow two people separated by large distances to talk to each other. Developed around the 1870s by Alexander Graham Bell and many others, it is now one of the most common appliances in the developed world, and has long been considered indispensable to businesses, households and governments. The word "telephone" has been adapted to many languages and is widely recognized around the world.

All telephones have a microphone to speak into, an earphone which reproduces the voice of the other person, a ringer which makes a sound to alert the owner when a call is coming in, and a keypad (or in older phones a telephone dial or no manual device) to enter the telephone number of the telephone being called. The microphone and earphone are usually built into a handset which is held up to the face to talk. The keypad may be part of the handset or of a base unit to which the handset would be connected. A landline telephone is connected by a pair of wires to the telephone network, while a mobile phone or cell phone is portable and communicates with the telephone network by radio. A cordless telephone has a portable handset which communicates by radio with a base station connected by wire to the telephone network, and can only be used within a limited range of the base station.

The microphone converts the sound waves to electrical signals, which are sent through the telephone network to the other phone, where they are converted back to sound waves by the earphone in the other phone's handset. Telephones are a duplex communications medium, meaning they allow the people on both ends to talk simultaneously. The telephone network, consisting of a worldwide net of telephone lines, fiber optic cables, microwave transmission, cellular networks, communications satellites, and undersea telephone cables connected by switching centers, allows any telephone in the world to communicate with any other. Each telephone line has an identifying number called its telephone number. To initiate a telephone call, a conversation with another telephone, the user enters the other telephone's number into a
numeric keypad on his/her phone. Graphic symbols used to designate telephone service or phone-related information in print, signage, and other media include ℡. Although originally designed for voice communication, the system has been adapted for data communication such as Telex, Fax and dial-up Internet communication.

**History**


Credit for the invention of the electric telephone is frequently disputed, and new controversies over the issue have arisen from time to time. As with other influential inventions such as radio, television, the light bulb, and the computer, there were several inventors who did pioneering experimental work on voice transmission over a wire and improved on each other's ideas. Innocenzo Manzetti, Antonio Meucci, Johann Philipp Reis, Elisha Gray, Alexander Graham Bell, and Thomas Edison, among others, have all been credited with pioneering work on the telephone. An undisputed fact is that Alexander Graham Bell was the first to be awarded a patent for the electric telephone by the United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO) in March 1876. That first patent by Bell was the master patent of the telephone, from which all other patents for electric telephone devices and features flowed. The early history of the telephone became and still remains a confusing morass of claims and counterclaims, which were not clarified by the large number of lawsuits that hoped to resolve the patent claims of many individuals and commercial competitors. The Bell and Edison patents, however, were forensically victorious and commercially decisive. A Hungarian engineer, Tivadar Puskás, quickly invented the telephone switchboard in 1876, which allowed for the formation of telephone exchanges, and eventually networks. [3]

**Details of operation**

The landline telephone consists of a switchhook (A4) and an alerting device, usually a ringer (A7), that remains connected to the phone line whenever the phone is "on hook" (i.e. the switch (A4) is open), and other components which are connected when the phone is "off hook". The off-hook components include a transmitter (microphone, A2), a receiver (speaker, A1), and other circuits for dialing, filtering (A3), and amplification. A calling party wishing to speak to another party will pick up the telephone's handset, operating a lever which closes the switchhook (A4), which powers the telephone by connecting the transmitter (microphone), receiver (speaker), and related audio components to the line. The off-hook circuitry has a low resistance (less than 300 ohms) which causes a direct current (DC), which comes down the
line (C) from the telephone exchange. The exchange detects this current, attaches a digit receiver circuit to the line, and sends a dial tone to indicate readiness. On a modern pushbutton telephone, the caller then presses the number keys to send the telephone number of the called party. The keys control a tone generator circuit (not shown) that makes DTMF tones that the exchange receives. A rotary-dial telephone uses pulse dialing, sending electrical pulses, that the exchange can count to get the telephone number (as of 2010 many exchanges were still equipped to handle pulse dialing). If the called party's line is available, the exchange sends an intermittent ringing signal (about 90 volts alternating current (AC) in North America and UK and 60 volts in Germany) to alert the called party to an incoming call. If the called party's line is in use, the exchange returns a busy signal to the calling party. However, if the called party's line is in use but has call waiting installed, the exchange sends an intermittent audible tone to the called party to indicate an incoming call.

