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RESEARCH ON AUTONOMOUS ENGLISH-LEARNING STRATEGIES OF
AMERICAN CULTURE AND LANGUAGE STUDENTS

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of
Other Languages

by
Ching Hsu
September 2009

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Aug. 17, 2009
Date

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ABSTRACT

Self-directed learning has become a familiar term for teachers, parents, and students. That is, the importance of autonomy in learning is increasingly emphasized. The purpose of this study is to help understand the relationship between self-directed learning strategies and cessation of second-language learning (also known as fossilization). Specifically, the syntactic structures used by second-language Taiwanese English learners at the intermediate or early-advanced levels will be analyzed to determine their level of fossilization, if any. The project will also investigate key research questions such as the following: How can self-directed learning benefit adult second-language learners? How can adult second-language learners maximize their motivation and interest in learning through self-direction? And, how can adult second-language learners overcome fossilization in second-language acquisition?

The data was collected using a questionnaire based on a model provided by Zao-Hong Han in her book Fossilization in Adult Second Language. The questionnaire was administered during interviews with two Taiwanese female

students. Each interview lasted between 30 and 40 minutes. These interviews were later transcribed and participants' speaking performance was analyzed.

The hypothesis of the research is that the level of fossilization will be evident based on analysis of each participant's oral errors. Answers to the questionnaire will result in an Autonomous Learning Profile for that individual. Based on a subject size of two people, there will be no attempt at this time to establish a correlation between the score on the Fossilization Index and the Self-Directed Learning Profile.

This study will serve as a guideline for adult second-language learners who want to strengthen the effectiveness of self-directed learning outcomes or develop their self-directed learning strategies. Through the understanding of learning factors, fossilized language elements, and their own learning strategies, learners will be more confident and motivated to pursue their personal second-language acquisition goals and aspirations.

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I owe a great deal to many people who helped and supported me while I was doing this project.

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Through the devotion they paid to my master's academic life, I learned a great deal from these excellent professors. Their instruction transformed me from a learner dedicated to continuous improvement into a thinker and an educator in English-as-a-second-language (ESL) learning.

I want to thank the two American Cultural and Language Program students in California State University, San

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

The Role of Self-Directed Learning in Adult Education

"There are nearly 1,000 "self"-hyphenated words in the English language" (English & English, 1958) as cited by Zimmerman (1989, p. ix). These "self"-hyphenated words "describe how individuals react to and seek to control their own physical, behavioral, and psychological qualities" (Zimmerman, 1989, p. ix). Increasingly, self-learning systems have become popular and highly sought-after ways of learning the English language. The core of self-directed learning (SDL) and self-directed learning strategies comprises specific terminology that will be addressed and discussed in this study. Some terms that pertain to self-directed learning are self-guided learning, self-regulated learning, and individualized learning. Self-guided learning is similar in meaning to self-directed learning, and for the purposes of this project these two terms are used interchangeably. Some other concepts related to self-directed learning are identified in Chapter Two.

Candy (1991) drew on the work of Brookfield (1982), Gibbons (1980), Houle (1961, 1984), McClintock (1982), and Newman (1852), to argue that self-directed learners can succeed in SDL without being taught "how to learn" (Smith, 1976, 1982, 1987, cited by Candy, 1991, p. 140). By teaching themselves how to learn rather than what to learn, self-directed learners can enhance the effectiveness of SDL. Rather than having materials given to them about what to learn, self-directed learners should possess the skill of teaching themselves how to learn. Thus, they can engage in SDL enjoyably and confidently without assistance.

Brookfield argues in the foreword of Candy's book Self-direction for Lifelong Learning (1991):

Self-directed learning has taken the adult educational world by storm in the last two decades. In dissertations and thesis, in the pages of professional journals, and in various monographs and books, the idea of self-directed learning has been defined, debated, reviled, and revered. Yet despite the thousands of printed pages devoted to the idea, no single piece of work has emerged that could justifiably lay claim to being the definitive scholarly treatment of the topic. (Candy, 1991, p. xi)

The term self-directed learning has appeared in various types of academic writing. Researchers have emphasized the importance and significance of SDL. Not surprisingly, there has been a great deal of growth in SDL in adult education, and this trend is expected to continue to rise as the use of technology becomes more mainstream.

The Emergence of Fossilization in Adult Second-Language Learning

For the majority of second-language learners, a phenomenon occurs which is commonly called fossilization. Fossilization happens when learners get stuck or stabilize in their learning process and stop advancing toward a nativelike capacity. Thus, they fail to attain nativelike proficiency in second-language learning. This is especially a problem in adult second-language acquisition. The process of fossilization has been discussed in variety of works relating to second-directed learning (SDL).

The term fossilization is complex and a more complete working definition will unfold over the course of this project. Aspects of fossilization will be further discussed as related to learners' oral language. Different views from several researchers as well as causal variables will be addressed to help understand SDL strategies that can be used to reach nativelike success.

Learning Strategies in Self-Directed Learning and Overcoming Fossilization

The lack of effective learning strategies for second-language learners impacts the effectiveness of SDL. Self-directed learners can improve their SDL through an understanding of their learning factors, learning styles, and ascertainment of causal factors that lead to fossilization. Although there is a great deal of research related to SDL and fossilization, the role of self-directed learning (SDL) strategies in assisting SDL learners to overcome fossilization is not clear. This is the research focus of this project.

The role of SDLS in overcoming fossilization will be discussed later in the project.

Target Teaching Level: Beginning College Students

My target teaching level is beginning English-as-a-second-language (ESL) college students. This project explored the effectiveness of self-directed learning (SDL) in the American Culture and Language Program (ACLP) for pre-college/pre-graduate second-language learners. The ACLP is a crucial process where international students, whose English abilities do not meet the university's entrance requirements, learn required skills in English before they attend the university. Students also experience American

classroom culture in the ACLP. Some such programs offer culture courses that help international students to learn more about American culture.

However, in the ACLP, self-directed learning strategies are seldom utilized either by teachers or students. This makes some international students, such as Taiwanese learners, unsure about using SDL strategies. In the pedagogy of a number of Asian countries, such as Taiwan, Taiwanese students are "spoon-fed" by their teachers. As a result they are uncomfortable with SDL.

Personal Background

This project has been created due to my desire to promote SDL in the American Culture and Language Program (ACLP) classrooms. Because the effectiveness of self-directed learning (SDL) has consistently been proven, the ACLP should use it to further enhance student learning and development. Besides assisting in improving language skills overall, SDL can help learners become aware of their personal causal factors in learning. This can increase the role of SDL in English acquisition.

During my high school and university years in Taiwan, I spent time tutoring middle school and college students. I found that most students were not independent learners.

They lacked the skills to direct their own learning process. SDL would have been helpful to motivate them to think through learning situations in order to achieve success.

I earned a teaching certificate from an English teaching institute in Taiwan. However, attaining this certificate was insufficient to fulfill my career plan of being a college teacher. In addition, it did not prepare me for doctoral research or a teaching career. I believed I needed more education. Throughout my master's research, I believe I have sharpened my professional skills and enhanced my confidence in the classroom.

Purpose of the Project

This project is designed to present an analysis of self-directed learning (SDL) strategies. These strategies are designed to help Taiwanese second-language learners overcome fossilization and are based upon theoretical and empirical evidence. My work also provides information on SDL which is useful for adult second-language learners (ASLL) to accelerate self-directed learning (SDL). The concepts pertaining to SDL will be discussed in this project. It also presents a model which, if employed correctly, would help ASLL clarify their understanding of

self-direction within their context of self-guided learning (SGL).

The goal of this project is to create guidelines that will enhance the effectiveness of SDL in adult English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) education. The emphasis on SDL, especially in second-language acquisition (SLA), is central to this project. In keeping with the principles of SDL, learners should comprehend what they need to do, and how they can help themselves to learn more precisely and effectively without a teacher's direction.

In general, the project serves as a practical guide for English learners. It offers valuable knowledge to adult learners who want to advance their acquisition of English and prevent fossilization.

Content of the Project

This project investigates ESL learners' needs through interviews with two Taiwanese female students from the American Culture and Language Program (ACLP). The findings were used to design appropriate ways for them to improve autonomous learning by using self-directed learning strategies. The factors that were discussed during the interviews were past SDL experience and current learning,

attitudes, motivation, activities, and choices. By analyzing the language used to respond to the questionnaire, the subjects' fossilization could be assessed.

This project contains five chapters: introduction, review of literature, research methodology, analysis of the data, and summary.

