

Role of Learner Autonomy in Using Language Learning Strategies among Tertiary EFL Learners in Bangladesh

**Thesis submitted to Jadavpur University
for award of the degree of**

Doctor of Philosophy in Arts (Education)

**Submitted by
Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan**

**Under the Supervision of
Prof. Muktipada Sinha**

**Department of Education
Jadavpur University
Kolkata
2021**

To
human desire to learn!

Certificate

I hereby certify that this thesis titled ***"Role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh"***, submitted for award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Arts (Education) in Jadavpur University is based upon entirely my work carried out under the supervision of Professor Muktipada Sinha, Head, Department of Education, Jadavpur University.

I also declare that this thesis does not contain excerpts from others' work without citing proper sources. Neither this as a whole, nor any part of it, has been submitted before for award of any degree or diploma in any other institution.



(Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan)

Date: 15/12/2021

Countersigned



(Professor Muktipada Sinha)

Supervisor

Acknowledgement

I am profoundly indebted to my supervisor Professor Dr. Muktipada Sinha, Head, Department of Education, Jadavpur University; and would like to express my deepest gratitude for his continuous encouragement, learned advice, tremendous support, and expert guidance. I am also truly grateful to him because of his being more than a supervisor - with incredible generosity and endless patience, often going beyond the call of duty in providing constructive feedback throughout the weekdays/ends, and even late in the evenings – he was always there for me during those long and challenging times in pursuing this study. This study would not have been possible without his sincere interest and dynamic supervision.

A special gratitude goes to Bijoy Krishna Panda, Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Raiganj University; for being very instrumental during the whole study. His active involvement, hands-on sharing, and effective suggestions proved to be particularly helpful and made this journey a lot easier than what could have been.

The wonderful Department of Education, Jadavpur University - with all its learned faculty members who have deeply enlightened me, as well as the friendly administrative personnel who have always extended their full support in times of need - deserves an honest appreciation.

Also, my heartfelt thanks go to Liton Mallick and Suraj Bhattacharjee, research scholars in the Department of Education, Jadavpur University, for their prolonged company, continuous motivation, and multidimensional support throughout this study.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the participating Universities in Bangladesh for allowing their learners to participate in this study. And those learners who wholeheartedly participated in this study really deserve my sincere appreciation.

I am also greatly indebted to Dr. Rubina Khan, Professor in English, University of Dhaka, for her enlightening ideas that guided me reshape my approach to a great extent. My sincere appreciation also goes to Professor Iffat Ara Nasreen Majid and Professor Tahmina Ahmed from the University of Dhaka for their true encouragement, motivation, and guidance. Likewise, I am also grateful to Dr. Sayeedur Rahman and Dr. Shaila Sultana from the University of Dhaka for inspiring me to take up, and thereby complete, this long journey.

And last, but not least, a big credit goes to ICCR, Government of India; for providing this wonderful opportunity and sponsorship in pursuing this research.

Muhammad Fazle Ramzan Khan

Date: 15/12/2021

Tables & Figures Index

List of Tables

Table 1.1:	Model of learner autonomy (Nunan, 1997)	11
Table 3.1:	Distribution of sample by divisions	73
Table 3.2:	Distribution of sample by levels of independent variables	75
Table 3.3:	Strategy-wise item distribution in the SILL	78
Table 4.1:	Rank of the language learning strategies preferred by learners	83
Table 4.2:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and gender	83
Table 4.3:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and number of sibling(s)	85
Table 4.4:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and locality of institution	87
Table 4.5:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and medium of instruction	88
Table 4.6:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and duration of learning English before taking admission in university	90
Table 4.7:	Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and parental education	91
Table 4.8:	Central tendency and variability: gender & learning strategies	93
Table 4.9:	Central tendency and variability: locality of institution & learning strategies	94
Table 4.10:	Central tendency and variability: medium of instruction & learning strategies	96
Table 4.11:	Central tendency and variability: number of sibling(s) & learning strategies	97
Table 4.12:	Central tendency and variability: duration of learning English before taking admission in university and learning strategies	99
Table 4.13:	Central tendency and variability: parental education & learning strategies	101
Table 4.14:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & all independent variables	102
Table 4.15:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of overall learners	107
Table 4.16:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of male learners	108
Table 4.17:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of female learners	109
Table 4.18:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in rural institutions	110
Table 4.19:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in urban institutions	111
Table 4.20:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla	112
Table 4.21:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English	113
Table 4.22:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with one sibling	114
Table 4.23:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with two siblings	115

Table 4.24:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with three siblings	116
Table 4.25:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with more than three siblings	117
Table 4.26:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for 1-3 years before taking admission in university	118
Table 4.27:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for 4-6 years before taking admission in university	119
Table 4.28:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for more than 6 years before taking admission in university	120
Table 4.29:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to primary level	121
Table 4.30:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level	122
Table 4.31:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level	123
Table 4.32:	Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level	124
Table 4.33:	Chi-square goodness of fit test of the learning strategies based on ranking by individual students	125
Table 4.34:	Chi-square test of independence between learning strategies and types of independent variables	127
Table 4.35:	Pearson correlation coefficient between learners' age and different learning strategies	128
Table 4.36:	Independent samples t-test between learners' gender and each learning strategies	130
Table 4.37:	Independent samples t-test between locality of institution and each learning strategies	131
Table 4.38:	Independent samples t-test between medium of instruction and each learning strategies	133
Table 4.39:	One-way ANOVA between number of sibling(s) and each learning strategies	135
Table 4.40:	One-way ANOVA between the duration of learning English before taking admission in university and each learning strategies	136
Table 4.41:	One-way ANOVA between parental education and each learning strategies	137
Table 4.42:	Parametric test summary taking mean score of learner autonomy and all the independent variables	138
Table 4.43:	One-way ANOVA test summary taking mean scores of learner autonomy and preferred learning strategies in terms of each level of all the independent variables	140

List of Figures

Figure 1.1:	Dimensions of autonomy (Benson, 2011)	3
Figure 1.2:	Model of the autonomous learning process (Reinders, 2010)	13
Figure 1.3:	Model of learner autonomy (Tassinari, 2012)	15
Figure 1.4:	Approaches to learner autonomy (Benson, 2011)	25
Figure 1.5:	Pedagogy for autonomy (Raya, Lamb and Vieira, 2007)	28
Figure 3.1:	Distribution of sample by divisions	73
Figure 3.2:	Thematic diagram of variables	75
Figure 4.1:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of gender	84
Figure 4.2:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s)	86
Figure 4.3:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of locality of institutions	88
Figure 4.4:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction	89
Figure 4.5:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university	91
Figure 4.6:	Variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of parental education	93
Figure 4.7:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of gender	94
Figure 4.8:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of locality of institutions	95
Figure 4.9:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction	97
Figure 4.10:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s)	99
Figure 4.11:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university	100
Figure 4.12:	Mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of parental education	102
Figure 4.13:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of gender	104
Figure 4.14:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of medium of instruction	104
Figure 4.15:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of locality of institutions	105
Figure 4.16:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of number of sibling(s)	105
Figure 4.17:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university	106
Figure 4.18:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of parental education	106
Figure 4.19:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of overall learners	107
Figure 4.20:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of male learners	108
Figure 4.21:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of female learners	109
Figure 4.22:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in rural institutions	110
Figure 4.23:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in urban institutions	111
Figure 4.24:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla	112

Figure 4.25:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English	113
Figure 4.26:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with one sibling	114
Figure 4.27:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with two siblings	115
Figure 4.28:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with three siblings	116
Figure 4.29:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with more than three siblings	117
Figure 4.30:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for one to three years before taking admission in university	118
Figure 4.31:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for four to six years before taking admission in university	119
Figure 4.32:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for more than six years before taking admission in university	120
Figure 4.33:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to primary level	121
Figure 4.34:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level	122
Figure 4.35:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level	123
Figure 4.36:	Mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level	124
Figure 4.37:	Observed and expected frequencies of learning strategies among the learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh	126

Acronyms Index

ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
CALL	:	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CALLA	:	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CMC	:	Computer Mediated Communication
EAP	:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	:	English as a Foreign Language
HSD	:	Honestly Significant Difference
IBM	:	International Business Machines Corporation
LSI	:	Learning Style Inventory
MALL	:	Mobile-Assisted Language Learning
SILL	:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSBI	:	Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction
TALL	:	Technology-Assisted Language Learning
TELL	:	Technology-Enhanced Language Learning
VAK	:	Visual, Aural, Kinesthetic
VARL	:	Visual, Aural, Read/write, Kinesthetic
UGC	:	University Grants Commission

Appendix Index

Appendix 1:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	185
Appendix 2:	Learner Autonomy Scale	190
Appendix 3:	Basic information schedule	193

Contents

Certificate		i
Acknowledgement		ii
Tables and Figures Index		iii
Acronyms Index		vii
Appendix Index		viii
Chapter I	Context of the Study	1
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Learner autonomy	2
1.2.1	Need of learner autonomy	6
1.2.2	Nature of learner autonomy	7
1.2.3	Perspectives of learner autonomy	9
1.2.4	Models of learner autonomy	10
1.2.5	Learner autonomy and major learning theories	15
1.2.6	Learner autonomy in cultural context	17
1.2.7	Characteristics of autonomous learners	18
1.2.8	Factors involved in promotion of learner autonomy	19
1.2.9	Approaches to foster learner autonomy	21
1.2.10	Teacher’s role in fostering learner autonomy	26
1.3	Language learning strategies	29
1.3.1	Features of language learning strategies	30
1.3.2	Factors affecting language learning strategies	30
1.3.3	Taxonomy of language learning strategies	32
1.3.4	Models of language learning strategies	36
1.4	Learner autonomy and language learning strategies	39
	References	40
Chapter II	Problem of the Study	52
2.1	Review of related literature	52
2.2	Statement of the problem	63
2.3	Delimitations	64
2.4	Objectives	64
2.5	Hypotheses	65
	References	67
Chapter III	Methods and Procedure	71
3.1	Methods	71
3.1.1	Design of the study	71
3.1.2	Population	72
3.1.3	Sample	72
3.1.4	Description of variables	74
3.1.5	Instruments of data collection	76
3.2	Procedures	79
3.2.1	Collection of Data	79
3.2.2	Quality of Data	80
3.2.3	Analysis of Data	80
	References	81

Chapter IV	Result and Interpretation	82
4.1	Descriptive Statistics	82
4.2	Inferential Statistics	125
	References	144
Chapter V	Discussion and Conclusion	145
5.1	Summary of findings	145
5.2	Discussion	153
5.3	Conclusion	159
5.4	Scope of further studies	160
	References	160
	Bibliography	163
	Appendix 1	185
	Appendix 2	190
	Appendix 3	193

Chapter I	Context of the Study	1
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Learner autonomy	2
1.2.1	Need of learner autonomy	6
1.2.2	Nature of learner autonomy	7
1.2.3	Perspectives of learner autonomy	9
1.2.4	Models of learner autonomy	10
1.2.5	Learner autonomy and major learning theories	15
1.2.6	Learner autonomy in cultural context	17
1.2.7	Characteristics of autonomous learners	18
1.2.8	Factors involved in promotion of learner autonomy	19
1.2.9	Approaches to foster learner autonomy	21
1.2.10	Teacher's role in fostering learner autonomy	26
1.3	Language learning strategies	29
1.3.1	Features of language learning strategies	30
1.3.2	Factors affecting language learning strategies	30
1.3.3	Taxonomy of language learning strategies	32
1.3.4	Models for language learning strategies	36
1.4	Learner autonomy and language learning strategies	39
	References	40

Chapter I Context of the Study

1.1 Introduction

English has become the most influential language of communication across the globe. The ever-increasing influence of the West has privileged English to a status unlike any other languages in the world. It has become almost impossible to claim oneself a global citizen without learning this language. However, there are differences among the approaches towards learning English between the native and the non-native speakers of English. Such approaches are crucial in learning the language successfully, especially for the non-natives who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) in countries like Bangladesh where the mother tongue has very different aspects than those of English.

However, as there are no universal approaches towards learning English, it depends on the learners' individual differences and their unique learning contexts. Learners need to explore their individual learning needs and abilities, as well as their learning contexts in order to become autonomous and devise their own learning strategies to become successful. Oxford (1996) claims those who are autonomous and take more responsibility of their own learning and make proper use of language learning strategies are often more successful in learning the language.

Therefore, due to their crucial role in successful learning of languages, the notions of learner autonomy and language learning strategies have become the focus of interest among various stakeholders in language learning research during the last three decades (Chan, 2001b; Chan, Spratt, & Humphreys, 2002; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Dickinson, 1987; Littlewood, 1999). Such a global surge in interest also reifies the importance of learner autonomy and language learning strategies in relation to learning English as a foreign language among non-natives in the non-English-speaking countries.

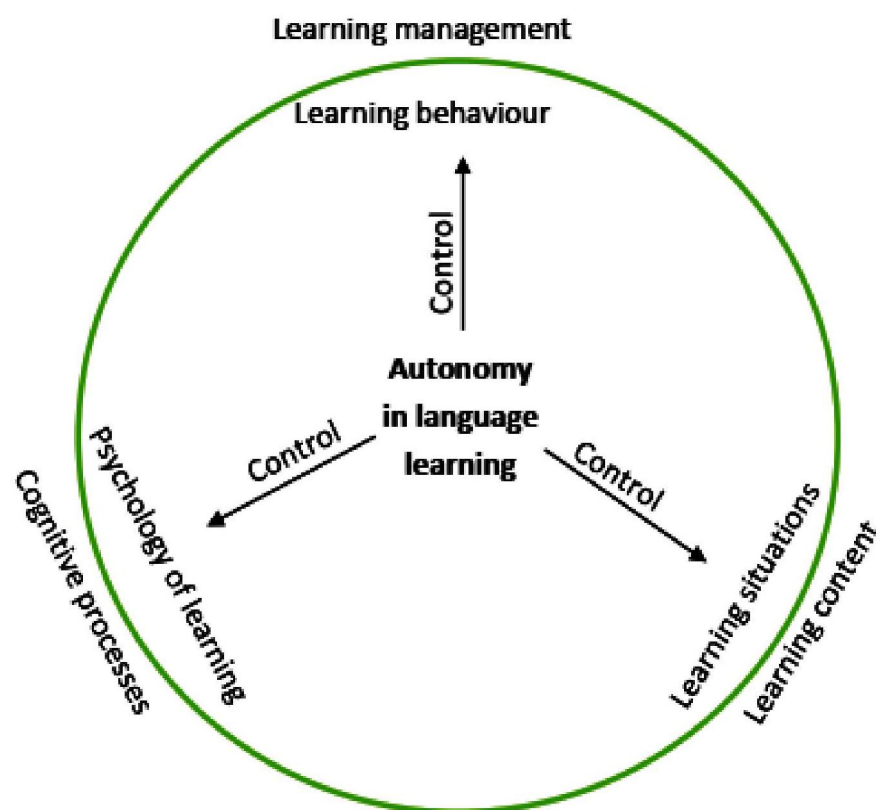
1.2 Learner autonomy

Learner autonomy is a “multidimensional construct” (Benson, 2005: 51) and “not a single, easily described behavior” (Little, 1991: 7). One of the earliest versions of learner autonomy is found in Knowles’ idea of self-directed learning that describes “a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes” (Knowles 1975: 18).

However, various researchers have attributed different notions to the concept of autonomy. These include, but are not limited to: "self-directed learning" (Gremmo and Riley, 1995); "self-regulated learning" (Littlewood, 1999); "self-management" (Celemente, 2001); "autonomous learning" (Regan, 2005); "independent learning" (Dufeu, 1994); "student initiated learning" (Hess, 2006); self-managed learning (Harrison, 2000); learner-centeredness (Tudor, 1993), individualization (McDonough & Shaw, 1993); personal leadership (Farrar, 2007; cited in Everhard, 2016) etc.

Littlewood (1996) believes autonomy to entail a sense of capability along with a readiness for taking responsibility. However, Allwright (1990) argues that in addition to the capability and readiness for responsibility, autonomy requires action - taken in the direction of learning. Little (1999) implies that autonomy refers to the capacity to complete a task independently with conscious reflection. Wenden (1998) claims it learners’ awareness of the process, rather than a specific approach to learning. Based on all these definitions, a holistic notion of learner autonomy can be surmised as the (a) capability and intention to perform language tasks independently in a wide variety of situations, accommodating the differences of contexts with proper deliberation, and the (b) required actions, i.e., the conscious use of learning strategies; indicating both readiness and capacity. The following figure shows different dimensions of learner autonomy:

Figure 1.1
Dimensions of autonomy (Benson, 2011)



However, the most acclaimed definition of learner autonomy has been “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981: 3). Benson argued that “the capacity to take control of one’s own learning ... may take a variety of forms in relation to different levels of the learning process” (2001: 47). Dickinson adds a situation aspect to the notion of autonomy while defining it as “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions” (1987: 11). Another aspect, i.e., the social aspect, was accentuated by Dam et al. (1990: 102) in defining autonomy as “a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social, responsible person”. All these different notions of autonomy accentuate the multifaceted nature of autonomy and add multiple layers of meanings.

Little (1991) claims learners initiate the process of autonomy when they realize the necessity of taking responsibility for their own learning. However, in order to

become autonomous, learners need to ensure heterogeneity of skills, a serious and active approach towards learning, taking pleasure in a particular task of learning, and an eagerness to pursue the process notwithstanding the high risk of failure and social disapproval – claims Nunan (1995).

Learner autonomy also involves incorporating a variety of methods and individual meta-capacity in the learning situation. Tassinari (2012) claims it is therefore a composite framework that consists of several components, i.e., the cognitive and metacognitive (learners' beliefs, awareness, metacognition etc.), the affective and motivational (eagerness, emotions, motivation etc.), the action-oriented (abilities, learning behavior etc.), and the social component (interacting and negotiating with others in order to learn). However, establishing a balance and coordination among all these multifaceted components is very crucial in achieving learner autonomy.

Benson and Voller (1997) argue that the notion of autonomy has been dealt with in five different ways: situations where learners learn independently without help from others; competence and skills utilized in self-directed learning; innate capacity not braced by formal education; learners' accountability for individual progress; and learners' right to choose the course, content and approach to their own learning.

Little (1991) sheds light on some of the prevailing common misconceptions related to learner autonomy. He explains that the most common misconception about learner autonomy is the notion of mere self-instruction, and any involvement on the teachers' part nullifies it. Another mistaken notion is that it is easy to describe and can be taught in class. Benson (2013) mentioned that though the terms like "self-study", self-education", "independent-learning", "out-of-class learning", "distance learning", "self-access", "self-directed learning" etc. may sound similar to learner autonomy; they are in fact fundamentally different. He argued that whereas all of these indicate methods and degrees of self-learning, learner autonomy indicates attitudes and capacities. Moreover, these

terms only connote to isolated learning (Ryan and Deci, 2002), whereas autonomous learning is strongly rooted in a social, interactive, and cooperative dimension (Dam, 1995). Autonomous learning is hardly teacher-free learning or self-instruction (Little, 1996); it is rather “the individual specification of functional aims and the free choice of means of achieving those aims” (Dickinson, 1977: 17). Thus it is more concerned with learners’ innate capacity, motivation and intellectual ability that allow them to take control over their own learning (Lamb, 2008; cited in Nguyen, 2012). It is “...a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action. It presupposes but also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of learning. The capacity of learner autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts” (Little, 1991: 4). Autonomy is therefore a combination of “abilities, attitudes or dispositions” (Benson, 2009: 18); and a “human propensity” (Noels, 2009: 302) that can increase or decrease according to the contextual factors.

However, there are three similar concepts related to learner autonomy - metacognition, agency and identity.

Metacognition

Gao and Zhang (2011) argues that metacognition involves a knowledge of the self, the task and the strategies required to accomplish any goal. This notion was also supported by Aviram and Assor (2010) who considered self-knowledge as a crucial capacity to develop and internalize autonomy. However, it is only a requisite for autonomy, not sufficient in itself. Nonetheless, effective application of metacognition is very important in proper development and promotion of learner autonomy (Oxford, 2008).

Agency

Agency is referred to as the intention, willingness and capacity on the learners’ part to select different courses of actions (Giddens, 1984), and their effort to

adjust themselves and the prevailing situation by regulating their individual actions (Ray, 2009). Like autonomy, it entails the aspects of reflection and resolution (Huang, 2011) – the setting of which rely on learners' beliefs, self-regulation, motivation, capabilities, affordances and priorities in various contexts (Mercer, 2011). It is an essential criterion for developing learner autonomy (Gao and Zhang, 2011), as well as “a point of origin for the development of autonomy” (Benson, 2007: 30). Agency, however, does not entail the realization of learners' control over the process of learning. It is more concerned with the self-conscious reflexive actions that could add to one's ability to control one's individual process of learning (Huang and Benson, 2013). Whereas autonomy refers to a well-organized and methodical approach towards regulating the individual learning process, agency involves just random steps (Huang and Benson, 2013). Therefore, though agency can facilitate learner autonomy by functioning as its “raw material” (Huang, 2011: 242), it cannot automatically result in achieving autonomy. And, like metacognition, agency is also a condition for autonomy, not sufficient in itself. (Huang and Benson, 2013)

Identity

Identity refers to “our sense of who we are and our relationship to the world” (Kanno, 2003: 3) and is one of the key outcomes of autonomy (Benson, 2007). Learners' sense of identity can be shaped through autonomy (Little, 1996) and this relationship between autonomy and identity is reciprocal and bilateral in which identity not only provides a “direction of development” for autonomy, but also remains at the center of its origin (Huang 2011, cited in Chik, 2007: 41). Hence, autonomy and identity are mutually complementary, and both rely on the application of agency as well as metacognition (Huang, 2011).

1.2.1 Need of learner autonomy

Ellis and Sinclair (1989) claim it is important to facilitate learners to become autonomous because (a) learning becomes more rewarding if learners take the responsibility of their own learning; and (b) such learners can continue learning

beyond the classrooms. Dickinson mentions that “there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning learn more things and learn better than do people who sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught” (1995: 165). Similarly, Lee (1998) argues that as language learning is a continuous process, learners should be encouraged to develop the practice and habit of independent learning in order to continue the process even after completion of their formal education. Likewise, Benson and Voller (1997) identify various advantages of autonomy in the process of learning a language. It can be applied in cases of exclusively individual studies, can facilitate in learning person-specific learning skills, can promote unconventional but handy skills, and can enable learners to take control of and increase their accountability for their learning outcomes. Therefore, learner autonomy plays an important role in making learning successful.

1.2.2 Nature of learner autonomy

Benson (2008) identifies two aspects of autonomy: the ‘capacity freedom’, and the ‘situational freedom’. The ‘capacity freedom’ includes one’s capacity to engage in (sufficient command over the target item along with the required skills) and the willingness to immerse in (level of learners’ motivation and desire for the task) the learning process. On the other hand, the ‘situational freedom’ includes one’s freedom to participate in (extent of the learners’ control over the learning process) the learning process.

The aspect of ‘capacity freedom’ refers to a combination of capacities (Lewis, 2013), and entails the skills of the individual learner to plan “his own course through life ... according to his own understanding of what is valuable and worth doing” (Wall, 2003: 308). These skills involve a number of cognitive and metacognitive competencies related to the supervision and maintenance of the individual’s learning process. It necessitates “detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action” (Little, 1991: 4), attitudinal

accountability (Benson, 1997), and a set of social-interactive skills (Hamilton, 2013) to engage with the others.

On the other hand, the aspect of 'situational freedom' mainly entails the individual's right to having full authority (Benson, 2009) and the freedom from external control (Hamilton, 2013) in relation to his/her individual learning processes. It emphasizes on the significance of reducing teachers' control, providing learners with "access to an environment that provides a wide range of options" (Wall, 2003: 308) and enabling them to take control of their own learning.

Sociality of autonomy

Both individual and social factors are connected with the concept of autonomy. Dam et al. (1990) encapsulates this dual aspect by defining autonomy as a "capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social, responsible person" (p. 102). Therefore, negotiation with more knowledgeable others (Oxford, 2003; Murray, 2014) and participation in community through "interaction, social construction of knowledge, scaffolding, modeling, goal-setting, peer sharing and learning reflection" (Oxford 2011, cited in Lai, 2017; Murray, 2014) are fundamentally very significant in developing learner autonomy.

Teachability of autonomy

Benson's (2011b) claim "Learners who lack autonomy are capable of developing it" (p. 15) suggests that autonomy can be taught through instruction. Moreover, it needs to be carefully nurtured and maintained because "Although the potential for autonomy may be intrinsic [in] the human condition, autonomy itself is something that must be acquired and maintained over the course of a lifetime" (Benson, 2012: 32). Hence, the concept of autonomy is embedded on the notion that learners do not passively receive knowledge transmitted to them. Rather, they actively engage in constructing and co-constructing meaning on their own

and by communicating with others (Benson, 2001, 2013; Gremmo & Riley, 1995; Little, 1991).

1.2.3 Perspectives of learner autonomy

Benson (2007) provided a structured analysis of learner autonomy by distinguishing its various perspectives: the technical, psychological, sociocultural, and political.

Technical perspective

The technical perspective signifies the external settings where learner autonomy takes place and “values attributes from the learning environment” (Benson, 1997: 19). It facilitates learning without the help of teachers or institutional settings (Benson, 1997). It can also promote autonomy when coupled with authentic learning materials for individualized learning needs. Nevertheless, it requires psychological support, as “without psychology, the technical perspective would be inert” (Oxford, 2003: 82).

Psychological perspective

Oxford (2003) claims psychological perspective deals with the “mental and emotional characteristics of learners who are viewed as individuals or members of a sociocultural group” (p. 83). Autonomous learners possess certain psychological attributes like self-efficacy, positive outlook, strong motivation and a craving towards achieving success (Benson, 2007). These abilities enable the learners to properly plan and manage their learning processes.

Sociocultural perspective

The sociocultural perspective places social interaction and communication at the root of developing learner autonomy (Benson, 2007). It claims autonomy is acquired as a result of learners’ engaging in different social contexts and coping

with multimodal relationships. Therefore, teachers need to provide greater freedom and responsibility to their learners regarding their choices, and engage them in interactive situations with more scope for negotiation (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Nikolov, 2000).

Political perspective

The political perspective accounts for learners' right to choose their own direction of learning, taking into consideration the notions of their beliefs, values, and practices (Benson, 1997). "The individual has the right to be free to exercise his or her own choices as in other areas, and not become a victim (even if an unwitting one) of choices made by social institutions", claims Crabbe (1993: 443). However, learners have to operate within the confines of particular structures and contexts in which gender, age, religion, culture, socio-economic status and other elements play significant roles.

1.2.4 Models of learner autonomy

Khan (2017) suggests the improbability of any universal model for learner autonomy as it is exclusively a context specific aspect. However, based on various stages of development and areas of control, various contextual models of learner autonomy have been developed around the world. Among these, the models provided by Tassinari (2012), Reinders (2010), Macaro (1997, 2008), Benson (2001), Scharle and Szabo (2000), Littlewood (1999), Nunan (1997), and Littlewood (1996) have gained major attention.

Models of learner autonomy in relation to stages of development

Nunan's (1997) model of learner autonomy

Grounded on learners' actions, Nunan (1997) introduced a model of learner autonomy having five stages: awareness, involvement, intervention, creation and transcendence. Initially, learners are required to become aware of their learning

goals and accordingly formulate learning strategies. Then they decide on their own goals and select suitable tasks. In the next three stages, they gradually modify their tasks, make new goals, and involve in implementing those newer tasks. The following table shows Nunan's (1997) model of learner autonomy:

Table 1.1
Nunan's (1997: 195) model of learner autonomy

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

Littlewood's (1999) model of learner autonomy

Littlewood (1999) proposed a model identifying two levels of learner autonomy – the Proactive level and the Reactive level. At the proactive level learners develop the ability to strategize, take control and measure their learning; as well as plan the “directions for learning” (p. 75). It also defines learners’ “individuality and sets up directions in a world which they themselves have partially created” (p.75). At this level learners take full or limited responsibility of developing their own learning objectives, plans, materials, evaluation process and so on. At the reactive level, learners mainly react and this level “does not create its own directions, but, once a direction has been initiated, enables

learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal” (p.75). This level is viewed as “a preliminary step towards the first or a goal in its own right” (p.75), and is considered inferior to the proactive one.

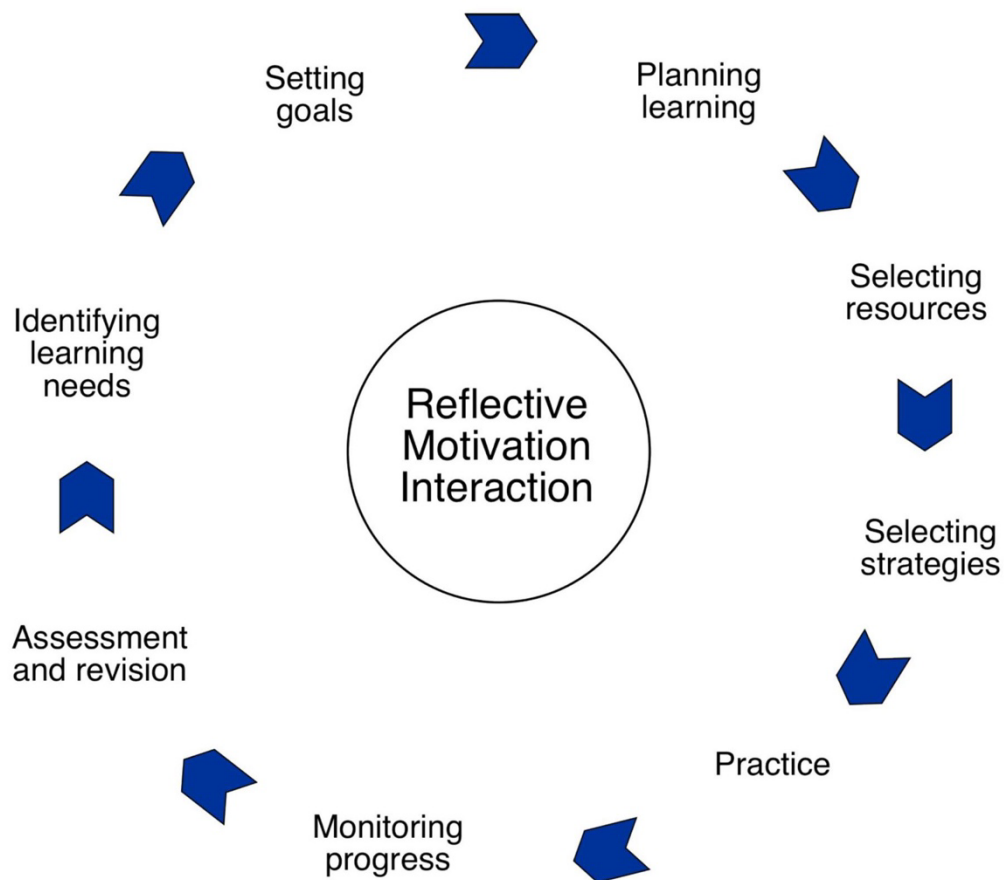
Scharle and Szabo’s (2000) model of learner autonomy

Years later, Scharle and Szabo (2000) came up with their model of learner autonomy involving three stages, i.e., raising awareness, changing attitudes and transferring roles. The raising awareness stage deals with the cognitive processes that empower learners to become aware of their learning goals, outline their required contents, and plan their way to progress. The changing attitudes stage refers to a state of transition that allows learners to change their previously selected learning behaviors to accommodate newer requirements. Finally, in the transferring roles stage, learners become able to take total control of their own learning with very less support from others.

Reinders’ (2010) model of autonomous learning process

Reinders (2010) introduced an eight stage framework to promote autonomy. It consists of identifying needs, setting goals, planning learning, selecting resources, selecting learning strategies, practice, monitoring progress, and assessment and revision; and can be intertwined with teacher instruction in the class. Initially, teachers and learners together conduct a need analysis that leads towards a proper planning of actions to be implemented. In the next phase occurs the process of selecting proper resources, individual learning strategies, and abundant practice. Finally, learners are to be given the opportunity to monitor, asses, and revise their learning process. Thus they can develop a capacity for autonomous learning. The following figure shows Reinders’ (2010) model of autonomous learning process:

Figure 1.2
Reinders' (2010) model of the autonomous learning process



Models of learner autonomy in relation to areas of control

Littlewood's (1996) model of learner autonomy

Littlewood (1996) came up with his model highlighting three different usage of autonomy: as a communicator, as a learner, and as a person. These three usages respectively corresponds to the context of learning, learners approaches to learning, and their personal development (Benson, 2006). The first construct, autonomy as a communicator in the context of learning, enables learners in proper utilization of learning strategies and performing successfully in the given context. The second construct facilitates learners in using proper strategies in tasks and activities in any context. And the last construct benefits learners in expressing inner feelings and personalizing the context of learning.

Macaro's (1997, 2008) model of learner autonomy

Focusing on three aspects of autonomy – of language competence, of learning competence, and of choice and action – this model was developed by Macaro (1997, 2008). Autonomy of language competence refers to learners' abilities to communicate using the already learnt rules. Autonomy of learning competence refers to learners' skills in reproducing those learnt linguistic features in similar contexts. The last aspect, autonomy of choice and action refers to learners' capacities to opt for learning options. Learners go through all these stages and gradually gain comprehensive control over the process of their own learning.

Benson's (2001) model of learner autonomy

Benson (2001) came up with a model dealing with three aspects of learning: management, cognitive processes, and contents. All these aspects are in a symbiotic relationship and respectively correspond to learners' behavior, psychology, and the context of learning. Gaining effective control over one area facilitates the same in the others. Gaining operational control over the learning attitudes and strategies empowers learners to gain similar control over the content of their learning. Similarly, the overall process of learning management is likely to be accelerated as a result of gaining a commendable level of cognitive awareness.

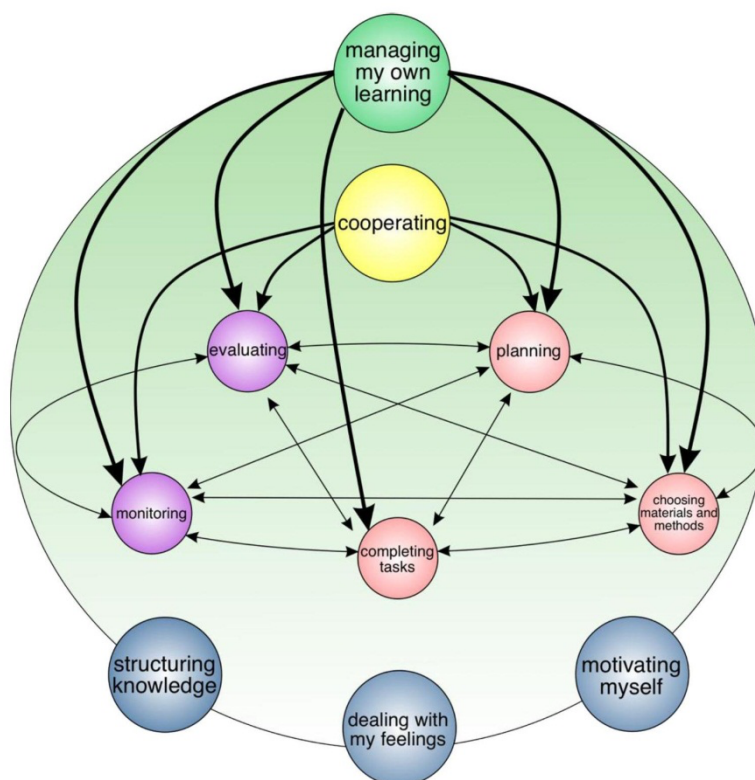
Tassinari's (2012) model of learner autonomy

Tassinari (2012) introduced her model intertwining all the components of autonomy into one another - enabling learners to choose the components according to their task requirements and goals. This model has three separate dimensions: the Action-oriented dimension ('strategizing', 'selecting materials and methods', 'completing tasks', 'monitoring', 'evaluating', 'cooperating', 'supervising my own learning' etc.); the Cognitive and Metacognitive dimension ('structuring knowledge'); and the Affective and Motivational dimension ('concerned with personal feelings', 'motivating oneself' etc.). There is also a

social dimension integrated with each of its components. These dimensions and components are interlinked with the process of teaching and learning and ultimately lead towards attaining autonomy. The following figure shows Tassinari's (2012) model of learner autonomy:

Figure 1.3

Tassinari's model of learner autonomy (2012)



1.2.5 Learner autonomy and major learning theories

The construct of learner autonomy can be intertwined with various learning theories like Positivism, Constructivism, and the Critical Theory.

Positivism

The theory of Positivism equates knowledge with reality in a sense that teachers provide an objective reflection of reality through imparting knowledge to the learners. It limits learning as a “transmission of knowledge from one individual to another” (Benson & Voller, 1997: 20), i.e., from the teacher to the learner. This theory champions the traditional power dynamics and practices of the

classroom. It does not appreciate learner autonomy as a marked improvement upon the narrow confines of self-assessment and self-instruction.

Constructivism

Constructivism claims that knowledge is constructed rather than acquired and social interaction enhances learning. It further claims cognition is based on its socio-cultural context and learning occurs through transforming and reshaping experiences with the target language. It places special importance on the psychological perspectives of autonomy in terms of learners' attitude and motivation. It also sheds light on the importance of self-directed learning as an integral part of autonomy and views learners as very significant stakeholders in the process of learning (Benson & Voller, 1997). Therefore, Benson (2001) believes that "the key idea that autonomy in language learning has borrowed from constructivism is the idea that effective learning is active learning" (p. 40).

Critical Theory

Like Constructivism, Critical Theory also endorses that knowledge is co-constructed rather than acquired. It contends that knowledge recognizes multiple facets of realities and deals with the aspects of power and social doctrines that serve the interest of different communities and groups (Benson & Voller, 1997). Thus, it considers learning as a result of social interaction in various contexts and deals with the sociopolitical and cultural issues linked with learner autonomy. When learners become aware of their learning contexts, they develop a framework that provides them a foundation for enhancing autonomous learning skills, as well as enables them to dissociate themselves from the social constraints, predetermined ideas and prejudices, and transforms them into the "authors of their own worlds" (Benson & Voller, 1997: 53).

1.2.6 Learner autonomy in cultural context

It is a commonly held belief that learner autonomy suits the Western learners more than their Asian counterparts. Healey (1999: 391) claims that “learner self-direction and autonomous learning are Western concepts that fit smoothly in the US culture in particular”. However, Littlewood (1999) argues that East Asian learners, if provided with proper training, demonstrate the same level of autonomous capacity similar to those of their counterparts in Western countries. Nucamendi, Farmer and Pina (2011: 8; cited in Yagcioglu, 2018) claim “autonomy is not a universal construct which takes the same form all over the world. What some individuals may see as autonomy and what they may strive for to make them autonomous will be different to others. This will vary according to culture, but also according to many other factors from individual to individual”.

As learner autonomy conveys different meanings across cultural settings, special consideration should be given to the socio-cultural context of a classroom during the process of promoting autonomy (Ho & Crookall, 1995). Therefore, researchers need to focus on the contextual aspects of the teaching environment (Benson, 2001; Little, 1997; Littlewood, 1999; Smith, 2008).

Holliday (2005) highlights two types of approaches to learner autonomy: the native-speakerist approach, and the critical linguist approach. The native-speakerist approach views teachers as transmitters of knowledge and puts emphasis on professionalism supporting the paradigm of positivism (Benson, 2001, 2013; Pennycook, 1997). Holliday's (2005) claim that teachers ought to “change their students into ‘better’ thinkers and ‘learners’” (p. 80) conforms to the cultural stereotypes of problematizing learners and non-native speakers and advocates in favor of the concept that teachers and native speakers are unproblematic. On the other hand, the critical linguist approach campaigns for the globalization and the change of ownership of English, and recognizes native speakerism as inaccurate. Nevertheless, it retains a part of native speakerist approach when it considers other cultures as different and contends that

members of those cultures “should not be expected to play the same autonomy game as ‘us’” (Holliday, 2005: 80), the white natives.

As different cultures view autonomy from different perspectives (Sinclair, 2000), proper considerations also need to be given to the cultural context where the learning takes place (Benson, 2001; Pemberton, Li, Or and Pierson, 1996). Since long, the concept of learner autonomy has been treated as all-exclusive to the West and its suitability to the Asian learners has been under question. As teachers are considered the sole provider of knowledge in the classroom and learners’ individuality is sacrificed to uphold teacher’s conformity, and learners tend to become passive receivers of the knowledge provided by the active providers (teachers), it is indeed a big challenge to introduce learner autonomy in the hierarchy based and traditionally rigid context in Asia. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) identify that the sociocultural tradition in Asia emphasizes on the intrinsic mental and cognitive activities rather than the external behavioral ones. Therefore the varying notions of learner autonomy embedded in diverse cultures and the effects of the surrounding context need to be noticed while implementing learner autonomy (Holliday, 2003; cited in Johnston et. al. 2014).

1.2.7 Characteristics of autonomous learners

Holec (1981) identifies autonomous learners as having the ability to identify the goals and objectives; choose the contents, process and techniques; and monitor and assess their performance in the target language. Based on their existing knowledge, autonomous learners can interpret received information, engage in active social interaction to facilitate their learning (Dam, 1990) and assess their development in learning (Little, 1991). Being intrinsically motivated, they can guide the whole process of their learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Bandura, 1989; Doyal & Gough, 1991).

Dickinson (2004) claims autonomous learners are aware of the classroom learning activities, cooperate with the teachers to formulate their learning objectives, consciously make plans and apply strategies to expedite learning, and monitor and evaluate their application of strategies to become successful. Similarly, Cotterall (1995: 199) claims “autonomous learners not only monitor their language learning, but also assess their efforts”. Likewise, Chan (2001a: 290) identifies the following features of autonomous learners:

- possessing determination and clarity of mind;
- actively motivated and capable of taking new initiative;
- keen about learning;
- curious and eager to ask questions to peers and teachers;
- fully engaged and focused, and well aware of needs;
- motivated to explore and find out techniques to better individual learning;
- tenacious and persevering;
- capable of evaluating and finding out areas of weakness to improve
- capable of providing solutions to problems without the presence of teachers; and
- able to manage time effectively.