The phone's ringer (A7) is connected to the line through a capacitor (A6), a device which blocks direct current but passes alternating current. So, the phone draws no current when it is on hook (a DC voltage is continually connected to the line), but exchange circuitry (D2) can send an AC voltage down the line to ring for an incoming call. (When there is no exchange, telephones often have hand-cranked magnetos to make the ringing voltage.) When a landline phone is inactive or "on hook", the circuitry at the telephone exchange detects the absence of direct current and therefore "knows" that the phone is on hook (therefore, only AC current will go through) with only the alerting device electrically connected to the line. When a party initiates a call to this line, the exchange sends the ringing signal. When the called party picks up the handset, they actuate a double-circuit switchhook (not shown) which simultaneously disconnects the alerting device and connects the audio circuitry to the line. This, in turn, draws direct current through the line, confirming that the called phone is now active. The exchange circuitry turns off the ring signal, and both phones are now active and connected through the exchange. The parties may now converse as long as both phones remain off hook. When a party "hangs up", placing the handset back on the cradle or hook, direct current ceases in that line, signaling the exchange to disconnect the call.
Appendix 5: A suggested lesson for journal writing

INTRODUCTION Using the published diaries of Anne Frank, or Zlata Filipovic, introduce students to journal writing, a form of autobiographical writing in which the writer records personal thoughts, feelings, and experiences.

SUGGESTED TIME ALLOWANCE 40 minutes

OBJECTIVES Students will:
- write personal journal entries to explore their thoughts, feelings, and experiences.
- edit a personal journal entry to sharpen their grammar and spelling skills.
- share their entry with peer editors and edit the work of others to build collaboration skills.

MATERIALS
Personal spiral notebook
Pens or pencils (pens are preferred to encourage fluency and discourage erasing)
Writing prompts
Internet access
Printouts of the journals for the Teacher Exchange students and/or copies of Anne Frank: The Diary of a Young Girl by Anne Frank, and/or Zlata's Diary: A Child's Life in Sarajevo by Zlata Filipovic

PROCEDURES

1. Tell the class they are going to be listening to or reading excerpts from one or more diaries. Each diary is the real-life record of a young girl's or boy's thoughts, feelings, and experiences over a particular time period.
   - Anne Frank's diary is the record of the German teenager's experiences in the Netherlands from 1942 to 1944 during World War II.
   - Zlata Filipovic's diary is the 11-year-old's record of her changing life in her native country of Sarajevo during a much later war.

2. As you read to your students, or as they read to themselves, have them note the personal details that the writer includes in the diary. For example, Zlata's first six entries establish her as a typical fifth-grader whose life at this point in her writing may not be too different from your students' own lives. Details for students to note include:
   - Zlata's anxiousness to see her schoolmates again
   - The different ways the children of Sarajevo spent their summer vacation
   - The classes offered at Zlata's school (compared to their own classes)
   - Zlata's love of Saturday morning so she can sleep late.

3. Next, have students discuss the following questions about the writer and her work:
   - Why are the writer's details important?
   - How do they help the reader?
   - What do they tell us about the writer?
   - What questions do you have about the writer?
   - What do you and the writer have in common?

4. Next, tell students they will be writing their own journals as a week-long (or year-long) project. (You might provide class time for journal writing or assign it as homework.) Ask students to think of these journals as a way to freely explore their thoughts and feelings while also creating a source of ideas for their writing.
5. Also, remind them that their journals should contain the details that may seem unimportant at first, but which add to the reader's appreciation and understanding of the writer.