Chapter One states the background and general scope of the project, specially the role of self-directed learning and fossilization in adult education. Also, the importance of learning strategies in SDL and overcoming fossilization will be discussed.

Chapter Two, Review of Literature, accounts for related concepts that are connected to the research focus of this project. This includes the concepts of fossilization in second-language acquisition (SLA), self-directed learning in adult education, and self-directed learning strategies.

Chapter Three describes the process of collecting data from the two Taiwanese female students in the ACLP at California State University-San Bernardino. The questionnaires were conducted and administered during interviews in a videotaped session.

Chapter Four investigates possible fossilized language elements of the two students and analyses the result of the questionnaire. In addition, it suggests learning strategies for SDL.

Chapter Five sums up the implications of the project and offers suggestions for extended studies and future research.

Significance of the Project

The significance of this project is the provision of targeted assistance for adult second-languages learners (ASLL) to realize what they can do or cannot do in self-directed learning to overcome fossilization in second-language acquisition (SLA). The methodologies and theoretical framework were developed to help ASLLs in engaging self-directed learning (SDL). Second-language learners should be aware of their needs and the learning factors that might impact the effectiveness of their autonomy in learning, thus assisting them to learn more effectively and become more confident by engaging in SDL. In addition, one of the focus areas of the project is instruction on how to learn rather than what to learn. As a result of this work, ASLLs can further understand which

fossilized items might impede their SDL and what learning factors might influence the effectiveness of their SDL.

An autonomous learner should possess a healthy and positive attitude toward SDL, as well as desire to use constructive activities to achieve effective learning results. Learners can choose from their favorite strategies. My hope is this paper would become a valuable reference or guide for ASLLs by assisting them in the SDL process.

Ideally, self-directed learners will achieve their personal goals with the help of the research this paper provides. Thus, they can move forward in pursuing their own education and career goals. I hope this work plays a role in improving the quality of their learning.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Fossilization in Second-Language Acquisition

In the field of second-language acquisition (SLA), scholars have discussed the concept of fossilization extensively. Although the use of the term is prevalent in SLA, its meaning is complex and difficult to define. The term was first coined in 1972 by Larry Selinker, a pioneer in SLA research. After Selinker (1972), research in the field continued to flourish; however, there was little consensus as to a definition of the term. In the following section this paper will explore Selinker's, Han's, and others' definitions, standpoints, and key issues related to fossilization.

Interlanguage Theory

The term interlanguage (IL) was first coined by Selinker in 1972. Interlanguage is in relation to "the intermediate states of a learner's language as it moves toward the target [second language] (L2)" (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 41). The characteristics of IL are presented as follows by Saville-Troike (2006):

1. IL is systematic. At any particular point or stage

of development, the IL is governed by rules which constitute the learner's internal grammar;

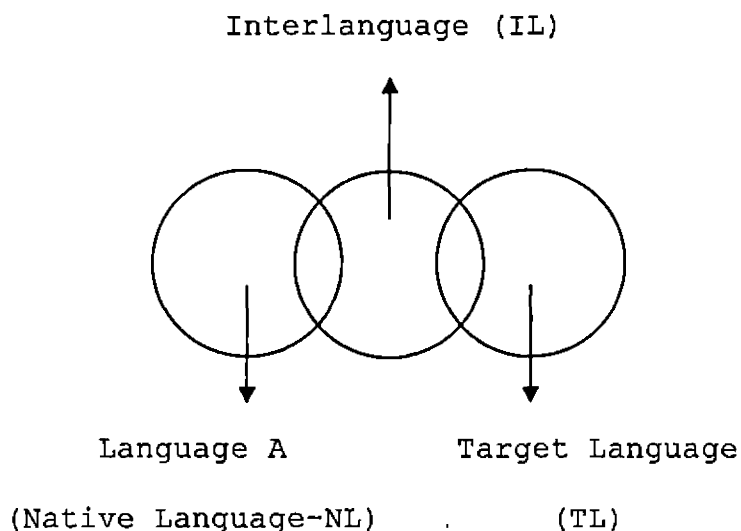
2. IL is dynamic. The system of rules which learners have in their minds changes frequently, or is in a stage of flux, resulting in a succession of interim grammars;
3. IL is variable. Although the IL is systematic, differences in context result in different patterns of language use; and
4. IL is a reduced system, both in form and function. The characteristic of reduced form refers to the less complex grammatical structures that typically occur in an IL compared to the target language.

(Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 41)

According to Corder (1981), interlanguage shares "characteristics of two social dialects of language, where these language themselves share rules or not," as shown in Figure 1. Corder (1981) provided the following insight:

The term interlanguage and interlingua suggest that the learner's language will show systematic features both of the target language and of other language he may know, most obviously of his mother tongue. In other words his [sic] system is a mixed or

intermediate one. (Corder, 1981, p. 67)



Source: Corder (1981). Error analysis and interlanguage.
Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 17.

Figure 1. Relationship of Interlanguage between L1 and L2

Ellis (1990) underscored that "fossilization is a unique feature of interlanguage systems" (p. 52). Interlanguage is formed with relation to communicative needs and neurolinguistical possibilities; Ellis (1990) stated, [this] "may be because there is no communicative need for further development" or "may be because full competence in a L2 is neurolinguistically impossible for most learners" (p. 52). In other words, learners reach a plateau and cannot progress further. Scholars describe this phase as "got stuck or stabilized." In this phase, factors

contribute no communicative needs for further development or progress is neurolinguistically unattainable. As such, for most learners, reaching complete competence in a L2 is impaired (Selinker and Lamendella, 1978).

Similarly, Selinker and Gass (2008) argued:

This concept validates learners' speech, not as a deficit system, that is, a language filled with random errors, but as a system of its own with its own structure. This system is composed of numerous elements, not the least of which are elements from the NL and the TL. There are also elements in the IL that do not have their origin in either the NL or the TL.

(Selinker & Gass, p. 14)

Interlanguage lacks elements of both the first language and the target language. In addition, IL constitutes both formal and informal forms. In the learner's IL system, he/she creates some non-existent rules and combines them with rules of L1 and the rules of the target language into an IL system. In other words, the IL system shares features of L1 and L2, and blends them with the rules that learners create themselves. Therefore, IL is influenced by the first language and target language.

Selinker's Definitions

As stated earlier, the concept of fossilization was first introduced by Selinker in 1972. In Interlanguage, Selinker (1972) argued that fossilization can be conceptualized as two functions: a cognitive mechanism and performance-based structural notion. Selinker (1972) described fossilization as a cognitive mechanism in the following way:

Fossilization, a mechanism which also exists in this latent psychological structure, underlies surface linguistic material which speakers will tend to keep in their IL productive performance, no matter what the age of the learner or the amount of instruction he receives in the TL. (Selinker, 1972, p. 229)

As Han (2004) stated, when fossilizable phenomenon is a cognitive mechanism, "it was thought to be a constituent of a latent psychological structure that dictates a learner's acquisition of a second language" (Han, 2004, p. 14). Moreover, as described by Selinker (1972), when fossilization functions as a performance-based structural notion it acts in the following ways:

Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular

NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL. (Selinker, 1972, p. 215)

When fossilization serves as a performance-based structural motion, it leads to "the regular reappearance in second-language performance of linguistic phenomena which were thought to be eradicated in the performance of the learner" (Selinker, 1972, p. 211).

Therefore, Selinker (1972) offered a preliminary discussion in terms of two functions. These dual functions are interrelated, which implies that no matter what age and how much instruction in the TL, both child and adult L2 learners can be affected by fossilizable phenomenon. Also, fossilization can be distinguished from productive performance. In addition, it is resistant to external influences (Han, 2004).

Selinker's argument is that fossilizable structures are "errors" rather than "mistakes" (Selinker, 1972, p. 215). In addition, Selinker (1972) stated that "the well-observed phenomenon of 'backsliding'" is not merely observed from TL or NL, but also from IL (Selinker, 1972, pp. 215-216).

Selinker in his research preceding 1978 developed an explicit definition. According to Selinker and Lamendella (1978), fossilization is

...a permanent cessation of IL before the learner has attained TL norms at all levels of linguistic structure and in all discourse domains in spite of the learner's positive ability, opportunity, and motivation to learn and acculturate into target society. (Selinker & Lamendella, 1978, p. 187)

In this regard, most L2 learners tend to fail to attain nativelike proficiency. Fossilization is an inevitable phenomenon that takes place in SLA, particularly with adult learners. Thus, fossilization or stabilization is a normal and common part of the learning process. Also, Selinker and Lamedella (1978) concluded that possible causes are both internal and external and "there is probably no single cause" (Ellis, 1994, p. 354). As such, fossilization is an unavoidable and innate process in L2 acquisition (Han, 2004).