1.2.8 Factors involved in the promotion of learner autonomy

Beliefs

Learners’ attitude and beliefs about their learning play important roles in their learning behaviors. They may fail to become autonomous if they “develop or maintain misconceptions about their own learning, if they attribute undue importance to factors that are external to their own action” (Victori and Lockhart: 225). Cotterall (1995; 1999) believes that learners’ beliefs influence autonomous learning behavior and these either facilitate or hinder the development of autonomy. Therefore, “attention to expectations and beliefs can contribute to our understanding of the realities of the early stages of self-

instruction in language” (White, 1999: 44). Likewise, Cotterall (1995) also opines that learners’ beliefs about themselves and their teachers shape their approaches towards autonomous learning practices.

Motivation

Dickinson (1995) claims motivation is related to learners’ willingness to take charge of their learning outcomes as it “is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning successes or failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control” (p. 174). Deci and Ryan (1985) make similar claim by highlighting autonomy as a precondition for motivation in learning. Dörnyei (1994) adds that the level the teachers’ authoritative practices significantly affect learner autonomy because when the teacher shares responsibilities with learners and involves them in decision making, it boosts “student self-determination and intrinsic motivation” (p. 278).

Likewise, Littlewood (1996) claims learners’ motivation and ability to act independently shape their capability to take responsibility of their own learning. He further adds that as learners’ motivation and knowledge guide their desire to act independently, motivation is one of the prerequisites of learner autonomy. Similarly, Noels, Clément, and Pelletier (1999) found significant relationship between autonomy, motivation and learning management; and Ushioda (2006) claimed that intrinsically motivated learners can take charge of and manage their own learning efficiently. In yet another study, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002) found that learners’ inclination towards autonomy is strongly influenced by motivation.

Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies entail behaviors like “thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how

well one has learned” (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 137) that closely relate to learner autonomy (Reinders, 2000). Oxford (1990) claims that as Metacognitive strategies facilitate learners in regulating their learning behavior, learners need to have enough exposure to those strategies. Thus it becomes evident that learner autonomy requires effective use of Metacognitive strategies.

Culture of Learning

The culture of learning is a significant determinant in learner autonomy. The rules, regulations, and the values learnt during the beginning of one's student life determine how those individual deals with autonomy. Prosser (1999) claims that the values and policies of each school help in shaping its own unique culture and justifies the behaviors, attitudes, and the overall learning management of its learners. However, Jin and Cortazzi (1996) claim that though immersion into this culture of learning starts during the primary schooling and continue till the tertiary education, many teachers and learners may not be conscious of its influence. Therefore, it is evident that “the culturally-constructed nature of the classroom needs to be taken into account” (Ho & Crook, 1995:237), as “autonomy is both contextually-variable and a matter of degree” (Benson, 2007: 23).

1.2.9 Approaches to foster learner autonomy

There is no particular approach that leads to autonomy - many different paths “can be followed in developing learner autonomy in language learning” (Natri, 2007: 109). It is so because “moving towards autonomy is a bumpy ride where contradictions, uncertainty, and conflicts are obstacles to be expected and overcome” (Auerbach, 2007: 87).

However, Benson (2011: 125) mentions six types of approaches in fostering learner autonomy:

- i. Resource based approaches: underscores learners' interaction with learning materials.
- ii. Technology based approaches: underscores learners' use of educational technology.
- iii. Learner based approaches: underscores learners' behavioral and psychological changes.
- iv. Classroom based approaches: underscores learners' management of classroom learning.
- v. Curriculum based approaches: underscores learners' contribution to curriculum; and
- vi. Teacher based approaches: underscores the role of teacher education in promoting autonomy.

Resource based approach

As the “major goal of the promotion of self-access learning is the fostering of autonomous learning” (Gardner & Miller, 2011: 78), the resource based approach stresses the need of providing appropriate learning materials to the learners to develop learner autonomy (Benson, 2011b; Gardner & Miller, 1999, 2011; Morrison, 2008; Fisher, Hafner & Young, 2007). Gardner and Miller (1999) also claim that self-access centers foster multiple layers of learner autonomy and pave the “way of encouraging learners to move from teacher dependence towards autonomy” (p. 8).

Technology based approach

Technology based approach, often referred to as “learners learning language in any context with, through, and around computer technologies” (Egbert, 2005: 4) underscores how various technology assisted language learning – like CALL, MALL, TALL, TELL, CMC and so on – promote learner autonomy. Benson (2001) claims that as technology promotes self-dependence in learning, it helps to develop autonomous learning behavior by inspiring them to take responsibility of their own learning. Moreover, use of technology in learning facilitates

interaction outside the boundaries of the classroom and promotes autonomous behaviors like decision making, initiating interaction in the L2, taking responsibility of one's learning process, evaluating learning and so on (Jarvis, 2012; Benson, 2001, 2011a; Reinders and White, 2011; Blin, 2004).

Learner based approach

Learner based approach emphasizes on enhancing the skills and strategies of the learners. However, as it is not possible to teach everything, teachers should prioritize and teach “those aspects of the language which the learners themselves deem to be the most urgently required” (Nunan, 1998: 3) in order to motivate learners and enhance their metacognitive knowledge (Benson, 2001, 2013; Ng & Confessore, 2010; Wenden, 1991). Autonomous learners are commonly tagged as more motivated learners (Little, 1995; Ushioda, 2011).

Classroom based approach

In order to inspire learners in taking more responsibility regarding their own learning, the classroom-based approach focuses on engaging them in cooperative learning tasks and group work in the classroom (Benson, 2001, 2013; Nunan, 1997). This approach necessitates both teachers and learners to negotiate the responsibility and the process of learning so that learners become more conscious and active in every stage - from setting initial goals to final evaluation of the result.

The greatest challenge with classroom-based approach is that teachers cannot impart all the required knowledge to the learners (Nunan, 1988). Hence, learners must be provided with the necessary skills (Bullock, 2010) required to enable them be autonomous and capable of engaging in self-assessment, which, eventually, is a vital component of self-directed learning (Harris, 1997). However, though the necessity of learner autonomy in achieving learning outcomes and goals has been widely recognized, the traditional teacher-centered approaches to learning a foreign language is still prevalent in the classrooms, and

a proper pedagogy to facilitate learner autonomy still lies at a theoretical level (Vázquez, 2015; Raya & Vieira, 2015).

Curriculum based approach

Involvement of both teachers and learners in deciding over the content of their learning is the major focus of the curriculum based approach (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b; Esch, 1996; Cotterall, 1995b, 2000; Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1995). It maintains that designing and deciding on the materials and the content of learning must be done through a mutual negotiation between teachers and learners, rather than being a predetermined one (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000b; Nikolov, 2000). However, Cotterall (2000) claimed that it necessitates a focus on the learning goals, learning process, learning tasks, learning strategies and reflection on learning to promote learner autonomy, enhance learner proficiency, and facilitate the process of changeover of responsibility from the teachers to the learners.

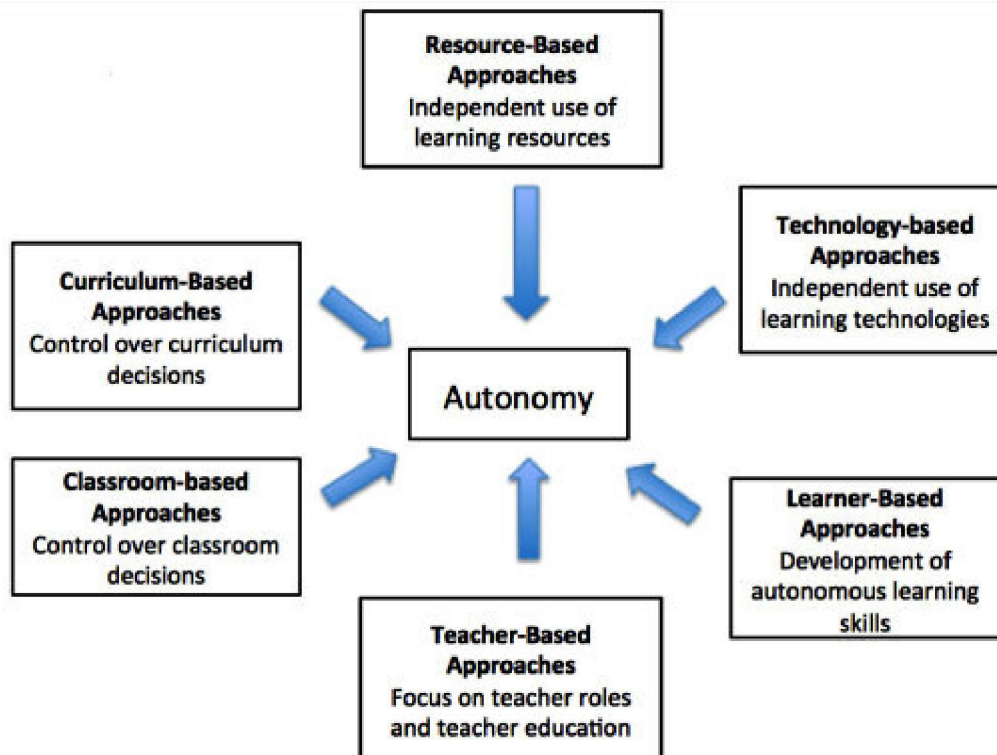
Therefore, Reinders and Balcikanli (2011) and Nikolov (2000) argue that in order to promote greater learner autonomy in the classroom and to fulfill the requirement of learners, teachers should modify and improvise on the learning materials rather than blindly follow the existing ones. One of the cornerstones of curriculum based approach is the prior assumption that both teachers and learners are conscious of the advantages of learner autonomy that enables them to work out an effective curriculum and select appropriate learning materials. Nonetheless, its success “depends upon implicit or explicit scaffolding structures that support learners in decision-making processes” (Benson, 2011a: 184).

Teacher based approach

The teacher based approach maintains that “changing teachers is a first step towards changing learners” (Benson, 2011a: 196) and that “teachers’ professional skills and commitment to the idea of autonomy will be a crucial factor in the effectiveness of any other approach to fostering learner autonomy”

(Benson, 2011a: 196). Thus it highlights teachers' role in fostering learner autonomy, as well as emphasizes teacher autonomy in terms of teaching practices and professional improvement (Benson, 2001, 2013; Feryok, 2013; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). It claims that teachers' awareness and perception of learner autonomy shapes their teaching practices in the language classrooms (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Aoki, 2008). Therefore, "while learning strategies and learner training can play an important supporting role in the development of learner autonomy, ... the development of autonomy in learners presupposes the development of autonomy in teachers" (Little, 1995: 175), and that teacher autonomy is "the starting point in the (...) process of negotiation by which students can be brought to accept responsibility for their learning" (Little, 1995: 179). The following figure shows Benson's (2011) approaches to learner autonomy:

Figure 1.4
Approaches to learner autonomy (Benson, 2011)



1.2.10 Teacher's role in fostering learner autonomy

Teachers' role is crucial in developing and promoting learner autonomy (Benson, 2008; Edes, 2008; Oxford, 2003; Cotterall, 1995; Little, 1990). However, there lies a huge difference between the roles of the teachers engaged in the traditional classrooms and of those engaged in promoting learner autonomy (Dam, 2008; Benson, 1997; Nunan, 1997; Voller, 1997; Little, 1991) as the latter act as facilitators rather than as feeders.

Voller (1997) maintains that teachers have three significant roles, i.e., facilitator, counselor, and resource, in developing learner autonomy. They render learning support as a facilitator, engage in interpersonal communication as a counselor, and serve as a repertoire of skills and knowledge as a resource. Voller (1997) also classifies these roles under two headings namely psycho-social support and technical support. The psycho-social feature features the individual qualities of the teacher, their ability to motivate learners, and their capacity to nurture the awareness of their learners. On the other hand, the technical feature features enabling learners to design and implement plans for customized learning, facilitating learners to assess their performance, and making learners to attain essential knowledge and skills required in implementing their learning schemes.

However, Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest that teachers need to go through gradual stages – of raising awareness, of changing attitudes and of transferring roles – while endorsing learner autonomy. In the first stage, teachers gradually introduce new ideas and experiences related to learner autonomy and concentrate on raising learners' awareness in relation to taking control over their own learning. Next, they get their learners accustomed to internalizing more accountability for their own learning by going through enough practice. And finally, there occurs transference of roles where learners gradually assume the roles of the teacher and take responsibility of their own learning in the classroom.

Promoting learner autonomy further requires teachers to increase learners' awareness of the curriculum (Cotterall, 2000), improvise learning materials according to learners' needs (Reinders and Balçikanli, 2011), and guide them towards autonomy (Nunan, 1997). In doing so, teachers must be aware of and make good use of learners' preferred learning styles and strategies because "classrooms which have the development of autonomy as a goal will place great store on training learners in techniques of self-assessment, ongoing monitoring, self-evaluation and reflection" (Nunan, 1996: 22).

Therefore, teachers need to act more like a counselor, a manager, and a resource person (Camilleri, 1999; Ho and Crookall, 1995) because they can play a crucial role in facilitating learners manage their learning styles and strategies and become more autonomous (Yang, 1998; Joshi, 2011). However, Dam (1995) claims that to promote learner autonomy, teachers need to ensure the use of target language as the medium of interaction in the classroom, encourage learners to identify innovative learning tasks, assist learners decide on their learning plans and materials, engage in and monitor learners' collaborative activities, ask learners keep a record of their learning activities, and involve them in assessing their own progress.

Nunan (2003) urges teachers to follow nine steps in fostering learner autonomy:

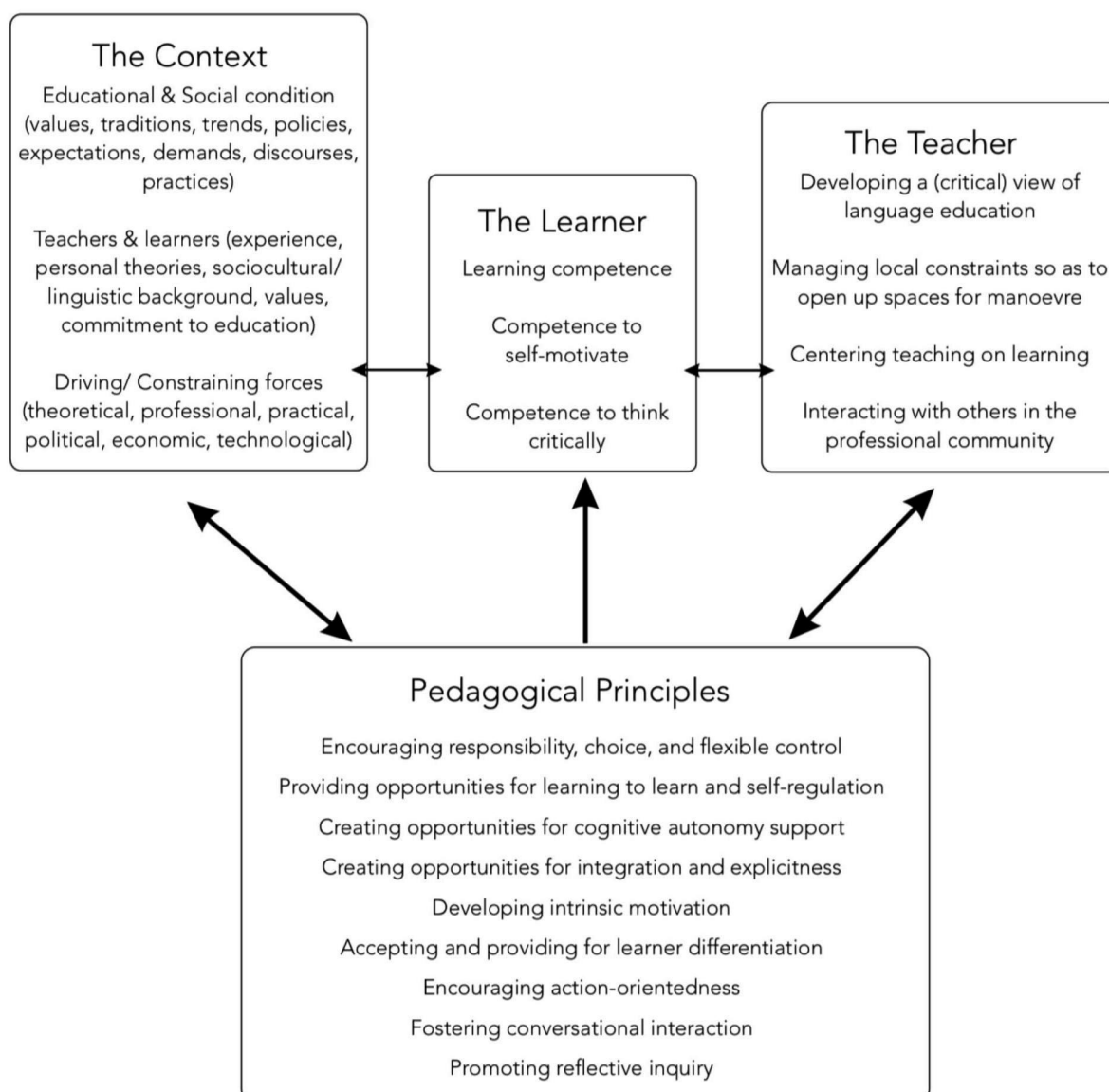
- i. Make instruction goals clear to learners;
- ii. Allow learners to create their own goals;
- iii. Encourage learners to use their second language outside the classroom;
- iv. Raise awareness of learning processes;
- v. Help learners identify their own preferred styles and strategies;
- vi. Encourage learner choice;
- vii. Allow learners to generate their own tasks;
- viii. Encourage learners to become teachers; and
- ix. Encourage learners to become researchers.

Therefore, developing a capacity for learner autonomy necessitates a combination of various intertwined skills (like intellectual, academic, interpersonal etc.), qualities (like motivation, confidence, sense of responsibility etc.), and pedagogical principles (training learners, providing opportunities for developing autonomy etc.) with the stakeholders (learner and teacher) and the learning context (learning needs, affective factors, sociocultural context etc.).

The following figure shows a model of Pedagogy for Autonomy in modern language education (Raya, Lamb and Vieira, 2007):

Figure 1.5

Pedagogy for Autonomy (Raya, Lamb and Vieira, 2007)



1.3 Language learning strategies

Language learning strategies are “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques — such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task — used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992: 63) and have significant roles in developing learner autonomy (Oxford, 1990; Scharle & Szabo, 2000). These are the conscious reflections and actions of learners that enable them to learn and use the target language (Cohen, 2007; cited in Khan, 2012). Oxford (1990) sees language learning strategies as an apparatus – particular actions, attitude, techniques and measures – purposefully applied by the learners to achieve their learning goals.

Williams and Burden (1997) define language learning strategies as learners’ abilities based on a particular learning context. It involves monitoring the situation; planning appropriate measures; choosing, sequencing and coordinating the right strategies to respond to the learning needs; and revising it when necessary. Learners use these explicit communicative and cognitive procedures to learn a target language (Chamot, 2005; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). These learning strategies “affect the learner’s motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge” (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986: 315), enable learners accomplish their learning goals (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) and consequently improve linguistic performances (Tudor, 1996). Moreover, effective use of language learning strategies helps “unsuccessful” learners comprehend the causes of their failure, as well as facilitate them in designing effective plans for successful learning (Gregersent, 2001; Chamot, 1999; Brown, 1994; Cohen, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1984).

1.3.1 Features of language learning strategies

Oxford (1990; cited in Khan, 2012) identifies 12 fundamental characteristics of language learning strategies. They:

- promote communicative competence, the main goal of learning activities;
- enable learners to take charge of their own learning and develop autonomous learning, thereby affecting their learning process and success or failures;
- clarify the responsibilities of teachers;
- aim to accomplish problems related to the learning tasks;
- entail particular steps taken by the learners;
- deal with all the issues related to learning;
- promote learning both directly and indirectly;
- are not always noticeable;
- are in most cases conscious and deliberately employed;
- can be taught and modified, as new strategies can be acquired and ineffective ones be discarded;
- are flexible; and
- are affected by various factors.

1.3.2 Factors affecting language learning strategies

Liang (2009) claims that several factors influence the selection and employment of the language learning strategies. These are related to the learner, the context, and the learners' academic and cultural background. These factors can be further clustered by learners' age; gender; ethnic and cultural identity; degree of their language proficiency; level of awareness; motivation and willingness; learning context; goal; style of learning; method of teaching; individual learner differences and so on.

Likewise, Oxford (1990a; cited in Khan, 2012) identified motivation; gender; cultural background; attitudes and beliefs; type of tasks; age and proficiency in

target language; learning style; and tolerance of ambiguity as factors that affect the choice and application of the language learning strategies.

- Motivation: The more motivated learners become, the better they use learning strategies.
- Gender: Females employ strategies more successfully than the males.
- Cultural background: Cultural context plays a significant role in the use of language learning strategies.
- Attitudes and beliefs: Attitudes and beliefs are crucial as learners with negative attitude and beliefs are found to select poor strategies, whereas learners with positive attitudes and beliefs use better strategies.
- Type of task: Sometimes the type or complexity of the learning task also becomes a determining factor in choosing strategies.
- Age and proficiency in target language: Selection of strategies also varies according to learners' age and their level of proficiency in the target language.
- Learning style: One's individual learning style determines their selection of learning strategies.
- Tolerance of ambiguity: Learners having more tolerance to ambiguity use significantly different learning strategies than those learners having less tolerance.

In a similar fashion, Ellis (1994) claims along with learners' beliefs about language learning, their age, aptitude, motivation, personal background, and gender affect their choice of learning strategies. He adds that learners who focus on learning the rules of a language prefer Cognitive strategies, whereas those who prioritize effective use prefer Communication strategies. He further claims that while young children choose strategies as per tasks-specific requirement, older ones choose generalized strategies. Moreover, compared to learners with low motivation, learners with high motivation use more strategies in terms of conversation and overall study. Learners' learning experiences also determine

their choice of strategies – the more experienced ones (having at least five years of experience) tend to prefer more functional-practice strategies than their counterparts with lesser experience. The nature of the task also affects their choice of strategies. Learners use more strategies when learning a language that is dissimilar to their mother tongue.

1.3.3 Taxonomy of language learning strategies

Though psychologists, linguists and educationists have differed in their classification of the language learning strategies, the following types of classification are common in literature:

- Classification based on studies related to good language learners (Rubin, 1975);
- Classification based on cognitive functions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990);
- Classification based on linguistic background (Bialystok, 1981);
- Classification based on communication strategies (Tarone, 1983);
- Classification based on language skills (Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Cohen, 1990); and
- Classification based on learner types and learning styles (Oxford, 1990).

However, the most commonly cited classifications have been those provided by Dörnyei (2005), Cohen (2000), Oxford (1990), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Rubin (1987), Wenden (1983) and Dansereau (1985).

The Dörnyei (2005) classification

Dörnyei (2005) identified four major components of language learning strategies: Cognitive, Metacognitive, Social, and the Affective. The Cognitive strategies deal with changing and improvising learning materials (i.e., summarizing information, using mnemonics, reproducing learning materials etc.). Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, include planning, analyzing, managing and monitoring one's own learning processes. Social strategies, however, deal with cooperation and interaction among learners to facilitate

practice through interaction in the target language. Finally, Affective strategies are concerned with learners' ability to take charge of their own emotions, feeling and actions and thereby control the process of learning.

However, as the boundaries between the Cognitive and the Metacognitive strategies may overlap in many cases, researchers consider the Cognitive strategies as functional strategies and the Metacognitive ones as regulatory strategies.

The Cohen (2000) classification

Cohen (2000) drew distinction between language learning and language use strategies. He classified language learning strategies as having four components: Cognitive, Metacognitive, Social and Affective strategies. Cognitive strategies involve analyzing, retaining, storing and retrieving language learning materials and activities. These also deal with repeating, practicing, rehearsing, and understanding words, sentences and phrases of the target language. Metacognitive strategies deal with pre and post evaluation, planning and systematization of activities related to language learning. These strategies enable the learners to take charge of their learning processes. Social strategies involve interactions with other learners and peers, as well as cooperation with native speakers of the target language. Affective strategies control emotion by lowering anxiety, and promoting motivation and positive attitude towards learning process.

On the other hand, the language use strategies include Retrieval, Rehearsal, Cover, and Communication strategies. Retrieval strategies deal with recalling relevant strategies from memory, whereas Rehearsal strategies involve repeating, practicing and rehearsing the structures of the target language in order to develop competence. Cover strategies deal with compensatory activities in order to adjust and cope with the lack of knowledge in the target language. The Communication strategies involve the activities required to communicate in the

target language and promote maximum use of the target language by the learners.

The Oxford (1990) classification

Oxford (1990) classified the language learning strategies into two primary categories: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Later she divided these two primary categories into further six subcategories, having three under each of these primary ones.

Direct Strategies: These strategies deal with actions directly linked with the process of learning a language. It is further classified into Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation strategies. Memory strategies involve making mental associations between the new and the already known information by using formula, applying images and sounds, recalling information etc. Cognitive strategies include rational analysis, outlining and taking notes, rearranging information required for proper understanding etc. Compensation strategies enable learners to compensate for their lack of knowledge in a given context. Asking for help, gesture, rephrasing, guessing meaning etc. are commonly used compensation strategies.

Indirect Strategies: These strategies assist the process of learning the language without having any direct link to that language. It is further classified into Metacognitive, Affective, and Social strategies. Metacognitive strategies enable learners to identify and prioritize their learning needs and styles, as well as regulate their learning through properly planning, monitoring and assessing the whole process. Affective strategies, on the other hand, enable learners regulate their emotions by reducing anxiety, motivating themselves, showing positive attitude towards learning, encouraging oneself through rewards for successful learning etc. Nonetheless, Social strategies include interacting with others to develop an understanding of the target language and its culture, asking relevant questions and seeking assistance, cooperating with others, partnering a native

speaker to practice speaking the target language and empathizing with others culturally.

The O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classification

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified the language learning strategies into three categories – Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Socio-affective. Cognitive strategies deal with learners' understanding the learning process, as well as acquiring, retaining, and using the linguistic and the communicative rules of the target language in order to improvise learning. Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, deal with learners' reflection about their own learning, planning, monitoring and self-evaluating. Socio-affective strategies, however, involve activities promoting acquisition, retention and use of language through social interaction and mediation.

The Rubin (1987) classification

Rubin (1987) proposed three major types of strategies – Learning strategies, Communication strategies, and Social strategies.

Learning strategies deal with learners' development in respect to the language system. It consists of two categories – the Cognitive and the Metacognitive. The Cognitive learning strategies deal with activities like rational justification, clarification, memorization, practicing, and monitoring. Metacognitive learning strategies are used to manage self-directed language learning, and deal with designing, prioritizing, setting, and facilitating learning goals. On the other hand, the Communication strategies are related to the process of participating in conversations and co-creating mutually intelligible messages through effective communication. Lastly, the Social strategies deal with activities which are linked to speakers' participation in social interaction. These strategies necessitate speakers to engage in communication with native speakers, initiating conversation with others etc.

The Wenden (1983) classification

Wenden (1983) identified knowing, planning, and self-evaluating as the strategies employed by adult foreign language learners. Knowing deals with knowledge about both the language and the language learning process. Planning focuses on 'what' aspects to a language to learn, as well as 'how' to learn. Self-evaluation, on the other hand, is concerned with learners' assessment of their progress and responses to learning experiences in different situations.

The Dansereau (1985) classification

Dansereau (1985) distinguished language learning strategies as primary strategies and support strategies.

Primary strategies deal with managing learning materials. Support strategies, on the other hand, deal with developing proper attitude towards learning and help in managing exhaustion, disruptions, and hindrances.

1.3.4 Models of language learning strategies

Over the years, various models for training language learning strategies have been introduced by researchers around the world. However, the models of Chamot and O'Malley (2005), Grenfell and Harris (1999), Cohen (1998), Oxford (1990), and Pearson and Dole (1987) have become prominent in training language learning strategies.

The Chamot and O'Malley (2005) model

Chamot and O'Malley (2005) designed the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) to help incompetent learners improve their academic language skills. It consists of six phases – preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, expansion, and assessment. At the preparation phase, teachers first identify learners' repertoire and choice of the language learning strategies for common tasks. In the presentation phase, they then introduce and demonstrate new strategies and ask for learners' opinions about using those

strategies. The third phase deals with learners practicing the newly introduced strategies on their own. The evaluation phase requires learners to assess the effectiveness of their use of the learning strategies and determine which ones work better in a particular context. Then, in the expansion phase, teachers provide learners with a variety of practice opportunities so that they can transfer the strategies to new tasks, bring together several strategies, and integrate them into their existing repertoire. Finally, the assessment phase requires teachers to make a comprehensive appraisal of their learners' use of learning strategies and overall performances.

Grenfell and Harris's (1999) model

The Grenfell and Harris (1999) model consists of six phases – awareness, demonstration, practice, planning, intensive practice, and evaluation. In the awareness phase, learners identify the strategies used by them in a particular learning task. The demonstration phase requires teachers to introduce and demonstrate new learning strategies for future use. Making use of the newly introduced strategies, learners practice various tasks in general in the practice phase. Afterwards, learners move on to the next phase, the planning phase, by setting goals and selecting strategies to achieve those goals. Next they start implementing the previously determined plans by engaging in intensive practice. And finally, teachers and learners collaborate to assess the overall success of their progress, determine new goals and the cycle begins for yet another time. However, though this model for strategy training is highly commendable for the learner centered classes, it necessitates learners having a required level of skills in the target language.

The SSBI (1998) model

Introduced by Cohen (1998), the Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction Model (SSBI) is a learner-focused model that advocates the integration of learning styles and strategies into the curriculum. It is based on five sequential components – strategy preparation, strategy awareness-raising, strategy training, strategy

practice, and personalization of strategies – and requires teachers to correspond to these components by playing various roles of diagnostician, language learner, learner trainer, coordinator, and a coach. As diagnosticians, teachers first help learners identify their common learning styles and strategies. Then, as language learners, teachers share their own learning experiences with the learners to give them a wider view. As language trainers, teachers then provide hands on demonstration on how to use specific strategies in particular learning contexts. Afterwards, as coordinators, they oversee their learners' progress in learning. And finally, as coaches, teachers continue to support their learners. Therefore, this model is highly adaptable and enables teachers to integrate the training of learning strategies in their classrooms.

The Oxford (1990) model

Flexible in terms of application and offering many benefits, this comprehensive and well organized training model is highly acclaimed. It starts with encouraging learners to engage in a realistic language learning activity without instructional hints from the teachers. Teachers then provide helpful similar strategies; explain the benefits of autonomous learning; and make sure that learners know what and how to complete their task. At this point, teachers provide learners with sufficient time and ample opportunities so that they can apply the strategies in practicing those tasks. Then learners are provided with newer tasks to complete by implementing relevant strategies. And finally, teachers help the learners to assess their performance of strategy use in order to bring out the autonomous learner. Though this model is highly acclaimed, it is difficult to apply within the limited time of the regular classes.

The Pearson and Dole (1987) model

This model argues that before asking learners to practice individually, teachers need to explain the advantages of and ways to applying particular learning strategies through demonstration. This gradual sequence – from introduction to practice, via demonstration and guided practice – not only makes it easy for the

learners to understand the application of those strategies in a better way, but also motivates them to apply the same in newer contexts. It starts with the teachers introducing a learning strategy to their learners by clearly explaining how, when, why, and where that strategy could be applied. Then they demonstrate its application in an explicit and elaborate manner. Afterwards teachers and learners work together as part of class practice. And finally, after learners have gained confidence in accomplishing the task, they are asked to complete it on their own in newer contexts. However, this model offers limited benefit as it focuses on only one simple skill at a time and cannot account for the challenges of promoting multifaceted problem solving skills among learners.

1.4 Learner autonomy and language learning strategies

Learner autonomy and language learning strategies are both considered to be crucial factors in successful learning of any languages (Chan, 2001; Chan, Spratt, & Humphreys, 2002; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Dickinson, 1987; Littlewood, 1999). Oxford (1996) claims successful learners are mostly autonomous and proficient in using language learning strategies. Learners need to devise their own learning strategies and become autonomous in order to learn languages successfully. Moreover, in order to become autonomous and efficient, learners need to take more responsibility of their own learning and make proper use of the learning strategies. Therefore, there lies a substantial relationship between autonomy and learning strategies at the micro level, and between utilizing autonomy and learning strategies in successful learning of languages at the macro level.

Various recent studies across the globe have focused on different aspects of the relationship between learner autonomy, language learning strategies and successful learning of languages in general. However, studies like Iamudom & Tangkiengsirisin (2020), Begum (2018), Tilfarlioglu and Sherwani (2018), Khan (2017), Zakaria, Aziz & Ramaya (2017), Samaei, Khany and Habibi (2015), Rezalou (2014), Abadi & Baradaran (2013) etc. have particularly recognized the interplay between autonomy and learning strategies as well as their roles in

successful learning of languages. The next chapter focuses on more of such studies available in literature in relation to learner autonomy and language learning strategies, as well as how they contribute towards successful learning of languages.

References

- Abadi, E. A. M., & Baradaran, A. (2013). The relationship between learner autonomy and vocabulary learning strategies in Iranian EFL learners with different language proficiency level. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(3), 176-185.
- Allwright, D. (1990). Autonomy in language pedagogy: CRILE Working Paper, 6. *University of Lancaster*.
- Aoki, N. (2008). Teacher stories to improve theories of learner/teacher autonomy. *Independence*, 43, 15-17.
- Auerbach, E. (2007). Commentary on Part One: Necessary contradictions... and beyond. In *Reconstructing Autonomy in Language Education* (pp. 84-92). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Aviram, A., & Assor, A. (2010). In defence of personal autonomy as a fundamental educational aim in Liberal Democracies: a response to Hand. *Oxford Review of education*, 36(1), 111-126.
- Begum, J. (2019). Learner Autonomy in EFL/ESL Classrooms in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Practices. *International Journal of Language Education*, 3(1), 12-21.
- Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge.
- Benson, P. (2012). Autonomy in language learning, learning and life. *Synergies France*, (9), 29-39.
- Benson, P. (2011a). What's new in autonomy? *The Language Teacher*, 35(4), 15-18.
- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy*. London: Routledge.
- Benson, P. (2009). Making sense of autonomy in language learning. In Pemberton, R., Toogood, S. & A. Barfield (Eds.), *Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning* (pp.13-26). Hong Kong, China: Hong Kong University Press.
- Benson, P. (2008). Teachers' and learners' perspectives on autonomy. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 15-32). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Benson, P. (2007). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 40(1), 21-40.
- Benson, P. (2005). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*, Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. London: Longman.
- Benson, P. (1997). The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 18-34). London: Longman.
- Benson, P., & Voller, P. (1997). Introduction: Autonomy and independence in language learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). London: Longman.
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 65(1), 24 -35.
- Blin, F. (2004). CALL and the development of learner autonomy: Towards an activity-theoretical perspective. *ReCALL*, 16(2), 377-395.
- Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Journal*, 12(7), 1-45.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000b). The significance of negotiation. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds.), *Classroom decision-making: negotiation in the language classroom* (pp. 5-38). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000a). Classroom decision-making: negotiation in the language classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). Teaching by principles. New York: Longman.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). Principles of language learning and teaching. (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bullock, D. (2010). Learner self-assessment: An investigation into teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 62(2), 114-125.
- Camilleri, G. (1999). Learner Autonomy -The Teachers' Views. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 25, 112-130.

- Chamot, A. U. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(3), 319-339.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Chan, V. (2001). Readiness for learner autonomy: What do our learners tell us?. *Teaching in higher education*, 6(4), 505-518.
- Chan, V., M. Spratt & G. Humphreys (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviours. *Evaluation and Research in Education* 16(1), 1-18.
- Chik, A. (2007). From learner identity to learner autonomy: A biographical study of two Hong Kong learners of English. In P. Benson (Ed.), *Learner autonomy 8: Teacher and learner perspectives* (pp. 41-60). Dublin: Authentik.
- Clemente, M. de los Angeles (2001). Teachers' attitudes within a self-directed learning scheme. *System*, 29(1), 45-67.
- Cohen, A. D. (1998). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London, England: Longman.
- Cohen, A. D. (1990). *Language learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Cohen, A. D., & Weaver, S. J. (2006): *Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction. A Teachers' Guide*. Minneapolis: Centre for Advanced research on language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.
- Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classrooms in China. *Society and the language classroom*, 169(206), 42.
- Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 109-117.
- Cotterall, S. (1999). Key variables in language learning: what do learners believe about them?. *System*, 27(4), 493-513.
- Cotterall, S. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 219-227.
- Crabbe, D. (1993). Fostering autonomy from within the classroom: the teacher's responsibility. *System*, 21(4), 443-452.
- Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy, 3: From Theory to Practice*. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik.

- Dam, L. (1990). Developing awareness of learning in an autonomous language learning context. In R. Duda & P. Riley (Eds.), *Learning styles* (pp. 189-97). Presses Universitaires de Nancy.
- Dam, L., Eriksson, R., Little, D., Miliander, J., & Trebbi, T. (1990, August). Towards a definition of autonomy. In Third Nordic workshop on developing autonomous learning in the FL classroom (pp. 102-103). Bergen, Norway: University of Bergen.
- Dansereau, D F. (1985). Learning Strategy Research. In J.W. Segal, S.F. Chipman and R. Glaser (Eds.), *Thinking and Learning Skills*. Hillsdale, N J Erlbaum, (1):9-39.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour. New York: Plenum.
- Dickinson, L. (2004). Talking shop: Aspects of autonomous learning. *ELT Journal*, 47(4), 330-336.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). Self-instruction in language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dickinson, L. (1977). "Autonomy, self-directed learning and individualized instruction." In: E. M. Harding-Esch (ed.), *Self Directed Learning and Autonomy*, Report of a Seminar held at Cambridge, 13- 15 December 1976. Cambridge: Department of Linguistics. 12-34.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition. London and New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273-284.
- Doyal, L., & Gough, I. (1984). A theory of human needs. *Critical Social Policy*, 4(10), 6-38.
- Dufeu, B. (1994). Teaching Myself. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Édes, Cs. (2008). 'Teachers know best': Autonomous beliefs and behaviours of English majors. A case study of three first-year students at Eötvös University. In J. Horváth, R. Lugossy & M. Nikolov (Eds.), *UPRT 2008: Empirical studies in English applied linguistics* (pp. 43-58). Pécs: Lingua Franca.
- Egbert, J. (2005). CALL essentials: Principles and practice in CALL classrooms. Alexandria, Virginia: TESOL.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). Learning to learn English learner's book: A course in learner training. Cambridge University Press.

- Everhard, C. J. (2016). What is this thing called autonomy? Finding a definition and a model. *Selected papers on theoretical and applied linguistics*, 21, 548-568.
- Faerch, C. & Kasper, G. (1984). *Strategies in interlanguage communication*. London: Longman.
- Feryok, A. (2013). Teaching for learner autonomy: the teacher's role and sociocultural theory. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 213-225.
- Fisher, D., Hafner, C., & Young, J. (2007). Integrating independent learning: Lessons learned and implications for the classroom. In: D. Gardner (Ed.), *Learner Autonomy 10: Integration and support* (pp.33-55). Dublin: Authentik.
- Gao, X., & Zhang, L. J. (2011). Joining forces for synergy: Agency and metacognition as interrelated theoretical perspectives on learner autonomy. *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning*, 25-41.
- Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (2011). Managing self-access language learning: Principles and practice. *System*, 39(1), 78-89.
- Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (1999). *Establishing self-access: From theory to practice*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Univ. of California Press.
- Gregersent, T. (2001). Can foreign language learning strategies turn into crutches? A pilot study on the use of strategies by successful and unsuccessful language learners. *Revista Signos*. Vol. 34(49-50), 101-111.
- Gremmo, M-J. & P. Riley (1995). Autonomy, self-direction and self-access in language teaching and learning: The history of an idea. *System* 23(2), 151-164.
- Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern languages and learning strategies: In theory and practice*. London, England: Routledge.
- Hamilton, M. (2013). *Autonomy and foreign language learning in a virtual learning environment*. A & C Black.
- Harris, M. (1997). Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 12-20.
- Harrison, R. (2000). Learner managed learning: managing to learn or learning to manage?. *International Journal of lifelong education*, 19(4), 312-321.
- Healey, D. (1999). 'Theory and research: Autonomy in language learning'. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL Environments: Research, Practice and Critical Issues*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., 391-402.

- Hess, H. W. (2006) Beyond the Rhetoric of the 'Autonomous Learner': Combining E-Learning and the Classroom. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 3(1), 102-120.
- Ho, J., & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese cultural traditions: Learner autonomy in English language teaching. *System*, 23(2), 235-243.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Holliday, A. (2005). *The Struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huang, J. (2011). A dynamic account of autonomy, agency and identity in (T)EFL learning. In G. Murray, X. S. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 229-246). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Huang, J. P., & Benson, P. (2013). Autonomy agency and identity in foreign and second language education. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 36(1), 7.
- Iamudom, T., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2020). A Comparison Study of Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies among Thai EFL Learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(2), 199-212. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13214a>
- Jarvis, H. (2012). *Computers and learner autonomy: Trends and issues*. London: British Council.
- Johnston, C., Aliponga, J., Koshiyama, Y., Ries, T., & Rush, T. (2014). Learner autonomy in university English classes. In Nozomu Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), JALT 2013 Conference Proceedings. Tokyo: JALT.
- Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner perceptions and teachers beliefs about learner autonomy in language learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 6(1-2), 13-29.
- Kanno, Y. (2003). *Negotiating bilingual and bicultural identities: Japanese returnees betwixt two worlds*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Khan, M. F. R. (2017). Role of Learner Autonomy in Choosing Learning Strategies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL): Bangladesh Perspective. *RENOVA*, 3(1), 39-50.
- Khan, M. F. R. (2012). Language learning strategies: A study of teacher and learner perceptions. *BUP Journal*, 1(1), 140-153.
- Knowles, M. (1975). *Self-directed learning: A guide for learners and teachers*, New York: Cambridge Books.
- Lai, C. (2017). Introducing Key Concepts. In *Autonomous Language Learning with Technology: Beyond the Classroom* (Advances in Digital Language Learning and Teaching, pp. 3-20). London: Bloomsbury Academic.