6. They should also date each journal entry.

8. To give students ideas for their first journal entries, present the following writing prompts and tell students they will have 5 to 10 minutes (3 minutes for younger students) to write. Direct them to try to write nonstop and avoid erasing. Most students will be comfortable beginning with short, sustained writing times, building up to longer times as their fluency increases. Some good prompts for beginning journal entries include:
   - What I did last weekend (or hope to do this weekend)
   - My experiences in the school this week, for better or worse
   - What really makes me frustrated or mad, and why
   - What really makes me laugh
   - How I spend my spare time
   - My best memory ever
   - Inside my head today
   - A typical day in my life at school

   You can help motivate students to write in their journals by writing in your own journal and sharing your writing.

ASSESSMENT

- After students have written at least five journal entries, allow them to pick their best entry, revise it, and submit it for peer editing and grading. Allow for further revisions after grading and post the work either on a class website or bulletin board.
- In addition, ask students to devise a class journal-writing rubric – that is, establish the criteria for good journal writing. They can use this rubric to assess one another's work or their own.
- As you read students' journals, it is more meaningful for them if they receive personal rather than corrective comments on their thoughts and ideas.
- Ask for volunteers to read aloud from their journals and have students give feedback on the writer's use of such devices as sensory details and imagery.
The Algerian educational system has lately witnessed a general reform in teaching methodologies. English is now taught according to the Competency-Based Approach. One of its basic objectives is to make the EFL learner more autonomous and self-reliant through the use of some language learning strategies and projects. However, EFL learners in secondary education are still over-reliant on the language teacher in their learning. We believe it is necessary to promote learner autonomy in EFL secondary education as this is a preparatory phase for learners before they reach the university. However, the question that poses itself here is: Are learners in secondary education ready to be involved in autonomous learning? In order to answer this question, we have tried to investigate pupils’ ‘readiness for autonomy and ‘teachers’ roles’ about this issue through questionnaires to teachers and pupils, classroom observations and interviews. Finally results are analyzed and some recommendations are suggested to promote learning autonomy among EFL learners in secondary education in Algeria.

-Key words: autonomy – Competency-Based Approach – learning strategies.

Resumé

Le système éducatif algérien a récemment connu une réforme générale en matière de méthodologies d'enseignement. L'Anglais est actuellement enseigné selon l'Approche par Compétences. Un des objectifs de cette approche est de rendre l'apprenant plus autonome par des stratégies d'apprentissage et des réalisations de ‘projets’. Malheureusement, dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais les élèves du secondaire comptent beaucoup sur leur enseignant. Il est nécessaire de promouvoir l'autonomie d'apprentissage dans le secondaire, surtout étant la phase pré-université. Pour ce faire, la question est de savoir si les élèves du secondaire sont prêts à être impliqués dans l'apprentissage autonome? Pour cette fin, une enquête concernant l'Anglais a été réalisé parmi les élèves afin d'évaluer leur préparation à l'autonomie ainsi que les rôles des enseignants dans cette perspective par le biais des questionnaires aux enseignants, aux élèves, une observation de classe, et des entretiens. Enfin les résultats sont analysés, et des recommandations sont proposées pour développer l'autonomie dans l'apprentissage de l'Anglais chez les élèves du secondaire en Algérie.

-Mots Clés : autonomie - l’Approche par Compétences – stratégies d’apprentissage
Summary
Promoting Learner Autonomy in an EFL Context: Learners’ Readiness and Teachers’ Roles. (The Case of First Year Pupils in Secondary Education in Algeria)

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English as a Partial Fulfillment for the Degree of «Magister» in Applied Linguistics and TEFL

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Under The Supervision of: Dr. Ali BAICHE

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Academic Year: 2011 - 2012
Summary of the Dissertation

(Résumé)
Introduction

This research is concerned with learner autonomy in formal language learning contexts (secondary education). It is a case study designed to investigate learners’ readiness for autonomous learning. The purpose of the study is to discover whether or not pupils attending English Language in secondary school are ready to take on autonomous language learning. Before any interventions aiming at fostering autonomy are implemented, it is necessary to explore learners’ readiness for autonomous learning. The study contains four chapters. A triangulation method is used in this work; it includes data collection from questionnaires that have been put to both secondary teachers and pupils. In addition to a classroom observation and an interview with a general inspector of English. Suggestions and recommendations about how to promote learner autonomy for learners and teachers are provided in this dissertation.