Furthermore, Selinker (1996) claimed that

...Fossilization is the process whereby the learner creates a cessation of interlanguage learning, thus stopping the interlanguage from developing, it is

hypothesized, in a permanent way...The argument is that no adult can hope ever speak a second language in such a way that s/he is indistinguishable from native speakers of that language. (Selinker, 1996, as cited by Han, 2004, p. 15)

This implies that fossilization is the cessation of IL development. Also, it is inevitable. No adult L2 learners can ever achieve nativelike competence.

Gass and Selinker (2008) added the following:

In SLA, one often notes that learners reach plateaus that are far from the TL norms. Furthermore, it appears to be the case that fossilized or stabilized interlanguage exists no matter what learners do in terms of further exposure to the TL. Unfortunately, a solid explanation of permanent or temporary learning plateau is lacking at present due, in part, to the lack of longitudinal studies that would be necessary to create databases necessary to come to conclusions regarding "getting stuck" in another language. (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 14)

The core of Selinker's argument is that fossilization exists, but whether it is temporary or permanent for SLA learners depends on how much exposure they have to TL. Thus,

longitudinal studies are imperative in order for researchers to reach a final conclusion, as suggested by Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 14).

Others' Views

The proceeding section has introduced Selinker's work on fossilization. His work has become seminal in the field of SLA. In addition, numerous researchers have been influenced by this work.

Dulay and Burt (1977) proposed the notion of "socioaffective filter." A socioaffective filter "governs how much of the input gets through to the language processing mechanisms" (Ellis, 1985, p. 11). According to Ellis (1985), "Once learners have obtained sufficient L2 knowledge to meet their communicative and emotional needs, they may stop learning" (Ellis, 1985, p. 11). Hence this plateau results in fossilization. Ellis further claimed that "no matter how much input and no matter in what form the input is provided, the learner does not learn" (Ellis, 1985, p. 11).

Analogously to Selinker's view, Ellis (1985) described fossilization as follows:

Fossilized structures can be realized as errors or as correct target language forms. If, when fossilization

occurs, the learner has reached a stage of development in which feature X in his [sic] interlanguage has assumed the same form as in the target language, then fossilization of the correct form will occur. If, however, the learner has reached a stage in which feature Y still does not have the same form as the target language, the fossilization will manifest itself as error. (Ellis, 1985, p. 48)

This indicates that fossilization is composed of both correct forms and incorrect forms. As Han (2004) argued, "there are fossilized errors as well as fossilized target-like forms" (Han, 2004, p. 16). When the learner achieves the target-like development, the correct form will come about. And vice versa, if the learner's stage cannot reach the target-like development, the incorrect form will happen (Han, 2004).

Furthermore, Brown (2000) used a metaphor to delineate the term "fossilization": that is, cryogenation, which is "the process of freezing matter at very low temperature" (Brown, 2000, pp. 231-232). According to Brown (2000), "fossilization is a normal and natural stage for many learners" (Brown, 2000, p. 231). This argument echoes Selinker's work (1996), in which he argued that

fossilization is inevitable for most L2 learners. Brown went on to say that most L2 learners, 95 percent, cannot achieve nativelike proficiency (Selinker, 1996). Moreover, Brown (2000) also suggested that fossilization "should not be viewed as some sort of terminal illness" (Brown, 2000, p. 231). Generally, as stated by Brown (2000), "the relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second-language competence has been referred to as fossilization" (Brown, 2000, p. 231).

Freeman and Freeman (2004) provided an accessible and nuanced definition of fossilization. They defined it as "the presence of certain kinds of errors that persist in the speech of adult second-language learners" (p. 44). In a large number of cases, the fossilization is permanent for those adult L2 learners. Moreover, most adult L2 learners are "highly educated," as pointed out by Freeman and Freeman (2004). An example that they offer is that of an older Japanese student who received a MA degree in English teaching. Even though this adult L2 learner is advanced in English, he still makes errors in his second language. They explain his error pattern in the following way: "He could probably explain the rule for each error, but when he uses English, errors like this keep coming up" (Freeman &

Freeman, p. 44).

The Random House Dictionary of the English Language (Flexner & Hanck, 1988, p. 755) defined fossilization as follows: "to become permanently established in the interlanguage of a second-language learner in a form that is deviant from the target language norm and that continues to appear in performance regardless of further exposure to the target language" (cited by Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 14). This definition indicates that fossilization is a deviant form of the target language. Fossilization is both persistent and resistant. Fossilization exists for L2 learners no matter how much input the learner has received.

Han's Definitions

Han (2004) points out that the definitions discussed thus far are lacking "sophistication" and thus "making the phenomenon non-measurable" (Gregg, 1997, SLART-L discussion, cited in Han, 2004, p. 19). Han (1998) further complicated the discussion of the definition of fossilization by introducing a dichotomy or a "two-tier definition": a cognitive level and an empirical level.

According to Han (2004), a cognitive level indicates that "fossilization involves those cognitive processes, or underlying mechanisms that produce permanently stabilized

IL forms" (p. 20). The empirical level is fossilization that "involves those stabilized interlanguage forms that remain in learner speech or writing over time, no matter what the input or what the learner does" (p. 20).

The two levels are closely interrelated. Moreover, the cognitive level is tied to a process and the empirical level is tied to a product. In addition, Han (2004) stressed that the interrelationship between the cognitive level and the empirical level is a cause-effect relationship. The cognitive level of fossilization occurs first then results in the empirical level; Han (2004) mentioned "the cognitive level of fossilization (i.e., fossilization as a process) that gives rise to the empirical level (i.e., fossilization as a product)" (p. 20).

Key Issues in Fossilization

Most L2 adult learners have a tendency to stop progressing after they acquire the target language; that is, they become fossilized. In other words, "they stop short of the native-speaker level of performance in their second language," as stated by Krashen (1985, p. 43).

Krashen (1985) presented several postulations as to causes of fossilization. According to his work, certain possible causes are as follows: "insufficient quantity of

input, inappropriate quality of input, the affective filter, the output filter, and the acquisition of deviant forms" (Krashen, 1985, p. 43). Each possible cause will be further discussed in the following section.

Insufficient Input. "This is the most obvious cause of fossilization," for most learners, in most cases (Krashen, 1985, p. 43). Some L2 learners stop progressing in learning because they lack comprehensible input. For non-native students, fossilization happens as a result of an environment with little exposure or little access to the target language. For residents who live in the country where the target language is spoken, fossilization occurs if they have little contact with native speakers (Krashen, 1985).

Quality of Input. This cause can be described in several ways, such as "input filled with routines and pattern, a limited range of vocabulary, and little new syntax" (Krashen, 1985, p. 43). A person who works in a gas station, for example, receives the same input everyday, such as same simple and short phrases, and has limited access to interaction that would increase their vocabulary, and so forth. Moreover, a businessman may describe his product in English in repetitive terms. Notwithstanding "a

limited range of input," people who are in such a situation might receive identical input repeatedly (Krashen, 1985).

The Affective Filter. Krashen (1985) defined an "affective filter" as "a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition" (Krashen, 1985, p. 3). Krashen (1985) further underscored that "a lower affective filter accounts for the child's superiority in ultimate attainment" (Krashen, 1985, p. 44). Moreover, he provided an example of an affective filter; that is, the study of grammar. The lack of need can be accounted for as follows: the acquirer stops learning "because he/she does not need any more competence" (Krashen, 1985, p. 44). In this situation, his/her present grammatical system is sufficient for him/her to communicate. There is a remedy against fossilization; that is, "to raise communicative demands and focus the performer on grammatical accuracy" (Krashen, 1985, p. 44).

The Output Filter. Krashen (1985) described the output filter as a theory "which attempts to explain why second-language users do not always perform their competence" (Krashen, 1985, p. 45). In contrast to an input or affective filter, the output filter governs use. "The

output filter prevents acquired rules from being used in performance," as stated by Krashen (1985, p. 45). In addition, Krashen (1985) argued, "A necessary, but probably not sufficient, requirement for performing... competence, for lowering the output filter, is a focus on meaning and a lowering of anxiety" (Krashen, 1985, p. 46). Hence, the factors of the output filter are the same as the factors of the input or affective filter (Krashen, 1985).