- Lee, I. (1998). Supporting greater autonomy in language learning, *ELT Journal*, 52(4), 282-290.
- Lewis, T. (2013). Between the social and the selfish: Learner autonomy in online environments. *Innovation in language learning and teaching*, 7(3), 198-212.
- Liang, T. (2009). Language Learning Strategies--The Theoretical Framework and Some Suggestions for Learner Training Practice. *English language teaching*, 2(4), 199-206.
- Little, D. (1996). Freedom to learn and compulsion to interact: promoting learner autonomy through the use of information systems and information technologies. *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning*, 1, 203-218.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy. 1: Definition, Issues and Problems*, Dublin: Authentik.
- Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied linguistics*, 20(1), 71-94.
- Littlewood, W. (1996). Autonomy: An anatomy and a framework. *System* 24(4), 427-435.
- Macaro, E. (2008). The shifting dimensions of language learner autonomy. In T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 47-62). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- McDonough, J. & Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and Methods in ELT*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Mercer, S. (2011). Understanding learner agency as a complex dynamic system. *System*, 39, 427-436.
- Moore, M. G. (1972). Learner autonomy: The second dimension of independent learning. *Convergence*, 5(2), 76.
- Morrison, B. (2008). The role of the self-access centre in the tertiary language learning process. *System*, 36, 123-140.
- Murray, G. (2014). Exploring the social dimensions of autonomy in language learning. In *Social dimensions of autonomy in language learning* (pp. 3-11). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Natri, T. (2007). Active learnership in continuous self-and peer-evaluation. In *Reconstructing autonomy in language education* (pp. 108-119). Palgrave Macmillan, London.

- Ng, S. F., & Confessore, G. J. (2010). The relationship of multiple learning styles to levels of learner autonomy. *International Journal of Self-directed Learning*, 7(1), 1-13.
- Nguyen, C. T. (2012, January). The roles of teachers in fostering autonomous learning at the university level. In *proceeding of Cyprus International Conference on Educational Research (CY-ICER-2012)* North Cyprus (Vol. 47, pp. 605-609).
- Nikolov, M., & Curtain, H. (2000). *An early start: Young learners and modern languages in Europe and beyond*. Council of Europe.
- Noels, K. A. (2009). The internalization of language learning into the self and social identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp.295–313). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Noels, K. A., R. Clement & L. G. Pelletier (1999). Perceptions of teacher communicative style and student's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23–34.
- Nunan, D. (2003). Nine steps to learner autonomy, *Symposium, 2003*, 193-204.
- Nunan, D. (1997). Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 192 -203). Harlow: Longman.
- Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between learning and instruction. *Tesol Quarterly*, 29(1), 133-158.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner centred curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. (2008). Hero With a Thousand Faces: Learner Autonomy, Learning Strategies and Learning Tactics in Independent Language Learning. In S. Hurd & T. Lewis (Eds.), *Language Learning Strategies in Independent Settings*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 25-41.
- Oxford, R. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31(3), 313–330.
- Oxford, R. (ed.) (1996). Language learning strategies around the world: Cross cultural perspectives. University of Hawai'i at Manoa: Second language teaching and curriculum center technical report 13.
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House, 284-297.

- Pearson, P. D., & Dole, J. A. (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: A review of research and a new conceptualization of instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 88(2), 151-165.
- Pemberton, R., Li, E. S. L., Or, W. W. F., & Pierson, H.D. (Eds.). (1996). *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Pennycook, A. (1997). Cultural alternatives and autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 35-65). London: Longman.
- Prosser, J. (1999). The evolution of school culture research. In J. Prosser (Ed.), *School Culture* (pp. 1-14). London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Ray, J. M. (2009). A template analysis of teacher agency at an academically successful dual language school. *Journal of advanced academics*, 21(1), 110-141.
- Raya, M. J., & Vieira, F. (2015). *Enhancing autonomy in language education. A case-based approach to teacher and learner development*. Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Raya, M. J., Lamb, T., & Vieira, F. (2007). *Pedagogy for autonomy in language education in Europe*. Authentik.
- Regan, J-A. (2005). Facilitating students towards self-directed learning. In P. Hartley, A. Woods & M. Pill (Eds.), *Enhancing teaching in higher education: New approaches for improving student learning* (pp. 93-108). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Reinders, H. (2010). Towards a Classroom Pedagogy for Learner Autonomy: A Framework of Independent Language Learning Skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(5).
- Reinders, H. (2000). Do it yourself! A learners' perspective on learner autonomy and self-access language learning in an English proficiency programme. Unpublished MA Dissertation, University of Groningen, The Netherlands.
- Reinders, H., & Balcikanli, C. (2011). Do classroom textbooks encourage learner autonomy? *Novitas-ROYAL*, 5(2), 265-272.
- Reinders, H., & White, C. (2011). Learner autonomy and new learning environments. *Language Learning & Technology*, 15(3), 1-3.
- Rezalou, A. (2014). *Strategies to develop student autonomy and their relation with foreign language achievement* (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey. Retrieved from: <http://openaccess.hacettepe.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11655/1938/8/6fb6825-ba9f-4da2-a8ac-1466328d980b.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). Interaction in the second language classroom. *Readings in Methodology*, 66.

- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us. *TESOL Quarterly* 9, 41-45.
- Ryan, R. M. & E. L. Deci. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In Deci, E. L. & R. M. Ryan. (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Samaie, M., Khany, R., & Habibi, N. (2015). On the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies among Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 6(2), 96-109.
- Scarcella, R. & Oxford, R. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Scharle, Á., & Szabo, A. (2000). *Learner autonomy: A guide to developing learner responsibility*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sinclair, B. (2000) Learner autonomy: The next phase? In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath and T. Lamb (eds.) *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions*. London: Longman. 4-14.
- Smith, R. (2008). Learner autonomy (key concepts in ELT). *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 395-397.
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: Which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6(3), 245-266.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (1995). Styles of thinking in the school. *European Journal of High Ability*, 6(2), 201-219.
- Tarone, E. (1983). Some thought on the notion of "communication strategy". In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London: Longman.
- Tassinari, M. G. (2012). Evaluating learner autonomy: A dynamic model with descriptors. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 3(1), 24-40.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Sherwani, S. (2018). An Analysis of the Relationship among EFL Learners' Autonomy, Self-esteem, and Choice of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(8), 933-947.
- Tudor, I. (1996). *Learner-centredness as language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tudor, I. (1993). Teacher roles in the learner-centred classroom. *ELT journal*, 47(1), 22-31.

- Ushioda, E. (2006). Language motivation in a reconfigured Europe: access, identity, autonomy. *Journal of Multicultural and Multilingual Development*, 27(2), 148-161.
- Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 11-24). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Vázquez, B. M. (2015). Pedagogy for autonomy in FLT: An exploratory analysis on its implementation through case studies. *Porta Linguarum*, 23, 59-74.
- Victori, M., & Lockhart, W. (1995). Enhancing metacognition in self-directed language learning. *System*, 23(2), 223-234.
- Voller, P. (1997). Does the teacher have a role in autonomous language learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 98-113). New York: Longman.
- Wall, S. (2003). Freedom as a political ideal. *Social Philosophy and Policy*, 20(2), 307-334.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching and learning* (pp. 315-327).
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), 515-537.
- Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wenden, A. (1983). Literature review: The process of intervention. *Language Learning*, 33(1), 103-121.
- White, C. (1999). Expectations and emergent beliefs of self-instructed language learners. *System*, 27(4), 443-457.
- Williams, M. & R. Burden. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers: A Social Constructivist Approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Xu, W. (2011). Learning styles and their implications in learning and teaching. *Theory and Practice in language Studies*, 1(4), 413-416.
- Yagcioglu, O. (2018). THE AUTONOMY APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 5(3), 263-271.
- Yang, N. D. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: Promoting learner autonomy. *System*, 26(1), 127-135.

Zakari, N. L., Abd Aziz, A., & Ramayah, K. (2017). Language learning strategies and learner autonomy in learning Japanese. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9(3), 50-60.

Chapter II	Problem of the Study	53
2.1	Review of related literature	53
2.2	Statement of the problem	63
2.3	Delimitations	64
2.4	Objectives	64
2.5	Hypotheses	65
	References	67

Chapter II Problem of the Study

A summary of available comprehensive knowledge in related literature helps in critical analysis of any research problem. Therefore, this chapter aims to provide a better understanding of the current research problem, i.e., role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh; and justify the basic necessity of carrying out this present study by critically analyzing the repertoire of both online and print resources including, but not limited to, journals, books, doctoral dissertations and so on.

2.1 Review of related literature

Palfreyman (2003) claims while the notion of learner autonomy has been developed and endorsed by the West, promoting it in the East has always been challenging due to the contextual differences between the cultures. Hence, research on learner autonomy in the Asian context has often failed to depict a consistent state of being (Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys; 2002).

Moreover, **Smith, Kuchah and Lamb (2017: 11)** believe the “...concept of learner autonomy may, then, have a particular kind of relevance in the developing world, partly because there is such a dissonance between what formal education offers, or can offer, and what many learners want and actually attempt to gain for themselves... This kind of dissonance is probably found in most developing world contexts right now, and how it affects learners’ sense of autonomy and their autonomous learning and use of English is worthy of much more study.”

Therefore, an array of studies on learner autonomy has lately been conducted in the Asian context. For example, **Khan (2017)** investigated teacher cognition in respect to learner autonomy and its role in choosing language learning strategies in Bangladesh. Findings suggested the improbability of any universal model for learner autonomy as such models can only be adopted based on careful evaluation of a particular educational context. It also revealed that existing practices in academia hardly promotes learner

autonomy and learners are less autonomous in choosing their language learning strategies.

In another study, **Khan (2012)** investigated the relationship between the language learning strategies and language proficiency among university learners in Bangladesh. Findings revealed a considerable relationship between these two and learners who make more use of language learning strategies show greater proficiency in performance. It was also found that learners mostly employ the Social and the Metacognitive strategies, and least employ the Affective and the Memory strategies.

Bristi (2015) explored the use of vocabulary learning strategies employed by undergraduate learners at the United International University in Bangladesh. Her findings showed learners mostly prefer using the determination strategies, followed by the social, memory, meta-cognitive and cognitive ones. Moreover, they also show consistency in their choice of learning strategies at various levels of proficiency.

Similarly, **Begum (2018)** investigated teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and language learning strategies in a university in Bangladesh. Her findings revealed that though teachers are familiar with these notions, various issues like learner capacity and reluctance, inadequate resources, teaching load etc. pose challenges in implementing learner autonomy and language learning strategies in the classroom context.

Yildirim (2012) investigated Indian learners' perception of learner autonomy and the responsibilities of both teachers and learners in learning a language. Findings revealed that teachers are held more responsible for setting goals and objectives, choosing content and activities, providing prompt feedback and assessing the course. On the other hand, learners are held more responsible for choosing learning activities and self-evaluating their learning outside the class. However, both teachers and learners are jointly responsible for arousing interest and ensuring progress in the learning process.

Ranjan (2018) explored the role of language learning strategies among learners learning Spanish as a foreign language in two Indian universities. His findings revealed that learners use social strategies the most, and memory strategies the least. However,

there are no substantial differences among male or female learners in their choice of language learning strategies.

Hadi & Guo (2020) investigated learners' beliefs about vocabulary learning strategies at Shaikh Zayed University in Afghanistan. Their findings showed that these learners mostly use cognitive, affective and metacognitive strategies in learning vocabulary. While applying Meta-cognitive strategies, learners prefer selective attention to self-initiation. On the other hand, taking notes and making contextual guesses are highly prioritized, whereas encoding strategies and rehearsals are least preferred while applying cognitive strategies. They appear to favor affective strategies in managing their stress, anxiety and emotions.

Dawadi (2017) looked into how university learners deal with language learning strategies in Nepal. Findings revealed that learners in Nepal use language learning strategies sparingly. However, within their cautious use of the learning strategies, they made most use of the metacognitive, compensation and cognitive ones. Another finding was related to gender biased use of strategies. It identified that whereas the male learners preferred social, compensation and affective strategies; their female counterparts preferred the cognitive and metacognitive ones.

Joshi (2011) conducted a study on learners and teachers in universities in Nepal to find out their beliefs about their roles in learner autonomy. Findings showed that they had a good grasp of learner autonomy and were also very interested in implementing autonomous learning practices in the classroom. They highlighted the significance of learners' responsibility and the role of teachers in the learning environment.

Yasmin and Sohail (2017) investigated teachers' beliefs about the collaboration between learner autonomy and learning a language in universities in Pakistan. Findings showed that learner autonomy and success in learning a language are deeply intertwined. Teachers also believe that learners learn a language with more ease and success when they indulge in learning autonomously.

Ellis (1994) claims that though learners prefer using cognitive strategies when focusing on learning *about the language*, they choose communicative strategies when focusing on learning *the language*. Moreover, factors like aptitude, age, gender, motivation, and socio-cultural context also shape the choice of strategies. Young learners show a preference for task-specific strategies, whereas adults prefer common strategies. Also, learners with high motivation were found to use more strategies and with greater success than those of with less motivation. In addition, individual learning experiences also guide the choice of strategies as more experienced learners are found to make more use of the functional strategies than that of the less experienced ones. However, it requires a greater use of learning strategies in learning languages that are significantly different from the learners' native tongue.

Tsan (2008) examined undergraduate learners' use of language learning strategies at National Taiwan Normal University. Findings revealed that a) Learners majoring in English employed learning strategies more regularly than the learners who majored in other disciplines b) Metacognitive strategies were most preferred, whereas affective strategies were least preferred c) Use of learning strategies differs among learners of different disciplines d) The efficacy of learning strategies varied between the learners majoring in English and the learners majoring in other disciplines.

Chang & Liu (2013) studied the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and motivation among 163 learners studying EFL in Taiwan. Findings revealed that participants with higher level of proficiency in language displayed a considerably higher use of learning strategies than the others. They mostly used metacognitive strategies whereas the others used compensation strategies. In addition, these cognitive and metacognitive strategies were observed to have higher correlations with motivation compared to the compensation strategies. Moreover, the frequency of use of strategies also had positive and strong correlation with motivation.

Liu (2015) explored the relationship between gender, language proficiency, the use of learning strategies, and the area of study in an EFL educational setting in Taiwan. It also aimed to explore the relationship between learner autonomy and use of learning strategies. Findings showed gender, area of study, and language proficiency has

significant effect on the use of learning strategies. Moreover, the use of learning strategies – in particular, the cognitive and the metacognitive ones – were found to have a high level of correlation with learner autonomy and could be an indicator of learner autonomy.

Chinpakdee (2020) studied the development of learner autonomy in a secondary school in Thailand. It was conducted in two phases: the first phase aimed to identify Thai teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and how they promote learner autonomy; and the second phase included an intervention scheme aimed to facilitate learner autonomy. Findings from the first phase revealed that though Thai teachers have positive attitude towards learner autonomy and find it useful, they do not significantly promote autonomous learning in their classrooms. On the other hand, findings from the second phase revealed that strategy-based instructions increase awareness of the learning process and foster learner autonomy.

Iamudom & Tangkiengsirisin (2020) investigated the relationship between the level of learner autonomy and the use of language learning strategies among 200 learners studying EFL in an International school and Thai public school in Bangkok. Findings showed learners from Thai public school displaying higher level of autonomy and using more amount of learning strategies compared to their counterparts from the International school. Moreover, there were also differences among the categories of strategies being used: whereas learners from the International school preferred cognitive strategies, their counterparts from the Thai public school preferred compensation strategies.

Tran (2020) studied learners' attitude towards role of autonomy in learning vocabulary. The mixed methods research was conducted in Vietnam among 200 learners from Ho Chi Minh City. Findings showed that participants believe autonomy plays important role in learning vocabulary and learner proficiency. However, there lies a gap between the participants' cognitive attitude and affective and behavioral attitude towards the role of autonomy in learning vocabulary.

Le (2013) explored the correlation between learner autonomy and learning English among university students in Vietnam. Findings identified various academic and cultural constraints in promoting learner autonomy. The academic constraints included lack of time, tough syllabus, and exam-centric assessment. The cultural constraints, on the other hand, include authoritative teacher image, reliance on teachers, and the status paradigm between teacher and students. It claims that a combination of such academic and cultural contexts keep teachers from giving and learners from taking more control of the learning process.

Nguyen (2018) studied the results of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) on learner autonomy among two groups – the experimental and the control groups – of Vietnamese learners. Findings revealed that no significant difference was observed among attitude, motivation and the use of learning strategies between the learners of the experimental and the control groups before the experiment. However, after the experiment, learners from the experimental group were found to make more use of learning strategies, especially the cognitive and the metacognitive ones. They also displayed more positive attitude and intrinsic motivation. However, there were no such significant changes among the participants of the control group.

Ng & Confessore (2010) investigated the correlation between levels of learner autonomy and learning styles in the Malaysian academia and found positive association between these two. They concluded that it is important to take into account learners' individual differences and their learning styles in order to develop learner autonomy.

Zakaria, Aziz & Ramaya (2017) investigated the correlation between the level of autonomy and the use of learning strategies among 20 learners learning the Japanese language in Malaysia. Results revealed that learners are moderate users of learning strategies and possess an average level of autonomy. There is also a significant correlation between learner autonomy and the use of learning strategies in terms of learning Japanese.

Another study in the Malaysian context was carried out by **Thang (2005)**. In that study at the University Kebangsaan Malaysia, Thang (2005) found learners not only failed to

show adequate awareness of autonomy during learning a language but also showed dependence upon teacher instruction and facilitation. Thang concluded that learners' cultural orientation creates such a notion that language learning is a teacher oriented process.

Manurung (2005) studied the results of learning strategy instruction on the development of the four basic language skills at a university in Indonesia. There were 126 participants in this study. Results identified that proper instruction about learning strategies facilitates autonomous learning and results in enhanced performance in both the productive and the receptive skills.

Gieve and Clark (2005) investigated Chinese learners' readiness for learner autonomy and found that they embraced autonomous learning process just like their European counterparts and took benefit of this capacity. They also suggested that if learners get enough exposure to situations that promote learner autonomy, they can overcome their culture biased traditional notions of teacher dependency.

Similar findings came out in **Littlewood's (1999)** investigation about the influence of culture in shaping university learners' approaches to learning a foreign language in Hong Kong. It showed that the "powerful role of the learning context" (p. 83) may refute the traditional East Asian notion and attitudes of teacher dependence in relation to autonomous learning.

Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002) investigated learners' attitude towards autonomy and motivation at Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Findings revealed that though engagement in autonomous learning is closely connected to learners' level of autonomy, it is motivation that is required prior to autonomy. Moreover, a lack of motivation also prevented them from engaging in autonomous learning activities. Therefore, the importance of motivation in promoting learner autonomy is quite significant.

Cotterall (1999) studied a group of 139 ESL learners learning intensive English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand

regarding their beliefs about language learning. She identified six factors in shaping their beliefs: learners' approach to learning; their self-confidence; learner autonomy; prior experience of learning; proper feedback; and teacher support. These factors also determined their readiness for autonomous learning practices. Therefore she maintained that before taking measures to endorse learner autonomy teachers need to consider learners beliefs and readiness towards the same.

White (1999) investigated how a group of Japanese and Spanish learners' attitude, interpretation and experience of learning a language changed during the process of self-instructed learning in twelve weeks. Findings revealed that their post-participation expectations and beliefs have evolved and changed compared to those of before engaging in self-instructed learning. In relation to this, as exposure to new learning methods shaped such changes and assisted them to adjust to the new context of learning, White claimed that the way learners react, experience and adjust to new learning conditions are largely guided by their beliefs.

Holden and Usuki (1999) investigated Japanese learners' inclination towards learner autonomy and found that they do not get sufficient opportunities to engage in autonomous learning activities due to their traditional teacher centered classrooms. It also illustrated that learners favored teachers with non-traditional methods of teaching rather than the typical lecture based ones. Tradition and cultural norms in Japan discourages learner autonomy even though it was evident that Japanese learners were no less autonomous than other learners.

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted a study among 200 Hungarian teachers regarding the significance of motivational strategies in the classroom and found that the participants believed it was very important to teach strategies to promote autonomy. These strategies included prompting learners to ask questions and sharing responsibility with the learners. Findings also suggested that autonomy leads to motivation.

Szocs (2017) investigated teachers' and learners' beliefs about learner autonomy and its implications in the classroom in the Hungarian context. Both teachers and learners

believed that teachers' monitoring and facilitating the progress of learners' learning is necessary, as is immediate error correction. However, though teachers were aware of the importance of motivation and self-analysis of individual learning abilities, learners were not familiar with these factors. In addition, though teachers thought so, learners also did not find the academia suitable to engage in autonomous learning activities.

Kavanoz (2006) examined the beliefs, attitude and knowledge of English language teachers in Turkey regarding learner-centeredness and how to employ relevant methods in their classrooms. Findings showed that teachers in public schools were not aware of learner-centered instruction and considered it merely as engaging learners in grammar based activities. They identified teachers' key roles as providing knowledge and correcting learners' mistakes.

A study conducted by **Yilmaz (2007)** on the difficulties that impede the employment of learner-centered instruction in the secondary schools in Turkey showed that traditions in Turkey emphasizes teacher-centered, content focused and text book based approaches as instructional styles in the classrooms. It also identified the influence of Turkish culture on learning style and instruction as a significant factor in learners' being passive learners failing to take proper initiatives towards autonomous learning.

Ustunluoglu (2009) investigated the preparedness for learner autonomy among university teachers and some learners who studied English as a foreign language in Turkish universities. Findings revealed that learners did not consider themselves as truly autonomous and were also not prepared to take control of their own learning as they still considered their teachers as the sole authority in making decisions in the classroom. It also recommended the incorporation of learner autonomy in the curriculum with emphasis on proper content and structured delivery.

Rezalou (2014) studied 150 learners learning ELT in Hacettepe University in Turkey to find out the effect of language learning strategies in developing learner autonomy and their relationship with foreign language performance. In addition, it also aimed to find out the effects of variables like age and gender while using learning strategies. Findings showed that metacognitive strategies were most useful in foreign language

performance. Positive correlation was also found between strategy use and GPA of the participants. However, gender and age did have any significant effect on strategy use.

A study conducted by **Reeve (2006)** examined the importance of relationship between learners' engagement and autonomy and found that autonomous learning relies "on the supportive quality of classroom conditions in which their learning take place" (p. 225). It also highlighted the importance of teachers' role in motivating learners and establishing an autonomy supportive classroom. Reeve highlights the importance of "instructional behaviors" (p. 231) in facilitating learner autonomy and claims that to promote learner autonomy teachers need to adjust their classroom practices to meet the needs of learners and explain the rationales behind their classroom activities.

Tilfarlioglu and Sherwani (2018) studied the connection among self-esteem, learner autonomy, and the choice of vocabulary learning strategies among undergraduate learners studying English as a foreign language in Iraq. Findings showed that there is a considerable relationship among these three and that self-esteem and learner autonomy provide significant assistance in successful acquisition of vocabulary. Moreover, learner autonomy also contributes towards better use of learning strategies as it enables learners to choose the right mechanism and monitor their own learning as well as design their own solutions to overcome any difficulties that may arise.

Samaei, Khany and Habibi (2015) examined the connection between learner autonomy and learning strategies among Iranian learners learning English as a foreign language at the tertiary level. Findings revealed that most of the learners engage in autonomous learning activities and consider them skilled enough to take charge of their own learning. Thus, there exists a significant correlation between learner autonomy and the confident use of learning strategies. However, female learners used more learning strategies than their male counterparts.

Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008) investigated the various factors related to learners' choice of language learning strategies in Iran. Findings identified that use of learning strategies is a complex experience that incorporates several factors like the context of

learning, learners' awareness of the learning process, prior learning experience, teaching methods, years of study, motivation and skill level.

Abadi & Baradaran (2013) investigated the relationship between learner autonomy and use of vocabulary learning strategies among Iranian learners with various levels of proficiency in EFL. There were 190 participants (95 in advance level and another 95 in intermediate level). Findings showed that there is a strong relationship between learner autonomy and vocabulary learning strategies among the Iranian participants.

Ahmadi & Izadpanah (2019) studied the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy, and thinking styles among 149 Iranian learners studying EFL in Islamic Azad University and Payam-e-Noor University, Iran. Findings revealed a significant relationship among language anxiety, learner autonomy, and the thinking styles in Iranian learners.

Alhaysony (2017) investigated the association between gender, use of language learning strategies and duration of learning English in Saudi Arabia. Findings illustrated that Saudi learners make moderate use of learning strategies, showing an inclination towards metacognitive, cognitive, and compensation strategies and an aversion towards affective and memory strategies. It also revealed that female learners utilized more learning strategies than their male counterparts though the difference was minimal. However, no significant association was found in the use of learning strategies in relation to learners' duration of English studies.

Al-Khawlani (2018) investigated the differences in learner autonomy between Polish and Yemeni undergraduate learners studying English as a Foreign Language. 59 Polish undergraduate learners from the University of Warsaw and 81 Yemeni undergraduate learners from the Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University participated in the study. The study collected information on different categories like planning, beliefs and attitudes, management, resources, self-regulation, during class activities, out-of-class activities etc. Its findings revealed that female learners performed better in the sub-domains of autonomy than the male learners. It also reported that learners who are goal oriented are more autonomous than the others.

Bozkurt & Arslan (2018) investigated Syrian refugee learners' beliefs of and readiness for autonomy in learning English as a foreign language. They also explored the effects of gender and academic grades in shaping their beliefs. Results illustrated that gender and academic grades do not have any significant influence in shaping learners' beliefs about learner autonomy. However, there was a significant relationship between their beliefs and their readiness for learner autonomy in learning a language, i.e., an increase in their beliefs also increases their readiness for autonomy.

2.2 Statement of the Problem

A thorough analysis of relevant literature reveals that both learner autonomy and language learning strategies play substantial roles in learning a foreign language, particularly English. Over the years there have also been quite a number of studies in both these areas detailing various aspects of learner autonomy and language learning strategies in relation to learning English as a foreign language (EFL) from multiple perspectives. However, most of those studies have dealt with learner autonomy and language learning strategies separately. There is a clear lack of evidence in existing literature that significant research has so far been conducted depicting the interrelationship between these two factors and how they shape one another in relation to learning English as a foreign language.

To be specific, no study has yet been conducted to identify the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies in learning English as a foreign language. Therefore there exists a vast knowledge gap. This present study investigating the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh, therefore, is very significant in filling up the existing knowledge gap in relevant literature.

Therefore, in order to investigate the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh, the researcher has identified the following basic research question/s:

- *To what extent do learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh use language learning strategies?*

- *Do learners have any preference in using any particular language learning strategies in relation to their individual, academic and social aspects?*
- *How much autonomy do learners have in learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh?*
- *What is the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies in learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh?*

To find out the answers of the aforementioned basic research questions, the problem of the present study has been specified as “Role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh”.

2.3 Delimitations

The present study was delimited to the following:

- To measure only learner autonomy and language learning strategies;
- The sample of the study consisted of only learners learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in different universities in Bangladesh;
- The sample group were from the undergraduate years only and their age ranged from 19-22 years;
- Only public universities from five divisions in Bangladesh, viz. Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Khulna and Barishal were chosen for the study;
- Few social, academic, and personal indicators of the learners’ were considered; and
- Data was collected through only two instruments, viz. the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1989) and Learner Autonomy Scale (Zhang & Li, 2004).

2.4 Objectives

In view of the basic research questions and delimitations of the study, the following objectives were identified -

- To find out the extent of use of language learning strategies among learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh;

- To find out the variations in the use of language learning strategies in relation to the individual, social, and academic aspects of the learners;
- To find out the extent of autonomy among learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh;
- To find out the variations in the level of autonomy in relation to the individual, social, and academic aspects of the learners; and
- To explore the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies among the learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh.

2.5 Hypotheses

Based on the objectives and delimitations of the study, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

- **H₀₁:** Preference of different language learning strategies occurs with equal probability among learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh.
- **H₀₂:** Preference of language learning strategies and gender of the learners' are independent of each other.
- **H₀₃:** Preference of language learning strategies and the number of siblings of the learners' are independent of each other.
- **H₀₄:** Preference of language learning strategies and the locality of the institutions (where learners studied before taking admission at the university) are independent of each other.
- **H₀₅:** Preference of language learning strategies and the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions (before taking admission at the university) are independent of each other.
- **H₀₆:** Preference of language learning strategies and the duration of learning English before taking admission at the university are independent of each other.
- **H₀₇:** Preference of language learning strategies and parental education of the learners are independent of each other.
- **H₀₈:** Age of the learners does not affect the use of language learning strategies in a significant manner.

- **H₀9:** Both male and female learners make equal use of different language learning strategies.
- **H₀10:** Learners from both urban and rural institutions make equal use of different language learning strategies.
- **H₀11:** Learners used to having instructions in Bangla (in their previous institutions before taking admission at the university) make equal use of different language learning strategies as those used to having instructions in English.
- **H₀12:** Use of different language learning strategies does not vary among learners in terms of their number of siblings.
- **H₀13:** Use of different language learning strategies does not vary among learners in terms of their duration of learning English before taking admission in the university.
- **H₀14:** Use of different language learning strategies does not vary among learners in terms of their parental education.
- **H₀15:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of learners' gender.
- **H₀16:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the medium of instruction (Bangla or English) in the institutions the learner studied before taking admission in the university.
- **H₀17:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the locality of institutions (urban or rural) the learner studied before taking admission in the university.
- **H₀18:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the learner's number of siblings.
- **H₀19:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the duration of learning English by the learner before taking admission in the university.
- **H₀20:** The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the parental education of the learners'.

- **H₀21:** Learner autonomy does not differ significantly in relation to the preferred language learning strategies adopted by learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh.

References

- Abadi, E. A. M., & Baradaran, A. (2013). The relationship between learner autonomy and vocabulary learning strategies in Iranian EFL learners with different language proficiency level. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(3), 176-185.
- Ahmadi, M., & Izadpanah, S. (2019). The Study of Relationship between Learning Autonomy, Language Anxiety, and Thinking Style: The Case of Iranian University Students. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 4(2), 73-88.
- Alhaysony, M. (2017). Language learning strategies use by Saudi EFL students: The effect of duration of English language study and gender. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(1), 18-28.
- Al-Khawlani, A. (2018). The influence of the learning environment on learner autonomy: A comparative study of Polish and Yemeni EFL undergraduate learners. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 15(3), 109-124.
- Begum, J. (2019). Learner Autonomy in EFL/ESL Classrooms in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Practices. *International Journal of Language Education*, 3(1), 12-21.
- Bozkurt, N., & Arslan, F. Y. (2018). Learner autonomy in language learning: Syrian refugee EFL learners' perceptions and readiness. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research*, 8(2), 115-145. doi: 10.17583/remie.2018.3028
- Bristi, N. L. (2015). Exploring Vocabulary Learning Strategies used by Bangladeshi Undergraduate EFL Learners: A Comparative Analysis of Three Proficiency Level Learners. *Global Journal of Human – Social Science: (G) Linguistics & Education*. 15(12), 1-11.
- Chan, V., Spratt, M., & Humphreys, G. (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviours. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 16(1), 1-18.
- Chang, C., & Liu, H. (2013). Language Learning Strategy Use and Language Learning Motivation of Taiwanese EFL University Students. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*. 10(2), 196-209.
- Chinpakdee, M. (2020). Developing learner autonomy in language learning: A study in the Thai EFL secondary school context. Retrieved from: <http://researcharchive.vuw.ac.nz/handle/10063/9045>

- Cotterall, S. (1999). Key variables in language learning: What do learners believe about them? *System*, 27(4), 493-513.
- Dawadi, S. (2017). Language learning strategies profiles of EFL learners in Nepal. *European Journal of Educational and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 42-55.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language teaching research*, 2(3), 203-229.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gieve, S., & Clark, R. (2005). The Chinese approach to learning: Cultural trait or situated response? The case of a self-directed learning programme. *System*, 33(2), 261-276.
- Hadi, H. U. R., & Guo, X. (2020). A survey of beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies adopted by EFL learners at Shaikh Zayed University. *Cogent Education*, 7(1), 1829803. doi:10.1080/2331186x.2020.1829
- Holden, B., & Usuki, M. (1999). Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: A Preliminary Investigation. *Bulletin of Hokuriku University*, 23, 191-203.
- Iamudom, T., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2020). A Comparison Study of Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies among Thai EFL Learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(2), 199-212. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13214a>
- Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner perceptions and teacher beliefs about learner autonomy in language learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 16(1-2), 12-29.
- Kavanoz, S. H. (2006). An Exploratory study of English language teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about learner-centeredness. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5(2), 3-8.
- Khan, M. F. R. (2017). Role of Learner Autonomy in Choosing Learning Strategies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL): Bangladesh Perspective. *RENOVA*, 3(1), 39-50.
- Khan, M. F. R. (2012). Language learning strategies: A study of teacher and learner perceptions. *BUP Journal*, 1(1), 140-153.
- Le, Q. X. (2013). *Fostering learner autonomy in language learning in tertiary education: an intervention study of university students in Hochiminh City, Vietnam* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nottingham).
- Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 71-94.
- Liu, H. (2015). Use of Learning Strategies by EFL Learners: A Study of How It Relates to Language Proficiency and Learner Autonomy. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 5(2), 21-35.

- Manurung, K. (2005). Instructing language learning strategies to promote autonomous learning. *Indonesian JELT: Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 66-90.
- Ng, S. F., & Confessore, G. J. (2010). The relationship of multiple learning styles to levels of learner autonomy. *International Journal of Self-directed Learning*, 7(1), 1-13.
- Palfreyman, D. (2003). Introduction: Culture and learner autonomy. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (pp. 1-19). New York: MacMillan.
- Rahimi, M., Riazi, A., & Saif, S. (2008). An investigation into the factors affecting the use of language learning strategies by Persian EFL learners. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 31-60.
- Ranjan, R. (2018). *LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES: ITS ROLE IN LEARNING OF SPANISH IN INDIAN UNIVERSITIES*. Conference Proceedings. LSCAC 2018 International Conference. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ranjeeva_Ranjan/publication/333994330_1_language_learning_strategies_its_role_in_learning_of_spanish_in_indian_universities/links/5d11a8b9a6fdcc2462a353c1/language-learning-strategies-its-role-in-learning-of-spanish-in-indian-universities.pdf
- Reeve, J. (2006). Teachers as facilitators: What autonomy-supportive teachers do and why their students benefit. *The Elementary School Journal*, 106(3), 225-236.
- Rezalou, A. (2014). *Strategies to develop student autonomy and their relation with foreign language achievement* (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey. Retrieved from: <http://openaccess.hacettepe.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11655/1938/8/6fb6825-ba9f-4da2-a8ac-1466328d980b.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Samaie, M., Khany, R., & Habibi, N. (2015). On the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies among Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 6(2), 96-109.
- Smith R., Kuchah K., Lamb M. (2018) Learner Autonomy in Developing Countries. In: Chik A., Aoki N., Smith R. (eds) *Autonomy in Language Learning and Teaching*. Palgrave Pivot, London.
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: Which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6(3), 245-266.
- Szocs, K. (2017). Teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning autonomy and its implications in the classroom: A mixed method study. *Apples: Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 11(2), 125-145.

- Thang, S. M. (2005). Investigating Malaysian distance learners' perceptions of their English proficiency courses. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 20(3), 243-256.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Sherwani, S. (2018). An Analysis of the Relationship among EFL Learners' Autonomy, Self-esteem, and Choice of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(8), 933-947.
- Tran, T. Q. (2020). EFL students' attitudes towards learner autonomy in English vocabulary learning. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, 3(2), 86-94.
- Tsan, S. C. (2008). Analysis of English Learning Strategies of Taiwanese Students at National Taiwan Normal University. *Educational Journal of Thailand*, 2(1), 84-94.
- Üstünlüoğlu, E. (2009). Autonomy in language learning: Do students take responsibility for their learning?. *Journal of Theory & Practice in Education (JTPE)*, 5(2), 148-169.
- Van Han, N. (2018). Learner autonomy: an experimental study of language learning strategies, learning attitudes and motivation through computer assisted language learning (CALL) among Vietnamese college students (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern Queensland). Retrieved from: <https://eprints.usq.edu.au/34835/>
- White, C. (1999). Expectations and emergent beliefs of self-instructed language learners. *System*, 27(4), 443-457.
- Yasmin, M., & Sohail, A. (2018). A creative alliance between learner autonomy and English language learning: Pakistani University teachers' beliefs. *Creativity Studies*, 11(1), 1-9.
- Yildirim, O. (2012). A Study on a Group of Indian English as a Second Language Learners' Perceptions of Autonomous Learning. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 3(2), 18-29.
- Yilmaz, K. (2007). Learner-centred instruction as a means to realise democratic education: The problems and constraints confronting learner-centred instruction in Turkey. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development*, 4(3), 15-28.
- Zakari, N. L., Abd Aziz, A., & Ramayah, K. (2017). Language learning strategies and learner autonomy in learning Japanese. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9(3), 50-60.

Chapter III	Methods and Procedure	71
3.1	Methods	71
3.1.1	Design of the study	71
3.1.2	Population	72
3.1.3	Sample	72
3.1.4	Description of variables	74
3.1.5	Instruments of data collection	76
3.2	Procedures	79
3.2.1	Collection of Data	79
3.2.2	Quality of Data	80
3.2.3	Analysis of Data	80
	References	81

Chapter III Methods and Procedure

Research methodology describes the comprehensive processes of collection and analysis of data and the systematic solution of the research problem. This chapter is divided into two parts: Methods and Procedure. The methods part is further divided into design of the study, population and sample, description of variables, and instruments. The procedure part, on the other hand, is divided into collection, quality, and analysis of data.

3.1 Methods

The main purpose of this study is to assess the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among tertiary EFL learners in Bangladesh. Therefore, the researcher conducted a survey in ten major universities in Bangladesh. Samples were chosen using the convenience sampling method to ensure they resemble a proper representation of the whole.

3.1.1 Design of the Study

Research designs are “plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis” (Creswell, 2009). A Cross-sectional survey design provides a quantitative description of beliefs, trends, attitudes, opinion or values of a population by studying a sample pooled from that population. Learner autonomy and learning strategy are such types of constructs which are better comprehended by self-reporting using valid and reliable instruments at a given time framework. This study follows the steps of a cross-sectional survey design that quantitatively measures the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among learners studying EFL in tertiary level in Bangladesh, as well as provides a quantitative analysis and interpretation on the same.

3.1.2 Population

Learners who were learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in different universities in Bangladesh and have studied English for at least one year before taking admission in the university were considered as the target population of the study. At the time of the present study, the total number of universities in Bangladesh was 104 – including 49 public (UGC, Bangladesh, 2021b) and 107 private universities (UGC, Bangladesh, 2021a). Out of the approximately 4,54,530 learners studying in those 49 public universities, approximately 10,000, who were learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), were considered as the population of this study.