The Algerian Ministry of Education has launched educational reforms in the academic year 2002-2003 so as to change the teaching methodologies. The Competency-Based Approach was implemented in Algerian schools. It is supposed that the CBA has reshaped teacher and learner roles and their responsibility in the language classroom. This approach aims at producing responsible and autonomous learners who are expected to take charge of their learning. This does not mean that learner autonomy aims at marginalizing the teacher; on the contrary, the teacher’s role is essential in setting a suitable atmosphere that encourages learners to be gradually autonomous in English learning.

There is no doubt that the notion of autonomy in English learning can be partially or gradually implemented in the secondary education. When learners reach university they find themselves able to take charge of their own learning. However, Algerian English learners do not arrive at university with the capacity of learning English autonomously. This is because they have been accustomed to spoon feeding in the secondary education. They consider English as a secondary subject (except for those in foreign languages stream). For this reason, they are not highly motivated and feel that the teacher is more responsible for the learning process. And responsible even for their success and failure in English learning. Though teachers in the secondary education
invest endless amount of energy in their students and they generally get a very little response. In other words, learners are over reliant on the English teacher. The solution lies on promoting learner autonomy so that learners become gradually independent from the teacher, and rely much more on themselves in English learning both inside and outside the classroom.

Fostering learner autonomy aims at changing learners’ attitudes towards English class and making them assume more responsibility in learning. Whether or not they are aware of the importance of learner autonomy and are ready to develop it in learning. The present investigation is carried out under four research questions:

1 - Are first-year pupils in secondary education ready to be involved in autonomous learning?

2 - How do learners perceive their own and their teacher’s responsibilities in learning English?

3 - Are they using learning strategies that help them become more independent from the teacher?

4 - In what ways can learner autonomy be fostered in an EFL context?

The answer to these questions concerns two levels: the first one is concerned with a brief description and an analysis of ELT in Algeria with reference to teachers and learners attitudes and roles. The second concerns the requirements and ways for fostering learner autonomy in the secondary education and how to make it a reality not just a supposition. These two elements govern the general layout of this dissertation in which we try to give evidence to the following hypotheses:

1 - First year pupils are not ready yet to be involved in autonomous learning. Their over reliance on the language teacher is the main cause of this behaviour.

2 - Pupils consider the teacher as more responsible in the learning teaching process. The reason why they may be reluctant to take responsibility, i.e,they have teacher-dependent learning characteristics.

3 - Learners generally do not know which strategies to select and how to use them in order to learn English independently.
Autonomy can be fostered only if learners change their attitudes towards the language learning, and both teachers and learners have autonomy-oriented training.

To follow up this study, chapter one presents different theories, findings and philosophies underlying learner autonomy. The rise of it in the educational context and how it has become a desirable goal in language learning. Chapter two provides insights on English language teaching in Algeria and describes the notion of learner autonomy secondary education in Algerian with reference to the present teaching method along the CBA and the ELT textbook for 1AS. Chapter three addresses the research methodology used in this dissertation. This chapter deals with a sampling of English secondary teachers and pupils and a general inspector of English. And the reason behind this choice. As for research instruments, we have used a questionnaire for teachers and pupils, classroom observation and an interview with the general inspector of English.

This research work is an attempt to contribute in promoting learner autonomy in the secondary education in Algeria. It is in fact an attempt to expand an awareness of teachers and students concerning the necessity of autonomy in English learning. No doubt autonomy is essential, however, its notion sometimes cause frustration among teachers and learners, because they are not in the best position of implementing it due to the lack of formation, training and preparation for change. In fact what both teachers and pupils really need autonomy-oriented training.

1- What is Learner Autonomy?