The Acquisition of Deviant Forms. Two situations that result in the occurrence of deviant forms are extreme foreign-language situations and informal environment situations. The two situations have a tendency to occur in the acquisition of deviant forms and both of them are characterized as "the imperfect version of the second language" (Krashen, 1985, p. 46). "Extreme foreign-language situations take place for students who receive enough "errors, intermediate, transitional forms and first-language influenced errors" from a non-native teacher whose English capacity is not sufficiently proficient. If students receive enough of these incorrect forms, their "language acquisition device" will regard these incorrect forms as "real language." According to Stevick (1982), it might be difficult or impossible to forget the incorrect

forms that they have acquired.

Another situation is the informal environment. Higgs and Clifford (1981) argued the informal environment (the street) is one in which the communication needs are more than the L2 competence. That is to say, the performer can survive in such an environment by communication strategies that he/she develops. However, the "over-use of such strategies may, in fact, result in over-control of input, e.g. excessive use of yes/no questions, and frequent topic shifts" (Krashen, 1985, p. 47). If this situation continues for too long, comprehensible input that the performer obtains becomes inadequate. Also, performers might obtain comprehensible input merely from himself/herself. Or some may obtain comprehensible input from other people who are in the same situation, thus leading to a shared lingua franca (Krashen, 1985).

Summary

Within the scholarly research on fossilization, there is a spectrum of definitions and meanings of the term fossilization. However, scholars agree that fossilization, in the broadest sense, denotes a phenomenon in L2 learning where the L2 learner gets stuck because of internal or, external causal variables before nativelike competence is

reached. Moreover, both children and adults are affected by fossilization--it is possible for children and adults to become fossilized. However, adults have a tendency to become fossilized more than children. Finally, to summarize fossilization, "fossilization is hypothesized to be the result of inadequate input, a strong affective filter, a performer not performing his competence, or the acquisition of an imperfect version of a target language" (Krashen, 1985, p. 52). The factors mentioned throughout this section may lead to fossilization. Therefore, the best way to avoid fossilization is to enhance sufficient input, and possess a low affective filter. As such, the learner him/herself has to demonstrate his/her capability and, if possible, minimize situations that result in the acquisition of deviant forms.

Learning Strategies

In the field of second-language acquisition (SLA), many learning and communication strategies have been identified (Brown, 2000). In this chapter, learning strategies will be discussed further as they relate to the focus of the research. We are currently in an era of exploration and research on knowledge and technology. As

time passes and academic research advances, so do our tools for tactically employing learning methods in language learning.

Brown (2000) explained that learning strategies pertain to "input" which is "processing, storage, and retrieval, that is, to taking in messages from others" (p. 123). During the 1970s, although researchers gained more knowledge about second-language acquisition (SLA), they discovered that findings or methods were insufficient to lead people successfully in teaching a second language (L2). Until the mid-1970s, the definitions of learning strategies tended to be much careful in terms of defining certain specific learning strategies (Brown, 2000).

Definition of Learning Strategies

In her book Teaching English Learners: Strategies and Methods, Diaz-Rico (2004) uses the phrase "an idea that a learner can employ to increase learning" to denote the term "strategy" (p. 105). Furthermore, Chamot (1987) defined learning strategies as "techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information" (p. 71). In general, learning strategies are particular tactics that learners use when

encountering and resolving certain given problems. To simplify this broad definition, one of the easiest definitions, but nonetheless to the point, can be attributed to Leaver, Ehrman, and Shekhtman (2005). They summarized learning strategies in a nutshell as the following: learning strategies are things we do; they are relatively easy to change; they differ depending on our learning styles; they are effective or not effective for specific situations; and they are frequently under some level of conscious control (p. 82).

According to Oxford (1990), learning strategies are "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). If learners can equip themselves with specific skills in their learning, they will better enjoy the learning process and they will learn more quickly and easily, with more positive outcomes.

Moreover, O'Neil (1978, p. xi) stated that "learning strategies are potentially useful in a number of learning situations." Self-direction in learning is imperative for learners who want to pursue life-long learning. Learning strategies are undoubtedly useful in leading learners to a

higher level of learning.

Classification of Learning Strategies

One of the most in-depth studies by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed a preliminary classification of learning strategies, dividing them into three categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies (See Table 1).

Table 1. Preliminary Classification of Learning Strategies

Classification	Representative Strategies
Metacognitive	selective attention planning monitoring evaluation
Cognitive	rehearsal organization inferencing summarizing deducing imagery transfer elaboration
Social/affective	cooperation questioning for clarification self-talk

Source: O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 46.

According to Rubin (1987), cognitive strategies refer to "the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials" (p. 23). Cognitive

strategies are "more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself" (Brown, 2000, p. 124). Typical examples of cognitive strategies listed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) are as follows:

1. Rehearsal, or repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard;
2. Organization, or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes;
3. Inferencing, or using information in oral text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts;
4. Summarizing, or intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained;
5. Deduction, or applying rules to understand language;
6. Imagery, or using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information;
7. Transfer, or using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task; and
8. Elaboration, or linking ideas contained in new

information or integrating new ideas with known information (elaboration may be a general category for other strategies, such as imagery, summarization, transfer, and deduction). (p. 45)

Rubin (1987) stated that metacognitive strategies are "used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning" (p. 25). According to Ellis (1994), metacognitive strategies "make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluation" (p. 538). Ellis (1994) emphasized that planning, monitoring and evaluation have an "executive function" (p. 538). Examples of metacognitive strategies given by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) are selective affection, planning, monitoring, and evaluation. Language tasks that are attributed to metacognitive strategies are noted as follows:

1. Selective attention for special aspects of a learning task, as in planning to listen for key words or phrase;
2. Planning the organization of written or spoken discourse;
3. Monitoring or reviewing attention to a task, monitoring production while it is occurring; and

4. Evaluating or checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place. (p. 44)

Social/affective strategies "concern the ways in which learners elect to interact with other learners and native speakers" (Ellis, 1994, p. 538). Social/affective strategies include "social-mediating activity and interacting with others" (Brown, 2000, p. 124). To summarize, these strategies involve interpersonal interaction activities related to social-mediation. Useful social/affective learning strategies in listening comprehension proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) are as follows:

1. Cooperation, or working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity;
2. Questioning for clarification, or eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples; and
3. Self-talk, or using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task. (p. 45)

Oxford (1990), in her system of language learning strategies, described "mutually supportive" interrelation between three direct strategies, memory, cognitive, and compensation; and three indirect strategies, metacognitive, affective, and social, as shown in Table 2. Direct and indirect strategies are closely connected with one another.

Table 2. Classification of Language Learning System

<u>Direct Learning Strategies</u>	<u>Characteristics</u>
Memory	A. Creating mental linkage B. Applying images and sounds C. Reviewing well D. Employing action
Cognitive	A. Practicing B. Receiving and sending messages C. Analyzing and reasoning D. Creating structure for input and output
Compensation	A. Guessing intelligently B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
<u>Indirect Learning Strategies</u>	<u>Characteristics</u>
Metacognitive	A. Centering your learning B. Arranging and Planning your learning C. Evaluating your learning
Affective	A. Lowering your anxiety B. Encouraging yourself C. Taking your emotional temperature
Social	A. Asking questions B. Cooperating with others C. Empathizing with others

Source: Oxford, 1990, pp. 18-21.

Memory strategies help students store and retrieve new information. Sometimes, these strategies are denoted as "mnemonics." Four examples of memory strategies are given in the acronym CARE: Creating mental linkage (i.e. grouping, associating/elaborating, and placing new words into a context); Applying images and sounds (i.e. using keywords, and representing sounds in memory); Reviewing well (i.e. structured reviewing); and Employing action (i.e. using physical response or sensation). As the CARE strategies indicate, memory strategies are more effective when the learner simultaneously uses metacognitive strategies, like paying attention, and affective strategies, like reducing anxiety through deep breathing (Oxford, 1990).

Cognitive strategies enable learners to understand and produce new language, and are essential in learning a new language. They are also typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learners. Four examples of cognitive strategies are offered in the acronym PRAC: Practicing (i.e. repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturalistically); Receiving and sending messages (i.e. getting the idea quickly and using resources for receiving and sending

messages); Analyzing and reasoning (i.e. reasoning deductively, translating, and transforming); and Creating structure for input and output (i.e. taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting) (Oxford, 1990).

Compensation strategies allow learners to use a second language despite large gaps in knowledge. Two examples of compensation strategies are given in the acronym GO: Guessing intelligently and Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Guessing is actually a special case of the way people typically process new information. The learner guesses the meaning by using linguistic and nonlinguistic clues. Certain compensation strategies, like mime or gestures, are used in addition to speaking to help the learner guess meaning. Moreover, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym, and selecting the topic can be used in informal writing as well as in speaking (Oxford, 1990).