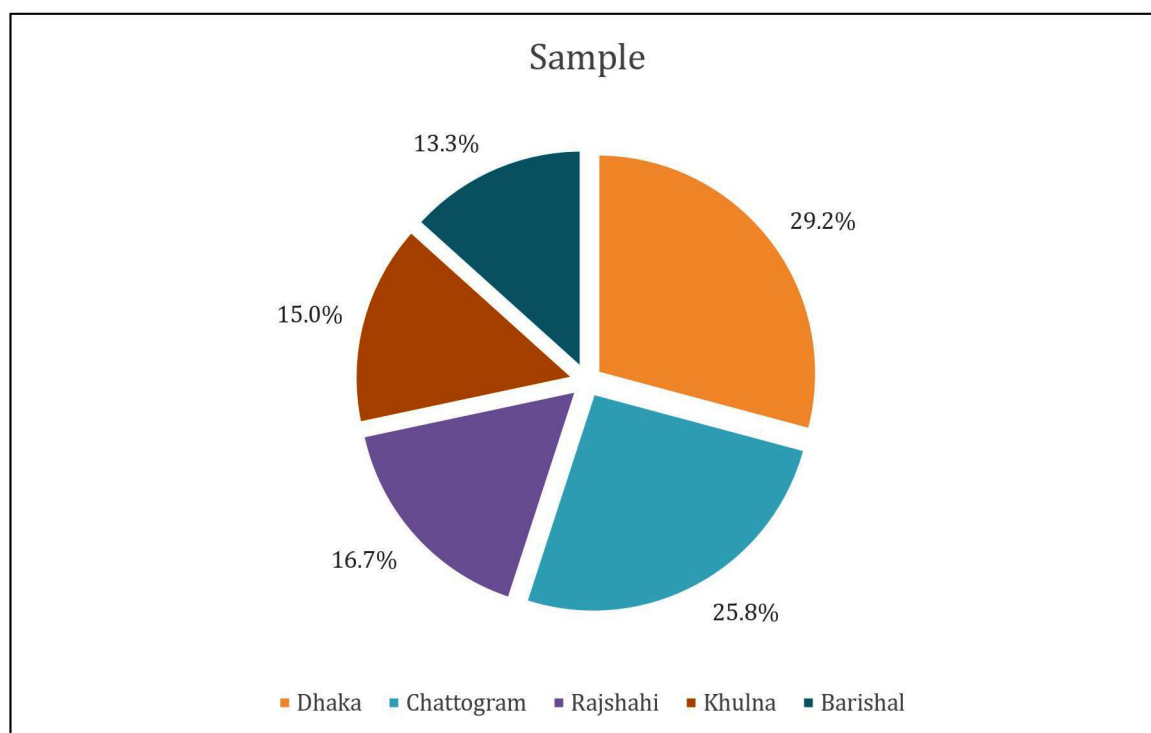
3.1.3 Sample

A representative sample size of the population is required for conducting any quantitative. Using the sampling error formula, taking confidence level = 95% and confidence interval = 5, the required sample size for more than 10,000 learners is 370. However, the sample of the present study consisted of 1200 (more than threefold of the required sample size) learners from the ten public universities in Dhaka, Chattogram, Rajshahi, Khulna, and Barishal. Therefore, it is assumed to be a good representation of the entire population of learners learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the undergraduate level in the aforementioned divisions in Bangladesh. Purposive method was opted to select universities from among these five divisions; and learners were selected using the convenience sampling method. The following table represents the sample distribution by divisions:

Table 3.1
Sample Distribution by divisions

Division	No. of Sample	Percentage of Total
Dhaka	350	29.16%
Chattogram	310	25.83%
Rajshahi	200	16.66%
Khulna	180	15%
Barishal	160	13.33%
Total	1200	100%

Figure 3.1
Pie Chart showing sample distribution by divisions



3.1.4 Description of variables

The following independent and dependent variables were taken into consideration in this study:

- Independent variables –
 - 1) Gender – *Two categories were considered, i.e., male and female;*
 - 2) Medium of instruction – *Two languages as mediums of instruction, viz. Bangla and English, were considered;*
 - 3) Locality of institution - *Two types of locality were considered, i.e., rural and urban;*
 - 4) Number of sibling(s) – *Five categories were considered, i.e., no sibling, one sibling, two siblings, three siblings, and more than three siblings;*
 - 5) Duration of learning English before taking admission in university – This indicates the number of years a learner had learnt English before taking admission in the university. *Three tenures were considered, i.e., between 1 and 3 years, between 4 and 6 years, and more than 6 years; and*
 - 6) Parental education - *Five levels were considered, viz. illiterate, primary, secondary, higher secondary and graduate.*
- Dependent variables –
 - Learner autonomy; and
 - Language learning strategy – *Six types of strategies were considered, i.e., Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, and Social.*

Figure 3.2
Thematic diagram of variables

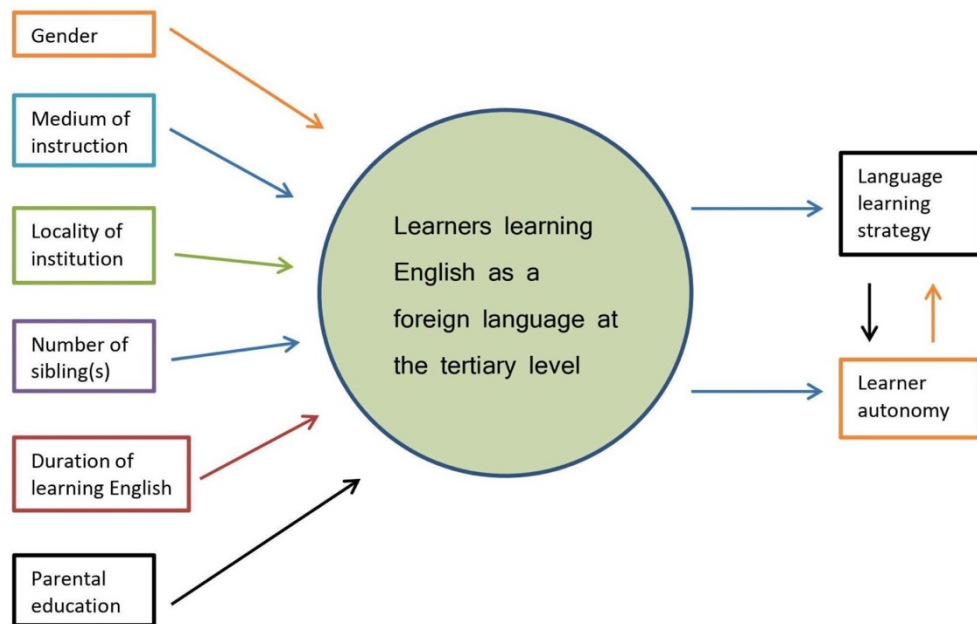


Table 3.2
Sample distribution by Levels of Independent Variables

Sl. No.	Variable	Levels	N	Percentage
1.	Gender	Male	566	47.2
		Female	634	52.8
2.	Medium of instruction	Bengali	711	59.2
		English	489	40.8
3.	Locality of institution	Rural	113	9.4
		Urban	1087	90.6
4.	Number of sibling(s)	No Sibling	2	.2
		One Sibling	181	15.1
		Two Siblings	541	45.1
		Three Siblings	373	31.1
		> Three Siblings	103	8.6
5.	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university	1 – 3 Years	109	9.1
		4 – 6 Years	210	17.5
		> 6 Years	881	73.4
6.	Parental education	Illiterate	3	.3
		Primary	12	1
		Secondary	332	27.7
		Higher Secondary	685	57.1
		Graduate	168	14

3.1.5 Instruments for data collection

The present study used two main instruments for collecting data:

- **Instrument 1:** Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1989)

The SILL is the most frequently used instrument to accumulate data in second/foreign language research around the globe. Therefore, relying on its global standard and its comprehensive coverage of the language learning strategies, it was decided to use this SILL as one of the instruments in the current study. The aim was to assess the participants' use of the language learning strategies and to raise their awareness of the existence and the use of the same.

The SILL is divided into four parts: the questionnaire, an answer script, a result profile script, and a descriptive classification of the learning strategies. However, the learners were provided with only the questionnaire and the answer script in this study.

There are six groups of learning strategies in the SILL:

Part A: Memory strategies, also known as mnemonics, are strategies commonly related to the process of storing, remembering, and retrieving information. They include simple principles like reviewing, creating links, putting things in proper order etc. Such activities are meaningful to the individual learners in their own contexts. The SILL comprises of 9 items in this Memory strategy category.

Part B: Cognitive strategies are the essential mental processes required in learning a new language and they involve various strategies like analysing, repeating, summarizing etc. The learner manipulates and transforms the target language through such strategies. This strategy category includes 14 items and makes the largest portion in the SILL. It covers deep processing and practice-related strategies that help learners monitor new information and evaluate comprehension.

Part C: Compensation strategies compensate for learners' lack of adequate knowledge in the target language in a discourse. These include strategies like guessing meaning from the context, using gestures or synonyms to convey meaning with limited skills in the target language etc. The SILL comprises of 6 items in this Compensation strategy category.

Part D: Metacognitive strategies connote to strategies that occur beside, beyond, or in addition to the cognitive ones. These actions immerse beyond the basic cognitive mechanisms and enable learners to synchronize their learning processes. There are 9 items under Metacognitive strategies in the SILL.

Part E: Affective strategies enable learners in having control over factors like motivation, attitude, emotion etc. that can affect their learning processes. These enable them regulate their learning through various strategies like reducing anxiety, motivating themselves, showing positive attitude towards learning, encouraging oneself through rewards for successful learning etc. The SILL includes 6 items under Affective strategies.

Part F: Social strategies include interacting with others to develop an understanding of the target language and its culture, asking relevant questions and seeking assistance, cooperating with others, partnering with a native speaker to practice speaking the target language and empathizing with others culturally. The SILL comprises of 6 items under Social strategies.

Scoring: The SILL is a self-report questionnaire that employs a 5-point Likert scale response consisting of Never true of me = 1, Usually not true of me = 2, Somewhat true of me = 3, Usually true of me = 4, and Always true of me = 5; with the higher scores corresponding to higher levels of strategy possession. The total 50 items in the scale are all phrased in the positive and therefore the scoring is affirmative with the earlier mentioned.

The scale is inclusive of the six subsets representing one type of learning strategy each. The items of each learning strategy are grouped in the questionnaire to make it easy for responding. The following table indicates strategy-wise distribution of items in the SILL.

Table 3.3
Strategy-wise item distribution in the SILL

Sl. No.	Strategy subset	Total Items	Item Numbers	Maximum Score
1	Memory Strategies	9	1-9	45
2	Cognitive Strategies	14	10-23	70
3	Compensation Strategies	6	24-29	30
4	Metacognitive Strategies	9	30-38	45
5	Affective Strategies	6	39-44	30
6	Social Strategies	6	45-50	30
Total		50	1-50	250

The original English version of the SILL scale demonstrated a high Cronbach's α (914) = 0.90 (Park, 2011). The individual constructs of the scale also displayed satisfactory level of reliability (*Memory* = .69, *Cognitive* = .75, *Compensation* = .43, *Metacognitive* = .78, *Affective* = .45, *Social* = .70).

The detail of the instrument is given on Appendix 1.

- **Instrument 2:** Learner Autonomy Scale (Zhang & Li, 2004)

This 21-item self-reporting scale was developed by Zhang and Li (2004) for assessing and comparing learner autonomy among Chinese and West European learners. The original scale was developed in English and it consists of two sections. The first part includes 11 items, categorizing responses in a five point Likert scale ranging from Never = 1 to Always = 5. The second part consists of 10 items, eliciting five responses of different types each. The responses are marked by alphabets a, b, c, d, and e where the scoring is a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4, and e = 5. All the items in both the sections are phrased in positive. The maximum possible score in this scale is 105 (21 x 5), where higher scores indicate more autonomous learner.

The detail of the instrument is given on Appendix 2.

- **Instrument 3: Basic Information Schedule**

As a repertoire of participants' background facilitates a better understanding of their learning behaviour, a schedule of required information about the learners was prepared and placed with the main instruments. This schedule seeks information about learner's age, gender, medium of instruction, locality of institution, number of sibling(s), duration of learning English before attending university, and parental education. And as per ethics of research, the name or any other personal identification information of the learner was not collected in the information schedule.

The detail of the instrument is given on Appendix 3.

3.2 Procedures

This section describes the details of administration of the test instruments in order to collect data followed by filtering, tabulation and analysis.

3.2.1 Collection of Data

The whole process of data collection was administered on weekdays during 20th August 2019 to 18th November 2019. On the days of visit to the university campuses, the Heads of the Departments/Institutes of English were approached by the researcher explaining the purpose and the process of the study. The researcher also clarified the confidentiality clauses of the shared information and data and submitted authorization letter for obtaining data issued by the supervisor on behalf of the Department of Education, Jadavpur University. After being forwarded by the competent authority, the researcher received permission from the Chairman or Registrar of those universities. Then the researcher proceeded for the collection of data. A total of 11 universities were approached by the researcher across all the five divisions, among which 10 universities gave consent for obtaining data from their learners. The learners were also informed

about the purpose of the study and requirement of their cooperation. After getting their informal consent, the researcher provided them with all the three instruments. There was no time limit ascribed to the participants for completing the questionnaires. However, about 90% of the participants completed their tasks in about 35 minutes.

3.2.2 Quality of Data

A total of 1254 participants responded to the questionnaires. However, 54 of them either did not complete the questionnaires or provided faulty information and was therefore excluded from the dataset. Data from rest of the 1200 participants were then adopted and considered as units of sample in this study.

3.2.3 Analysis of Data

The researcher used Microsoft Excel 2019 for tabulation and IBM SPSS version 20 for analysis of data in relation to variables. Descriptive statistics indicating Percentage analysis and Mean and Standard deviation was used to comprehend the characteristics of the sample. Graphical representation was illustrated through Bar, Stacked and Line diagrams in order to make a clear representation of the learners' preference and use of learning strategies in relation to their learner autonomy in terms of different independent variables. Moreover, Independent sample T-tests, One-way ANOVA, and Chi-square goodness of fit, and Chi-square test of Independence were also employed for a better analysis and understanding of statistics in this regard.

References

- Park, G.-P. (2011). The Validation Process of the SILL: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4), p21. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n4p21>
- UGC, Bangladesh. (2021a). *Http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/private-universities*. UGC, Bangladesh. <http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/private-universities>
- UGC, Bangladesh. (2021b). *List of Public Universities*. UGC, Bangladesh. <http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/public-universities>
- Zhang, L., & Li, X. (2004). A comparative study on learner autonomy between chinese students and west European students. *Foreign Language World*, 4, 15–23.

Chapter IV

4.1

4.2

Result and Interpretation

Descriptive Statistics

Inferential Statistics

References

82

82

125

144

Chapter IV Result and Interpretation

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part represents the *descriptive statistics*, i.e., the Mean and Standard deviation, calculated to find out variations in the use of learning strategies, learner autonomy, and combination of both the dependent variables in relation to the different explanatory or independent variables. Graphical illustration was made through Bar, Stacked, and Line diagrams in order to provide a better understanding of the descriptive nature of these current data.

The second part represents the *inferential statistics*, i.e., the Chi-square goodness of fit test, Chi-square test of independence, Pearson's coefficient of correlation, Independent samples t-test, and One-way ANOVA, computed in order to draw inferences about the population of learners learning English as a Foreign Language at the tertiary level in Bangladesh. All the analyses and graphical representation has been made using Microsoft Excel 2019 and IBM SPSS 20 software.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Preference of Language learning strategies: frequency distribution

As the number of items attached with individual subset of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) scale was different, the score in each subset (each of the six learning strategies) of the SILL was converted into percentage. Whichever subset a learner has scored highest percentage in, is considered his/her preferred learning strategy. The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies among the respondents:

Table 4.1

Rank of the language learning strategies preferred by learners

Learning Strategies	No. of students	Percentage	Rank
Memory	334	27.8	1
Metacognitive	269	22.4	2
Social	218	18.2	3
Affective	144	12	4
Compensation	142	11.8	5
Cognitive	93	7.8	6
Total	1200	100	

The frequency count of learning strategies shows that the majority of the learners (27.8%) preferred Memory strategies and only 7.8% of the learners preferred Cognitive strategies under the present study. Metacognitive and Social strategies were also found to be popular among the learners in this context.

Language learning strategies and gender

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of gender

Table 4.2

Frequency count of preferred language learning strategies and gender

Preferred Learning Strategies * Gender				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	159	175	334
	Cognitive	42	51	93
	Compensation	70	72	142
	Metacognitive	134	135	269
	Affective	52	92	144
	Social	109	109	218
Total		566	634	1200

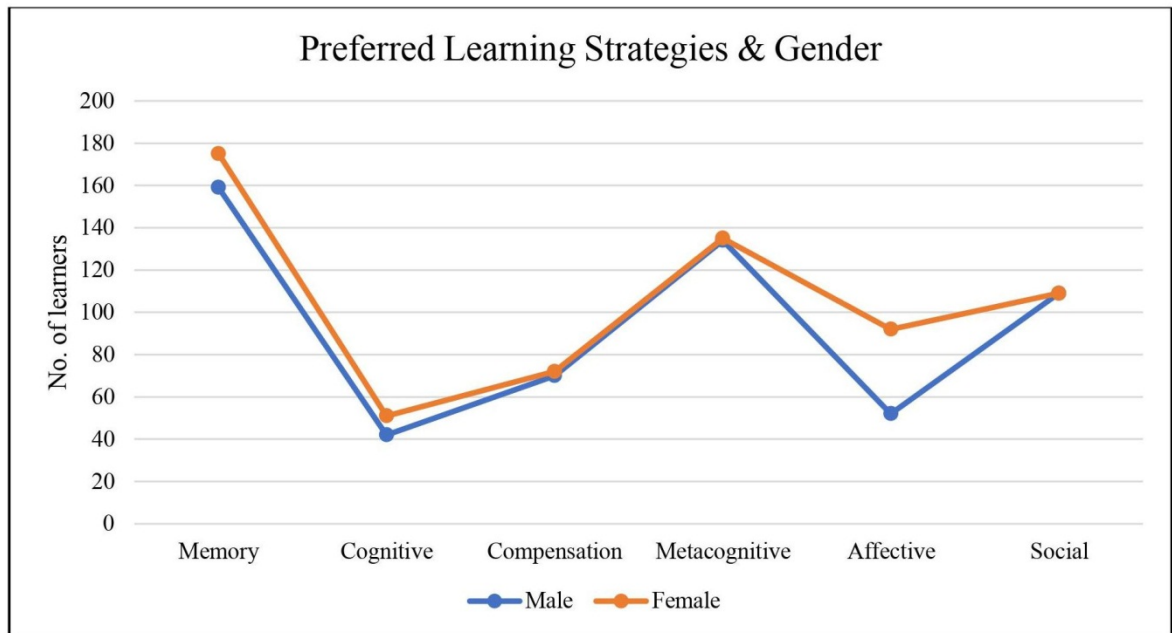
Descriptive analysis found that, majority of male (n=159, 28.09% of all males) and female (n=175, 27.60% of all females) learners prioritized Memory strategies in learning English. On the other hand, Cognitive strategies were found to be the least preferred, with only 7.42% of the male and 8.04% of the female

learners pursuing the same. However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also preferred by a good number of learners among males and females.

The following figure illustrates a gender wise variation in relation to the preference of language learning strategies:

Figure 4.1

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of gender



Language learning strategies and number of siblings

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s):

Table 4.3

Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and number of sibling(s)

Preferred Learning Strategies * No. of Sibling(s)							
		No. of Sibling(s)					Total
		No Sibling	One Sibling	Two Siblings	Three Siblings	More than three siblings	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	0	50	166	97	21	334
	Cognitive	0	13	43	31	6	93
	Compensation	0	17	68	40	17	269
	Metacognitive	1	43	125	78	22	142
	Affective	0	26	52	58	8	144
	Social	1	32	87	69	29	218
Total		2	181	541	373	103	1200

Descriptive analysis shows that learners who had no siblings mostly preferred Memory strategies (n=1, 50% of the total respondents) and Social strategies (n=1, 50% of the total respondents). The other strategies, however, were not used by these learners.

On the other hand, learners who had one sibling used Memory strategies the most (n=50, 2.76% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=13, 0.71% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners who had one sibling.

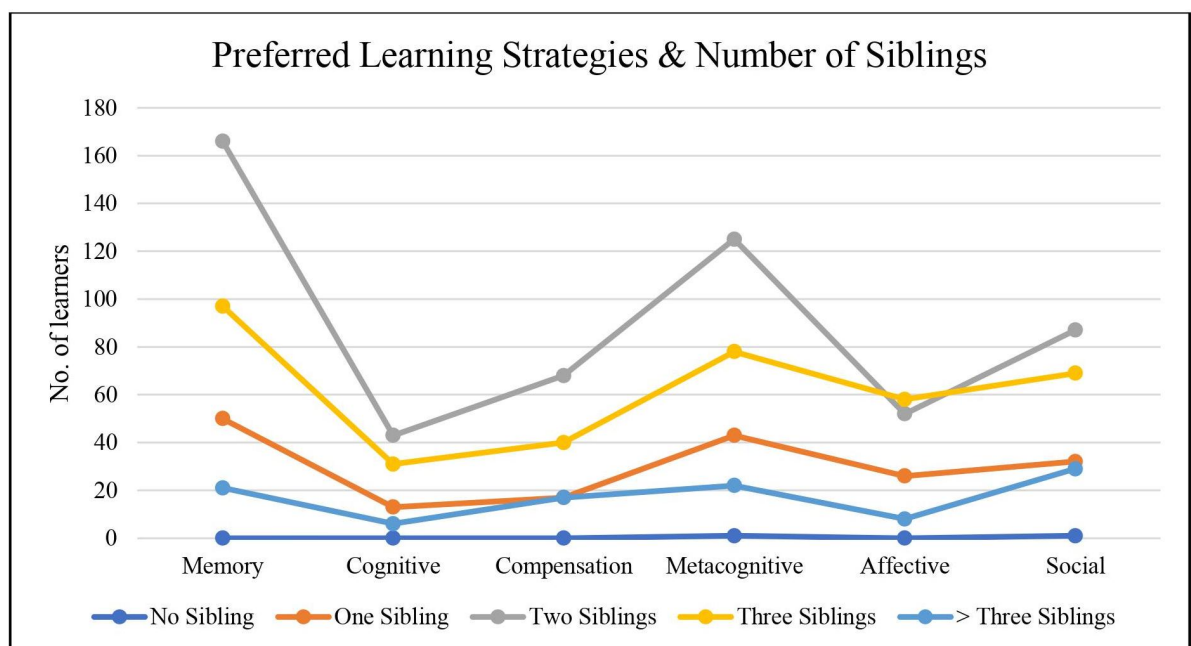
Similarly, also learners with two siblings liked Memory strategies the most (n=166, 30.68% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=43, 7.94% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners belonging to this group.

Again, similar results came out with learners having three siblings. They also preferred Memory strategies the most (n=97, 26.00% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=31, 8.31% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category.

However, findings were a little bit different with learners having more than three siblings. Their top preference was the Social strategies (n=29, 28.15% of total respondents) and least was the Cognitive strategies (n=6, 5.82% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Memory strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category. The following figure illustrates the variations in preference of language learning strategies in terms of the number of siblings of the learners.

Figure 4.2

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s)



Language learning strategies and locality of institution

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of locality of institution:

Table 4.4

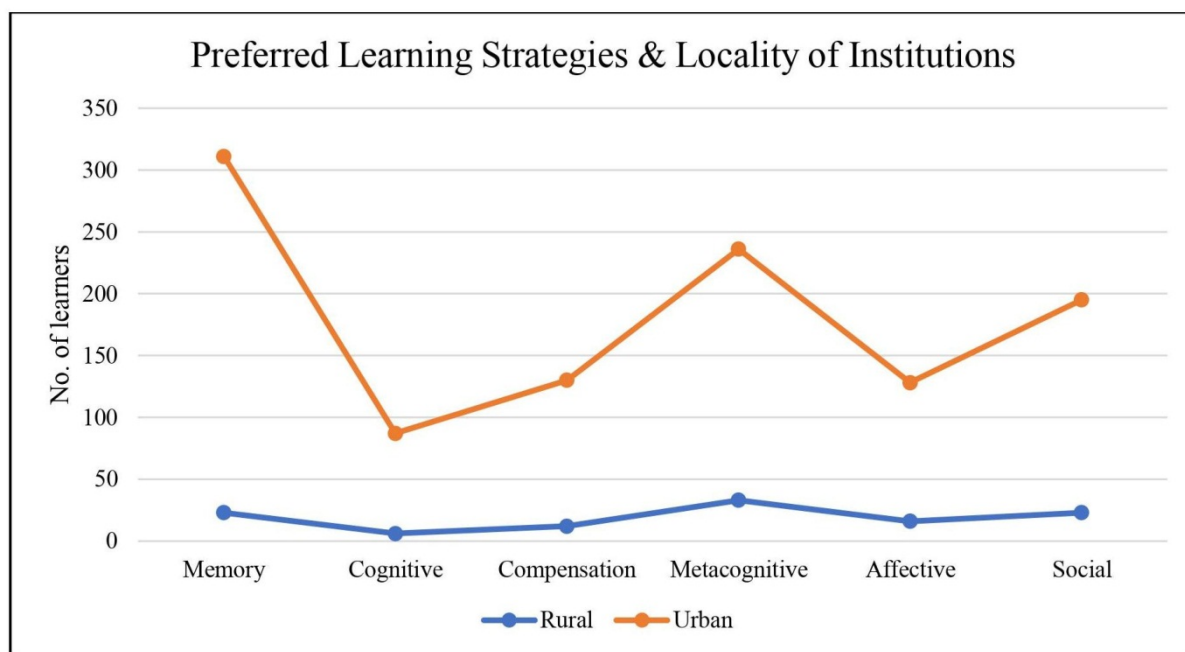
Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and locality of institution

Preferred Learning Strategies * Locality of institution				
		Locality of institution		Total
		Rural	Urban	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	23	311	334
	Cognitive	6	87	93
	Compensation	12	130	142
	Metacognitive	33	236	269
	Affective	16	128	144
	Social	23	195	218
Total		113	1087	1200

Descriptive analysis shows that learners who studied in urban institutions before taking admission in the university prioritized Memory strategies the most (n=311, 28.61% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=87, 8.00% of total respondents). On the other hand, learners from rural institutions liked Metacognitive strategies the most (n=33, 29.20% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=6, 5.30% of total respondents). However, learners from both these institutions also made good use of Metacognitive and Social strategies. The following figure illustrates the variations in preference of language learning strategies in terms of the locality of institutions

Figure 4.3

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of locality of institution



Language learning strategies and medium of instruction

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction:

Table 4.5

Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and medium of instruction

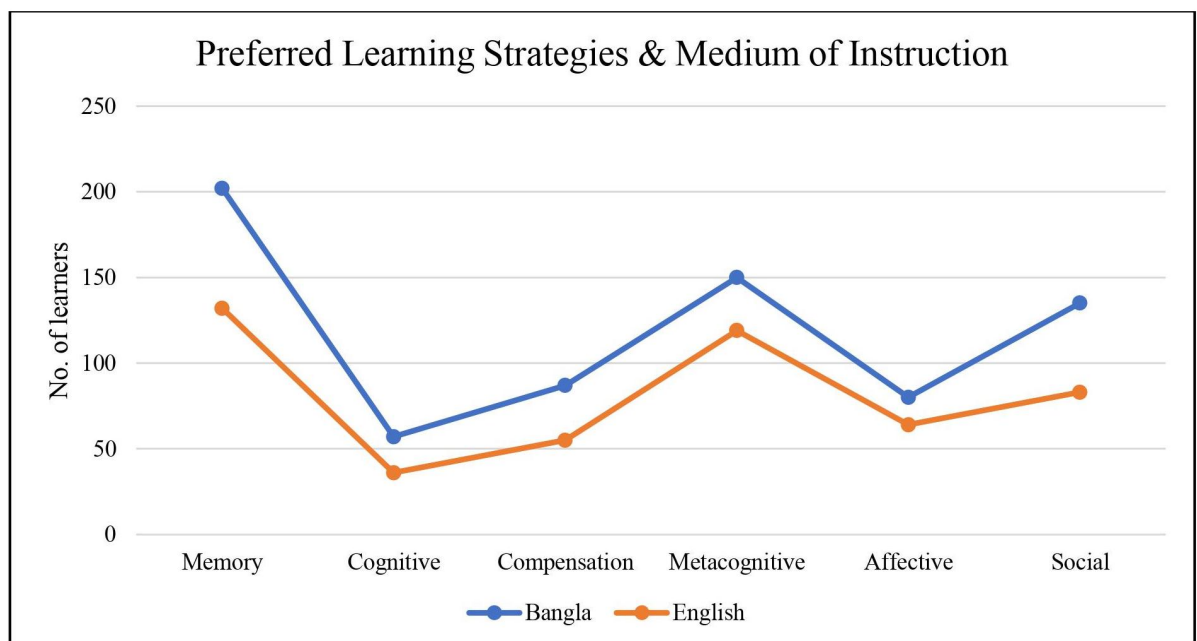
Preferred Learning Strategies * Medium of Instruction				
		Medium of Instruction		Total
		Bangla	English	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	202	132	334
	Cognitive	57	36	93
	Compensation	87	55	142
	Metacognitive	150	119	269
	Affective	80	64	144
	Social	135	83	218
Total		711	489	1200

Descriptive analysis shows that learners who, before taking admission in the university, studied in institutions where the medium of instruction was English preferred Memory strategies the most (n=132, 26.99% of total respondents), and

Cognitive strategies the least (n=36, 7.36% of total respondents). Similarly, learners who studied in institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla also prioritized Memory strategies the most (n=202, 28.41% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=57, 8.01% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also practised by a good number of learners from both the groups. The following figure illustrates the variations in preference of language learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction:

Figure 4.4

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction



Language learning strategies and duration of learning English before taking admission in university

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university:

Table 4.6

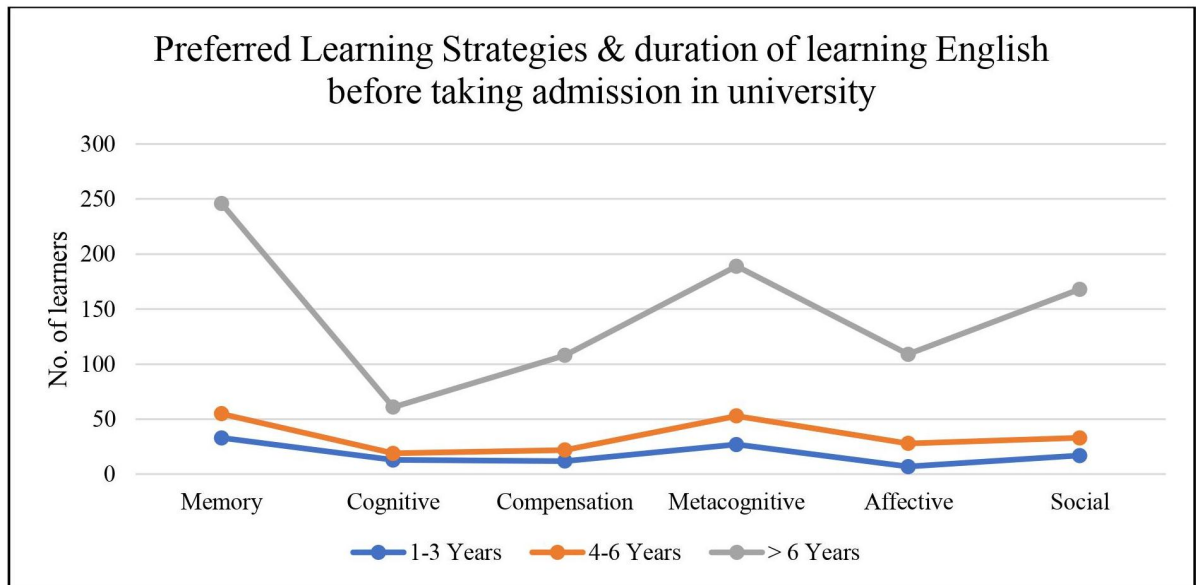
Frequency count of preferred learning strategies and duration of learning English before taking admission in university

Preferred Learning Strategies * Duration of learning English before taking admission in university					
		Duration of learning English before taking admission in university			Total
		1-3 Years	4-6 Years	Above 6 Years	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	33	55	246	334
	Cognitive	13	19	61	93
	Compensation	12	22	108	142
	Metacognitive	27	53	189	269
	Affective	7	28	109	144
	Social	17	33	168	218
Total		109	210	881	1200

Descriptive analysis shows learners who learnt English for 1-3 years before taking admission in university used Memory strategies the most (n=33, 30.27% of total respondents), and Affective strategies the least (n=7, 6.42% of total respondents). On the other hand, learners who learnt English for 4-6 years prefer Memory strategies the most (n=55, 26.19% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=19, 9.04% of total respondents). Similarly, learners who learnt English for more than 6 years also prioritized Memory strategies the most (n=246, 27.92% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=61, 6.92% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners irrespective of their duration of learning English before taking admission in university. The following figure illustrates the variations in preference of language learning strategies in terms of the locality of institutions:

Figure 4.5

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university



Language learning strategies and parental education

The following table represents the preference of the language learning strategies in terms of parental education

Table 4.7

Frequency count of preferred learning strategy and parental education

Preferred Learning Strategies * Parental Education							
		Parental Education					Total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduate	
Preferred Learning Strategies	Memory	0	0	93	201	40	334
	Cognitive	0	2	21	55	15	93
	Compensation	1	4	37	82	18	142
	Metacognitive	1	1	78	144	45	269
	Affective	1	1	41	81	20	144
	Social	0	4	62	122	30	218
Total		3	12	332	685	168	1200

Descriptive analysis shows that learners having illiterate parents prefer Compensation strategies (n=1, 33.33% of total respondents), Metacognitive strategies (n=1, 33.33% of total respondents) and Affective strategies (n=1, 33.33% of total respondents). However, the remaining strategies were not used by the learners in this category.

It also shows that learners having parents with up to primary education liked both Compensation strategies (n=4, 33.33% of total respondents) and Social strategies (n=4, 33.33% of total respondents) the most. However, though Memory strategies were not used by the learners in this category, they did use the Cognitive, Metacognitive and the Affective strategies to some extent.

On the other hand, learners having parents with up to secondary education prefer Memory strategies the most (n=93, 28.01% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=21, 6.32% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category.

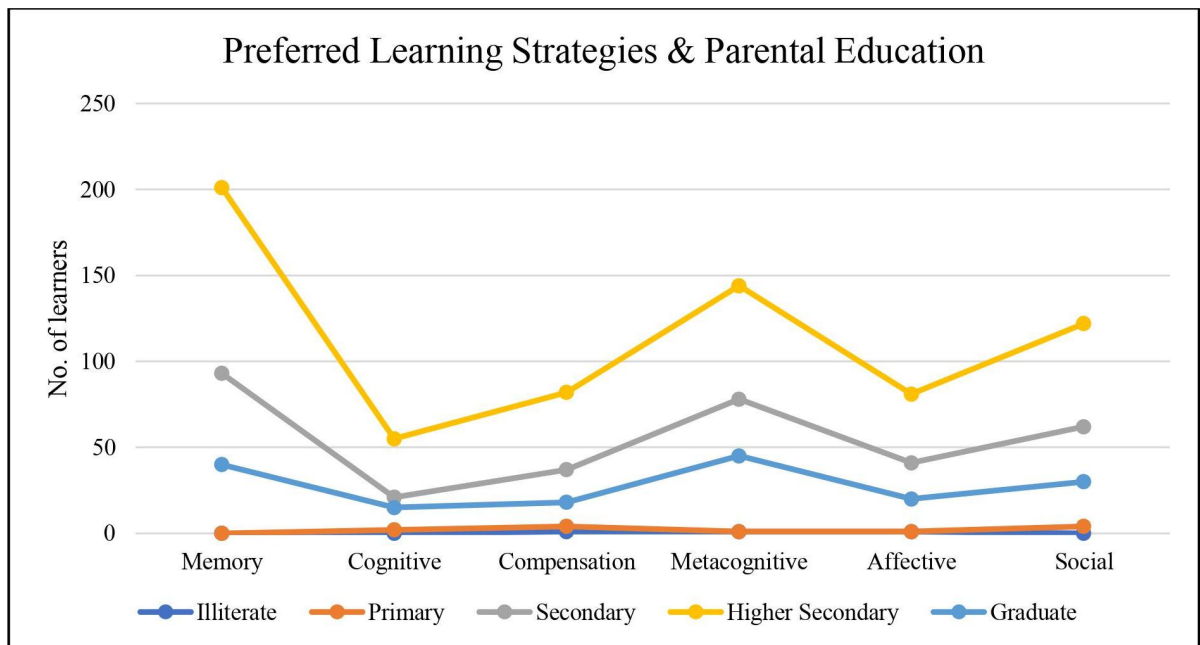
Similarly, also those learners who have parents with up to secondary education use Memory strategies the most (n=201, 29.34% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=55, 8.02% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners falling in this category.

Nonetheless, learners having parents with up to primary education prioritize Metacognitive strategies the most (n=45, 26.78% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=15, 8.92% of total respondents). However, Memory and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category.

The following figure illustrates the variations in preference of language learning strategies in terms of parental education:

Figure 4.6

Line diagram showing variations in preferred learning strategies in terms of parental education



Learning Strategy: measures of central tendency and variability

Gender and learning strategies

Table 4.8

Central tendency and variability: gender & learning strategies

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory (Out of 45)	Male	566	31.01	5.458
		Female	634	31.04	5.295
2.	Cognitive (Out of 70)	Male	566	48.23	8.777
		Female	634	48.20	8.198
3.	Compensation (Out of 30)	Male	566	19.32	4.460
		Female	634	19.26	4.267
4.	Metacognitive (Out of 45)	Male	566	31.83	7.508
		Female	634	31.63	7.060
5.	Affective (Out of 30)	Male	566	18.13	5.093
		Female	634	18.49	5.032
6.	Social (Out of 30)	Male	566	18.79	6.221
		Female	634	18.59	6.076

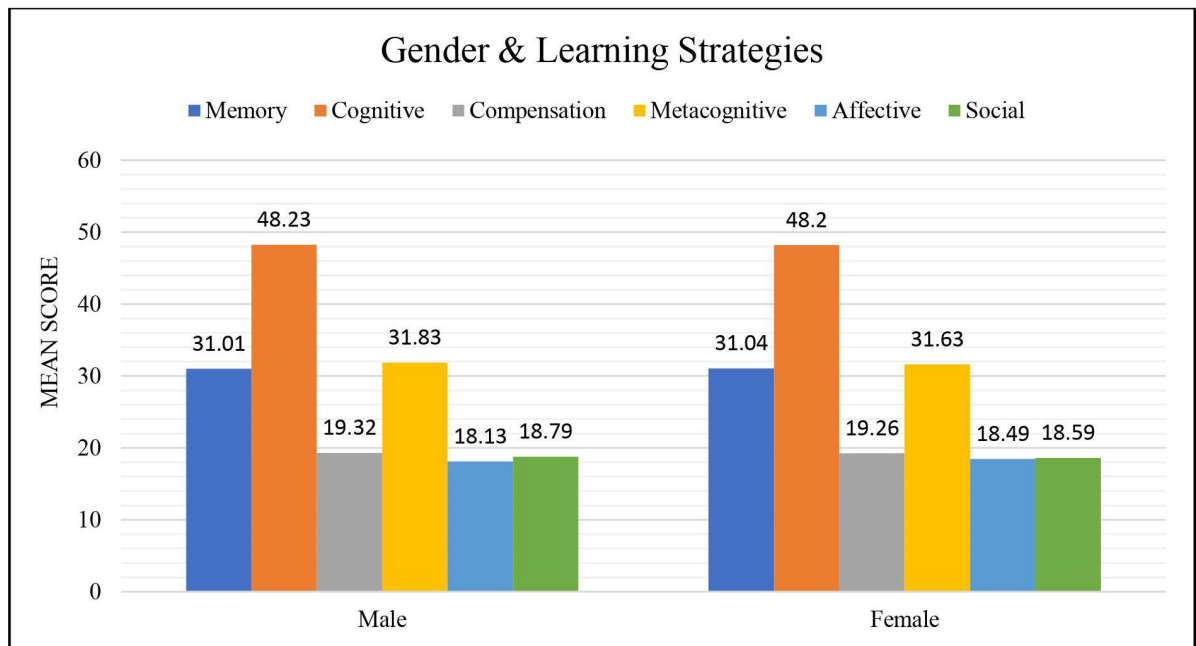
When each learning strategies were taken into account in terms of gender, it was found that female learners made more use of Memory (mean=31.04) and Affective (mean=18.49) strategies than their male (mean: Memory=31.01,

Affective=18.13) counterparts. For rest of the four learning strategies, male learners scored a little higher than the female ones.

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of gender

Figure 4.7

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of gender



Locality of institution and learning strategies

Table 4.9

Central tendency and variability: locality of institution & learning strategies

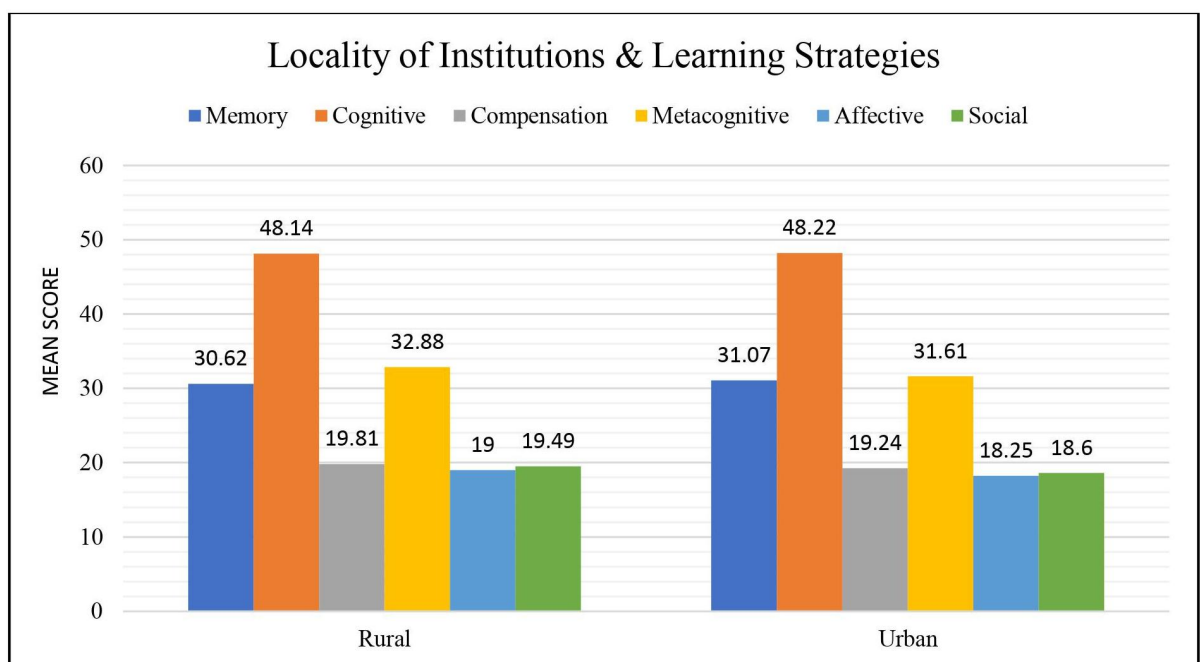
Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Locality of institution	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory (Out of 45)	Rural	113	30.62	5.911
		Urban	1087	31.07	5.312
2.	Cognitive (Out of 70)	Rural	113	48.14	9.791
		Urban	1087	48.22	8.329
3.	Compensation (Out of 30)	Rural	113	19.81	4.584
		Urban	1087	19.24	4.332
4.	Metacognitive (Out of 45)	Rural	113	32.88	8.192
		Urban	1087	31.61	7.164
5.	Affective (Out of 30)	Rural	113	19.00	5.400
		Urban	1087	18.25	5.023
6.	Social (Out of 30)	Rural	113	19.49	6.409
		Urban	1087	18.60	6.112

When each learning strategies were taken into account in terms of locality of institution where they studied before taking admission in university, it was found that learners from institutions in urban areas prioritized Memory (mean: 31.07) and Cognitive (mean: 48.22) strategies than their counterparts (mean: Memory=30.62, Cognitive=48.14) from institutions in rural areas. For rest of the four learning strategies, learners from institutions in rural areas used those more than their counterparts from institutions in urban areas.