Learner autonomy is a multifaceted concept whose meaning has been discussed from many perspectives. One of the fields in which the concept of autonomy was firstly developed is politics. Autonomy as a political concept originated in the Ancient Greek, philosophers such as: Aristotle, and Socrates who claimed for citizens’ right to self-government. Cities were governed according to citizens own laws. In this sense, individuals were considered free beings in command of themselves and not subjected to others’ authority. In the same context, Yule (1996) says that the autonomous person (like the autonomous state) must not be subject to external interference or control but
must rather freely direct the course of his own life. The current debate about autonomy in second and foreign language learning originated in Holec's *Autonomy and foreign language learning* first published in 1979, where he provides a definition of learner autonomy as:

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

(Holec, 1981:3)

Holec supports his definition by a set of roles the autonomous learner is supposed to play such as: determining the objectives, defining the content and progression, selecting the method and the techniques to be used, monitoring and evaluating what has been acquired. Dickinson (1987) on the other hand, views learner autonomy as decision making in leaning context. According to him autonomy refers to “the situation in which the learner is responsible for the decisions concerned with his or her learning and the implementation of these decisions.” (Dickinson, 1987:81). A more elaborated definition of learner autonomy is also put forward by Jeffries (1990) who views it as “learning in which an individual or a group of learners study on their own possibly for a part or parts of a course, without direct intervention from a tutor, so that to take a greater responsibility for what they learn.” (Jeffries, 1990:35). Jeffries definition of learner autonomy seems to be the most suitable for the purposes that are dealt with in this dissertation. This is because we are much more concerned with this kind of partial autonomy not with the full or total autonomy, i.e, absence of the teacher either throughout all the phases of the overall learning process (total autonomy) or throughout one or a number of these phases (partial autonomy).
2- Levels of Autonomy

In the late 1990’s a number of researchers claimed that the notion of autonomy is a matter of levels, there are several models of autonomy levels. They are summarized in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nunan Model (1997)</td>
<td>- Awareness</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a communicator</td>
<td>- Raising Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Involvment</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a learner</td>
<td>- Changing attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Intervention</td>
<td>- Autonomy as a person</td>
<td>- Transferring roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Creation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Transcendence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Littlewood’s Model (1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Autonomy of language competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Autonomy of language learning competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macaro Model (1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Autonomy of choice and action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scharle &amp; Szab’o’s(2000)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table: Levels of autonomy.

In this study we are much more concerned with Littlewood’s model mainly its second stage “autonomy as a learner”. The aim of this research, in fact, is as stated in Scharle and Szab’o ‘s model, to rise teacher’s and learner’s awareness of the importance of learner autonomy, changing their negative attitudes towards it and transferring roles .

3 - Reasons for Learner Autonomy

Autonomy has become a desirable goal for three reasons: psychological, practical and philosophical.

First, the psychological rationale is the most appealing to educationalists, simply because learners in general learn better when they are in charge of their own learning. In this context, Candy states that: “When learners are involved in making choices and decisions about the content and the mode of what they are studying, learning is more meaningful, and thus, effective.”(Candy, 1991:24). Moreover, learners involved in the process are more likely to feel motivated in their learning and motivated learners are generally successful learners.
The second rationale behind autonomy is practicability which emerges from the need of more suitable teaching situations. The traditional approaches are not practical according to Van Lier (1988) there is a wide gap between knowledge obtained at school and the real life outside of it, i.e., learners could use the language neither in conversation nor in writing tasks. For this reason, a continuous adoption of new approaches is now one of the distinctive feature in the field of language teaching and learning.

Third, the philosophical rationale behind autonomy is the belief that the individual has the right to be free to make his or her own choices not only in learning a language but also in other subjects. According to Knowles (1975) societies are happier and healthier with free individuals who have not become victims of choices made by social institutions. since the attitude and the conception of the role of the individual in society has been a move from: “man as product of his society” to “man as the producer of his society” (Janne, 1977: 15 in Holec, 1981:3). If democratic states are to develop and flourish as democracies, they must undertake educational measures to develop the capacity of their citizens to think and act as free and self-determining individuals. So if Algeria is to flourish as a democratic country, plenty of educational measures should be made first so as to make Algerian learners and in an early age autonomous in their learning, free and self-determining simply because children of today are men of tomorrow. Once they have developed their autonomy as learners in a later stage they develop their autonomy as persons and citizens.