Compensation strategies are used when learners need to understand something that has been said or written. Learners can guess their meaning from context. For example, learners can apply background knowledge of the topic to determine what the limits on the range of possible

definitions of these words might be. Learners can also look up the words in the dictionary (Leaver, Ehrman, & Shekhtman, 2005, p. 85).

Metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their own cognition. They are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. Three examples of metacognitive strategies, known by the acronym CAPE, are 1) Centering your learning (i.e. overviewing and linking with already known material); 2) Arranging and Planning your learning (i.e. setting goals and objectives); and 3) Evaluating your learning (i.e. self-evaluating). Research shows that learners use these strategies sporadically and without much sense of their importance. Learners need to learn much more about the essential metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Affective strategies help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. Examples of affective strategies are lowering your anxiety (i.e. using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation); encouraging yourself (i.e. taking risks wisely and rewarding yourself); and taking your emotional temperature (i.e. using a checklist and discussing your feelings with

someone else). Good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning. Negative feelings can impede a learner's progress in learning. Positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning far more effective and enjoyable (Oxford, 1990).

Social strategies help students learn through interaction with others. Language is a form of social behavior. It is communication, and communication happens between and among people. Examples of social strategies are described in with the acronym ACE: Asking questions (i.e. asking for correction); Cooperating with others (i.e. cooperating with peers); and Empathizing with others (i.e. developing cultural understanding). Asking questions helps learners get closer to the intended meaning and thus aids their understanding. Cooperation is imperative for language learners because it implies the absence of competition and the presence of group spirit. Empathy is essential to successful communication in any language. It is especially necessary in learning another language (Oxford, 1990).

The Good Language Learner

Some language learners seem to be successful without using techniques or strategies in their learning. It seems

that these types of learners are endowed with a larger capacity to succeed than other people. Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) defined "good" language learners; and Rubin and Thompson (1994) later summed up those characteristics into the fourteen following characteristics:

Good language learners...

1. find their own way, taking charge of their learning;
2. organize information about language;
3. are creative, developing a "feel" for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words;
4. make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom;
5. learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word;
6. use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned;
7. make errors work for them and not against them;
8. use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language;
9. use contextual cues to help them in comprehension;

10. learn to make intelligent guesses;
11. learn chunks of language as whole and formalized routines to help them perform "beyond their competence";
12. learn certain tricks that help to keep conversations going;
13. learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence; and
14. learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation. (cited by Brown, 2000, p. 123)

Some researchers have proven that learners who use strategies appropriately in their own learning seem to be more successful than people who do not use them. Also, a successful learner seems to be more skillful in using strategies in his/her own learning. These researchers have emphasized the comparison between more and less successful learners as well as the commonalities in learning strategy use among more successful learners.

According to Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), successful learners display personal learning traits, categorized as "personal characteristics, styles, strategies" (cited by

Brown, 2000, p. 123). Successful learners seem to have some distinguishing traits present while they are learning. They engage strategically in tactics during the process of learning. In other words, they have their own individual strategies for learning. Personal characteristics, styles, and strategies are three elements correlated with a learner's achievement in second language competence.

Rubin (1987) made reference to the statement of Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) in terms of personality traits, cognitive styles, and strategies. The list includes five "general strategies and related techniques" that good language learners use. They

1. actively involve themselves in the language learning process by identifying and seeking preferred learning environments and exploring them;
2. develop an awareness of language as a system;
3. develop an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction;
4. accept and cope with the affective demands of L2;
and
5. extend and revise L2 system by inferencing and monitoring. (Rubin, 1987, p. 20)

Moreover, Ellis (1985) made his own list on the characteristics of good language learners, referring to previous studies (Rubin 1975; Naiman et al., 1978). In his list, the good language learner will:

1. be able to respond to the group dynamics of the learning situation so as to avoid developing negative anxiety and inhibitions;
2. seek out all opportunities to use the target language;
3. make maximum use of the opportunities afforded to practice listening and responding to speech in the L2 addressed to him and to others--this will involve attending to meaning rather than form;
4. supplement the learning derived from direct contact with speakers of the L2 with learning derived from the use of study techniques--this is likely to involve attention to form;
5. be an adolescent or an adult rather than a young child, at least as far as the early stages of grammatical development are concerned;
6. possess sufficient analytic skills to perceive, categorize, and store the linguistic features of the L2, and also to monitor errors;

7. possess a strong reason for learning the L2 and also develop a strong "task motivation";
8. be prepared to experiment by taking risks, even if this makes the learner appear foolish; and
9. be capable of adapting to different learning conditions. (p. 122)

These traits are mixed. "The learner can, for instance, make a conscious decision to seek out opportunities to use the target language or to supplement natural learning by conscious study" (p. 123). Ellis (1985) stated that this list reflected the "social, cognitive, and affective factors that have been seen to be important in SLA" (p. 123).

Ellis (1994) continued to investigate the good language learner, delineating five aspects: 1) a concern for language form, 2) a concern for communication (functional practice), 3) an active task approach, 4) an awareness of the learning process, and 5) a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements.

Ellis (1994) found that a successful learner will "pay attention to the formal properties of the target language" (Ellis, 1994, p. 546). Also, the good language learner will "attend to meaning" (Ellis, 1994, p. 549). He stated that

"the ability to switch to and fro in attending to meaning and form may be a crucial feature of a successful language learner" (Ellis, 1994, p. 549). Furthermore, good language learners are involved in language learning actively. "They like to take charge of their own learning by identifying and pursuing goals and by trying to introduce new topics into a conversation" (Ellis, 1994, p. 549). They appreciate teachers and regard them as "informants" instead of leaning on them (Pickett, 1978). Moreover, successful language learners are "thoughtful and aware of themselves" (Ellis, 1994, p. 549) in the learning process and also "make use of metacognitive knowledge to help them access their needs, evaluate progress, and give direction to their learning" (p. 550). Learners can control their own learning through such awareness (Ellis, 1994).

Ellis (1994) made reference to the study of Chamot et al. (1988) to support the final characteristic. Chamot et al. (1988) investigated students of beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of Spanish and Russian. Students were divided into "effective" and "ineffective" groups. Results showed that the effective learners were "more purposeful in their approach" and "made extensive use of their general knowledge as well as L2 linguistic knowledge" (Ellis, 1994,

p. 550). Thus, Ellis concluded that good language learners are flexible and appropriate in using learning strategies.

Assessment of Strategy Use

Weinstein (1988) emphasized that "having the means to diagnose student deficits could contribute significantly to the design of instruction, and having the means to monitor progress and course outcomes could contribute significantly to evaluation and effectiveness of the training" (p. 297). Assessment is a crucial and key process in language learning. When learners evaluate their own learning strategies, they participate in self-monitoring of their own progress. After self-monitoring, they engage in self-reflection, to some extent to control their learning. Lastly, learners engage in self-improvement after self-monitoring and self-reflection to achieve growth and awareness of their own learning process. In addition, the teacher obtains information about the learner in terms of learner's preferences and individual differences in using and choosing learning strategies. The teacher should make changes in curriculum whenever necessary, based on the learner's feedback and interaction between the teacher and the learner. In addition, assessment of learning strategies is valuable in assisting the teacher's design of more

effective classroom curricula and further assists the research and development of instructional systems in learning strategies.

Oxford (1990) offered five of the most important techniques in facilitating the use of learning strategies. First, the teacher can make a list of strategies he/she wants to observe and what he/she thinks are the most important learning strategies. During the observation, the teacher records these strategies either through taking the notes or checking up the strategies that he/she observes regularly (Oxford, 1990).

Oxford (1990) suggested that videotaping of observation sessions can be valuable. Structured interviews and think-aloud procedures are also approaches used to obtain data on learners' strategies. Totally unstructured interviews are difficult to use because "there is no particular questioning technique or no data coding form" (p. 194). The teacher must create categories after the interview for analysis and interpretation. The think-aloud procedure involves the teacher asking the students to perform a task and "think aloud" as they do them. After that, the student has to describe "what he/she is doing to accomplish the task" (p. 195). Both approaches can be

either performed together or conducted respectively (Oxford, 1990).

There are some other self-reporting techniques that Oxford (1990) described. Note-taking is a method of self-reporting. Students write down learning difficulties in performing a task. In addition, students take note of which strategies they use, and which are their favorites in terms of "frequency of use, enjoyment, usefulness, and efficiency" (p. 198). To some extent, she concluded that note-taking is somewhat useful because students "keep track of their strategy use" (p. 198).