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of locality of institution:

Figure 4.8

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of locality of institution



Medium of instruction and learning strategies

Table 4.10

Central tendency and variability: medium of instruction & learning strategy

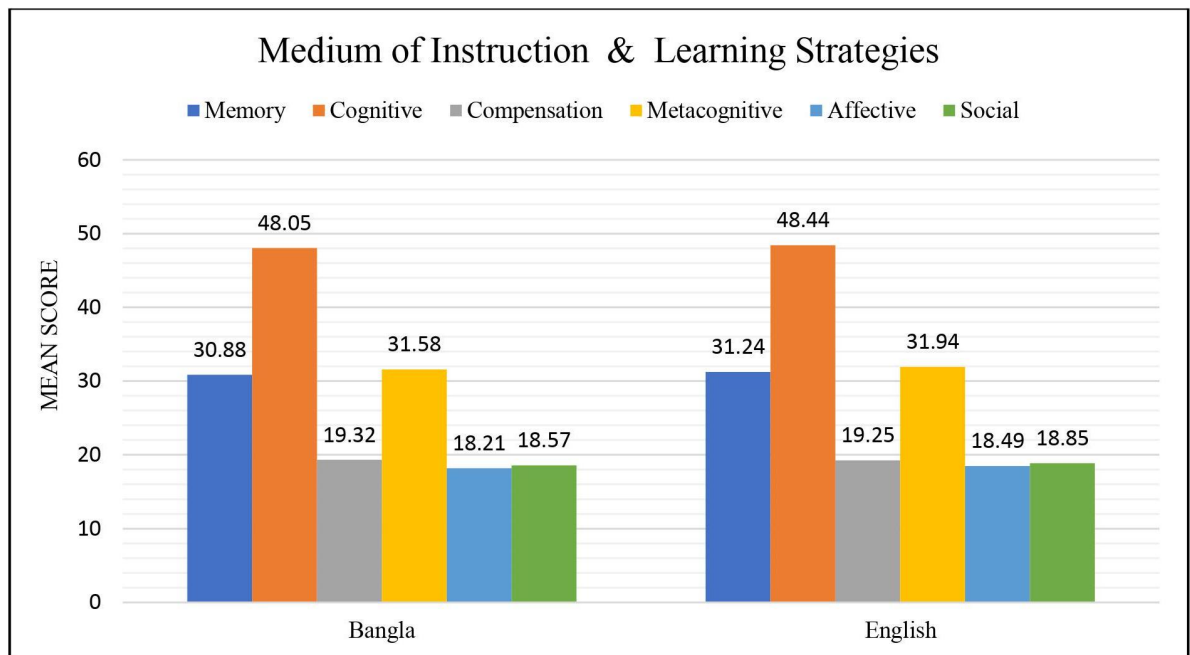
Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Medium of Instruction	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory (Out of 45)	Bangla	711	30.88	5.434
		English	489	31.24	5.275
2.	Cognitive (Out of 70)	Bangla	711	48.05	8.604
		English	489	48.44	8.282
3.	Compensation (Out of 30)	Bangla	711	19.32	4.389
		English	489	19.25	4.314
4.	Metacognitive (Out of 45)	Bangla	711	31.58	7.309
		English	489	31.94	7.221
5.	Affective (Out of 30)	Bangla	711	18.21	5.063
		English	489	18.49	5.062
6.	Social (Out of 30)	Bangla	711	18.57	6.193
		English	489	18.85	6.072

When each learning strategies were taken into account in terms of the medium of instruction that learners had in their previous institutions before taking admission in the university, it was found that learners who had instructions in Bangla made more use of Compensation (mean: 19.32) strategies than those (mean: Compensation=19.25) having instructions in English. For the rest of the five learning strategies, learners having instructions in English made more use of those strategies.

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction:

Figure 4.9

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of medium of instruction



Number of sibling(s) and learning strategies

Table 4.11

Central tendency and variability: number of sibling & learning strategy

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Number of Sibling(s)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory (Out of 45)	No sibling	2	31.50	2.121
		One sibling	181	30.89	5.096
		Two siblings	541	31.66	5.374
		Three siblings	373	30.47	5.343
		> Three siblings	103	29.91	5.617
2.	Cognitive (Out of 70)	No sibling	2	56.00	2.828
		One sibling	181	48.78	8.212
		Two siblings	541	48.62	8.228
		Three siblings	373	47.58	8.750
		> Three siblings	103	47.20	9.054
3.	Compensation (Out of 30)	No sibling	2	19.50	.707
		One sibling	181	19.44	4.465
		Two siblings	541	19.37	4.396
		Three siblings	373	19.05	4.274
		> Three siblings	103	19.49	4.327
4.	Metacognitive (Out of 45)	No sibling	2	35.00	4.243
		One sibling	181	31.95	7.333

		Two siblings	541	31.97	7.251
		Three siblings	373	31.31	7.308
		> Three siblings	103	31.48	7.223
5.	Affective (Out of 30)	No sibling	2	18.50	2.121
		One sibling	181	18.88	5.338
		Two siblings	541	18.28	5.034
		Three siblings	373	18.12	5.031
		> Three siblings	103	18.25	4.872
6.	Social (Out of 30)	No sibling	2	25.50	3.536
		One sibling	181	18.90	6.395
		Two siblings	541	18.71	6.119
		Three siblings	373	18.34	6.196
		> Three siblings	103	19.25	5.597

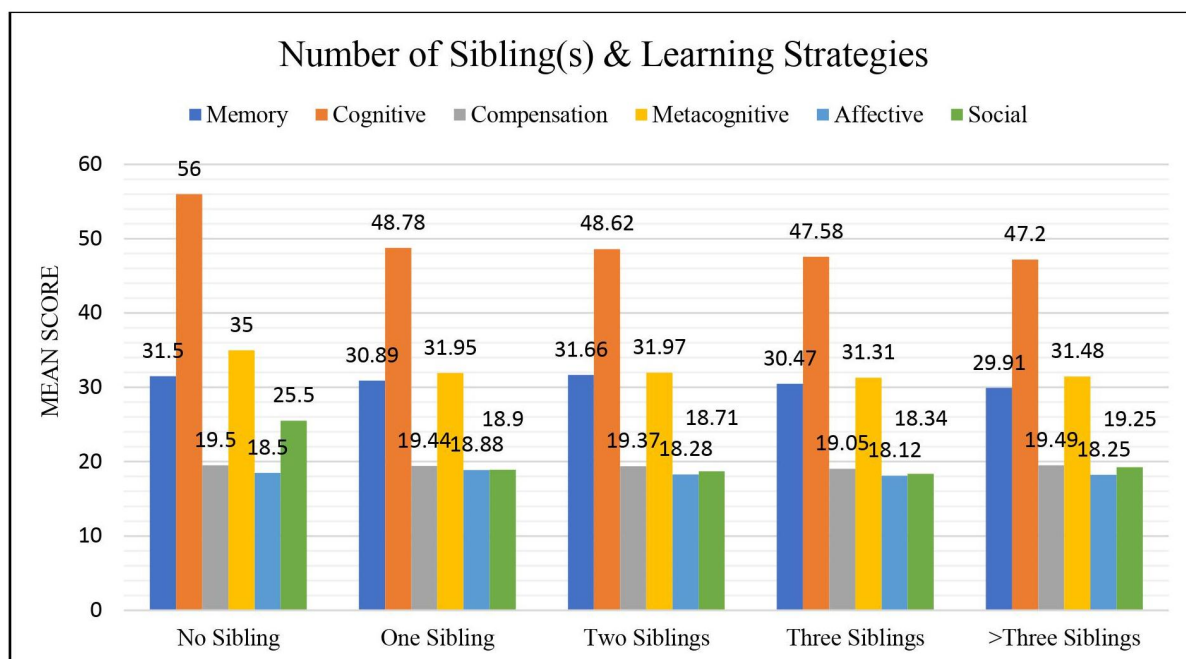
When the use of Memory strategies was concerned, it was found that learners with two siblings used these to a greater extent (mean=31.66, sd=5.374) compared to the others having other number of sibling(s).

However, for Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive and Social strategies, learners with no siblings made more use of these strategies compared to the others having other number of sibling(s).

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s):

Figure 4.10

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of number of sibling(s)



Duration of learning English before taking admission in university and learning strategies

Table 4.12

Duration of learning English before taking admission in university and learning strategies

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory	1 – 3 Years	109	31.45	5.034
		4 – 6 Years	210	30.85	5.269
		> 6 Years	881	31.01	5.437
2.	Cognitive	1 – 3 Years	109	48.38	8.047
		4 – 6 Years	210	48.78	8.913
		> 6 Years	881	48.06	8.420
3.	Compensation	1 – 3 Years	109	19.22	4.332
		4 – 6 Years	210	19.62	4.335
		> 6 Years	881	19.22	4.367
4.	Metacognitive	1 – 3 Years	109	31.72	7.328
		4 – 6 Years	210	32.19	7.411
		> 6 Years	881	31.62	7.236
5.	Affective	1 – 3 Years	109	17.72	4.880
		4 – 6 Years	210	18.65	5.168
		> 6 Years	881	18.32	5.058

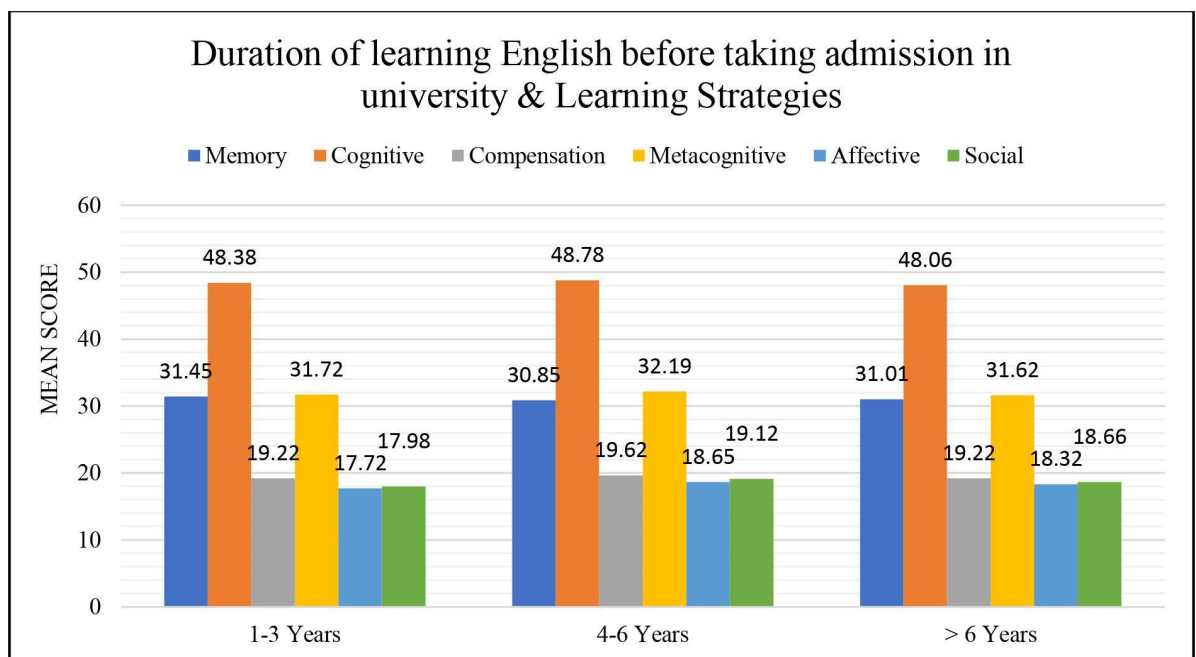
6.	Social	1 – 3 Years	109	17.98	5.921
		4 – 6 Years	210	19.12	6.007
		> 6 Years	881	18.66	6.200

When each learning strategies were taken into account in terms of learners' duration of learning English before taking admission in university, it was found that learners who learnt English for 1-3 years made more use of Memory (mean: 31.45) strategies than their counterparts who learnt English for 4-6 years (mean: 30.85) and > 6 years (mean: 31.01). However, learners who learnt English for 4-6 years made more use of the remaining five learning strategies than their counterparts who learnt English for 1-3 years and > 6 years.

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university:

Figure 4.11

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategy in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university



Parental education and learning strategies

Table 4.13

Central tendency and variability: parental education & learning strategies

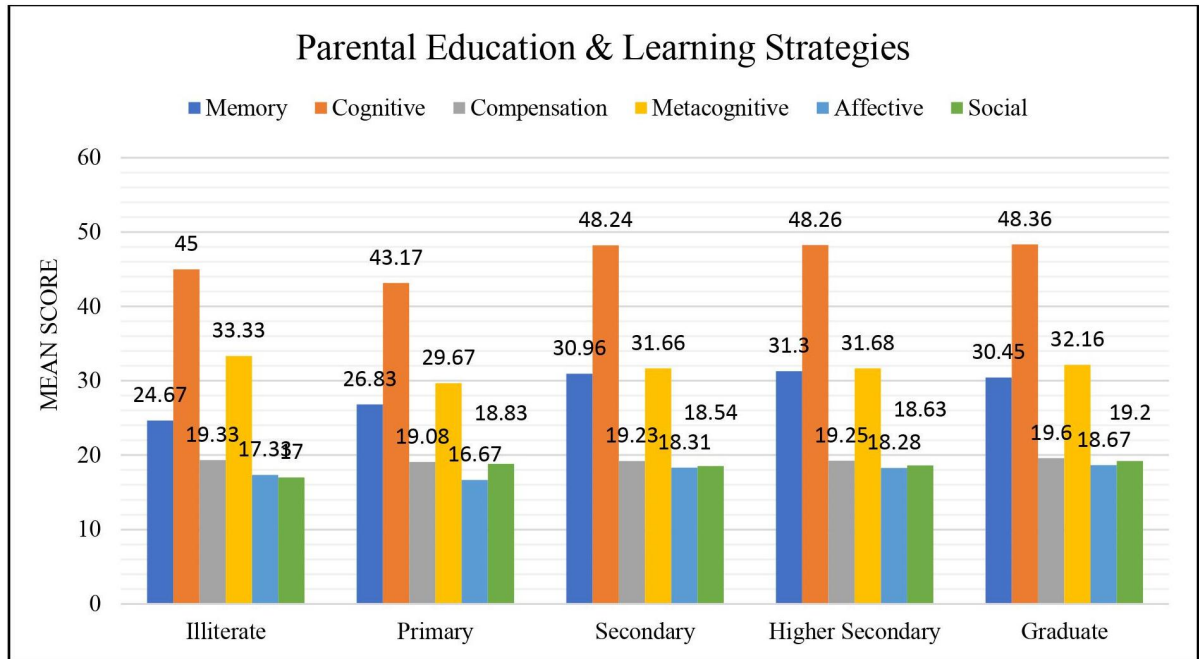
Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Parental Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Memory	Illiterate	3	24.67	2.517
		Primary	12	26.83	5.967
		Secondary	332	30.96	5.331
		Higher Secondary	685	31.30	5.241
		Graduate	168	30.45	5.758
2.	Cognitive	Illiterate	3	45.00	11.358
		Primary	12	43.17	9.104
		Secondary	332	48.24	8.607
		Higher Secondary	685	48.26	8.146
		Graduate	168	48.36	9.368
3.	Compensation	Illiterate	3	19.33	2.082
		Primary	12	19.08	4.776
		Secondary	332	19.23	4.434
		Higher Secondary	685	19.25	4.282
		Graduate	168	19.60	4.535
4.	Metacognitive	Illiterate	3	33.33	9.452
		Primary	12	29.67	6.257
		Secondary	332	31.66	7.379
		Higher Secondary	685	31.68	7.067
		Graduate	168	32.16	7.942
5.	Affective	Illiterate	3	17.33	4.041
		Primary	12	16.67	5.140
		Secondary	332	18.31	5.181
		Higher Secondary	685	18.28	4.947
		Graduate	168	18.67	5.317
6.	Social	Illiterate	3	17.00	2.646
		Primary	12	18.83	4.988
		Secondary	332	18.54	6.230
		Higher Secondary	685	18.63	6.093
		Graduate	168	19.20	6.312

When each learning strategies were taken into account in terms of parental education, it was found that learners who had Graduate parents adopted the Cognitive, Compensation, Affective and Social strategies to a greater extent than the other learners. However, Memory strategies were more adopted by learners whose parents have higher secondary as their highest educational qualification.

The following figure shows the mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of parental education:

Figure 4.12

Bar diagram showing mean scores in different learning strategies in terms of parental education



Learner Autonomy: measures of central tendency and variability

Table 4.14

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & all independent variables

Sl. No.	Variable	Levels	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Gender	Male	566	69.77	8.641
		Female	634	69.99	8.923
2.	Medium of Instruction	Bengali	711	69.91	8.557
		English	489	69.84	9.123
3.	Locality of Institution	Rural	113	70.30	8.242
		Urban	1087	69.84	8.846
4.	Number of Sibling(s)	No Sibling	2	66.50	2.121
		One Sibling	181	69.59	8.278
		Two Siblings	541	69.34	8.890
		Three Siblings	373	70.63	8.885
		> Three Siblings	103	70.66	8.720

5.	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university	1 – 3 Years	109	68.77	8.970
		4 – 6 Years	210	69.76	8.239
		> 6 Years	881	70.05	8.891
6.	Parental Education	Illiterate	3	64.33	6.658
		Primary	12	65.67	3.420
		Secondary	332	69.38	8.654
		Higher Secondary	685	70.15	8.974
		Graduate	168	70.22	8.497

When learner autonomy was considered, it was found that female learners were a bit more autonomous (mean=69.99) than their male counterparts (mean=69.77). It was also found that learners who had instructions in Bangla in their previous institutions before taking admission in the university exhibited more autonomy in learning (mean=69.91) than their counterparts having instructions in English (mean=69.84). Also, when learner autonomy was measured in terms of locality of institution, it was found that more autonomous learners were from institutions in rural areas (mean=70.30) than from urban areas (mean=69.84). Similarly, it was also found that learners with more than three siblings turned out to be most autonomous (mean=70.66) whereas learners with no siblings were least autonomous (mean=66.50). Again, when autonomy was measured in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university, it was found that learners who learnt English for more than six years proved to be the most autonomous (mean=70.05) and those who learnt English for one to three years (mean=68.77) turned out to be the least autonomous. And finally, when autonomy was measured in terms of parental education, it was found that learners having parents with graduate education were most autonomous (mean=70.22) and those with illiterate parents the least autonomous (mean=64.33).

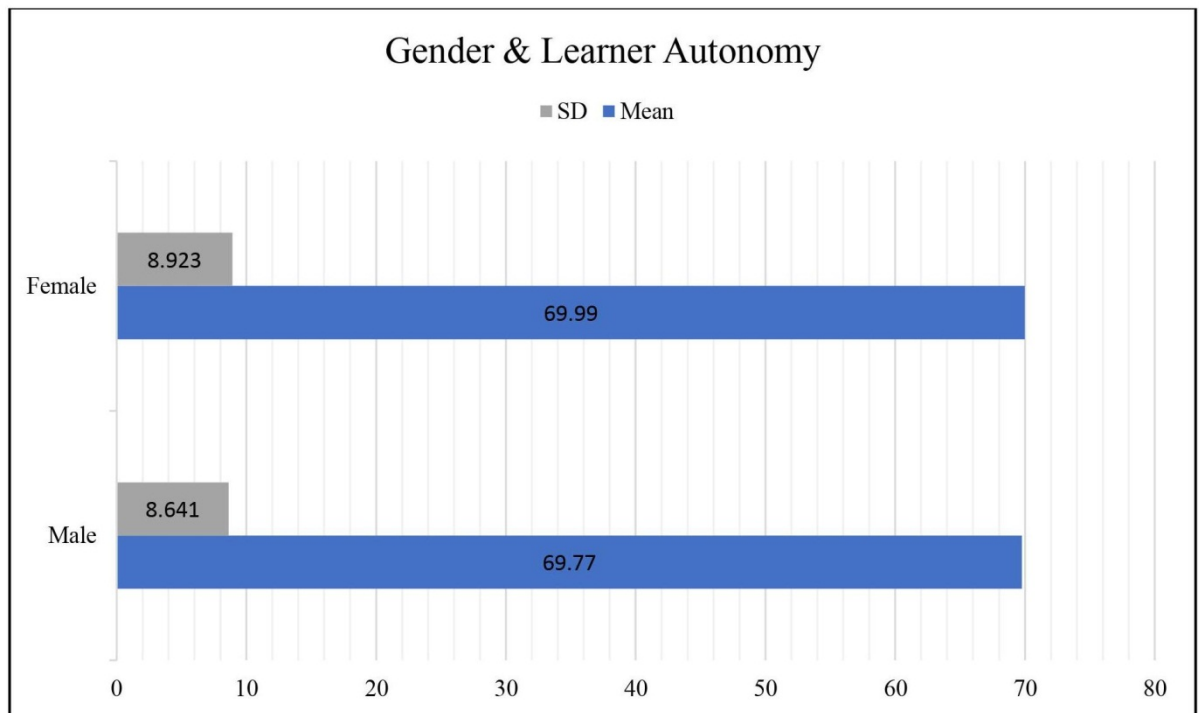
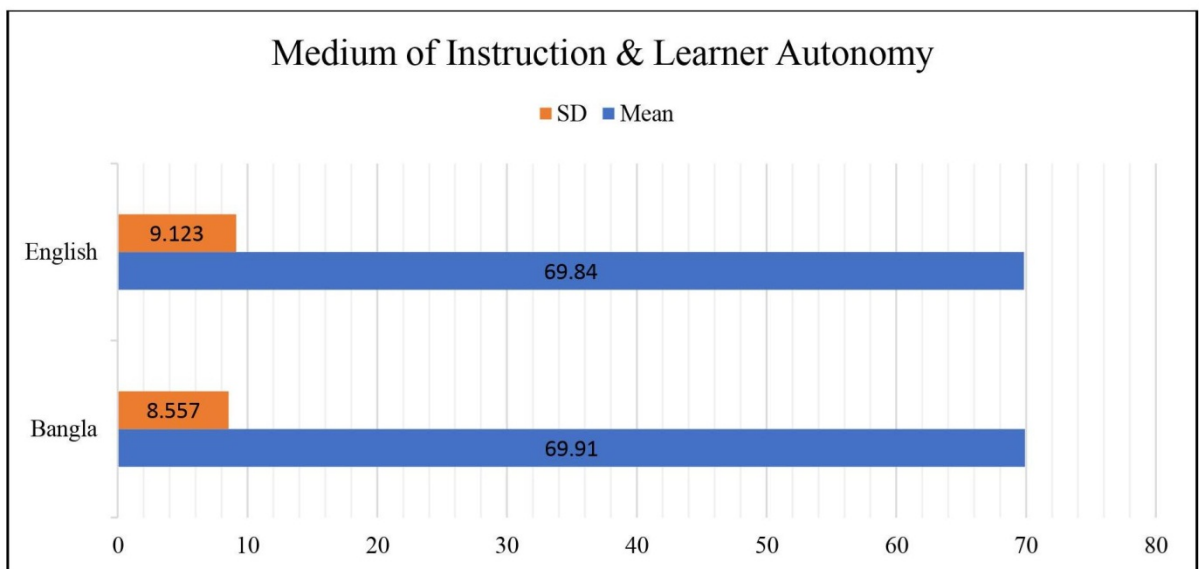
*Figure 4.13**Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of gender**Figure 4.14**Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of medium of instruction*

Figure 4.15

Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of locality of institution

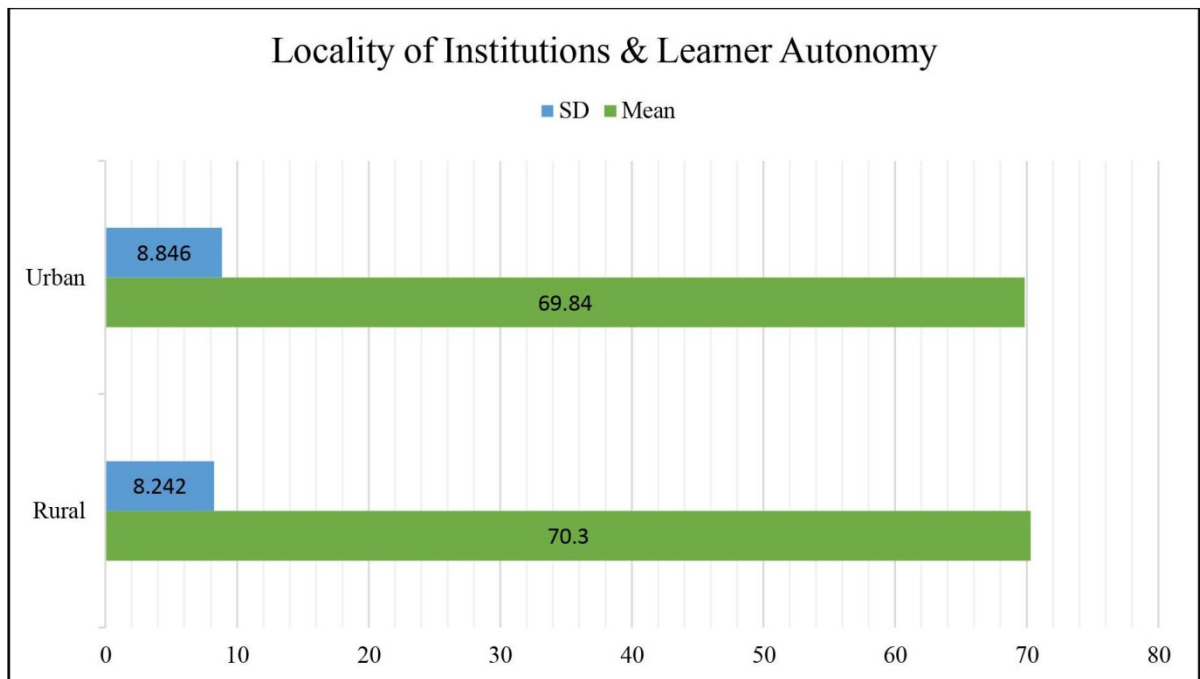


Figure 4.16

Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of number of sibling(s)

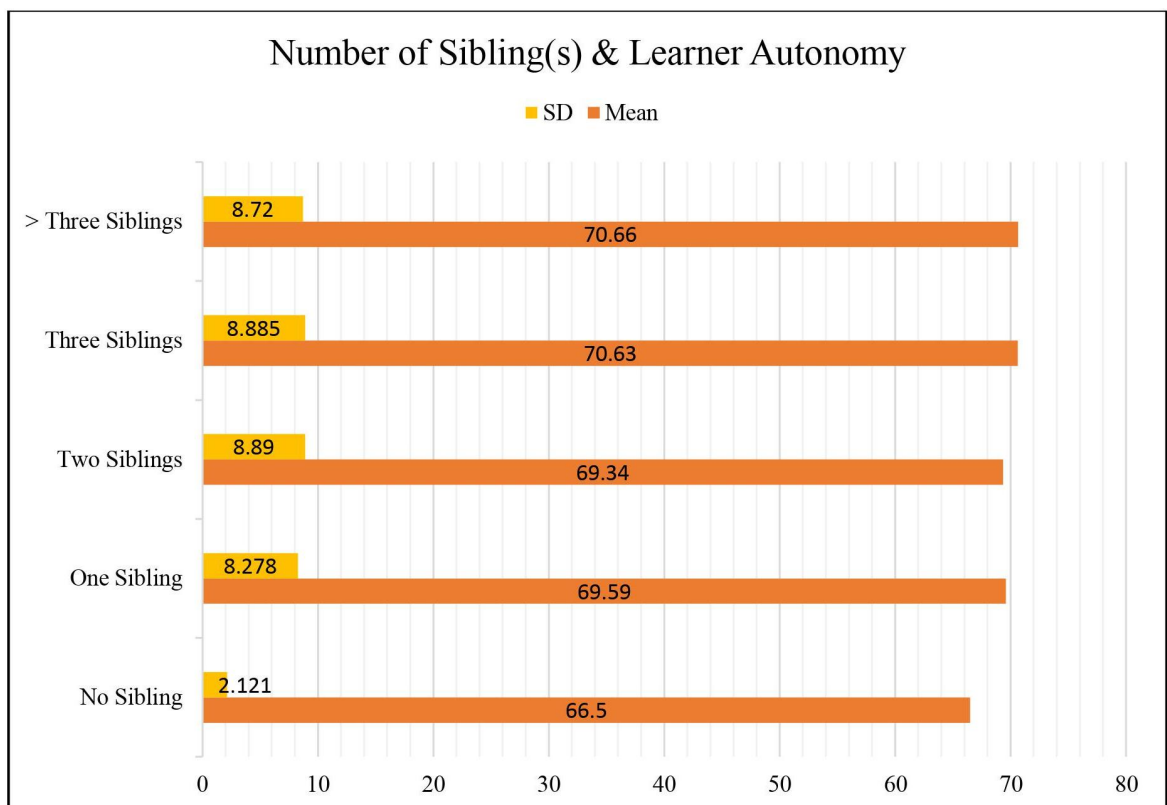
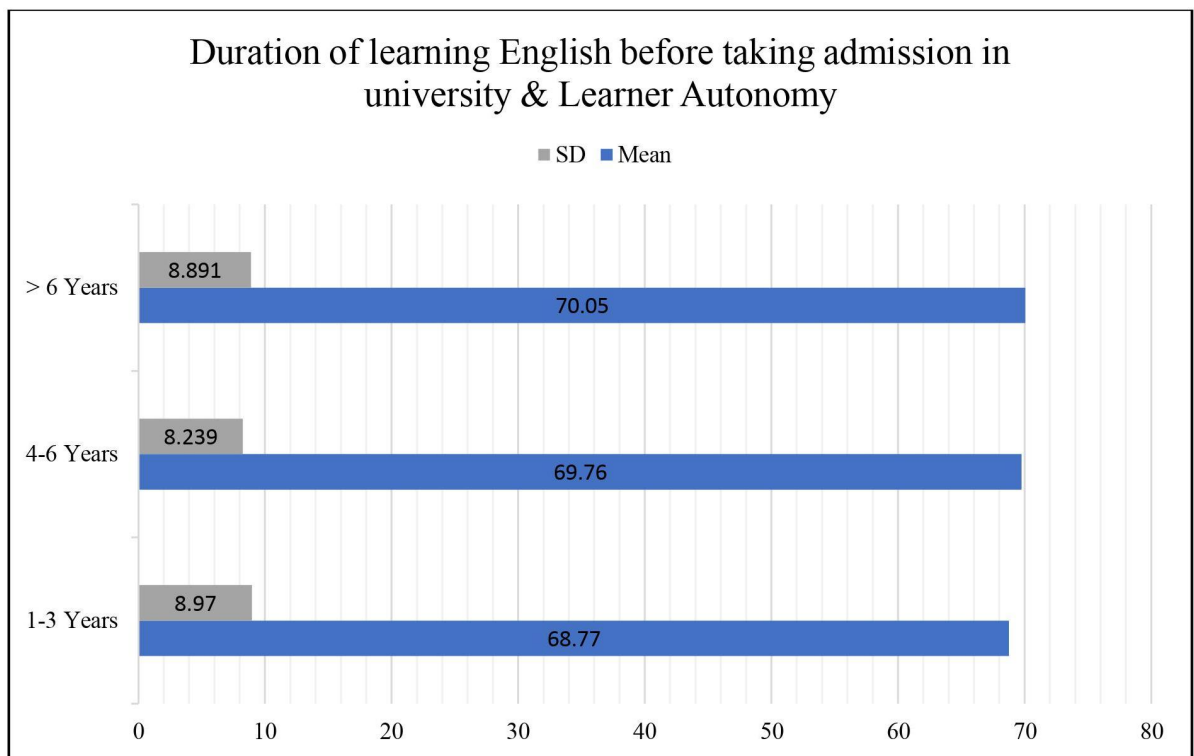
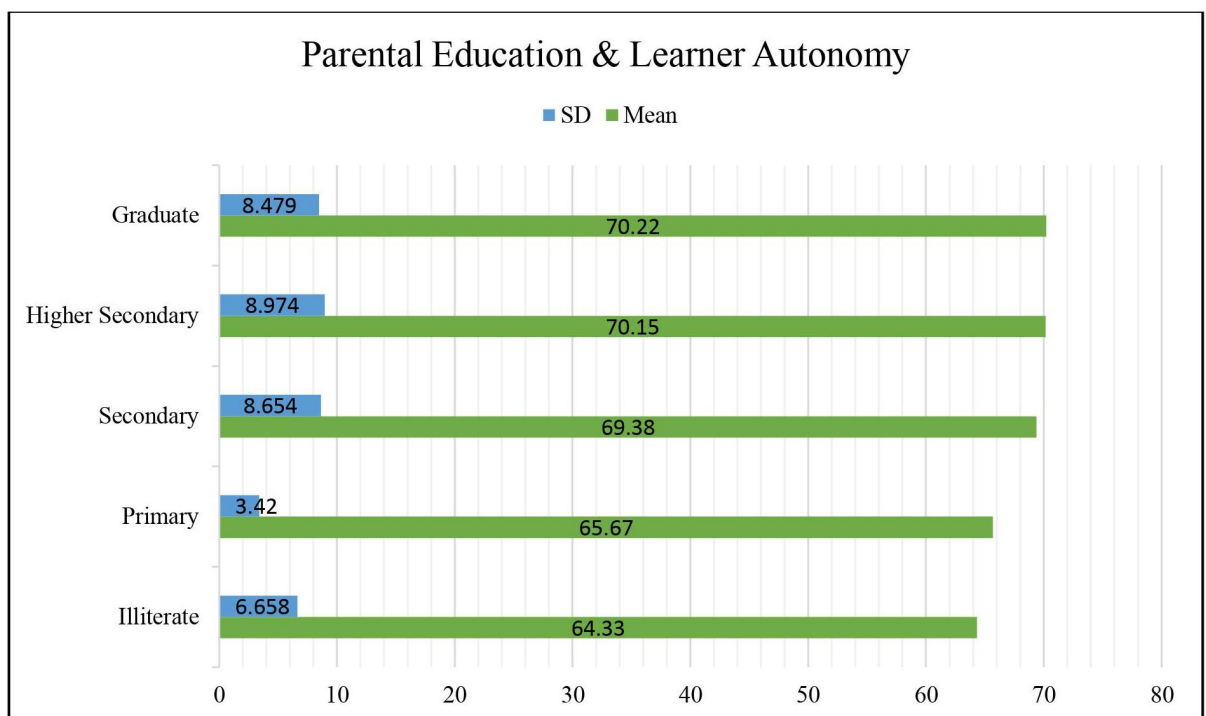


Figure 4.17

Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university

*Figure 4.18*

Stacked diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of parental education



Learner Autonomy & Learning Strategies: measures of central tendency and variability

Table 4.15

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of overall learners (N=1200)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	334	67.20	3.681
2	Cognitive	93	73.57	11.279
3	Compensation	142	75.76	9.576
4	Metacognitive	269	66.64	11.220
5	Affective	144	72.93	5.728
6	Social	218	70.59	7.495
Total		1200	69.89	8.789

For all the learners under this study, it was found that learners with highest level of autonomy preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.76). Although a vast number of learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=269), their learner autonomy was the lowest (mean=66.64) compared to other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies for overall learners:

Figure 4.19

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of overall learners (N=1200)

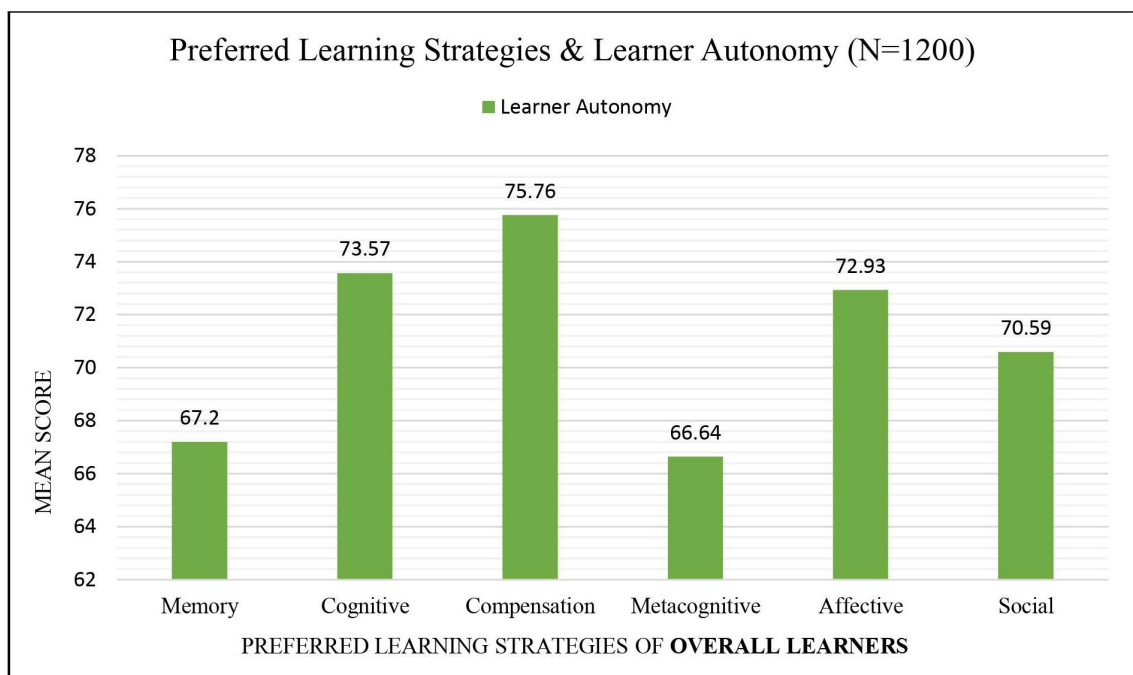


Table 4.16

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of male learners (N=566)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	159	67.36	3.693
2	Cognitive	42	73.19	11.184
3	Compensation	70	75.06	9.294
4	Metacognitive	134	67.09	11.230
5	Affective	52	72.48	5.826
6	Social	109	70.56	7.239
Total		566	69.77	8.641

As for the male learners under this study, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.06). Although a vast number of male learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=134), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=67.09) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies.

The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of male learners:

Figure 4.20

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of male learners (N=566)

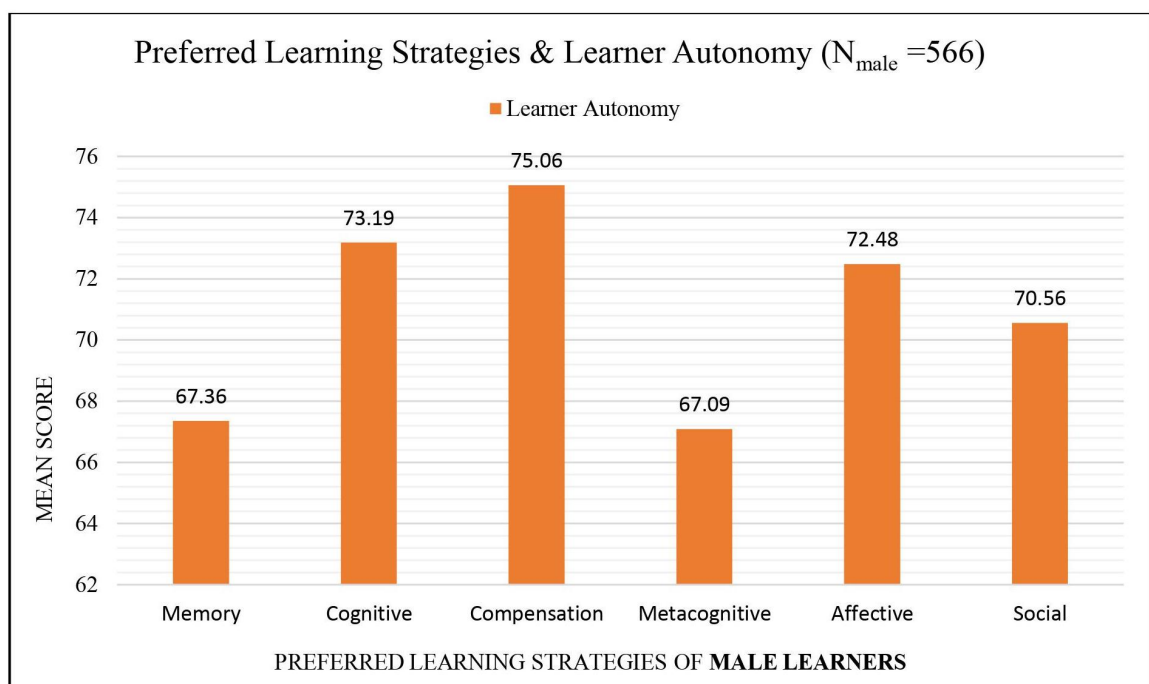


Table 4.17

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of female learners (N=634)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	175	67.06	3.675
2	Cognitive	51	73.88	11.459
3	Compensation	72	76.44	9.859
4	Metacognitive	135	66.20	11.234
5	Affective	92	73.18	5.688
6	Social	109	70.61	7.777
Total		634	69.99	8.923

As for the female learners under this study, it was found that, like their male counterparts, most of them also preferred Compensation strategies (mean=76.44). Although a vast number of female learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=135), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.20) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of female learners:

Figure 4.21

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of female learners (N=634)

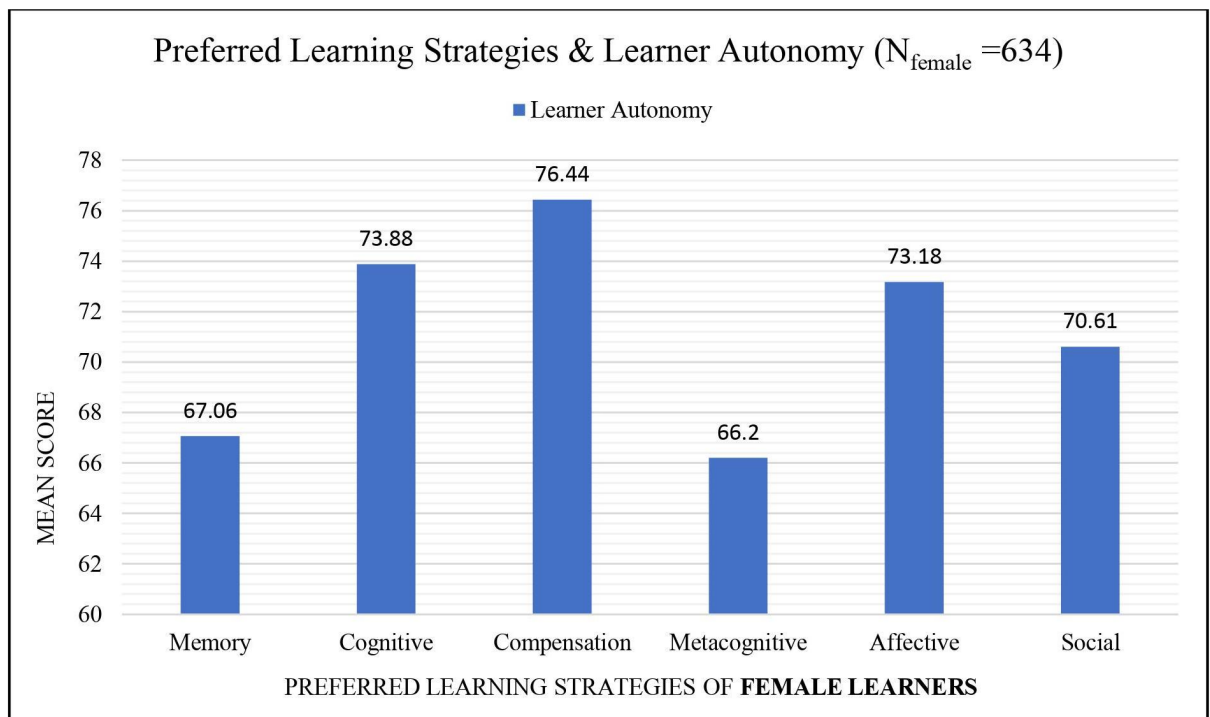


Table 4.18

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in rural institutions (N=113)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	23	66.52	1.563
2	Cognitive	6	72.17	9.390
3	Compensation	12	70.50	9.793
4	Metacognitive	33	71.82	10.815
5	Affective	16	71.56	5.785
6	Social	23	70.43	7.867
Total		113	70.30	8.242

As for the learners who previously studied in rural institutions, it was found that most of them preferred Cognitive strategies (mean=72.17). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Memory strategies (n=23), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.52) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who previously studied in rural institutions:

Figure 4.22

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in rural institutions (N=113)

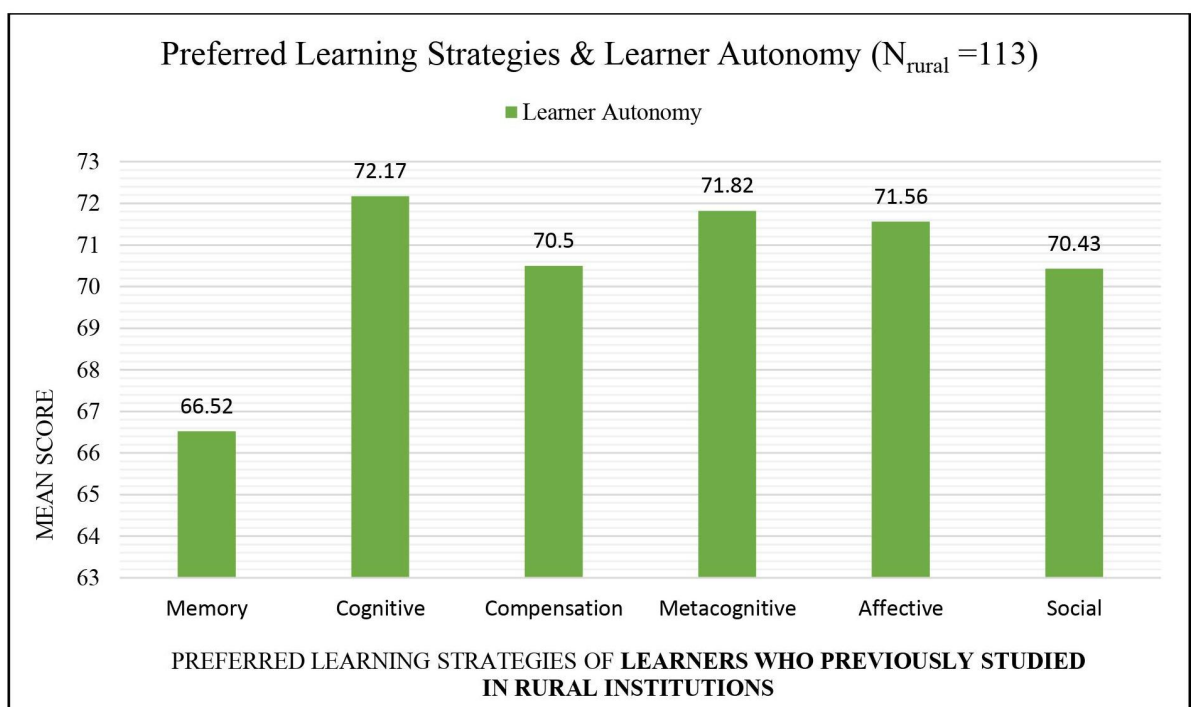


Table 4.19

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in urban institutions (N=1087)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	311	67.25	3.787
2	Cognitive	87	73.67	11.438
3	Compensation	130	76.25	9.447
4	Metacognitive	236	65.92	11.106
5	Affective	128	73.10	5.720
6	Social	195	70.61	7.471
Total		1087	69.84	8.846

As for the learners who studied in rural institutions, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=76.25). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=236), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=65.92) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies.