4- Dominant Philosophies Underlying Learner Autonomy

The notion of autonomy in learning has long been part of a wide range of educational philosophies and has recently been identified in educational policy as crucial to the development of lifelong learning. Three dominant philosophies of learning connecting up with learner autonomy have been discussed. They are: humanism, constructivism and experiential learning.

First, Humanism and Learning Theory emphasizes the importance of affective factors in learning, such as: motivation, age, aptitude, and learners’ attitudes towards the language. Humanism as a philosophy is a paradigm that emphasizes sensitivity and
compassion towards learners, and the rejection of whatever makes pupils feel not at ease while learning. That is to say, to remove any obstacle or a psychological barrier that can undermine learning a language such as: stress, anxiety, and shyness, etc.

Second, Constructivism is a philosophy of learning which considers learning as an active, constructive process. In other words people actively construct or create their own knowledge. Constructivism is founded on the basis that, knowledge cannot be taught but only learnt (that is to say constructed)

Third, Experiential learning is the process of making meaning from direct experience. Aristotle once said, for the things we have to learn before we can do them, we learn by doing them.

5- Classroom Autonomy

Autonomy of the classroom is a relative concept with multi-dimensional meaning. It is relative in the sense that students cannot be completely out of the control of teachers and teachers cannot go beyond the existing educational system. The teacher is still the main source of learning materials. The syllabus is still an important document to guide students to learn. Benson (2007) discusses the implications of the rise of ‘classroom autonomy’ by arguing that it has led to a re-conceptualization of autonomy from a theory or a philosophy to a usable construct for teachers who want to help their learners develop autonomy. The teachers’ attitudes towards the learner change from considering them passive recipients to collaborators. To see learners as collaborators and partners means to share responsibility with them in language learning.

6- Conditions for Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is not a product readymade for teachers to apply, nor is it an article of faith (Bassou, 2008). Learner autonomy is obtained when certain conditions are available: motivation and attitudes and learning strategies on the part of the learner, and materials. Maintaining autonomy in EFL classroom seems to be difficult. Learners’ Attitudes and Motivation and learning strategies are basic conditions for promoting learner autonomy in secondary education.
7- Classifications of Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O’Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992, etc.) Rubin has pioneered much of the work in the field of strategies. Some of these classifications are illustrated in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Social strategies</td>
<td>- Scio-affective strategies</td>
<td>- Management and Planning Strategies</td>
<td>- Communicative - Experiential Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Affective and social.</td>
<td>- Interpersonal Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Affective Strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table Classification of Language Learning Strategies.

It is noticed from the table that (other than Stern’s classification), the other classifications reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

8- Materials of Learning

One of the most important conditions of learner autonomy is the availability of authentic materials and study aids so as the learner can work independently far away from the teacher. There are many materials such as: monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, grammar books, homework. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is a form of computer-based learning. The Internet also may be an excellent source of authentic listening and reading texts, blogs, chat rooms, etc.
9- A Summary of ELT Methodologies in Algeria

The Grammar Translation Method dominated English language teaching in Algeria in the 1960's. It was based on rote learning of grammar rules and on translation tasks. It was criticized by favoring accuracy rather than fluency. After the Second World War, there was a general feeling of discontent with traditional methods namely the Grammar translation. It was a necessity to develop new methods such as “audio-lingual method that implies the acquisition of oral language skills through oral practice based on repetition and learning by analogy. However, this approach was criticized, according to Rivers (1981) unfortunately the audio-lingual mechanical way of teaching language gave birth to well-trained parrots able to recite whole utterances while given a certain stimulus, but uncertain of what they were saying. This Approach was used in Algeria through “Succes With English” Course book I 1970 and “Success With English” II 1971.