Rubin and Thompson (1994) reported that "most people find it useful to keep track of their learning success and problems" (p. 70). According to Oxford (1990), diaries or journals are forms of self-report techniques. Most diaries are performed in a free-form manner and are subjective and highly private. Students can express their own feelings and thoughts without feeling inhibited by writing style or subject matter. Students feel more comfortable when they use a diary to keep track of their learning process. It is a good method for them to look at their true thoughts and feelings. The teacher can also integrate a diary into part of the curriculum. Students can share their diaries with

the teacher, with themselves, or with peers. This will advance the dynamics of positive interaction and instruction in the classroom.

The last approach of self-reporting is through surveys. A less structured survey is subjective, whereas a more structured survey is objective. In a less-structured survey, "learners can say what they want, and a lot of interesting information is generated" (Oxford, 1990, p. 199). In contrast, a more-structured survey "can be objectively scored and analyzed" because it uses "standardized categories for all respondents" (Oxford, 1990, p. 199).

The teacher should begin by deciding what he/she wants to discover about his/her students' strategies. Then, the teacher makes a decision about which methods of assessment are more suitable and appropriate. Moreover, the teacher can divide students into small groups by "ethnic/national/cultural background to discuss their strategy assessment results" (Oxford, 1990, p. 200). Students who are from similar backgrounds seem to "use strategies in similar ways" (Oxford, 1990, p. 200).

Assessment is necessary for the teacher in diagnosing students' learning efficiency. For methods regarding assessment, Oxford's work provides one of the most

comprehensive and practical guides for the teacher who would like to make use of it. It does not only help students in improving their learning efficiency, but also assists teachers to apply appropriate teaching pedagogies properly.

Training of Strategy Use

Weinstein (1988) classified training approaches as one of three types: "embedded instruction [which] focuses on incorporating learning strategy training into existing educational materials" (p. 303); use of "existing instructional interventions to teach learning strategies [which] requires an analysis of the regular course curriculum and the learning demands that it places on the students" (p. 304); and the "adjunct approach," which "involves creating some form of supplementary instruction" (p. 304). As Weinstein stated, "Most researchers and practitioners have tended to use some form of adjunct approach to learning strategies training" (Weinstein, 1988, p. 304).

Oxford (1990) labeled three types of strategy training: awareness training, one-time strategy training, and long-term strategy training. "Awareness training is very important, because it is often the individual's

introduction to the concept of learning strategies" (p. 202). In awareness training, the participants become aware of, and familiar with, their general ideas about learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). One-time strategy training and long-term strategy training involve "learning and practicing strategies with actual language tasks" (p. 203). However, the difference is that the long-term strategy is "more prolonged and covers a greater number of strategies" (Oxford, 1990, p. 203). Therefore, long-term strategy training is more effective. The example of a training model proposed by Oxford (1990) comprises eight steps for strategy training as follows:

1. Determine the learners' needs and the time available;
2. Select strategies well;
3. Consider integration of strategy training;
4. Consider motivational issues;
5. Prepare materials and activities;
6. Conduct "completely informed training";
7. Evaluate the strategy; and
8. Revise the strategy training. (Oxford, 1990, p. 204)

The teacher assumes that students are already accessing one of techniques stated earlier. This model is

especially useful for long-term training, but also can be applied for one-time training. The order in this model can be alternated if it is necessary. The first five steps are planning and preparation steps. The last three steps are related to conducting, evaluating, and revising the strategy training. In addition, Oxford (1990) also emphasized the importance of getting feedback from people. It is always helpful to get suggestions and comments from others.

Through empirical research and cognitive theory, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) developed the instructional model entitled the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). As stated by Oxford (1990), this model is "valuable" because it "teaches students to use relevant learning strategies to bolster both their language skills and their skills in various content areas" (p. 216). The central component in the CALLA system is instruction in learning strategies. "The learning strategy instruction component shows students how to apply the strategies, suggests a variety of strategies for different tasks, provides examples throughout the curriculum to enhance transfer, and shows how teachers' promotion of strategies can gradually be reduced" (Oxford, 1990, p. 216).

Research Methods in Investigating Learning Strategies and Learner strategies

Learning Strategies. As implied by the title, learning strategies focus mainly on "how and which strategies students are using" (Macaro, 2001, p. 35). Rubin (1981) argued that the method of identifying a learners' learning strategies by observing the learners engaging in manifold tasks in classroom settings is "not very productive" (cited by Ellis, 1994, p. 533). Ellis further described more methods to investigate learning strategies as the following:

1. Interviews and questionnaires are more successful methods. They can be given to learners to report on their own learning strategies and to what extent they use them in general or related to certain specific activities;
2. Diary studies can be used to explore a learner's learning strategies. They "serve as another way of collecting information on learning strategy by means of retrospective reports";
3. A think-aloud task "requires learners to introspect on the strategies they employ while performing a particular task." However, according to Haastrup (1987), whether learners can verbalize their own strategies or not was not confirmed (as cited by

Ellis, 1994). Therefore, there are other ways to induce learners to verbalize their strategies, such as "pair thinking aloud"; and

4. "Most successful studies have employed multiple data collection procedures." (The example Ellis (1994) used is "retrospective accounts obtained through interviews paired with introspective accounts of performance on specific tasks." This method combines retrospective accounts, performance on specific tasks, and a variety of methods into one.) (Ellis, 1994, pp. 534-535)

Learner Strategies. The previous section introduces research methods on learning strategies. Learner strategies, however, vary more widely than learning strategies in general. As defined by Wenden (1987):

Learner strategies refers to language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language...what they know about the strategies they use...what they know about aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use. (Wenden (1987, p. 6)

Macaro (2001) summarized research methods in learner strategies through one starting point; that is, to "look at

how researchers have tried to find out how and which strategies are used by learners of a foreign language" (Macaro, 2001, p. 35). Macaro (2001) summarized research methods on discovering learner strategies:

1. Learners have been asked, for example, in oral interviews, which strategies they use in general, or which strategies they use when attempting a particular task;
2. Learners have been asked, by using questionnaires, whether and to what extent they use particular strategies;
3. Learners have been observed while they work at their language learning tasks;
4. Learners have been asked to give a retrospective commentary on how they learn;
5. Learners have been asked to provide a synchronic commentary on how they accomplished a task; and
6. Learners' ways of tackling a language task have been tracked. (Macaro, 2001, p. 36)

The importance of strategy training is to help the learner achieve success in self-direction in life-long learning. The teacher cannot learn for students, but the teacher can instruct students how to learn.

As Oxford(1990) wrote,

Although learning is certainly part of the human condition, conscious skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training. Language learning requires active self-direction on the part of learners; they cannot be spoon-fed if they desire and expect to reach an acceptable level of communicative competence. (Oxford, 1990, p. 201)

Summary

Within the research regarding learning strategies, early, in-depth studies contributed to later success in investigating learning strategies. To be a good teacher is a hard task; so is it to be a good language learner. The teacher should understand students' needs and investigate their preferences toward learning strategies. Assessment of strategy use is important as well because it offers a greater understanding for the teacher about learners' personal characteristics, learning styles, and learning strategies. This also helps the teacher to assist students in developing greater skills in learning-strategy use.

Training of strategy use is helpful in developing students' capacity for learning-strategy use. It is essential that students receive this kind of training and

thus become more confident in their learning process. Moreover, life-long learning happens in situations beyond the classroom. Training of strategy use assists learners in increasing their learning capacity in all kinds of learning situations.

Self-Directed Learning

According to Kulich (1970), the Greek philosophers regarded self-education as essential to daily life.

Socrates described himself as a self-learner who capitalized on opportunities to learn from those around him. Plato believed that the ultimate goal of education for the young should be the development of an ability to function as a self-learner in adulthood. Aristotle emphasized the importance of self-realization, a potential wisdom that can be developed either with or without the guidance of a teacher.

(Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991, p. 7)

From this description, it can be seen that the concept of self-education has its roots in ancient history. In more recent years numerous researchers have worked on self-directed learning.

The concept of self-direction in learning has become popular and emphasized by researchers in the last twenty years. According to Brockett and Hiemstra (1991), each learner engages in the learning process in different ways. They argue that this idea is a contribution to the field and the reason why self-directed learning has recently become very popular in the field of adult education. They emphasized that self-direction in learning is not just a fad; for most adults, it is a way of life.

Why so? As emphasized in the chapters thus far, self-direction is an important part of lifelong learning. These components are closely linked. To pursue lifelong learning, the learner will have to teach himself or herself both with or without the help of others. In the learning process, the learner is the prime agent. He or she controls and plans for his or her own learning. Through teaching self-directed learning skills, educators can facilitate productivity and effectiveness in learning. As such, self-directed learning is a way of life. It happens beyond the classroom and has the potential to help learners to be more responsible and successful in pursuing lifelong education.