The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who previously studied in urban institutions:

Figure 4.23

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who studied in urban institutions (N=1087)

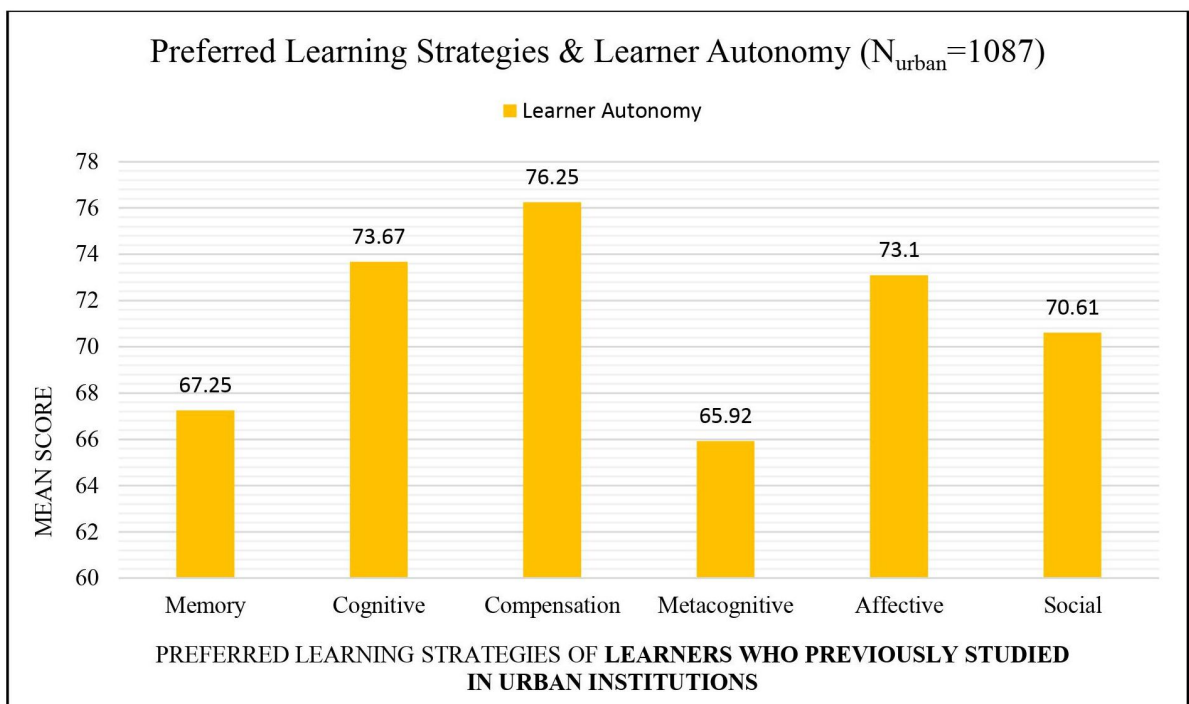


Table 4.20

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla (N=711)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	202	67.16	3.570
2	Cognitive	57	72.61	10.934
3	Compensation	87	75.72	9.327
4	Metacognitive	150	66.87	11.041
5	Affective	80	73.19	5.583
6	Social	135	70.59	7.449
Total		711	69.91	8.557

As for the learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.72). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=150), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.87) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla:

Figure 4.24

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla (N=711)

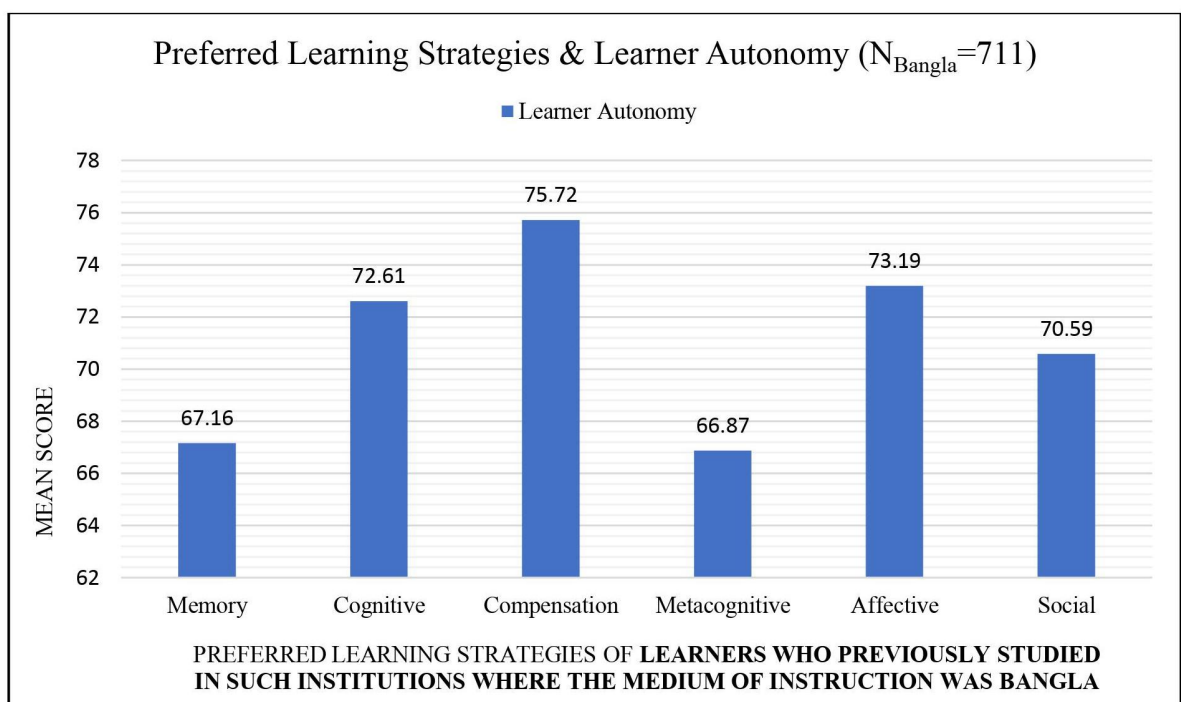


Table 4.21

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English (N=489)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	132	67.26	3.857
2	Cognitive	36	75.08	11.802
3	Compensation	55	75.82	10.045
4	Metacognitive	119	66.36	11.482
5	Affective	64	72.61	5.932
6	Social	83	70.59	7.616
Total		489	69.84	9.123

As for the learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.82). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=119), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.36) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English:

Figure 4.25

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who previously studied in such institutions where the medium of instruction was English (N=489)

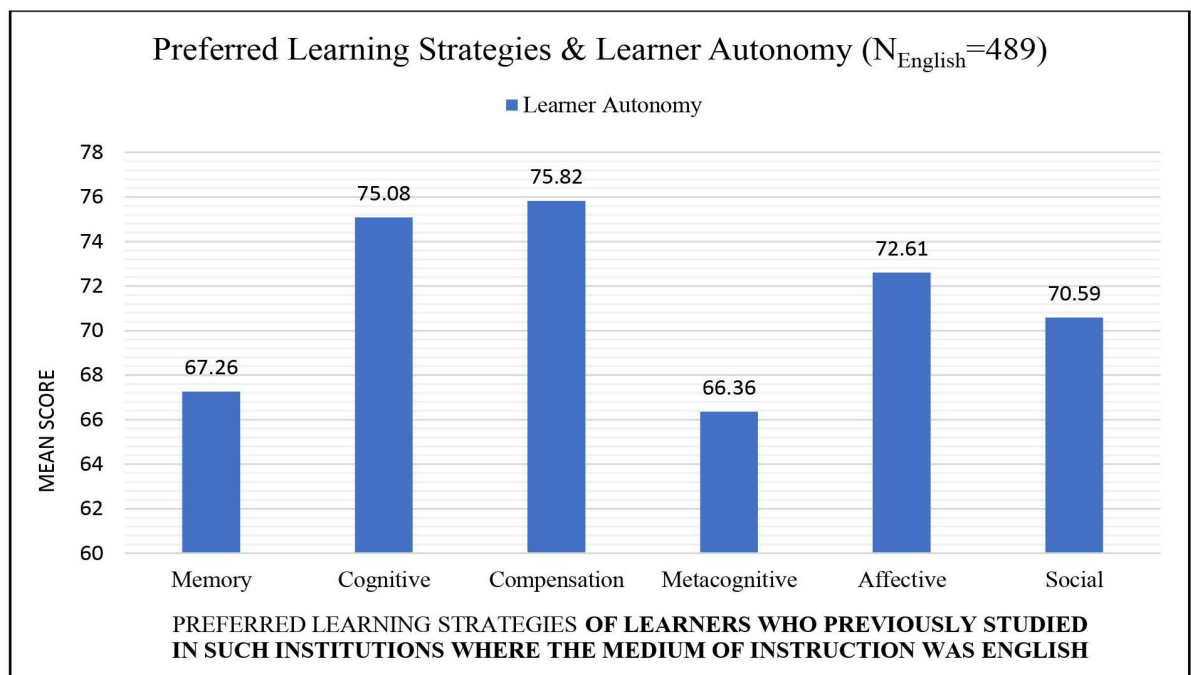


Table 4.22

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with one sibling (N=181)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	50	66.86	1.818
2	Cognitive	13	73.62	10.170
3	Compensation	17	69.94	8.422
4	Metacognitive	43	66.09	10.392
5	Affective	26	73.19	5.920
6	Social	32	73.78	8.750
Total		181	69.59	8.278

As for the learners who had one sibling, it was found that most of them preferred Social strategies (mean=73.78). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=43), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.09) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners with one sibling:

Figure 4.26

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with one sibling (N=181)

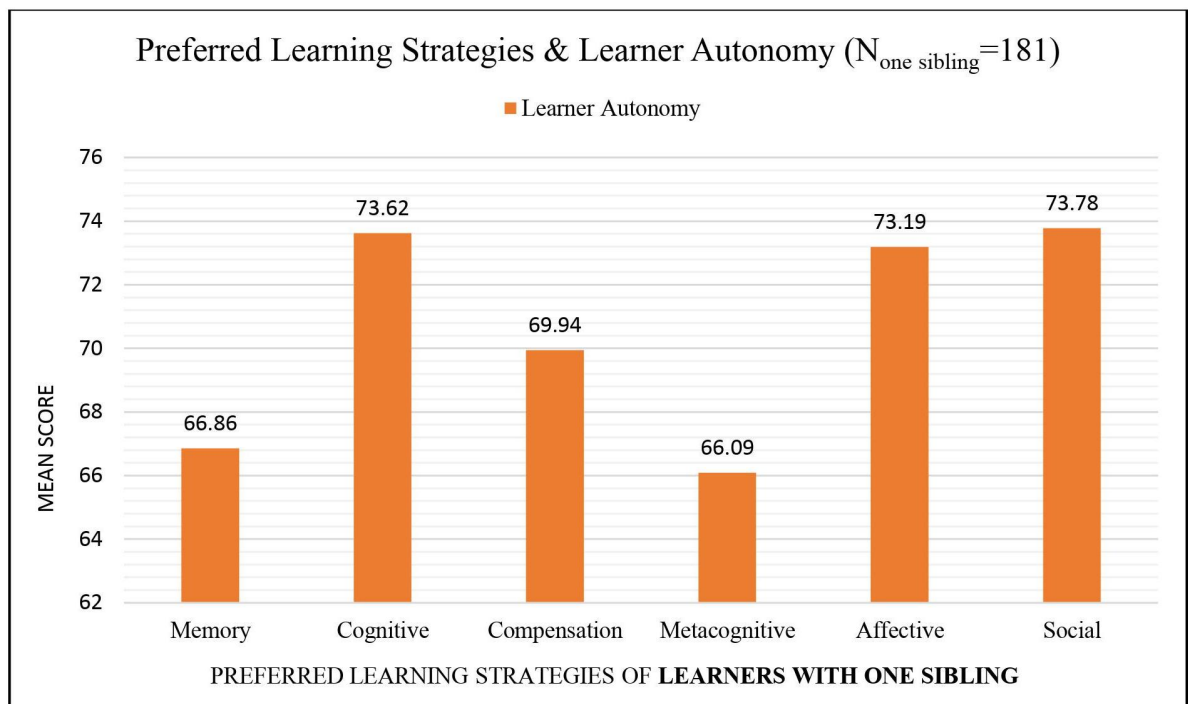


Table 4.23

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with two siblings (N=541)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	166	67.63	4.244
2	Cognitive	43	71.53	11.323
3	Compensation	68	77.26	9.331
4	Metacognitive	125	65.81	11.461
5	Affective	52	73.00	5.770
6	Social	87	68.18	6.067
Total		541	69.34	8.890

As for the learners who had two siblings, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=77.26). Although a vast number of them preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=125), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=65.81) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners with two siblings:

Figure 4.27

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with two siblings (N=541)

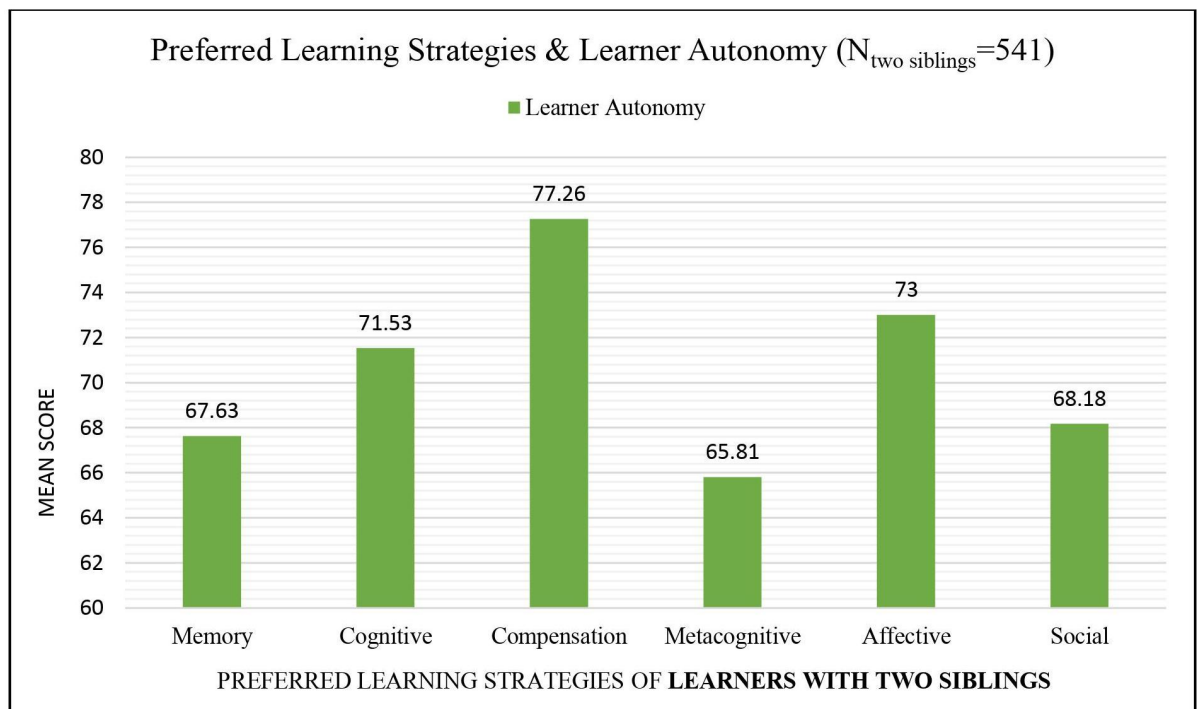


Table 4.24

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with three siblings (N=373)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	97	66.60	3.249
2	Cognitive	31	75.84	11.619
3	Compensation	40	76.55	9.764
4	Metacognitive	78	68.53	11.667
5	Affective	58	73.00	5.715
6	Social	69	70.91	7.424
Total		373	70.63	8.885

As for the learners under this study who had three siblings, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=76.55). Although a vast number of them preferred Memory strategies (n=97), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.60) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners with three siblings:

Figure 4.28

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with three siblings (N=373)

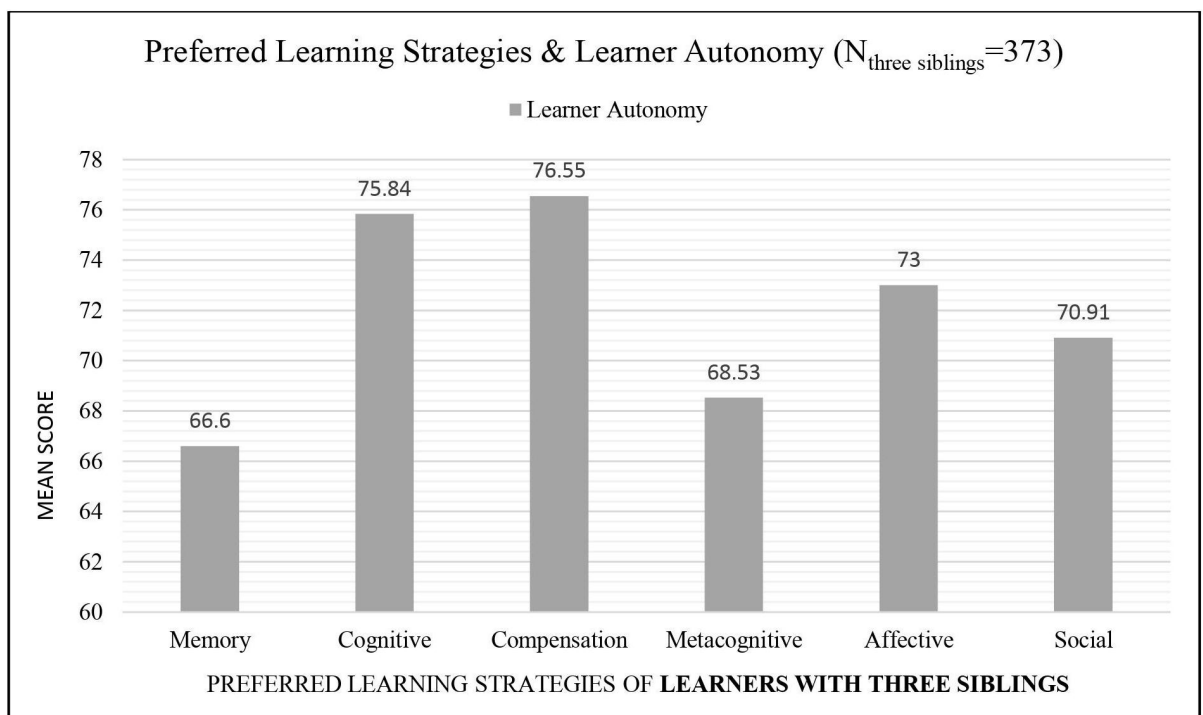


Table 4.25

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners with more than three siblings (N=103)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	21	67.38	3.814
2	Cognitive	6	76.33	11.361
3	Compensation	17	73.71	9.413
4	Metacognitive	22	65.86	9.858
5	Affective	8	71.13	5.693
6	Social	29	73.59	8.020
Total		103	70.66	8.720

As for the learners with more than three siblings, it was found that most of them preferred Cognitive strategies (mean=76.33). Although a vast number of these learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=22), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=65.86) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners with more than three siblings:

Figure 4.29

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners with more than three siblings (N=103)

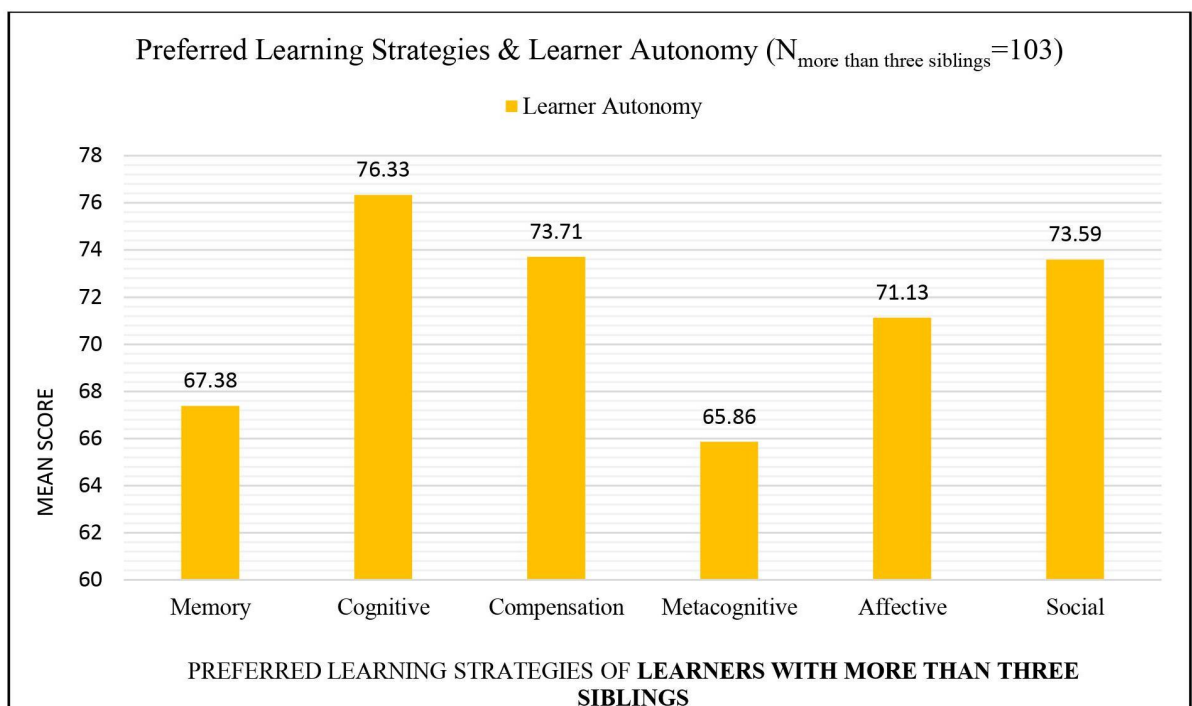


Table 4.26

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for 1-3 years before taking admission in university (N=109)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	33	66.88	4.029
2	Cognitive	13	75.00	13.435
3	Compensation	12	73.83	8.983
4	Metacognitive	27	64.33	10.228
5	Affective	7	75.86	3.338
6	Social	17	68.24	5.652
Total		109	68.77	8.970

As for the learners who learnt English for one to three years before taking admission in university, it was found that most of them preferred Affective strategies (mean=75.86). Although a vast number of them also preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=27), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=64.33) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who learnt English for one to three years before taking admission in university:

Figure 4.30

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for one to three years before taking admission in university (N=109)

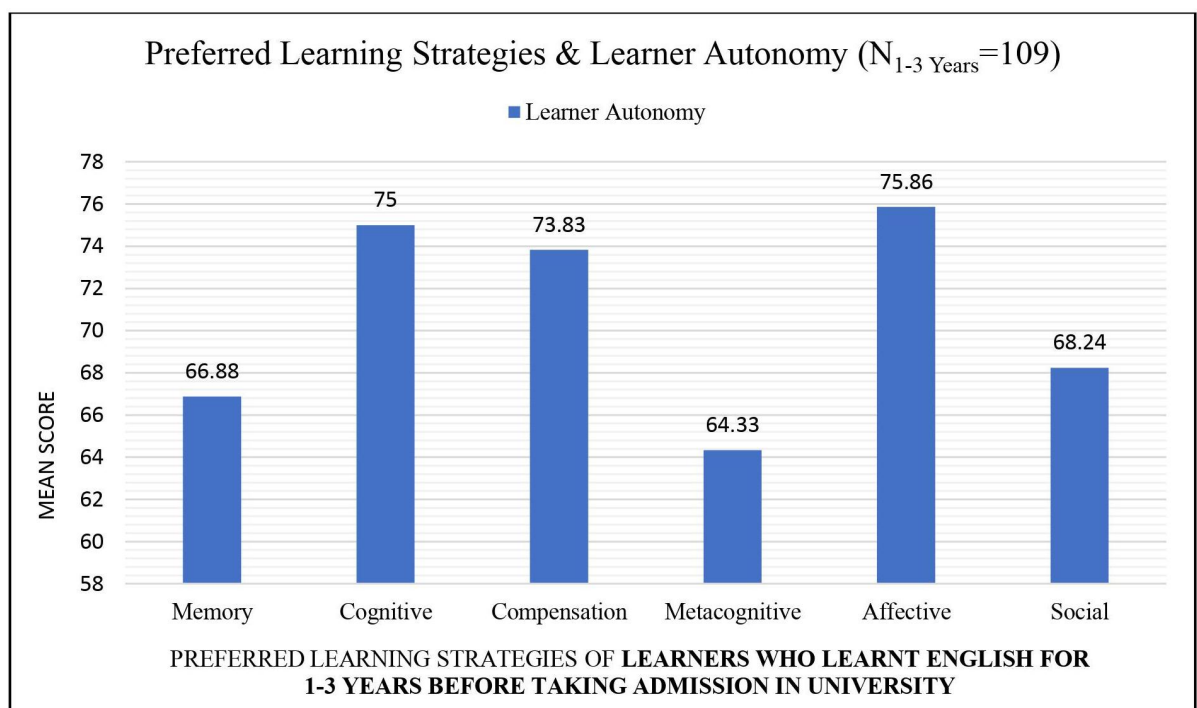


Table 4.27

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for 4-6 years before taking admission in university (N=210)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	55	67.53	3.726
2	Cognitive	19	69.42	9.968
3	Compensation	22	75.86	9.224
4	Metacognitive	53	67.77	10.330
5	Affective	28	71.86	5.338
6	Social	33	71.00	8.035
Total		210	69.76	8.239

As for the learners who learnt English for four to six years before taking admission in university, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.86). Although a vast number of them also preferred Memory strategies (n=55), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=67.53) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who learnt English for four to six years before taking admission in university:

Figure 4.31

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for four to six years before taking admission in university (N=210)

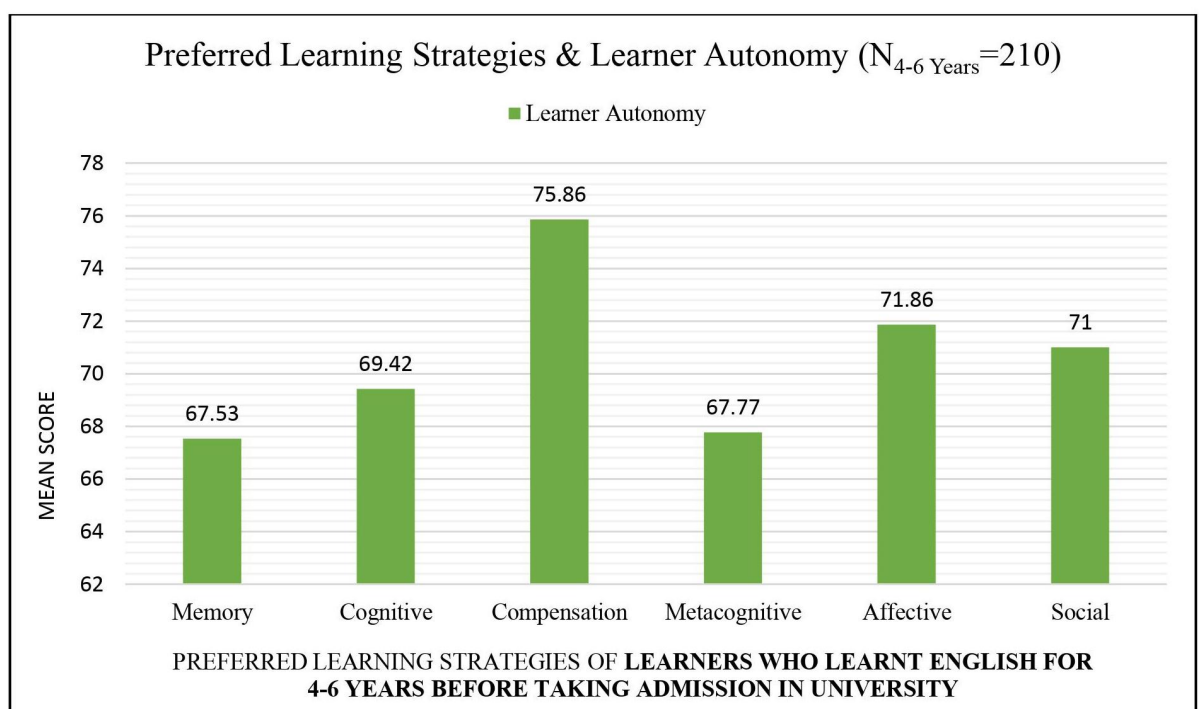


Table 4.28

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners who learnt English for more than 6 years before taking admission in university (N=881)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	246	67.17	3.633
2	Cognitive	61	74.56	11.058
3	Compensation	108	75.95	9.767
4	Metacognitive	189	66.66	11.591
5	Affective	109	73.02	5.902
6	Social	168	70.74	7.546
Total		881	70.05	8.891

As for the learners who learnt English for more than six years before taking admission in university, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.95). Although a vast number of them also preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=189), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.66) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners who learnt English for more than six years before taking admission in university:

Figure 4.32

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners who learnt English for more than six years before taking admission in university (N=881)

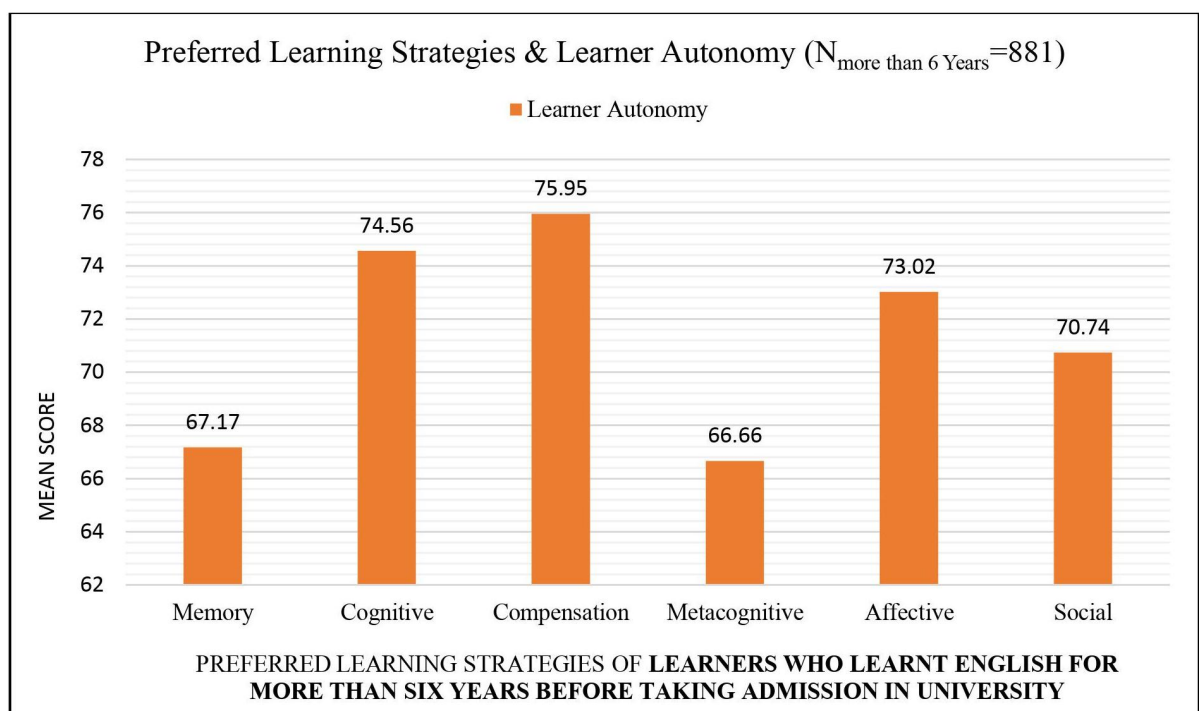


Table 4.29

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies for learners whose parents have studied up to primary level (N=12)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	2	64.50	.707
2	Cognitive	1	65.00	0
3	Compensation	4	64.50	2.380
4	Metacognitive	1	73.00	0
5	Affective	4	65.75	4.031
6	Social	2	64.50	.707
Total		12	65.67	3.420

As for the learners whose parents have studied up to primary level, it was found that most of them preferred Metacognitive strategies (mean=73.00). Although a few of them also preferred Memory (n=2) and Social strategies (n=2), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=64.50) in both categories compared to the other learners. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to primary level:

Figure 4.33

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to primary level (N=12)

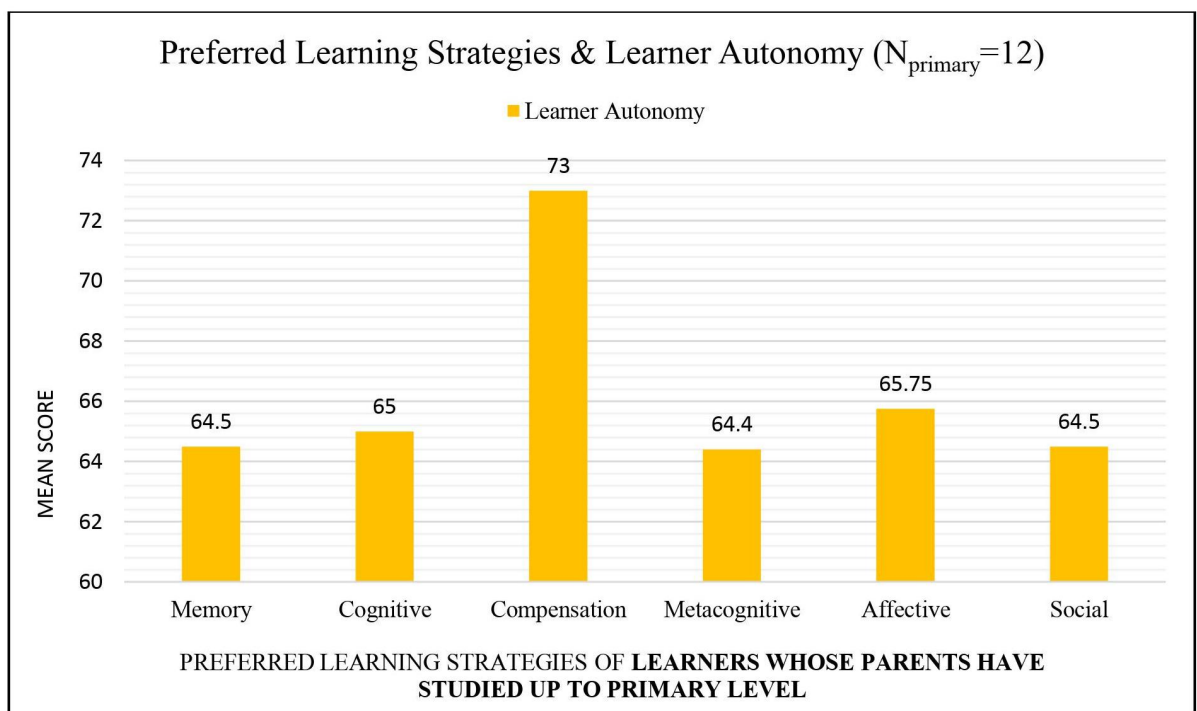


Table 4.30

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level (N=332)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	93	67.24	4.347
2	Cognitive	21	70.52	9.282
3	Compensation	37	77.05	9.113
4	Metacognitive	78	65.27	11.365
5	Affective	41	73.41	5.310
6	Social	62	70.11	6.546
Total		332	69.38	8.654

As for the learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.05). Although a vast number of them also preferred Memory strategies (n=78), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=65.27) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level:

Figure 4.34

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to secondary level (N=332)

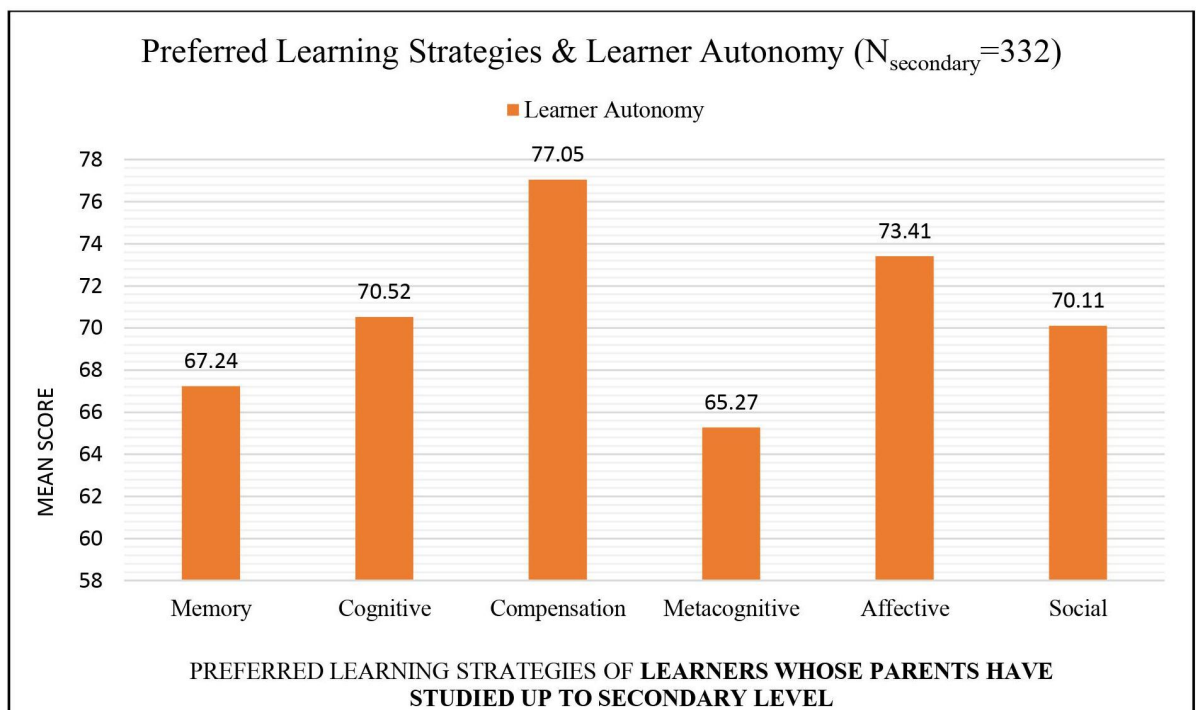


Table 4.31

Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level (N=685)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	201	67.34	3.656
2	Cognitive	55	74.65	11.817
3	Compensation	82	76.43	9.667
4	Metacognitive	144	66.48	11.339
5	Affective	81	72.98	6.015
6	Social	122	70.97	7.832
Total		685	70.15	8.974