The ever growing need for good communication skills in English paved the way to the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching. CLT aims to develop fluency in language use. It includes both the usage and use of the language. Therefore, the approach does not deny the importance of mastering grammatical forms, so long as they are taught as a means of carrying out meaningful communication. In Algerian schools in the 1980’s, many ELT textbooks had been designed : Newlines (1981), Midlines (1981) and Think it Over (1982-1983) And later My New Book of English, New Midlines, and Comet in the nineties. The communicative approach had been in use in Algerian school until the recent educational reform which was launched in 2003. In fact, the CBA has been implemented first in middle schools during the year 2003-2004 and two years later in secondary schools.

The CBA, as its name suggests, seeks to establish competences in learners so as they can put in practice the skills that have been acquired in school, in other extra school settings. the CBA also seeks to help learners act as effective users of language in real-world contexts, through the establishment of: a know-how-to-do, and a know-how-to-be in learners.” (Programmes de la Deuxième Année Moyenne: 43). The textbooks illustrating the approach in Algeria mainly in secondary schools are
as follows: At the crossroad 1AS Getting Through 2AS and New Prospects 3AS.

As far as our research is concerned, and throughout the history of teaching methods in Algeria, the notion of autonomy is about to be absent in certain approaches such as: the grammar translation method. Though learners were asked to do plenty of activities on translation at homes for which they us bilingual dictionaries. Thus, autonomy was not fully absent in this method. However, in the audio lingual method the notion of autonomy was more reduced no room is left for learners to learn autonomously as teaching was based on repetitions and drillings. Autonomy is supposed to be gradually implemented in CLT, since learners were encouraged to do self-study tasks so as to improve their pronunciation and communicative skill in general. Autonomy is now highly esteemed and very much emerged with the CBA in secondary education. Partly due to the shift from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness. In the CBA autonomy is one of the bases of language learning mainly through doing project works and the use of self-evaluation strategies.

10- The Notion of Learner Autonomy in Algerian context

We have found that the notion of autonomy is not so valued in certain ELT methods implemented in Algerian schools. It has started to gain popularity as soon as the CLT is adopted in Algeria. And now it is clearly stated as a goal of the CBA due mainly to the shift from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness, which is supposed to open a larger room for pupils to take more responsibility in their learning and to be (to certain extent) independent from the teacher.

The Ministry of Education considers developing Learner autonomy as one of the objectives of ELT in the secondary education in general and for 1AS in particular. The reason why project works are introduced so as to foster learner autonomy. However, these projects are not done in a way that really contributes in promoting learner autonomy. Moreover, the EFL textbook designed for 1AS At the crossroad lacks self-study tasks to be done independently, besides the fact that this book cannot be used by pupils alone without external help of the teacher. Moreover, the system of evaluation undermines autonomy more than it fosters it. All these factors show that learner autonomy is still in its infancy in ELT in Algeria. In order to promote it a great work is waiting for book designers, authorities, as well as teachers and learners.
11-The Research methodological design

The selection of the type of research is based mainly on the nature of the research itself. Learner autonomy is a phenomenon that actually happens both inside and outside the class. Yin (1984) states that: “a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real- life context.” (Yin 1984 In Nunan 1997:76). Through the use of a case study we have tried to discover learners’ view of autonomy as well as their perception of their role as well as that of their teachers in learning. Before any intervention aimed at promoting learner autonomy, an investigation about learners view and readiness for learning autonomously should be made first. In this case study we have carried out a plan to be used in collecting data and finally reporting the results obtained. According to Nunan methodologically, the case study is: “a “hybrid” in that it generally utilizes a range of methods for collecting and analyzing data, rather than being restricted to a single procedure.” (Nunan, 1997:74). Thus, we use a questionnaire for teachers, another one to learners, in addition to a classroom observation and an interview with a General inspector of English.

Both secondary teachers and pupils are given a questionnaire, their answers are useful data in answering the research questions. Promoting learner autonomy should start first by the learners themselves, their motivation, their attitudes as well as their views of autonomy. Without learners’ readiness the language teacher may fail in fostering autonomous learning both inside and outside the classroom even if he or she does their best in teaching. Similarlarly, the Chinese proverb says: “you can bring the horse to water, but you can't make him drink.”