Definition of Self-Directed Learning

Knowles (1968), one of the pioneers in the research of development in adult learning, proposed the concept of "andragogy" which is "the art and science of helping adults learn" (Merriam, 2007, p. 84). As Merriam (2007) reports, "andragogy was introduced from Europe in a 1968 article," which "focuses on the adult learner and his or her life situation" (p. 83). Andragogy is grounded in "assumptions about the adult learner" (Merriam, 2007, p. 84). Four early assumptions from Knowles are as follows:

1. As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being;
 2. An adult accumulates a growing reservoir of experience, which is a rich resource for learning;
 3. The readiness of an adult to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role; and
 4. There is a change in time perspective as people mature—from future application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Thus, an adult is more problem centered than subject centered in learning.
- (Knowles, 1980, pp. 44-45)

In later publications, Knowles also referred to fifth and sixth assumptions:

5. The most potent motivations are internal rather than external. (Knowles & Associates, 1984, p. 12)
6. Adults need to know why they need to learn something. (Knowles, 1984) (For a review of which of Knowles's writings contain which assumptions, see Holton, Swanson, & Naquin, 2001.)

According to Merriam (2007), Knowles gave implications for each assumption. For instance, in relation to the first assumption, adults become more independent and self-directed as they mature, Knowles argues for a classroom climate of "adulthood." Knowles (1980) stressed a climate dynamic in which adults "feel accepted, respected, and supported" (Knowles, 1980, p. 47). Moreover, Merriam (2007) emphasized that "being self-directing also means that adult students can participate in the diagnosis of their learning needs, the planning and implementation of those experiences" (p. 85).

As stated by Merriam (2007, p. 88), Grace (1996) indicated that "a period of rapid change; action-oriented curricula that valued individual experience were advocated. The individual had to keep up and self-improvement was in

vogue. The andragogical model in the face of pedagogy was welcomed by many adult educators as revolutionary" (Grace, 1996, p. 383). However, Grace (1996) stated that "Knowles never proceeded to an in-depth consideration of the organizational and social impediments to adult learning; he never painted the big picture. He chose the mechanistic over the meaningful" (Grace, 1996, p. 386, as cited by Merriam, 2007, p. 88).

Merriam (2007) highlighted the value of Tough's works, describing that "Tough's research on self-directed learning became the basis for numerous dissertations and research studies around the world" (p. 111). Tough (1967, 1971) delineated that self-directed learning is a form of study. He used the term "self-planned learning," which is the first all-around illustration in self-directed learning on the basis of Houle's (1961/1988) studies and others (Merriam, 2007, p. 105). He observed, "highly deliberate efforts to learn take place all around you. The members of your family, your neighbors, colleagues, and acquaintances probably initiate and complete several learning efforts, though you may not be aware of it" (Tough, 1971, p. 3, as cited by Merriam, 2007, p. 106).

According to Knowles (1975, p. 18), the broadest meaning of self-directed learning is as follows:

Self-directed learning" 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. (cited by Benson, 2001, p. 33)

Della-Dora (1979) argued that "self-directed learning refers to characteristics of schooling which should distinguish education in a democratic society from schooling in autocratic societies" (p. 1). It is necessary for students to learn "how to choose what is to be learned, how it is to be learned, when it is to be learned, and how to evaluate their own progress" in such a democratic society (p. 1). Students can be assisted in equipping themselves with these skills by adults and peers (Dell-Dora, 1979).

Brockett (1983) stated "self-directed learning refers to activities where primary responsibility for planning, carrying out, and evaluating a learning endeavor is assumed

by the individual learner" (p. 16). That is to say, the learner is responsible for the learning process through planning, implementing, and evaluating. He or she designs a learning plan, delivers on his or her plan, and then makes assessments on the effort that he or she puts into their work. As such, the learner is in charge of their own learning process. Besides being a learner, he or she is also a helper in guiding himself or herself to a higher level of education.

For construction of a frame of reference, Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) argued that there are two dimensions related to self-direction in learning. These are first, "a process in which a learner assumes primary responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating the learning process" and second, "learner self-direction, which centers on a learner's desire or reference for assuming responsibility for learning" (p. 24). The former dimension relates to "the external characteristics of an instructional process." The latter dimension associates with "the internal characteristics of the learner, where the individual assumes primary responsibility for a learning experience" (p. 24).

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) proposed the "Personal Responsibility Orientation" (PRO) model. The idea of self-directed learning is comprised of two dimensions, which are "instructional method processes (self-directed learning) and personality characteristics of the individual (learner self-direction)" (p. 26). These two dimensions are related. The PRO model is "designed to recognize both the differences and similarities between self-directed learning as an instructional method and learner self-direction as a personality characteristic" (p. 26). In addition, Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) highlighted the importance of the PRO model, which is not merely to "serve as a way of better understanding self-direction, it can also serve as a framework for building future theory, research, and practice" (p. 26).

Candy (1991) emphasized self-directed learning as "a means and an end of lifelong learning" (p. 15). She referenced the work of the Unesco Institute of Education, where one characteristic is that it is "dependent for its successful implementation on people's increasing ability and motivation to engage in self-directed learning activities" (Cropley, 1979, p. 3). As such, the relationship between self-directed learning and lifelong

learning is mutually beneficial. According to Candy (1991), self-directed learning is one of the most common ways of pursuing learning for adults "throughout their life span." Secondly, lifelong learning equips "people with skills and competencies required to continue their own self-education" beyond the regular classroom (p. 15).

According to Candy (1991), self-direction has drawn much attention in the field of adult education because "it contributes to the development of the whole person" and "it allows people to be more responsive to the rapidly changing demands of a market-oriented workplace" (p. 6). As Candy argued, self-direction is a versatile concept. As cited by Candy (1991, p. 8), Mezirow (1981) reported that the central point of adult education's function "is a goal and method of self-directed learning" (p. 21). Self-directed learning "presents the mode of learning characteristic of adulthood" (Mezirow, 1981, p. 21). Candy (1991) agreed that Mezirow's (1981) definition provided new life to the term "self-directed learning": "self-direction is applied to people--as a personal attribute or characteristic--as well as to the learning situation" (p. 101).

Personal Autonomy

Some might wonder what is the difference between "autonomy" and "self-direction." The distinction in early works between self-directed learning and autonomy is vague. The definition tended to be broad and general. Until recent studies, researchers tended to distinguish self-directed learning and autonomy only in regards to the degree of learning. Benson (2001) stated that this confusion often arises from "differences in the use of these terms in the fields of adult education and language learning" (p. 34). Furthermore, his work provided a more specific explanation as to the distinction between self-directed learning and autonomy.

Benson (2001) reported that "Candy's multidimensional view of self-directed learning has much in common with the idea of autonomy as it has developed within the field of language education" (p. 34). Candy's view is listed as follows:

...the term *self-direction* actually embraces dimensions of process and product, and ...refers to four distinct (but related) phenomena: "self-direction" as a personal attribute (personal autonomy); "self-direction" as the willingness and capacity to

conduct one's own education (self-management); "self-direction" as a mode of organizing instruction in formal settings (learner-control); and "self-direction" as the individual, noninstitutional pursuit of learning opportunities in the "natural societal setting" (autodidaxy). (Candy, 1991, pp. 22-23, as cited by Benson, 2001, p. 34)

Benson's (2001) work developed the distinction between self-directed learning and autonomy as follows:

Firstly, self-direction tends to refer to the learner's global capacity to carry out such learning effectively, while autonomy often refers to the particular personal or moral qualities associated with this capacity. Secondly, autonomy defines both the broad field of inquiry and the global capacity to exercise control over one's learning. Self-directed learning tends to refer simply to learning that is carried out under the learner's own direction, rather than under the direction of others. Thirdly, perhaps the most important distinction to be made in the field of language learning is between autonomy as an attribute of the learner and self-directed learning as a particular mode of learning in which the learner

makes the important decisions about content, methods and evaluation. (Benson, 2001, p. 34)

According to Benson (2001),

Autonomy can be considered as a capacity that learners possess to various degrees. Self-directed learning can be considered as something that learners are able to do more or less effectively, according to the degree that they possess this capacity. (Benson, 2001, p. 34)

As frequently quoted by researchers, Holec (1981) argued that autonomy is indeed an ability, "a power or capacity to do something" (p. 3). Autonomy is a term "describing a potential capacity to act in a given situation-, learning- and not the actual behavior of an individual in that situation" (p. 3). Furthermore, Holec (1981) stated that the learner who is autonomous "is capable of taking charge of his [sic] own learning" (p. 3).