As for the learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level, it was found that most of them preferred Compensation strategies (mean=76.43). Although a vast number of them also preferred Memory strategies (n=144), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.48) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level:

Figure 4.35

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to higher secondary level (N=685)

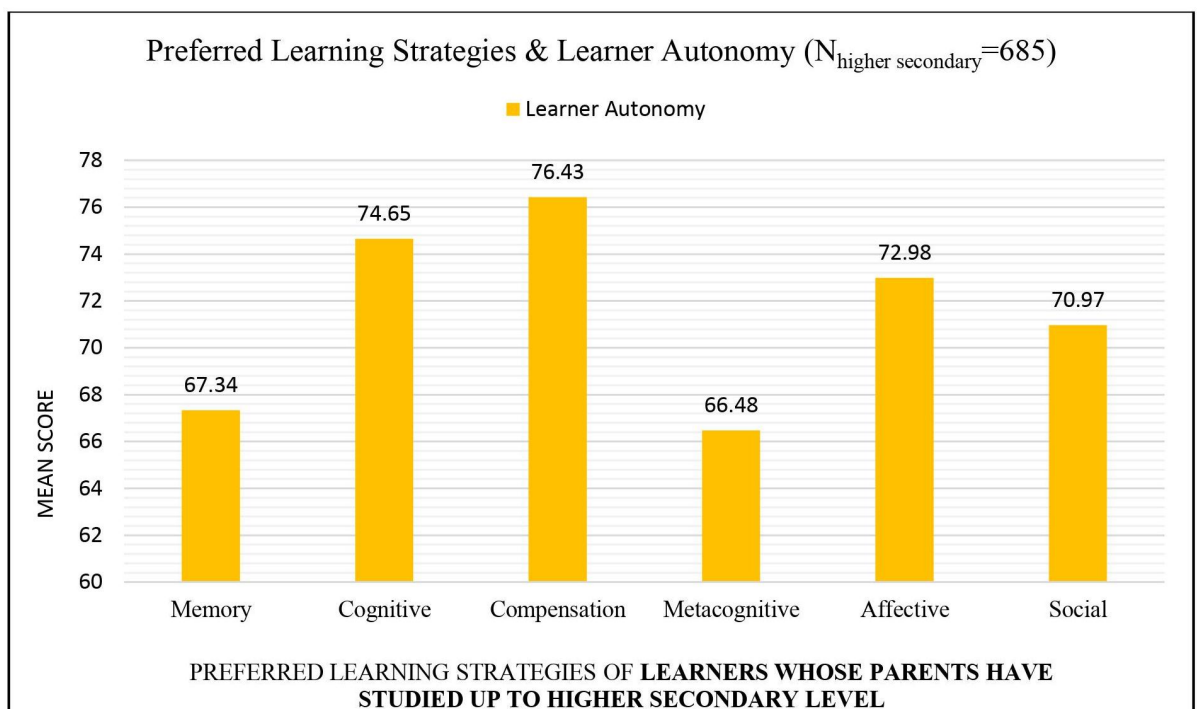


Table 4.32

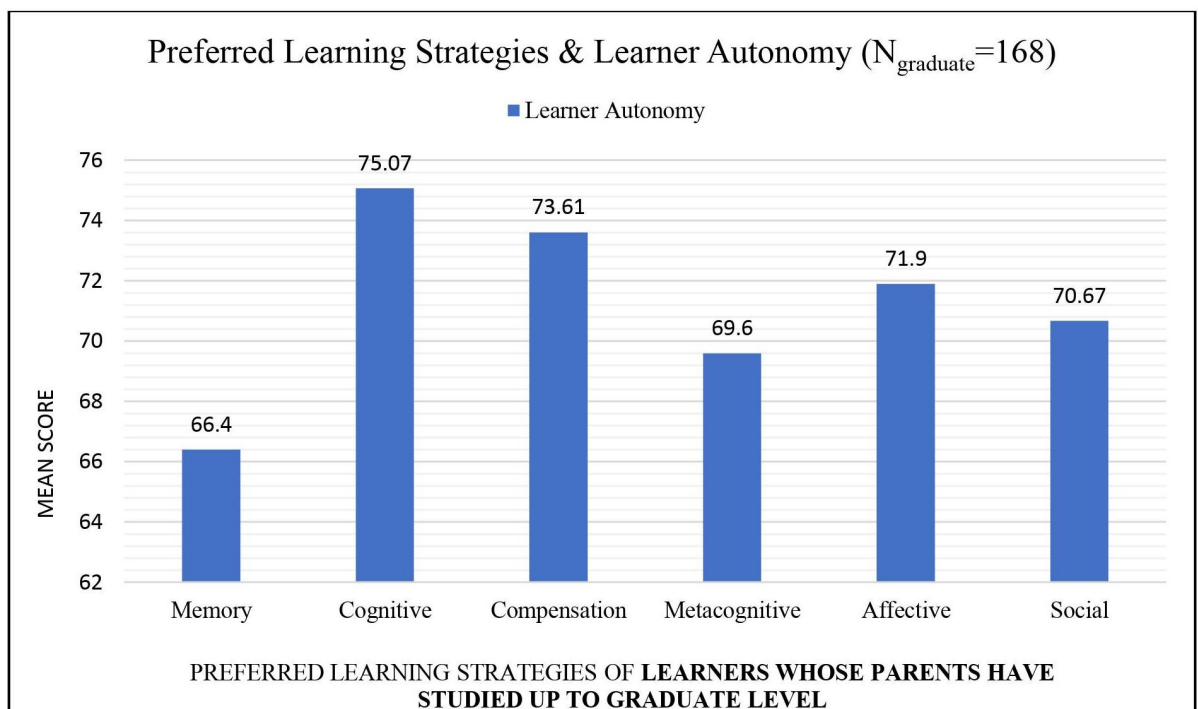
Central tendency and variability: learner autonomy & learning strategy of learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level (N=168)

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	N	Mean (learner autonomy)	Std. Deviation
1	Memory	40	66.40	1.336
2	Cognitive	15	75.07	11.901
3	Compensation	18	73.61	8.786
4	Metacognitive	45	69.60	10.508
5	Affective	20	71.90	5.757
6	Social	30	70.67	8.264
Total		168	70.22	8.497

As for the learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level, it was found that most of them preferred Cognitive strategies (mean=75.07). Although a vast number of them also preferred Memory strategies (n=40), their learner autonomy was lowest (mean=66.40) compared to the other learners who preferred other learning strategies. The following figure shows the mean scores in learner autonomy in relation to learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level:

Figure 4.36

Bar diagram showing mean scores in learner autonomy in terms of learning strategies of learners whose parents have studied up to graduate level (N=168)



4.2 Inferential Statistics

This section presents a series of statistical significance tests according to the order of variables presented in aforementioned descriptive section. The researcher tried to find out goodness of fit of the preferred learning strategies in the learner sample, dependency of the preferred learning strategies on levels of each independent variable of the learners and significance of mean difference in scores of six learning strategies used by these learners. To determine whether the preferred learning strategies in sample proportions match the theoretical value or not, the researcher used Chi-square goodness of fit test. For testing the dependency, the researcher has computed Pearson's chi-square test and for testing mean difference, computed Pearson's coefficient of correlation, Independent samples t-test and One-way ANOVA, as these are robust tests when normality of the distribution is assumed.

Learning strategy

Chi-square goodness of fit test was computed to see whether the preferred learning strategies in sample proportions match the theoretical value or not. The following table exhibits the descriptive values and the result of the test along with a graphical representation.

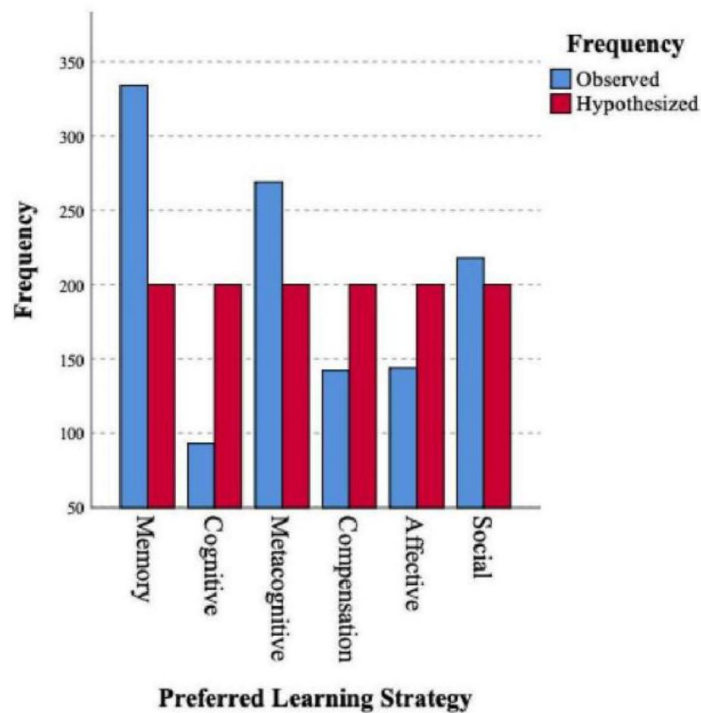
Table 4.33

Chi-square goodness of fit test of the learning strategies, based on ranking by individual learners (N=1200)

Null hypothesis	χ^2 value	Df	p-value	Decision
The preference of different learning strategies occurs with equal probabilities among learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh.	204.950	5	.000	Reject NH

Figure 4.37

Bar diagram showing observed and expected frequencies of learning strategies among the learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh (N=1200)



A chi-square goodness of fit test was calculated comparing the frequency of preference of each learning strategies by the learners. It was hypothesized that each learning strategies is preferred by learners with equal probabilities. However, significant deviation from the hypothesized value was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 204.950, p < .05\}$. Therefore, the learning strategies do not seem to be preferred by learners with equal probabilities. The following table describes Chi-square test of independence between learning strategies and types of independent variables:

Table 4.34

Chi-square test of independence between learning strategies and types of independent variables

Sl. No.	Variables	χ^2 Value	Df	ρ -Value	Decision
1.	Gender * Learning Strategies	8.956	5	.111	Accept NH
2.	Number of sibling(s) * Learning Strategies	27.812	20	.114	Accept NH
3.	Locality of institution* Learning Strategies	6.998	5	.221	Accept NH
4.	Medium of instruction * Learning Strategies	3.425	5	.635	Accept NH
5.	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university * Learning Strategies	10.755	10	.377	Accept NH
6.	Parental education * Learning Strategies	21.513	20	.368	Accept NH

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies between the male and female learners. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 8.956, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of gender of the learners.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies among learners in terms of their number of siblings. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(20) = 27.812, p < .05\}$. Choice of language learning strategies, therefore, appears to be independent of whether learners have siblings or not.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies among learners in terms of the location of the institutions where they studied before taking admission in university. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 6.998, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of the location of previous institutions.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies among learners in terms of the medium of instruction in their previous educational institutions. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) =$

3.425, $p < .05$). Choice of learning strategies, thus, appears to be independent of the medium of instruction in learners' previous educational institutions.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies among learners in terms of the duration of learning English before taking admission in university. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(10) = 10.755, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of learners' duration of learning English before taking admission in university.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the preference of learning strategies among learners in terms of their parental education. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(20) = 21.513, p < .05\}$. Choice of learning strategies, therefore, appears to be independent of learners' parental education. The following table shows Pearson correlation coefficient between age and different learning strategies:

Table 4.35

Pearson correlation coefficient between learners' age and different learning strategies (actual score)

Pearson Correlation between Age and Learning Strategies						
	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
r	-.075**	-.045	.006	-.011	-.034	-.007
p-value	.009	.118	.838	.715	.234	.808
Remarks	Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant	Not Significant

A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between learners' age and scores in Memory strategies. A very weak negative correlation was found $\{r(1198) = -.075, p < .01\}$, indicating a significant linear relationship between the two variables. With increasing age, learners' inclination towards Memory strategies comes to a gradual decline.

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between learners' age and scores in Cognitive strategies. A very weak negative correlation that is not significant was found $(r(1198) = -.045, p > .05)$. Therefore, learners' age is not related to their use of Cognitive strategies in the EFL context.

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between learners' age and scores in Compensation strategies. A very weak negative correlation that is not significant was found $(r(1198) = -.006, p > .05)$. Therefore, learners' age is not related to their use of Compensation strategies in the EFL context.

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between learners' age and scores in Metacognitive strategies. A very weak negative correlation that is not significant was found $(r(1198) = -.011, p > .05)$. Therefore, learners' age is not related to their use of Metacognitive strategies in the EFL context.

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between learners' age and scores in Affective strategies. A very weak negative correlation that is not significant was found $(r(1198) = -.034, p > .05)$. Therefore, learners' age is not related to their use of Affective strategies in EFL context.

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between learners' age and scores in Social strategies. A very weak negative correlation that is not significant was found $(r(1198) = -.007, p > .05)$. Therefore, learners' age is not related to their use of Social learning strategies in the EFL context. The following table shows Independent samples t-test between gender and each learning strategies:

Table 4.36

Independent samples t-test between Gender and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Variables	T - Value	Df	p-Value	Decision
1.	Gender * Memory	-.115	1198	.909	Accept NH
2.	Gender * Cognitive	.059	1198	.953	Accept NH
3.	Gender * Compensation	.224	1198	.823	Accept NH
4.	Gender * Metacognitive	.478	1198	.632	Accept NH
5.	Gender * Affective	-1.235	1198	.217	Accept NH
6.	Gender * Social	.561	1198	.575	Accept NH

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Memory strategies used by them. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = -.115, p > .05\}$. The mean of the female learners' (mean = 31.04, sd = 5.295) was not significantly different from that of the males' (mean = 31.01, sd = 5.458).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Cognitive strategies used by them. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .059, p > .05\}$. The mean of the female learners' (mean = 48.20, sd = 8.198) was not significantly different from that of their male counterparts' (mean = 48.23, sd = 8.777).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Compensation strategies used by them. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .224, p > .05\}$. The mean of the female learners' (mean = 19.26, sd = 4.267) was not significantly different from the mean of male learners' (mean = 19.32, sd = 4.460).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Metacognitive strategies used by them. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .478, p > .05\}$. The mean of the female

learners' (mean = 31.63, sd = 7.060) was not significantly different from that of the males' (mean = 31.83, sd = 7.508).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Affective strategies used by them. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = -1.235, $p > .05$ }. The mean of the female learners (mean = 18.49, sd = 5.032) was not significantly different from that of their male counterparts' (mean = 18.13, sd = 5.093).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of the Social strategies used by them. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = .561, $p > .05$ }. The mean of the female learners' (mean = 18.59, sd = 6.076) was not significantly different from that of their male counterparts' (mean = 18.79, sd = 6.221). The following table shows Independent samples t-test between the locality of the institutions where the learners studied before taking admission in the university and each learning strategies:

Table 4.37

Independent samples t-test between Locality of Institution and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Variables	T - Value	Df	p-Value	Decision
1.	Locality of Institution * Memory	-.842	1198	.400	Accept NH
2.	Locality of Institution * Cognitive	-.091	1198	.927	Accept NH
3.	Locality of Institution * Compensation	1.321	1198	.187	Accept NH
4.	Locality of Institution * Metacognitive	1.782	1198	.075	Accept NH
5.	Locality of Institution * Affective	1.497	1198	.135	Accept NH
6.	Locality of Institution *Social	1.466	1198	.143	Accept NH

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of the rural and urban institutions in terms of the Memory strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = -.842, $p > .05$ }. The mean of institutions located in rural areas (mean = 30.62, sd = 5.911) was not

significantly different from the mean of institutions located in urban areas (mean = 31.07, sd = 5.312).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of the rural and urban institutions in terms of the Cognitive strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = -.091, $p > .05$ }. The mean of institutions located in rural areas (mean = 48.14, sd = 9.791) was not significantly different from the mean of institutions located in urban areas (mean = 48.22, sd = 8.329).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of the rural and urban institutions in terms of the Compensation strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = 1.321, $p > .05$ }. The mean of institutions located in rural areas (mean = 19.81, sd = 4.584) was not significantly different from that of those in urban areas (mean = 19.24, sd = 4.332).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of the rural and urban institutions in terms of the Metacognitive strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = 1.782, $p > .05$ }. The mean of institutions located in rural areas (mean = 32.88, sd = 8.192) was not significantly different from the mean of institutions located in urban areas (mean = 31.61, sd = 7.164).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of rural and urban institutions in terms of the Affective strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = 1.497, $p > .05$ }. The mean of institutions located in rural areas (mean = 19.00, sd = 5.400) was not significantly different from the mean of institutions located in urban areas (mean = 18.25, sd = 5.023).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of rural and urban institutions in terms of the Social strategies used by their learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = 1.466, $p > .05$ }. The mean of

institutions located in rural areas (mean = 19.49, sd = 6.409) was not significantly different from the mean of institutions located in urban areas (mean = 18.60, sd = 6.112). The following table shows Independent samples t-test between the medium of instruction of the institutions where the learners studied before taking admission in the university and each learning strategies:

Table 4.38

Independent samples t-test between Medium of Instruction and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Variables	T - Value	Df	p-Value	Decision
1.	Medium of Instruction * Memory	-1.140	1198	.255	Accept NH
2.	Medium of Instruction * Cognitive	-.776	1198	.438	Accept NH
3.	Medium of Instruction * Compensation	.254	1198	.800	Accept NH
4.	Medium of Instruction * Metacognitive	-.832	1198	.405	Accept NH
5.	Medium of Instruction * Affective	-.948	1198	.343	Accept NH
6.	Medium of Instruction *Social	-.785	1198	.433	Accept NH

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions in terms of the Memory strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = -1.140, $p > .05$ }. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 30.88, sd = 5.434) was not significantly different from the mean of instruction in English (mean = 31.24, sd = 5.275).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions in terms of the Cognitive strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found {t (1198) = -.776, $p > .05$ }. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 48.05, sd = 8.604) was not significantly different from the mean of instruction in English (mean = 48.44, sd = 8.282).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous

institutions in terms of the Compensation strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .254, p > .05\}$. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 19.32, sd = 4.389) was not significantly different from the mean of instruction in English (mean = 19.25, sd = 4.314).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions in terms of the Metacognitive strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = -.832, p > .05\}$. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 31.58, sd = 7.309) was not significantly different from that of instruction in English (mean = 31.94, sd = 7.221).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions in terms of the Affective strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = -.948, p > .05\}$. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 18.21, sd = 5.063) was not significantly different from the mean of instruction in English (mean = 18.49, sd = 5.062).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as the medium of instruction in learners' previous institutions in terms of the Social strategies used by these learners. No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = -.785, p > .05\}$. The mean of instruction in Bangla (mean = 18.57, sd = 6.193) was not significantly different from the mean of instruction in English (mean = 18.85, sd = 6.072). The following table shows One-way ANOVA between the number of sibling(s) and each learning strategies:

Table 4.39

One-way ANOVA between number of sibling(s) and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Number Of Sibling(s)	ANOVA	Df	p-Value	Decision
1.	Memory	No sibling	4.079	4,1195	.003	Reject NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				
2.	Cognitive	No sibling	1.829	4,1195	.121	Accept NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				
3.	Compensation	No sibling	.419	4,1195	.121	Accept NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				
4.	Metacognitive	No sibling	.633	4,1195	.639	Accept NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				
5.	Affective	No sibling	.714	4,1195	.582	Accept NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				
6.	Social	No sibling	1.182	4,1195	.317	Accept NH
		One sibling				
		Two siblings				
		Three siblings				
		> Three siblings				

A one-way ANOVA was computed comparing the scores in Memory strategies of five different groups of learners based on their number of siblings. A significant difference was found among the groups ($F(4,1195) = 4.079$, $p < .05$). Tukey's

HSD was used in order to distinguish the nature of the differences among the groups. This analysis revealed that learners with two siblings scored significantly higher (mean = 31.66, sd = 5.374) than those with more than three siblings (mean = 29.91, sd = 5.617). However, learners who had no sibling (mean = 31.50, sd = 2.212) were not significantly different from those with more than three siblings.

The other two groups i.e., learners with one sibling (mean = 30.89, sd = 5.096) and those with three siblings (mean = 30.47, sd = 5.343) did not differ significantly from each other.

The mean score in Cognitive strategies used by learners grouped on basis of their number of siblings were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found {F (4,1195) = 1.829, $p > .05$ }.

Similarly, ANOVA was also computed for Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. However, no significant mean differences were found in terms of the number of sibling(s) variable. The following table shows One-way ANOVA between the duration of learning English before taking admission in university and each learning strategies:

Table 4.40

One-way ANOVA between the duration of learning English before taking admission in university and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university	ANOVA	Df	ρ -Value	Decision
1.	Memory	1 – 3 Years	.457	2,1197	.633	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				
2.	Cognitive	1 – 3 Years	.636	2,1197	.530	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				
3.	Compensation	1 – 3 Years	.747	2,1197	.474	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				

4.	Metacognitive	1 – 3 Years	.530	2,1197	.589	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				
5.	Affective	1 – 3 Years	1.194	2,1197	.303	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				
6.	Social	1 – 3 Years	1.245	2,1197	.288	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				

The mean scores in all the six strategies used by learners grouped on the basis of their duration of learning English before taking admission in university were compared separately using one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found at any of the strategies used by learners from across all the three groups in this variable. The following table shows One-way ANOVA between parental education and each learning strategies:

Table 4.41

One-way ANOVA between Parental Education and each learning strategies

Sl. No.	Learning Strategy	Parental Education	ANOVA	Df	p-Value	Decision
1.	Memory	Illiterate	3.842	4,1195	.004	Reject NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				
2.	Cognitive	Illiterate	1.192	4,1195	.313	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				
3.	Compensation	Illiterate	.254	4,1195	.908	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				
4.	Metacognitive	Illiterate	.440	4,1195	.780	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				

		Graduate				
5.	Affective	Illiterate	.558	4,1195	.693	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				
6.	Social	Illiterate	.411	4,1195	.801	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				

Using one-way ANOVA a significant mean difference ($F(4,1195) = 3.842, p < .05$) was found in only the Memory strategy category. Findings show that learners whose parents were educated up to higher secondary level used Memory strategies to a significant extent (mean=31.30, sd=5.241) compared to other groups of learners. However, there was no significant mean difference among the groups of learners in the other five learning strategies.

Learner autonomy

The following table shows a Parametric test summary taking mean score of learner autonomy and all the independent variables:

Table 4.42

Parametric test summary taking mean score of learner autonomy and all the independent variables

Sl. No.	Variable	Levels	Test Value	Df	P-Value	Decision
1.	Gender	Male	t-value = .440	1198	.660	Accept NH
		Female				
2.	Medium of Instruction	Bengali	t-value = .132	1198	.895	Accept NH
		English				
3.	Locality of Institution	Rural	t-value = .528	1198	.597	Accept NH
		Urban				
4.	Number of Sibling(s)	No Sibling	ANOVA = 1.527	4,1195	.192	Accept NH
		One Sibling				
		Two Siblings				
		Three Siblings				

		> Three Siblings				
5.	Duration of learning English before taking admission in university	1 – 3 Years	ANOVA = 1.060	2,1197	.347	Accept NH
		4 – 6 Years				
		> 6 Years				
6.	Parental Education	Illiterate	ANOVA = 1.485	4,1195	.205	Accept NH
		Primary				
		Secondary				
		Higher Secondary				
		Graduate				

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of male and female learners in terms of learner autonomy. No significant difference was found { $t(1198) = .440, p > .05$ }. The mean of the female learners (mean = 69.99, sd = 8.923) was not significantly different from the mean of their male counterparts (mean = 69.77, sd = 8.641).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of Bangla and English as mediums of instruction in terms of learner autonomy. No significant difference was found { $t(1198) = .132, p > .05$ }. The mean of the Bangla as a medium of instruction (mean = 69.91, sd = 8.557) was not significantly different from that of English as a medium of instruction (mean = 69.84, sd = 9.123).

An independent-samples t-test was calculated comparing the mean score of rural and urban locations of learners' previous educational institutions in terms of learner autonomy. No significant difference was found { $t(1198) = .528, p > .05$ }. The mean of rural institutions (mean = 70.30, sd = 8.242) was not significantly different from the mean of urban institutions (mean = 69.84, sd = 8.846).

The mean score of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their number of siblings were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found { $F(4,1195) = 1.527, p > .05$ }.

The mean score of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their duration of learning English before taking admission in university were

compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found {F (2,1197) = 1.060, $p > .05$ }.

The mean score of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their parental education were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found {F (4,1195) = 1.485, $p > .05$ }.

Learner autonomy & Learning strategies

The following table shows One-way ANOVA test summary taking mean score of learner autonomy and preferred learning strategies in terms of each level of all the independent variables:

Table 4.43

One-way ANOVA test summary taking mean scores of learner autonomy and preferred learning strategies in terms of each level of all the independent variables

Null Hypothesis	ANOVA Value	Df	p-Value	Decision
Learner autonomy does not differ significantly in relation to the preferred language learning strategies adopted by learners learning EFL at the tertiary level in Bangladesh.	38.446	5,1194	.000	Reject NH
Gender: male	14.329	5,560	.000	Reject NH
Gender: female	24.398	5,628	.000	Reject NH
Locality of institution: rural	1.351	5,107	.249	Accept NH
Locality of institution: urban	41.906	5,1081	.000	Reject NH
Medium of instruction: Bangla	22.636	5,705	.000	Reject NH
Medium of instruction: English	16.135	5,483	.000	Reject NH
No. of sibling(s): one sibling	6.817	5,175	.000	Reject NH
No. of sibling(s): two siblings	22.204	5,535	.000	Reject NH
No. of sibling(s): three siblings	13.270	5,367	.000	Reject NH
No. of sibling(s): more than three siblings	4.026	5,97	.002	Reject NH
Duration of learning English before taking	5.451	5,103	.000	Reject

admission in university: 1-3 years				NH
Duration of learning English before taking admission in university: 4-6 years	4.748	5,204	.000	Reject NH
Duration of learning English before taking admission in university: more than 6 years	30.279	5,875	.000	Reject NH
Parental education: primary	1.649	5,6	.264	Accept NH
Parental education: secondary	15.062	5,326	.000	Reject NH
Parental education: higher secondary	25.119	5,679	.000	Reject NH
Parental education: graduate	3.657	5,162	.004	Reject NH

Significant results

A one-way ANOVA was computed comparing the mean scores of learner autonomy of six different learning strategies used by learners. A significant difference was found among the six types of learning strategies ($F(5,1194) = 38.446$, $p < .01$). Tukey's HSD was used to determine the nature of differences between the groups. It was found that the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 75.76, $sd = 9.576$) than learners who preferred Metacognitive (mean = 66.64, $sd = 11.220$), Memory (mean = 67.20, $sd = 3.681$) and Social strategies (mean = 70.59, $sd = 7.495$). However, the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Cognitive (mean = 73.57, $sd = 11.279$) and Affective strategies (mean = 72.93, $sd = 5.728$) were not significantly different from those of Compensation strategies (mean = 75.76, $sd = 9.576$). In other words, with increasing learner autonomy, learners learning English as a foreign language at the tertiary level shift their learning strategies from the Memory and Metacognitive ones to the Compensation and Cognitive ones.

Further, each level of all the variables were computed using one-way ANOVA in order to see any significant mean difference of learner autonomy score in terms of the six learning strategies. The findings are as follows –

For male learners, the one-way ANOVA shows statistically significant results ($F(5,560) = 14.329, p < .01$) where the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 75.06, sd = 9.294) than the other learning strategies.

Similarly, for female learners also, the one-way ANOVA shows statistically significant results ($F(5,628) = 24.398, p < .01$) where the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 76.44, sd = 9.859) than the other learning strategies.

Coming from urban institutions, learners who preferred Compensation strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 76.25, sd = 9.447) than those who preferred other strategies for learning English ($F(5,1081) = 41.906, p < .01$).

Nonetheless, learners who had Bangla as their medium of instruction in their previous educational institutions and preferred Compensation strategies were found to be significantly more autonomous learner (mean = 75.72, sd = 9.327) than those who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,705) = 22.636, p < .01$).

Similarly, learners who had English as their medium of instruction in their previous educational institutions and preferred Compensation strategies were also found to be significantly more autonomous learner (mean = 75.82, sd = 10.045) than the ones who preferred other strategies for learning English ($F(5,483) = 16.135, p < .01$).

Learners who had only one sibling and preferred Social strategies were significantly more autonomous as learners (mean = 73.78, sd = 8.750) than those who preferred other language learning strategies ($F(5,175) = 6.817, p < .01$).

Similarly, also learners who had two siblings and preferred Compensation strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 77.26, sd = 9.331) than the others who preferred other strategies ($F(5,535) = 22.204, p < .01$).

Likewise, learners who had three siblings and preferred Compensation strategies were found to possess significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 76.55, sd =

9.764) than others who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,367) = 13.270, p < .01$).

Also, learners who had more than three siblings and preferred Cognitive strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 76.33, sd = 11.361) than those who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,97) = 4.026, p < .01$).

Nonetheless, learners who had learnt English for around 1-3 years before taking admission in university and preferred Affective strategies proved to be significantly more autonomous (mean = 75.86, sd = 3.338) than the others who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,103) = 5.451, p < .01$).

Similarly, learners who had learnt English for around 4-6 years before taking admission in university and preferred Compensation strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 75.86, sd = 9.224) than the other learners who preferred other strategies ($F(5,204) = 4.748, p < .01$).

In addition, also learners who had learnt English for more than 6 years before taking admission in university and preferred Compensation strategies were found to have significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 75.95, sd = 9.767) than those who preferred the other strategies ($F(5,875) = 30.279, p < .01$).

However, learners whose parents had up to the secondary level education, and they themselves preferred Compensation strategies were found to have significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 77.05, sd = 9.113) than those who preferred other strategies ($F(5,326) = 15.062, p < .01$).

On the other hand, learners whose parents had up to the higher secondary level education, and they themselves preferred Compensation strategies enjoyed significantly more autonomy (mean = 76.43, sd = 9.667) than the others who preferred other strategies ($F(5,679) = 25.119, p < .01$).

Nonetheless, learners whose parents had up to the graduate level education, and they themselves preferred Cognitive strategies were found to have significantly

more learner autonomy (mean = 76.33, sd = 11.361) than those who preferred other language learning strategies ($F(5,162) = 3.657, p < .01$).

Insignificant results

The mean score of learner autonomy of learners from rural institutions were compared in terms of their preferred learning strategies using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 107) = 1.351, p > .05$).

The mean score of autonomy of learners having parents with only up to primary level education were compared in terms of their preferred learning strategies using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5,6) = 1.649, p > .05$).

References

- Christensen, L. B., Johnson, R. B. & Turner, L. A. (2015). *Research Methods, Design and Analysis* (12th ed). Pearson
- Coe, R., Waring, M., Hedges, L. V. & Arthur, J (2017). *Research Methods and Methodologies in Education* (2nd ed). Sage Publications
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education* (8th ed). Oxon: Routledge
- Cronk, B. (2020). *How to Use SPSS Statistics* (Eleventh ed.). New York: Routledge.
- George, D. (2016). *IBM SPSS Statistics 23 Step by Step*. New York: Routledge.
- Newby, P. (2014). *Research Methods for Education* (2nd ed). New York: Routledge

Chapter V	Discussion and Conclusion	145
5.1	Summary of findings	145
5.2	Discussion	153
5.3	Conclusion	159
5.4	Scope of further studies	160
	References	160

Chapter V Discussion and Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was been to investigate the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among undergraduate learners studying English as a foreign language in different universities in Bangladesh. It also sought to find out the variations in learner autonomy and language learning strategies in terms of different socio-academic indicators of those learners. Therefore, the sample, notably representing diverse geographical and cultural anomalies, of this cross-sectional study was selected purposively in order to get a comprehensive representation of the actual context.

The following sections in this chapter summarize the major findings of this study and discuss the significant ones, followed by a conclusion based on the same in relation to the purpose of the study. It finally refers to the limitations of this current study and highlights the scope for further research in this context.

5.1 Summary of Findings

- The frequency count of learning strategies shows that the majority of the learners (27.8%) preferred Memory strategies and only 7.8% of the learners preferred Cognitive strategies under the present study. Metacognitive and Social strategies were also found to be popular among the learners in this context. Significant deviation from the hypothesized value was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 204.950, p < .05\}$. Therefore, the learning strategies do not seem to be preferred by learners with equal probabilities.
- It was found that, majority of male (n=159, 28.09% of all males) and female (n=175, 27.60% of all females) learners prioritized Memory strategies in learning English. On the other hand, Cognitive strategies were found to be the least preferred, with only 7.42% of the male and 8.04% of the female learners pursuing the same. However, Metacognitive and Social

strategies were also preferred by a good number of learners among males and females. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 8.956, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of gender of the learners.

- Descriptive analysis shows that learners who had no siblings mostly preferred Memory strategies (n=1, 50% of the total respondents) and social strategies (n=1, 50% of the total respondents). The other strategies, however, were not used by these learners. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(20) = 27.812, p < .05\}$. Choice of language learning strategies, therefore, appears to be independent of whether learners have siblings or not.
- Results revealed that learners who studied in urban institutions before taking admission in the university prioritized Memory strategies the most (n=311, 28.61% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=87, 8.00% of total respondents). On the other hand, learners from rural institutions liked Metacognitive strategies the most (n=33, 29.20% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=6, 5.30% of total respondents). However, learners from both these institutions also made good use of Metacognitive and Social strategies. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 6.998, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of the location of previous institutions.
- Findings indicated that learners who, before taking admission in the university, studied in institutions where the medium of instruction was English preferred Memory strategies the most (n=132, 26.99% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=36, 7.36% of total respondents). Similarly, learners who studied in institutions where the medium of instruction was Bangla also prioritized Memory strategies the most (n=202, 28.41% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least (n=57, 8.01% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and

Social strategies were also practiced by a good number of learners from both the groups. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(5) = 3.425, p < .05\}$. Choice of learning strategies, thus, appears to be independent of the medium of instruction in learners' previous educational institutions.

- Descriptive analysis shows learners who learnt English for 1-3 years before taking admission in university used Memory strategies the most ($n=33$, 30.27% of total respondents), and Affective strategies the least ($n=7$, 6.42% of total respondents). On the other hand, learners who learnt English for 4-6 years preferred Memory strategies the most ($n=55$, 26.19% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least ($n=19$, 9.04% of total respondents). Similarly, learners who learnt English for more than 6 years also prioritized Memory strategies the most ($n=246$, 27.92% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least ($n=61$, 6.92% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners irrespective of their duration of learning English before taking admission in university. No significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(10) = 10.755, p < .05\}$. Therefore, choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of learners' duration of learning English before taking admission in university.
- It was found that learners having illiterate parents prefer Compensation strategies ($n=1$, 33.33% of total respondents), Metacognitive strategies ($n=1$, 33.33% of total respondents) and Affective strategies ($n=1$, 33.33% of total respondents). However, the remaining strategies were not used by the learners in this category. It also shows that learners having parents with up to primary education liked both Compensation strategies ($n=4$, 33.33% of total respondents) and Social strategies ($n=4$, 33.33% of total respondents) the most. However, though Memory strategies were not used by the learners in this category, they did use the Cognitive, Metacognitive and the Affective strategies to some extent. On the other hand, learners having parents with up to secondary education preferred Memory

strategies the most ($n=93$, 28.01% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least ($n=21$, 6.32% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category. Similarly, also those learners who have parents with up to secondary education used Memory strategies the most ($n=201$, 29.34% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least ($n=55$, 8.02% of total respondents). However, Metacognitive and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners falling in this category. Nonetheless, learners having parents with up to primary education prioritize Metacognitive strategies the most ($n=45$, 26.78% of total respondents), and Cognitive strategies the least ($n=15$, 8.92% of total respondents). Similarly, Memory and Social strategies were also used by a good number of learners in this category. In Chi-square test of independence, no significant relationship was found $\{\chi^2(20) = 21.513, p < .05\}$. Choice of learning strategies, therefore, appears to be independent of learners' parental education.

- Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between learners' age and scores in Memory strategies. A very weak negative correlation was found $\{r(1198) = -.075, p < .01\}$, indicating a significant linear relationship between the two variables. With increasing age, learners' inclination towards Memory strategies comes to a gradual decline. Age was found insignificantly correlated with other strategies of language learning.
- When learner autonomy was considered, it was found that female learners were little more autonomous (mean=69.99) than their male counterparts (mean=69.77). It was also found that learners who had instructions in Bangla in their previous institutions before taking admission in the university exhibited more autonomy in learning (mean=69.91) than their counterparts having instructions in English (mean=69.84). Also, when learner autonomy was measured in terms of locality of institution, it was

found that more autonomous learners were from institutions in rural areas (mean=70.30) than from urban areas (mean=69.84). Similarly, it was also found that learners with more than three siblings turned out to be most autonomous (mean=70.66) whereas learners with no siblings were least autonomous (mean=66.50). Again, when autonomy was measured in terms of duration of learning English before taking admission in university, it was found that learners who learnt English for more than six years proved to be the most autonomous (mean=70.05) and those who learnt English for one to three years (mean=68.77) turned out to be the least autonomous. And finally, when autonomy was measured in terms of parental education, it was found that learners having parents with graduate education were most autonomous (mean=70.22) and those with illiterate parents the least autonomous (mean=64.33).

- For all the learners under this study, it was found that learners with highest level of autonomy preferred Compensation strategies (mean=75.76). Although a vast number of learners preferred Metacognitive strategies (n=269), their learner autonomy was the lowest (mean=66.64) compared to other learners who preferred other learning strategies.
- No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .440, p > .05\}$ between the mean score of male and female learners in terms of learner autonomy. The mean of the female learners (mean = 69.99, sd = 8.923) was not significantly different from the mean of their male counterparts (mean = 69.77, sd = 8.641).
- No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .132, p > .05\}$ between the mean score of Bangla and English as mediums of instruction in terms of learner autonomy. The mean of the Bangla as a medium of instruction (mean = 69.91, sd = 8.557) was not significantly different from that of English (mean = 69.84, sd = 9.123).

- No significant difference was found $\{t(1198) = .528, p > .05\}$ between the mean score of rural and urban locations of learners' previous educational institutions in terms of learner autonomy. The mean of rural institutions (mean = 70.30, sd = 8.242) was not significantly different from the mean of urban institutions (mean = 69.84, sd = 8.846).
- No significant difference was found $\{F(4,1195) = 1.527, p > .05\}$ among the mean scores of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their number of siblings.
- No significant difference was found $\{F(2,1197) = 1.060, p > .05\}$ among the mean scores of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their duration of learning English before taking admission in university.
- No significant difference was found $\{F(4,1195) = 1.485, p > .05\}$ among the mean scores of learner autonomy of learners grouped on the basis of their parental education.
- Results of a one-way ANOVA comparing the mean scores of learner autonomy of six different learning strategies used by learners showed a significant difference among the six types of learning strategies ($F(5,1194) = 38.446, p < .01$). Tukey's HSD was used to determine the nature of differences between the groups. It was found that the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 75.76, sd = 9.576) than learners who preferred Metacognitive (mean = 66.64, sd = 11.220), Memory (mean = 67.20, sd = 3.681) and Social strategies (mean = 70.59, sd = 7.495). However, the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Cognitive (mean = 73.57, sd = 11.279) and Affective strategies (mean = 72.93, sd = 5.728) were not significantly different from those of Compensation strategies (mean = 75.76, sd = 9.576). In other words, with increasing learner autonomy, learners learning English as a foreign language at the tertiary level shift their learning strategies from the Memory and Metacognitive ones to the Compensation and Cognitive ones.

- For male learners, the one-way ANOVA shows statistically significant results ($F(5,560) = 14.329, p < .01$) where the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 75.06, sd = 9.294) than the other learning strategies.
- Similarly, for female learners also, the one-way ANOVA shows statistically significant results ($F(5,628) = 24.398, p < .01$) where the mean learner autonomy score of learners who preferred Compensation strategies was significantly higher (mean = 76.44, sd = 9.859) than the other learning strategies.
- Coming from urban institutions, learners who preferred Compensation strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 76.25, sd = 9.447) than those who preferred other strategies for learning English ($F(5,1081) = 41.906, p < .01$).
- Nonetheless, learners who had Bangla as their medium of instruction in their previous educational institutions and preferred Compensation strategies were found to be significantly more autonomous learner (mean = 75.72, sd = 9.327) than those who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,705) = 22.636, p < .01$).
- Similarly, learners who had English as their medium of instruction in their previous educational institutions and preferred Compensation strategies were also found to be significantly more autonomous learner (mean = 75.82, sd = 10.045) than the ones who preferred other strategies for learning English ($F(5,483) = 16.135, p < .01$).
- Learners who had only one sibling and preferred Social strategies were significantly more autonomous as learners (mean = 73.78, sd = 8.750) than those who preferred other language learning strategies ($F(5,175) = 6.817, p < .01$).
- Similarly, also learners who had two siblings and preferred Compensation strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 77.26, sd = 9.331)

than the others who preferred other strategies ($F(5,535) = 22.204, p < .01$).

- Likewise, learners who had three siblings and preferred Compensation strategies were found to possess significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 76.55, sd = 9.764) than others who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,367) = 13.270, p < .01$).
- Also, learners who had more than three siblings and preferred Cognitive strategies were significantly more autonomous (mean = 76.33, sd = 11.361) than those who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,97) = 4.026, p < .01$).
- Nonetheless, learners who had learnt English for around 1-3 years before taking admission in university and preferred Affective strategies proved to be significantly more autonomous (mean = 75.86, sd = 3.338) than the others who preferred other learning strategies ($F(5,103) = 5.451, p < .01$).
- Similarly, learners who had learnt English for around 4-6 years before taking admission in university and preferred Compensation strategies were also significantly more autonomous (mean = 75.86, sd = 9.224) than the other learners who preferred other strategies ($F(5,204) = 4.748, p < .01$).
- In addition, also learners who had learnt English for more than 6 years before taking admission in university and preferred Compensation strategies were found to have significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 75.95, sd = 9.767) than those who preferred the other strategies ($F(5,875) = 30.279, p < .01$).
- However, learners whose parents had up to the secondary level education, and they themselves preferred Compensation strategies were found to have significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 77.05, sd = 9.113) than those who preferred other strategies ($F(5,326) = 15.062, p < .01$).
- On the other hand, learners whose parents had up to the higher secondary level education, and they themselves preferred Compensation strategies

enjoyed significantly more autonomy (mean = 76.43, sd = 9.667) than the others who preferred other strategies ($F(5,679) = 25.119, p < .01$).