Third, Classroom observation is pointed out as a complementary research tool which will provide us with extra empirical data of teachers’ classroom practices. It is held in Tafna secondary school in Hassi El Ghella with the aim to discover if the classroom is really autonomous. And last, a semi-structured interview as another contributory research instrument.
Oxford (2003) argues that: “research on autonomy should combine as many perspectives as possible and no “single” perspective should be considered antithetical to any other.” (Oxford, 2003:90). In fact, autonomy is multifaceted process in which the learner, the teacher, book designers, and even inspectors have a role to play so as to foster it in language learning. For this reason, tools used in data collection are considered as a crucial triangulation component aimed at obtaining a richer description of learner autonomy in the secondary education in Algeria. This has been done to cross-check the validity of the results and to collect as much data as to help us tackle the problem from different angles.

The different steps of data collection in this research investigation are summarized in the following diagram:

Diagram Data collection procedure
12 - Research Findings

In English learning learner autonomy cannot be realized overnight. Due to the long-term traditional spoon-feeding method. Students will undoubtedly have some difficulty shifting their learning styles and taking the responsibility for their own learning. In this case, teachers’ encouragement is highly demanded to help those passive learners improving their autonomy, and help them to realize that successful language learning largely depends on themselves not on the teacher. In this context a Chinese proverb may serve to clarify farther it is saying: “when you offer me one fish you feed me one day, but when you show me how to fish you feed me all the life.” What pupils really need is not offering them knowledge but rather showing them how to find it. This study highlights the need to integrate learner independence into the language curriculum, not only as top to down decision imposed on both teachers and pupils, but as step by step procedure based on rising awareness, motivating learners and train them alike with teachers towards autonomy. Thus. we can deduce that a hard work is to be done if we want autonomy to be a reality in the secondary education in Algeria.

13- Some Recommendations for promoting Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy can be promoted only if pupils are sufficiently motivated and aware of the necessity of autonomy for successful learning. Besides certain factors that should be available such as learners’ training to find out the learning strategies that suit them best. The language teacher also plays a role in promoting learner autonomy. EFL teachers in Algeria and pupils alike are poorly prepared for the move to learner autonomy and training them both is necessary. In Algerian EFL context, teacher training programs should provide teachers with adequate training to foster their autonomy as well as that of their learners. As for learners, the first basic step in fostering their autonomy is to raise their awareness of the importance of autonomy in their learning. Teachers can do this through creating basic motivational conditions and establish a persuasive communication to alter learners’ beliefs and attitudes. Strategy based instruction may be the solution of pupils overreliance on the English teacher, and prepare them for taking much more responsibility in their learning.
14- General Conclusion

The findings have given evidence to the research hypotheses. Pupils in secondary education and teachers alike are not familiar with the notion of autonomy and not ready for implementing it. Pupils still consider the English teacher as the first and the most responsible in their learning. This teacher-dependent characteristic is due to pupils’ lack of motivation, their negative attitudes. Besides, the absence of autonomy oriented training for them and teachers to accept the change easily. This change has never been an easy task because: “the agents of change have not been involved in consultations …and the proponents of change are over-enthusiastic about their proposal.”(Baiche, 2008: 214). So teachers and pupils need to be taken into account while designing a change or innovation, they need also be given a helping hand so as to step in the world of autonomy.

Promoting learner autonomy is a worthwhile aim even though our national language education policies include autonomy as a learning goal; we might say that the development of learner autonomy is hardly a reality in Algeria. Teachers without any autonomy-oriented training may experience difficulties in creating such a classroom culture. Hence, the earlier language teachers are made aware of the importance and necessity of learner autonomy in their initial teacher training, the more easily they will be able to implement this approach in their own future classrooms. Though autonomy is a western culture somehow alien in Algerian context.

Learner autonomy is undoubtedly important in language teaching because it is as much a skill as learning to drive, it must be taught, it requires a practice. Unless they are taught how to take the wheel for themselves, learner students like learner drivers may be at risk. (Raiton and Watson, 2005:192). Just as driving pupils need preparation and practice in this phase they seem reliant on the teacher, however once they take the command of the wheel themselves they can be independent.
The End