- Nonetheless, learners whose parents had up to the graduate level education, and they themselves preferred Cognitive strategies were found to have significantly more learner autonomy (mean = 76.33, sd = 11.361) than those who preferred other language learning strategies ($F(5,162) = 3.657, p < .01$).
- The mean score of learner autonomy of learners from rural institutions were compared in terms of their preferred learning strategies using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5, 107) = 1.351, p > .05$).
- The mean score of autonomy of learners having parents with only up to primary level education were compared in terms of their preferred learning strategies using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(5,6) = 1.649, p > .05$).

5.2 Discussion

Learner autonomy and language learning strategies affect the process of learning any language, including English, in an undisputable manner (Oxford, 1996; Khan, 2012). Such concepts, in particular autonomy, have since long been treated as all-exclusive to the West and their suitability to the Asian learners have always been under question (Healey, 1999). Therefore, there remains a dearth of studies in this regard in the Asian context, often failing to depict a consistent state of being (Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys; 2002). Such a contextual knowledge gap, i.e., in depicting the interrelationship between these two factors and how they shape one another in relation to learning English as a foreign language in the South Asian context, has inspired the researcher in conducting this study that investigates the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among undergraduate learners studying English as a foreign language in Bangladesh. Therefore, the researcher conducted a cross-sectional survey to

quantitatively measure the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among undergraduate learners studying English as a foreign language in different universities in Bangladesh, as well as to provide a quantitative analysis and interpretation on the same. Data was collected from 1200 samples from ten public universities in Dhaka, Chattogram, Rajshahi, Khulna, and Barishal using two different instruments - the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1989) and the Learner Autonomy Scale (Zhang & Li, 2004). Findings indicate a varying relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies in the context of this study.

Learning strategies do not seem to be preferred by learners with equal probabilities. This finding reflects works of many other researchers (Khan, 2012; Bristi, 2015; Ranjan, 2018; Hadi & Guo, 2020; Dawadi, 2017; Ellis, 1994; Tsan, 2008; Alhaysony, 2017) around the world. As language learning strategies depend on the particular learning context and no two contexts are exactly the same, preference of learning strategies can also not be the same. Therefore, the findings of this study contain quite rational underpinnings.

With increasing age, learners' inclination towards Memory strategies comes to a gradual decline. Similar findings were reported in Khan (2012) and Ellis (1994). However, other studies like Bristi (2015), and Rezalou (2014) reported different results. Bristi (2015) reported a consistency in the choice of learning strategies, whereas Rezalou (2014) did not find age to have any significant effect on strategy use. However, the researcher holds the view that with increasing age and experience in learning, learners become more capable of exploring and relying on other strategies more effectively and consciously. Therefore, their dependence on memorizing comes to a gradual decline.

Learners whose parents were educated up to higher secondary level used Memory strategies to a significant extent (mean=31.30, sd=5.241) compared to other groups of learners. However, there was no significant mean difference among the groups of learners in the categories of the other five learning

strategies. The researcher holds the view that as parents who are illiterate or have only primary education do not have much idea about learning strategies, they do not interfere with their children's learning strategies. However, as the learned or graduate parents know the importance of cognition and collaboration in learning a language, they do not encourage their children to indulge in memory strategies. In contrast, as the parents who are educated up to higher secondary level have only a moderate level of understanding of the learning strategies, they find memorizing one of the best ways of learning a language and therefore teach their children to memorize English.

With increasing learner autonomy, learners shift their learning strategies from the Memory and Metacognitive to the Compensation and Cognitive ones. Similar findings were reported in Ranjan (2018) and Ellis (1994). However, Bristi (2015) reported a consistency in learners' choice of learning strategies at various levels of proficiency. The researcher holds the view that with increasing autonomy learners become more capable to analyze their learning needs and thereby can take charge of their own learning. Therefore, they can move beyond the initial level strategies of Memory and Metacognition and start using the more mature level strategies of Compensation and Cognition.

Choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of the gender of the learners. Similar findings were reported in Rezalou (2014). However, Dawadi (2017) and Liu (2015) reported different findings. Both of them reported language learning strategies to be biased by gender. However, the researcher holds the view that it is the learning context, not gender of the learners that determine the learning strategies. Therefore it is expected that learning strategies will be similar in the same learning context, irrespective of the learners' gender.

Choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of whether learners have siblings or not. The researcher holds the view that using learning

strategies is an individual cognitive characteristic of the learner. Therefore, having siblings or not is not a determining factor in this regard.

Choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of the location of the educational institutions where the learner studied before taking admission in university. The researcher holds the view that as choice of language learning strategies is an individual characteristic of the learner, location of that previous educational institution is not a determining factor in this regard.

Choice of learning strategies appears to be independent of the medium of instruction in learners' previous educational institutions. The researcher holds the view that as choice of language learning strategies depends on the learning context, the medium of instruction in learners' previous educational institutions is not a determining factor in this regard.

Choice of language learning strategies appears to be independent of learners' duration of learning English before taking admission in university. Similar findings were reported in Alhaysony (2017). However, Ellis (1994) claimed that experienced learners (with longer duration of learning English) are found to make more use of the functional strategies than that of the less experienced ones (with shorter duration of learning English). The researcher holds the view that as the choice of language learning strategies depends on the learning context, the prior duration of learning English is not a determining factor in this regard.

Choice of learning strategies appears to be independent of learners' parental education. The researcher holds the view that learning strategies are need-specific individual responses to solve those learning needs. Therefore, though parents may influence learners in various ways, learning strategies would remain exclusive to the learners' individual style and the learning needs and context.

Both male and female learners make equal use of different language learning strategies. Similar findings were reported in Ranjan (2018). However, Samaei, Khany and Habibi (2015) and Alhaysony (2017) reported female learners to use more learning strategies than their male counterparts. The researcher holds the

view that language learning strategies are need-specific responses to a learning situation, not a gender biased one. Therefore, both males and females would make equal use of learning strategies in response to that particular learning need.

Learners from both urban and rural institutions make equal use of various language learning strategies. The researcher holds the view that as language learning strategies are need-specific individual responses to a particular learning situation, location of their previous learning institutions is not a determining factor in this regard.

Learners who had instructions in Bangla (in their previous institutions before taking admission at the university) make equal use of different language learning strategies as those who had instructions in English. However, Ellis (1994) claims that learners need to deploy more strategies while dealing with a language that is significantly different from their mother tongue. The researcher holds the view that as the use of learning strategies are need-specific individual approaches to any learning situation, the learner will use every strategy he is familiar with regardless the medium of instruction in previous educational institutions.

Use of different language learning strategies does not vary among learners in terms of their duration of learning English before taking admission in the university. However, Ellis (1994) claims that more experienced learners with higher duration of learning English make more use of functional strategies than that of the less experienced ones. The researcher holds the view that this is a reflection of the overall social approach towards learning English in the given context. More than adjusting to the needs of the learning situation, learners feel secure in following the popular learning strategies.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of learners' gender. Similar findings were reported in Bozkurt & Arslan (2018). However, Al-Khawlani (2018) came out with a different result. He claimed that female respondents score higher in all the sub-domains of learner autonomy

compared to their male counterparts. The researcher holds the view that this difference is related to culture and context and therefore cannot be claimed as a global phenomenon.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of parental education of the learners'. The researcher holds the view that though learner autonomy is an individual-specific approach where various variables come into consideration, parental education alone is not adequate enough in determining learner autonomy.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the learner's number of siblings. The researcher holds the view that though learner autonomy is an individual-specific approach and various variables come into consideration, the number of siblings alone is not a very significant factor in determining learner autonomy.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the medium of instruction (Bangla or English) in the institutions the learner studied before taking admission in the university. The researcher holds the view that learner autonomy is an individual-specific approach and depends on various variables. However, medium of instruction in their previous learning institutions is not a determining factor in this regard.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the duration of learning English by the learner before taking admission in the university. The researcher holds the view that learner autonomy is an individual-specific approach and various variables come into consideration. However, the duration of learning English alone is not adequate enough in determining learner autonomy.

The mean score of learner autonomy does not vary significantly in terms of the locality of institutions (urban or rural) the learner studied before taking admission in the university. However, Iamudom & Tangkiengsirisin (2020) and Al-Khawlani (2018) claimed that duration of exposure to different culture and

locality of learning affects learner autonomy in a significant way. The researcher holds the view that as learner autonomy is an individual-specific approach and depends on various variables, there can be different findings in different contexts. Confining it to any particular finding will be overrated.

5.3 Conclusion

As learner autonomy and language learning strategies are very instrumental in learning a foreign language, particularly English, they require special attention. Despite its global significance, majority of the research in these areas relate to the Western perspective. With only a few studies relating to the East Asian contexts, there still remains a big knowledge gap in terms of the South Asian perspective. Such a contextual knowledge gap, particularly in depicting the interrelationship between autonomy and learning strategies and how they shape one another in relation to learning English as a foreign language in the South Asian context, has inspired the researcher in conducting this study that investigates the role of learner autonomy in using language learning strategies among undergraduate learners studying English as a foreign language in Bangladesh. Findings indicate a varying relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies in the context of this study. It details the role of autonomy in using language learning strategies among university learners in Bangladesh in relation to learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, as this study is the first of its kind in available literature in the context of South Asia, particularly Bangladesh, it offers significant implications for various stakeholders – researchers, teachers, learners, and parents. Researchers can use its findings as a guideline in exploring further areas of research. Teachers can utilize its findings in facilitating learners become more autonomous and use appropriate learning strategies. Parents can also benefit from this study by having a clear conception of autonomous learning and thereby guide their children in a proper way. And finally, learners can make the most out of this study and become successful learners by properly identifying their level of autonomy and the learning

strategies that suit them best. This study therefore is highly significant and has much to offer to all the relevant stakeholders.

5.4 Scope of Further Studies

Researchers in the field of education and language teaching can further explore this study in a number of ways. The same could be investigated in terms of other dimensions like schools children, post graduates etc., providing newer findings about learner autonomy and the use of language learning strategies in those paradigms. Also, more ethnographic variables and indicators like family dynamics, childhood adversities, physical and mental health conditions and the similar could be added to expand the area of exploration. Moreover, the components of this study can be further explored by using more complex and multivariate tools in order to improve the predictability and variability of learner autonomy and language learning strategies. This study, therefore, is not a goal in itself, but rather a persistent endeavour to understand the mechanisms and the intertwined relationships between learner autonomy and language learning strategies, as well as their adjustments, in order to create effective and responsible learning environments.

References

- Alhaysony, M. (2017). Language learning strategies use by Saudi EFL students: The effect of duration of English language study and gender. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(1), 18-28.
- Al-Khawlani, A. (2018). The influence of the learning environment on learner autonomy: A comparative study of Polish and Yemeni EFL undergraduate learners. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 15(3), 109-124.
- Bozkurt, N., & Arslan, F. Y. (2018). Learner autonomy in language learning: Syrian refugee EFL learners' perceptions and readiness. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research*, 8(2), 115-145. doi: 10.17583/remie.2018.3028
- Bristi, N. L. (2015). Exploring Vocabulary Learning Strategies used by Bangladeshi Undergraduate EFL Learners: A Comparative Analysis of Three Proficiency Level

- Learners. *Global Journal of Human – Social Science: (G) Linguistics & Education*. 15(12), 1-11.
- Chan, V., M. Spratt & G. Humphreys (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviours. *Evaluation and Research in Education* 16(1), 1-18.
- Dawadi, S. (2017). Language learning strategies profiles of EFL learners in Nepal. *European Journal of Educational and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 42-55.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hadi, H. U. R., & Guo, X. (2020). A survey of beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies adopted by EFL learners at Shaikh Zayed University. *Cogent Education*, 7(1), 1829803. doi:10.1080/2331186x.2020.1829
- Healey, D. (1999). 'Theory and research: Autonomy in language learning'. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL Environments: Research, Practice and Critical Issues*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., 391-402.
- Iamudom, T., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2020). A Comparison Study of Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies among Thai EFL Learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(2), 199-212. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13214a>
- Khan, M. F. R. (2012). Language learning strategies: A study of teacher and learner perceptions. *BUP Journal*, 1(1), 140-153.
- Liu, H. (2015). Use of Learning Strategies by EFL Learners: A Study of How It Relates to Language Proficiency and Learner Autonomy. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 5(2), 21-35.
- Oxford, R. L. (ed.) (1996). *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross cultural perspectives*. University of Hawai'i at Manoa: Second language teaching and curriculum center technical report 13.
- Ranjan, R. (2018). *LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES: ITS ROLE IN LEARNING OF SPANISH IN INDIAN UNIVERSITIES*. Conference Proceedings. LSCAC 2018 International Conference. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ranjeewa_Ranjan/publication/333994330_language_learning_strategies_its_role_in_learning_of_spanish_in_indian_universities/links/5d11a8b9a6fdcc2462a353c1/language-learning-strategies-its-role-in-learning-of-spanish-in-indian-universities.pdf
- Rezalou, A. (2014). *Strategies to develop student autonomy and their relation with foreign language achievement* (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey. Retrieved from: <http://openaccess.hacettepe.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11655/1938/86fb6825-ba9f-4da2-a8ac-1466328d980b.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

- Samaie, M., Khany, R., & Habibi, N. (2015). On the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies among Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 6(2), 96-109.
- Tsan, S. C. (2008). Analysis of English Learning Strategies of Taiwanese Students at National Taiwan Normal University. *Educational Journal of Thailand*, 2(1), 84-94.
- Zhang, L., & Li, X. (2004). A comparative study on learner autonomy between chinese students and west European students. *Foreign Language World*, 4, 15-23.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Abadi, E. A. M., & Baradaran, A. (2013). The relationship between learner autonomy and vocabulary learning strategies in Iranian EFL learners with different language proficiency level. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(3), 176-185.
- Ahmadi, M., & Izadpanah, S. (2019). The Study of Relationship between Learning Autonomy, Language Anxiety, and Thinking Style: The Case of Iranian University Students. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 4(2), 73-88.
- Alhaysony, M. (2017). Language learning strategies use by Saudi EFL students: The effect of duration of English language study and gender. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(1), 18-28.
- Al-Khawlani, A. (2018). The influence of the learning environment on learner autonomy: A comparative study of Polish and Yemeni EFL undergraduate learners. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 15(3), 109-124.
- Allwright, D. (1990). Autonomy in language pedagogy: CRILE Working Paper, 6. *University of Lancaster*.
- Aoki, N. (2008). Teacher stories to improve theories of learner/teacher autonomy. *Independence*, 43, 15-17.
- Auerbach, E. (2007). Commentary on Part One: Necessary contradictions... and beyond. In *Reconstructing Autonomy in Language Education* (pp. 84-92). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Aviram, A., & Assor, A. (2010). In defence of personal autonomy as a fundamental educational aim in Liberal Democracies: a response to Hand. *Oxford Review of education*, 36(1), 111-126.
- Begum, J. (2019). Learner Autonomy in EFL/ESL Classrooms in Bangladesh: Teachers' Perceptions and Practices. *International Journal of Language Education*, 3(1), 12-21.
- Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge.
- Benson, P. (2012). Autonomy in language learning, learning and life. *Synergies France*, (9), 29-39.
- Benson, P. (2011a). What's new in autonomy? *The Language Teacher*, 35(4), 15-18.
- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy*. London: Routledge.

- Benson, P. (2009). Making sense of autonomy in language learning. In Pemberton, R., Toogood, S. & A. Barfield (Eds.), *Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning* (pp.13–26). Hong Kong, China: Hong Kong University Press.
- Benson, P. (2008). Teachers' and learners' perspectives on autonomy. In T. E. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 15–32). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Benson, P. (2007). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 40(1), 21-40.
- Benson, P. (2005). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*, Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Benson, P. (1997). The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 18-34). London: Longman.
- Benson, P., & Voller, P. (1997). Introduction: Autonomy and independence in language learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 1–12). London: Longman.
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 65(1), 24 –35.
- Blin, F. (2004). CALL and the development of learner autonomy: Towards an activity-theoretical perspective. *ReCALL*, 16(2), 377-395.
- Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *ELT Journal*, 12(7), 1-45.
- Bozkurt, N., Yalcin Arslan, F. (2018). Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: Syrian Refugee EFL Learners' Perceptions and Readiness. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research*, 8(2), 115-145. doi: 10.17583/remie.2018.3028
- Bristi, N.L. (2015). Exploring Vocabulary Learning Strategies used by Bangladeshi Undergraduate EFL Learners: A Comparative Analysis of Three Proficiency Level Learners. *Global Journal of Human – Social Science: (G) Linguistics & Education*. 15(12), 1-11.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000b). The significance of negotiation. In M. P. Breen & A. Littlejohn (Eds), *Classroom decision-making: negotiation in the language classroom* (pp. 5-38). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Breen, M. P., & Littlejohn, A. (2000a). *Classroom decision-making: negotiation in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles*. New York: Longman.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bullock, D. (2010). Learner self-assessment: An investigation into teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 62(2), 114-125.
- Camilleri, G. (1999). *Learner Autonomy -The Teachers' Views*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 25, 112-130.
- Chamot, A. U. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(3), 319-339.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Chan, V. (2001). Readiness for learner autonomy: What do our learners tell us?. *Teaching in higher education*, 6(4), 505-518.
- Chan, V., M. Spratt & G. Humphreys (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviours. *Evaluation and Research in Education* 16(1), 1-18.
- Chang, C., & Liu, H. (2013). Language Learning Strategy Use and Language Learning Motivation of Taiwanese EFL University Students. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*. 10(2), 196-209.
- Chik, A. (2007). From learner identity to learner autonomy: A biographical study of two Hong Kong learners of English. In P. Benson (Ed.), *Learner autonomy 8: Teacher and learner perspectives* (pp. 41-60). Dublin: Authentik.
- Chinpakdee, M. (2020). Developing learner autonomy in language learning: A study in the Thai EFL secondary school context. Retrieved from: <http://researcharchive.vuw.ac.nz/handle/10063/9045>
- Christensen, L. B., Johnson, R. B. & Turner, L. A. (2015). *Research Methods, Design and Analysis* (12th ed.). Pearson.
- Clemente, M. de los Angeles (2001). Teachers' attitudes within a self-directed learning scheme. *System*, 29(1), 45-67.
- Coe, R., Waring, M., Hedges, L. V. & Arthur, J (2017). *Research Methods and Methodologies in Education* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.

- Cohen, A. D. (1998). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London, England: Longman.
- Cohen, A. D. (1990). *Language learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Cohen, A. D., & Weaver, S. J. (2006): *Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction. A Teachers' Guide*. Minneapolis: Centre for Advanced research on language Acquisition, University of Minnesota.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education* (8th ed). Oxon: Routledge.
- Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1996). Cultures of learning: Language classrooms in China. *Society and the language classroom*, 169(206), 42.
- Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 109-117.
- Cotterall, S. (1999). Key variables in language learning: what do learners believe about them?. *System*, 27(4), 493-513.
- Cotterall, S. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 219-227.
- Crabbe, D. (1993). Fostering autonomy from within the classroom: the teacher's responsibility. *System*, 21(4), 443-452.
- Cronk, B. (2020). *How to Use SPSS Statistics* (Eleventh ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy, 3: From Theory to Practice*. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik.
- Dam, L. (1990). Developing awareness of learning in an autonomous language learning context. In R. Duda & P. Riley (Eds.), *Learning styles* (pp. 189-97). Presses Universitaires de Nancy.
- Dam L, Eriksson R, Little D, Miliander J, Trebbi T. Trebbi T. 'Towards a definition of autonomy', Third Nordic Workshop on Developing Autonomous Learning in the FL Classroom, 1990. Bergen, University of Bergen.
- Dansereau, D F. (1985). Learning Strategy Research. In J.W. Segal, S.F. Chipman and R. Glaser (Eds.), *Thinking and Learning Skills*. Hillsdale, N J Erlbaum, (1):9-39.
- Dawadi, S. (2017). Language learning strategies profiles of EFL learners in Nepal. *European Journal of Educational and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 42-55.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York: Plenum.

- Dickinson, L. (2004). Talking shop: Aspects of autonomous learning. *ELT Journal*, 47(4), 330-336.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-instruction in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dickinson, L. (1977). "Autonomy, self-directed learning and individualized instruction." In: E.M. Harding-Esch (ed.), *Self Directed Learning and Autonomy*, Report of a Seminar held at Cambridge, 13– 15 December 1976. Cambridge: Department of Linguistics. 12-34.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. London and New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language teaching research*, 2(3), 203-229.
- Doyal, L., & Gough, I. (1984). A theory of human needs. *Critical Social Policy*, 4(10), 6-38.
- Dufeu, B. (1994). *Teaching Myself*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Édes, Cs. (2008). 'Teachers know best': Autonomous beliefs and behaviours of English majors. A case study of three first-year students at Eötvös University. In J. Horváth, R. Lugossy & M. Nikolov (Eds.), *UPRT 2008: Empirical studies in English applied linguistics* (pp. 43–58). Pécs: Lingua Franca.
- Egbert, J. (2005). *CALL essentials: Principles and practice in CALL classrooms*. Alexandria, Virginia: TESOL.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). *Learning to learn English learner's book: A course in learner training*. Cambridge University Press.
- Everhard, C. J. (2018). Re-exploring the relationship between autonomy and assessment in language learning: A literature overview. *Relay Journal*, 1(1), 6-20.
- Faerch, C. & Kasper, G. (1984). *Strategies in interlanguage communication*. London: Longman.
- Feryok, A. (2013). Teaching for learner autonomy: the teacher's role and sociocultural theory. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 213-225.

- Fisher, D., Hafner, C., & Young, J. (2007). Integrating independent learning: Lessons learned and implications for the classroom. In: D. Gardner (Ed.), *Learner Autonomy 10: Integration and support* (pp.33-55). Dublin: Authentik.
- Gao, X., & Zhang, L. J. (2011). Joining forces for synergy: Agency and metacognition as interrelated theoretical perspectives on learner autonomy. *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning*, 25-41.
- Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (2011). Managing self-access language learning: Principles and practice. *System*, 39(1), 78-89.
- Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (1999). *Establishing self-access: From theory to practice*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- George, D. (2016). *IBM SPSS Statistics 23 Step by Step*. New York: Routledge.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Univ. of California Press.
- Gieve, S., & Clark, R. (2005). The Chinese approach to learning: Cultural trait or situated response? The case of a self-directed learning programme. *System*, 33(2), 261-276.
- Gregersent, T. (2001). Can foreign language learning strategies turn into crutches? A pilot study on the use of strategies by successful and unsuccessful language learners. *Revista Signos. Vol. 34*(49-50), 101-111.
- Gremmo, M-J. & P. Riley (1995). Autonomy, self-direction and self-access in language teaching and learning: The history of an idea. *System* 23(2), 151-164.
- Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern languages and learning strategies: In theory and practice*. London, England: Routledge.
- Hadi, H. U. R., & Guo, X. (2020). A survey of beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies adopted by EFL learners at Shaikh Zayed University. *Cogent Education*, 7(1), 1829803. doi:10.1080/2331186x.2020.1829
- Hamilton, M. (2013). *Autonomy and foreign language learning in a virtual learning environment*. A & C Black.
- Harris, M. (1997). Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 12-20.
- Harrison, R. (2000). Learner managed learning: managing to learn or learning to manage?. *International Journal of lifelong education*, 19(4), 312-321.
- Healey, D. (1999). 'Theory and research: Autonomy in language learning'. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL Environments: Research, Practice and Critical Issues*. Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., 391-402.

- Hess, H.W. (2006) Beyond the Rhetoric of the 'Autonomous Learner': Combining E-Learning and the Classroom. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 3(1), 102-120.
- Ho, J., & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese cultural traditions: Learner autonomy in English language teaching. *System*, 23(2), 235-243.
- Holden, B., & Usuki, M. (1999). Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: A Preliminary Investigation. *Bulletin of Hokuriku University*, 23, 191-203.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Holliday, A. (2005). *The Struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huang, J. (2011). A dynamic account of autonomy, agency and identity in (T)EFL learning. In G. Murray, X. S. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 229-246). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Huang, J. P., & Benson, P. (2013). Autonomy agency and identity in foreign and second language education. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 36(1), 7.
- Iamudom, T., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2020). A Comparison Study of Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies among Thai EFL Learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(2), 199-212. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13214a>
- Jarvis, H. (2012). *Computers and learner autonomy: Trends and issues*. London: British Council.
- Johnston, C., Aliponga, J., Koshiyama, Y., Ries, T., & Rush, T. (2014). Learner autonomy in university English classes. In Nozomu Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT 2013 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.
- Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner perceptions and teachers beliefs about learner autonomy in language learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 6(1-2), 12-29.
- Kanno, Y. (2003). *Negotiating bilingual and bicultural identities: Japanese returnees betwixt two worlds*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kavanoz, S. H. (2006). An Exploratory study of English language teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about learner-centeredness. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 5(2), 3-8.
- Khan, M.F.R. (2017). Role of Learner Autonomy in Choosing Learning Strategies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL): Bangladesh Perspective. *RENOVA*, 3(1), 39-50.
- Khan, M. F. R. (2012). Language learning strategies: A study of teacher and learner perceptions. *BUP Journal*, 1(1), 140-153.

- Knowles, M. (1975) *Self-directed learning: A guide for learners and teachers*, New York: Cambridge Books.
- Lai, C. (2017). Introducing Key Concepts. In *Autonomous Language Learning with Technology: Beyond the Classroom* (Advances in Digital Language Learning and Teaching, pp. 3–20). London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Le, Q. X. (2013). *Fostering learner autonomy in language learning in tertiary education: an intervention study of university students in Hochiminh City, Vietnam* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nottingham).
- Lee, I. (1998). Supporting greater autonomy in language learning, *ELT Journal*, 52(4), 282–290.
- Lewis, T. (2013). Between the social and the selfish: Learner autonomy in online environments. *Innovation in language learning and teaching*, 7(3), 198-212.
- Liang, T. (2009). Language Learning Strategies--The Theoretical Framework and Some Suggestions for Learner Training Practice. *English language teaching*, 2(4), 199-206.
- Little, D. (1996). Freedom to learn and compulsion to interact: promoting learner autonomy through the use of information systems and information technologies. *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning*, 1, 203-218.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy. 1: Definition, Issues and Problems*, Dublin: Authentik.
- Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied linguistics*, 20(1), 71-94.
- Littlewood, W. (1996). Autonomy: An anatomy and a framework. *System* 24(4), 427–435.
- Liu, H. (2015). Use of Learning Strategies by EFL Learners: A Study of How It Relates to Language Proficiency and Learner Autonomy. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 5(2), 21-35.
- Macaro, E. (2008). The shifting dimensions of language learner autonomy. In T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 47-62). Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Manurung, K. (2005). Instructing language learning strategies to promote autonomous learning. *Indonesian JELT: Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 66-90.
- McDonough, J. and Shaw, C. (1993), *Materials and Methods in ELT*, Oxford: Blackwell.

- Mercer, S. (2011). Understanding learner agency as a complex dynamic system. *System*, 39, 427-436.
- Moore, M. G. (1972). Learner autonomy: The second dimension of independent learning. *Convergence*, 5(2), 76.
- Morrison, B. (2008). The role of the self-access centre in the tertiary language learning process. *System*, 36, 123-140.
- Murray, G. (2014). Exploring the social dimensions of autonomy in language learning. In *Social dimensions of autonomy in language learning* (pp. 3-11). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Natri, T. (2007). Active learnership in continuous self-and peer-evaluation. In *Reconstructing autonomy in language education* (pp. 108-119). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Ng, S. F., & Confessore, G. J. (2010). The relationship of multiple learning styles to levels of learner autonomy. *International Journal of Self-directed Learning*, 7(1), 1-13.
- Nguyen, C. T. (2012, January). The roles of teachers in fostering autonomous learning at the university level. In *proceeding of Cyprus International Conference on Educational Research* (CY-ICER-2012) North Cyprus (Vol. 47, pp. 605-609).
- Nikolov, M., & Curtain, H. (2000). *An early start: Young learners and modern languages in Europe and beyond*. Council of Europe.
- Noels, K. A. (2009). The internalization of language learning into the self and social identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp.295–313). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Noels, K. A., R. Clement & L. G. Pelletier (1999). Perceptions of teacher communicative style and student's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23-34.
- Nunan, D. (2003). Nine steps to learner autonomy, *Symposium, 2003*, 193-204.
- Nunan, D. (1997). Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 192 -203). Harlow: Longman.
- Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between learning and instruction. *Tesol Quarterly*, 29(1), 133-158.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner centred curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*: Cambridge University Press.

- Oxford, R. (2008). Hero With a Thousand Faces: Learner Autonomy, Learning Strategies and Learning Tactics in Independent Language Learning. In S. Hurd & T. Lewis (Eds.), *Language Learning Strategies in Independent Settings*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, pp. 25-41.
- Oxford, R. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31(3), 313–330.
- Oxford, R. L. (ed.) (1996). Language learning strategies around the world: Cross cultural perspectives. University of Hawai'i at Manoa: Second language teaching and curriculum center technical report 13.
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House, 284-297.
- Palfreyman, D. (2003). Introduction: Culture and learner autonomy. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures: Language education perspectives* (pp. 1-19). New York: MacMillan.
- Park, G.-P. (2011). The Validation Process of the SILL: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4), p21. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n4p21>
- Pearson, P. D., & Dole, J. A. (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: A review of research and a new conceptualization of instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 88(2), 151-165.
- Pemberton, R., Li, E. S. L., Or, W. W. F., & Pierson, H.D. (Eds.). (1996). *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Pennycook, A. (1997). Cultural alternatives and autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 35-65). London: Longman.
- Prosser, J. (1999). The evolution of school culture research. In J. Prosser (Ed.), *School Culture* (pp. 1–14). London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Rahimi, M., Riazi, A., & Saif, S. (2008). An investigation into the factors affecting the use of language learning strategies by Persian EFL learners. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 31-60.
- Ranjan, R. (2018). *LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES: ITS ROLE IN LEARNING OF SPANISH IN INDIAN UNIVERSITIES*. Conference Proceedings. LSCAC 2018 International Conference. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Ranjeeva-Ranjan/publication/333994330_language_learning_strategies_its_role_in_learning_of_spanish_in_indian_universities/links/5d11a8b9a6fdcc2462a353c1/language-learning-strategies-its-role-in-learning-of-spanish-in-indian-universities.pdf

- Ray, J. M. (2009). A template analysis of teacher agency at an academically successful dual language school. *Journal of advanced academics*, 21(1), 110-141.
- Raya, M. J., & Vieira, F. (2015). *Enhancing autonomy in language education. A case-based approach to teacher and learner development*. Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Raya, M. J., Lamb, T., & Vieira, F. (2007). *Pedagogy for autonomy in language education in Europe*. Authentik.
- Reeve, J. (2006). Teachers as facilitators: What autonomy-supportive teachers do and why their students benefit. *The Elementary School Journal*, 106(3), 225-236.
- Regan, J-A. (2005). Facilitating students towards self-directed learning. In P. Hartley, A. Woods & M. Pill (Eds.), *Enhancing teaching in higher education: New approaches for improving student learning* (pp. 93-108). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Reinders, H. (2010). Towards a Classroom Pedagogy for Learner Autonomy: A Framework of Independent Language Learning Skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(5).
- Reinders, H. (2000). Do it yourself! A learners' perspective on learner autonomy and self access language learning in an English proficiency programme. Unpublished MA Dissertation, University of Groningen, The Netherlands
- Reinders, H., & Balcikanli, C. (2011). Do classroom textbooks encourage learner autonomy? *Novitas-ROYAL*, 5(2), 265-272.
- Reinders, H., & White, C. (2011). Learner autonomy and new learning environments. *Language Learning & Technology*, 15(3), 1-3.
- Rezalou, A. (2014). *Strategies to develop student autonomy and their relation with foreign language achievement* (Unpublished master's thesis). Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey. Retrieved from: <http://openaccess.hacettepe.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/11655/1938/8/6fb6825-ba9f-4da2-a8ac-1466328d980b.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). Interaction in the second language classroom. *Readings in Methodology*, 66.
- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. L. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'Good Language Learner' Can Teach Us. *TESOL Quarterly* 9, 41-45.
- Ryan, R. M. & E. L. Deci. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In Deci, E. L. & R. M. Ryan. (Eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

- Samaie, M., Khany, R., & Habibi, N. (2015). On the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies among Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 6(2), 96-109.
- Scarcella, R. & Oxford, R. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Scharle, Á., & Szabo, A. (2000). *Learner autonomy: A guide to developing learner responsibility*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sinclair, B. (2000) Learner autonomy: The next phase? In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath and T. Lamb (eds.) *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions*. London: Longman. 4-14.
- Smith, R. (2008). Learner autonomy (key concepts in ELT). *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 395-397.
- Smith R., Kuchah K., Lamb M. (2018) Learner Autonomy in Developing Countries. In: Chik A., Aoki N., Smith R. (eds) *Autonomy in Language Learning and Teaching*. Palgrave Pivot, London.
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: Which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6(3), 245-266.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (1995). Styles of thinking in the school. *European Journal of High Ability*, 6(2), 201-219.
- Szocs, K. (2017). Teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning autonomy and its implications in the classroom: A mixed method study. *Apples: Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 11(2), 125-145.
- Tarone, E. (1983). Some thought on the notion of "communication strategy". In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London: Longman.
- Tassinari, M. G. (2012). Evaluating learner autonomy: A dynamic model with descriptors. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 3(1), 24-40.
- Thang, S. M. (2005). Investigating Malaysian distance learners' perceptions of their English proficiency courses. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 20(3), 243-256.
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Sherwani, S. (2018). An Analysis of the Relationship among EFL Learners' Autonomy, Self-esteem, and Choice of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(8), 933-947.
- Tran, T. Q. (2020). EFL students' attitudes towards learner autonomy in English vocabulary learning. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, 3(2), 86-94.

- Tsan, S. C. (2008). Analysis of English Learning Strategies of Taiwanese Students at National Taiwan Normal University. *Educational Journal of Thailand*, 2(1), 84-94.
- Tudor, I. (1996). *Learner-centredness as language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tudor, I. (1993). Teacher roles in the learner-centred classroom. *ELT journal*, 47(1), 22-31.
- UGC, Bangladesh. (2021b). *List of Public Universities*. UGC, Bangladesh. <http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/public-universities>
- UGC, Bangladesh. (2021a). *Http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/private-universities*. UGC, Bangladesh. <http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd/private-universities>
- Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 11-24). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Ushioda, E. (2006). Language motivation in a reconfigured Europe: access, identity, autonomy. *Journal of Multicultural and Multilingual Development*, 27(2), 148-161.
- Üstünlüoğlu, E. (2009). Autonomy in language learning: Do students take responsibility for their learning?. *Journal of Theory & Practice in Education (JTPE)*, 5(2), 148-169.
- Van Han, N. (2018). Learner autonomy: an experimental study of language learning strategies, learning attitudes and motivation through computer assisted language learning (CALL) among Vietnamese college students (Doctoral dissertation, University of Southern Queensland). Retrieved from: <https://eprints.usq.edu.au/34835/>
- Vázquez, B. M. (2015). Pedagogy for autonomy in FLT: An exploratory analysis on its implementation through case studies. *Porta Linguarum*, 23, 59-74.
- Victori, M., & Lockhart, W. (1995). Enhancing metacognition in self-directed language learning. *System*, 23(2), 223-234.
- Voller, P. (1997). Does the teacher have a role in autonomous language learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 98-113). New York: Longman.
- Wall, S. (2003). Freedom as a political ideal. *Social Philosophy and Policy*, 20(2), 307-334.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. (1986). The teaching of learning strategies. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching and learning* (pp. 315-327).
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*. 19(4), 515-537.

- Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wenden, A. (1983). Literature review: The process of intervention. *Language Learning*, 33(1), 103-121.
- White, C. (1999). Expectations and emergent beliefs of self-instructed language learners. *System*, 27(4), 443-457.
- Williams, M. & R. Burden. (1997). *Psychology for Language Teachers: A Social Constructivist Approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Xu, W. (2011). Learning styles and their implications in learning and teaching. *Theory and Practice in language Studies*, 1(4), 413-416.
- Yagcioglu, O. (2018) THE AUTONOMY APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 5(3), 263-271.
- Yang, N. D. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: Promoting learner autonomy. *System*, 26(1), 127-135.
- Yasmin, M., & Sohail, A. (2018). A creative alliance between learner autonomy and English language learning: Pakistani University teachers' beliefs. *Creativity Studies*, 11(1), 1-9.
- Yildirim, O. (2012). A Study on a Group of Indian English as a Second Language Learners' Perceptions of Autonomous Learning. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 3(2), 18-29.
- Yilmaz, K. (2007). Learner-centred instruction as a means to realise democratic education: The problems and constraints confronting learner-centred instruction in Turkey. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation and Development*, 4(3), 15-28.
- Zakari, N. L., Abd Aziz, A., & Ramayah, K. (2017). Language learning strategies and learner autonomy in learning Japanese. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9(3), 50-60.
- Zhang, L., & Li, X. (2004). A comparative study on learner autonomy between chinese students and west European students. *Foreign Language World*, 4, 15-23.

Appendix

Appendix – 1:

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

© R. Oxford. 1989

This form of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. Please put a tick in the correct box that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

Scoring key:

Never or almost never true of me = 1

Usually not true of me = 2

Somewhat true of me = 3

Usually true of me = 4

Always or almost always true of me = 5

Part A

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1) I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2) I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3) I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.					
4) I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5) I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6) I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7) I physically act out new English words.					
8) I review English lessons often.					
9) I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					

Part B

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
10) I say or write new English words several times.					
11) I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12) I practice the sounds of English.					
13) I use the English words I know in different ways.					

14) I start conversations in English.					
15) I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16) I read for pleasure in English.					
17) I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.					
18) I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19) I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20) I try to find patterns in English.					
21) I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22) I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23) I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					

Part C

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
24) To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
25) When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26) I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27) I read English without looking up every new word.					
28) I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
29) If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					

Part D

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
30) I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31) I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32) I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33) I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					

34) I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
35) I look for people I can talk to in English.					
36) I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37) I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38) I think about my progress in learning English.					

Part E

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
39) I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40) I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41) I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42) I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.					
43) I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
44) I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					

Part F

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
45) If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46) I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47) I practice English with other students.					
48) I ask for help from English speakers.					
49) I ask questions in English.					
50) I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

Appendix – 2:

Questionnaire to Investigate Learner Autonomy (Zhang and Li, 2004)

Direction: In order to investigate the Learner Autonomy, will you please circle the one closest answer to the following questions according to your true cases. Thank you very much for your help and patience!

Indicators	A = Never	B = Rarely	C = Sometimes	D = Often	E = Always
Scoring rules	A = 1	B = 2	C = 3	D = 4	E = 5

Part I

1) I think I have the ability to learn English well.	A	B	C	D	E
2) I make good use of my free time in English study.	A	B	C	D	E
3) I preview before the class.	A	B	C	D	E
4) I find I can finish my task in time.	A	B	C	D	E
5) I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing review etc.	A	B	C	D	E
6) I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself.	A	B	C	D	E
7) I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. when I make progress.	A	B	C	D	E
8) I attend out-class activities to practice and learn the language.	A	B	C	D	E
9) During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role-play, etc.	A	B	C	D	E
10) I know my strengths and weaknesses in my English study.	A	B	C	D	E
11) I choose books, exercises which suit me, neither too difficult nor too easy.	A	B	C	D	E

Part II

- 12) I study English here due to:
 - a. my parents' demand
 - b. curiosity
 - c. getting a good job, help to my major
 - d. interest of English culture, such as film, sports, music, etc.
 - e. C and D
- 13) I think the learner-teacher relationship is that of:
 - a. receiver and giver
 - b. raw material and maker
 - c. customer and shopkeeper
 - d. partners
 - e. explorer and director
- 14) I think my success or failure in English study is mainly due to:
 - a. luck or fate
 - b. English studying environment
 - c. studying facilities (aids)
 - d. teachers
 - e. myself
- 15) Whether students should design the teaching plan together with teachers, my opinion is:
 - a. strongly agree
 - b. agree
 - c. neutral
 - d. oppose
 - e. strongly oppose
- 16) When the teacher asks questions for us to answer, I would mostly like to:

- a. wait for others' answers
 - b. think and ready to answer
 - c. look up books, dictionaries
 - d. clarify questions with teachers
 - e. join a pair/group discussion
- 17) When I meet a word I don't know, I mainly:
- a. let it go
 - b. ask others
 - c. guess the meaning
 - d. B and E
 - e. look up the dictionary
- 18) When I make mistakes in study, I'd usually like the following ones to correct them:
- a. let them be
 - b. teachers
 - c. classmates
 - d. others
 - e. books or dictionaries
- 19) When I am asked to use technologies that I haven't used before (e. g. internet discussion),
- a. I usually try to learn new skills
 - b. I learn them following others
 - c. I feel worried, but anyway
 - d. I put it off or try to avoid it
 - e. I resist using them
- 20) I think the following way is most useful in my English study:
- a. taking notes
 - b. mechanic memory
 - c. doing exercises of grammar, translation, words etc.
 - d. classifying or grouping or comparing
 - e. group discussion
- 21) I usually use materials selected:
- a. only by teachers
 - b. mostly by teachers
 - c. by teachers and by myself
 - d. mostly by myself
 - e. only by myself

Appendix – 3:

Student's Information Schedule

Dear participants, please fill up the following section with appropriate responses. This information will be used only for research purposes.

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age: _____

3. How many siblings do you have? _____

4. Where was the location of the institutions where you studied in before taking admission in university?

Urban area	Rural area
------------	------------

5. What was the medium of instruction in those institutions?

Bangla	English
--------	---------

6. How long did you study English before taking admission in university?

1 – 3 years	4 – 6 years	More than 6 years
-------------	-------------	-------------------

7. What is your parents' education level?

Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Graduate
------------	---------	-----------	------------------	----------