According to Holec (1981), to take charge of one's own learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, i.e.:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;

- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.); and
- evaluating what has been acquired. (p. 7)

The autonomous learner is capable of making all these decisions concerning the learning with which he or she wishes to be involved (Holec, 1981, p. 3, cited by Little, 1991, p. 7).

Hence autonomy is the "capacity to make decisions at successive stages of the learning process" (Benson, 2001, p. 48). Benson (2001), moreover, stated that "the autonomous learner is able to direct the course of his [sic] own learning by making all the significant decisions concerning its management and organization" (pp. 48-49). Benson (2001) further compared Holec (1981)'s to Little (1991)'s description of autonomy.

According to Benson (2001), Holec (1981)'s definition regarding cognitive factors involved in the development of autonomy is vague. Moreover, "the definition is problematic, in that it describes the decision-making abilities involved in autonomous learning in largely technical terms, leaving open the nature of the cognitive capacities underlying effective self-management of learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 49).

According to Little (1991), the definition of autonomy is as follows:

Essentially, autonomy is a capacity-for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts". (cited by Benson, 2001, p. 49)

Little (1991) added "a vital psychological dimension that is often absent in definitions of autonomy" (Benson, 2001, p. 49), described "more in terms of control over cognitive processes involved in effective self-management of learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 49). Both definitions (Holec's & Little's) tend to underplay "the content of learning should be freely determined by the learners" (Benson, 2001, p. 49). That is to say, autonomous learner should choose their own goals and purposes if it is self-directed (p. 49).

Profiling the Autonomous Learning

According to Merriam (2007), an important focus in the research of self-directed learning "has been self-directedness as a personal attribute or characteristic of the learner" (p. 119).

According to Holec's (1981, p. 9),

action by the learner is concerned with:

- fixing objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting the methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the acquisition procedure; and
- evaluating what has been acquired. (cited by Wenden, 1987, p. 11).

According to Boud (1988, p. 19), Dearden (1975) described the qualities from an autonomous learner which could be observed. The attributes are listed as follows:

1. wondering and asking, with a sense of the right to ask, what the justification is for various things which it would be quite natural to take for granted;
2. refusing agreement or compliance with what others put to him [sic] when this seems critically unacceptable;

3. defining what he [sic] really wants, or what is really in his interests, as distinct from what may be conventionally so regarded;
4. conceiving of goals, policies and plans of his [sic] own, and forming purposes and intentions of his [sic] own independently of any pressure to do so from others;
5. choosing amongst alternatives in ways which could exhibit that choice as the deliberate outcome of his [sic] own ideas or purposes;
6. forming his [sic] own opinion on a variety of topics that interest him [sic];
7. governing his [sic] actions and attitudes in the light of the previous sort of activity.

In short, the autonomous man [sic] has a mind of his [sic] own and acts according to it. (Dearden, 1975, p. 7) .

Moreover, Benson (2001) pointed out that Candy (1991) "has listed more than 100 competencies associated with autonomy in learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 85). Thus, Candy (1991) described that the learner who is able to do autonomous learning will typically:

- be methodical and disciplined;

- be logical and analytical;
- be reflective and self-aware;
- demonstrate curiosity, openness and motivation;
- be flexible;
- be interdependent and interpersonally competent;
- be persistent and responsible;
- be venturesome and creative;
- show confidence and have a positive self-concept;
- be independent and self-sufficient;
- have developed information seeking and retrieval skills;
- have knowledge about, and skill at, learning processes; and
- develop and use criteria for evaluating. (Candy, 1991, pp. 459-466, cited by Benson, 2001, p. 85)

Candy (1991) made the reference to some studies and, thus, further described an autonomous person as one:

- Whose life has a consistency that derives from a coherent set of beliefs, values, and principles (Benn, 1976);
- Who engages in a "still-continuing process of criticism and re-evaluation" (Benn, 1976);
- Who "is obedient to a law that he prescribes to

- himself" (Rousseau, [1762] 1911);
- Whose thoughts and actions, being determined by himself, "cannot be explained without referring to his own activity of mind" (Dearden, 1972);
 - Who demonstrates a responsiveness to his or her environment, and the ability to make creative and unique responses to situations as they arise, rather than patterned responses from his or her past (Jackins, 1965);
 - Who is "capable of formulating and following a rule, pattern or policy of acting and working" (Gibbs, 1979);
 - Who has independence from external authority, being free from the dictates and interference of other people (Gibbs, 1979);
 - Who has mastery of himself or herself, free from disabling conflicts or lack of coordination between the elements of his or her personality; and
 - Who, instead of taking over unquestioningly the judgments and opinions of others, scans evidence, examines assumptions and traces implications-in short, who uses his or her reason. (Paterson, 1979) (cited by Candy, 1991, p. 102)

As stated above, self-directedness is viewed as an individual attribute in learning. Researchers put great effort into observing and investigating self-directed learners' individual differences. Descriptions of characteristics of self-directed learners are a useful reference for both learners and teachers and provide them with a better understanding of self-directed learning.

Enhancing/Facilitating Self-Directed Learning

According to Thatcher (1973), the teacher is an observer, a listener, a gatherer of data, a diagnostician, a sympathetic friend, a shoulder to cry on, a suggester of ways and means to complete tasks, a dispenser of information, a staunch colleague to other teachers, a seeker of cooperative relationships with parents and sometimes with social service agencies, an adviser, a reminder, an evaluator, and a learner. (p. xii). The role of the teacher is multi-faceted. "The teacher performs all of these vital tasks as part of his way of life" (Thatcher, 1973, p. xii).

Moreover, Galbraith (1991) pointed out the importance of encouraging independence for facilitators as follows:

As a facilitator you must help guide those individuals from the state of dependence to some degree of

independence and self-direction in their learning and educational activities.

...Independence helps develop self-directed learners who are aware of the contextuality and cultural constructs that influence their thoughts and actions. Encouraging independence allows learners to explore and recognize their own self-directedness. (Galbraith, 1991, pp. 24-25)

The relationship between the facilitator and the learner is a close one. The facilitator needs to transform a learner from a dependent to an independent state through guidance. This kind of movement is not only an assistance, but an influence to empower the learner to be aware of their self-directedness. This can be an arduous task for a facilitator; however, it is important. This process echoes the mission of lifelong learning; that is, to guide the learner to become more self-directed, autonomous, and independent.

A model for enhancing self-directed learning was proposed by Candy (1991). Candy (1991) stated that "there is evidence that self-direction can enhance learning outcomes, improve the relevance and meaningfulness of what is learned, and give people a sense of personal potency or

power that is basic to the development of a learning-oriented society" (pp. 417-418). Three dimensions that adult educators must pay attention to are as follows: competence: this competence has both a generic and a situation-specific aspect to it, resources: the second domain is through providing learners with access to a adequate, comprehensive, and readily available learning resources, and rights: has both an individual and a societal components: what is actually permitted and what the individual believes is permitted (pp. 418-424).

The adult educator should pay attention to these dimensions while promoting self-directed learning. "He or she might seek to raise competence, increase rights, or provide resources." (p. 423). Candy (1991) concluded that "people's capacity for self-direction in learning cannot be fully realized by giving attention to any one of these elements in isolation; and moreover, individual self-directedness cannot be fully achieved without giving due consideration to the social and collective constraints that may inhibit" (Candy, 1991, p. 423).

Additionally, Benson (2001) provided a clear taxonomy to summarize the variety of approaches in fostering autonomy as follows:

1. Resource-based approaches emphasise independent interaction with learning materials;
2. Technology-based approaches emphasise independent interaction with educational technologies;
3. Learner-based approaches emphasise the direct production of behavioral and psychological changes in the learner;
4. Classroom-based approaches emphasise changes in the relationship between learners and teachers in the classroom and learner control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning;
5. Curriculum-based approaches extend the idea of control over the planning and evaluation of learning to the curriculum as a whole; and
6. Teacher-based approaches emphasize the role of the teacher and teacher education in the practice of fostering autonomy among learners.

Benson continued,

The distinctions made in this classification are largely a matter of focus. In practice, approaches are often combined, sometimes in eclectic ways. Although claims are often made for the particular effectiveness of one approach over others, most researchers and

practitioners would accept that they are interdependent. (Benson, 2001, p. 111)

According to Dörnyei (2001), "[Benson's] list demonstrates well that if a teacher decides to adopt a more autonomy-supporting role, there is a wide range of approaches he/she can adopt to realize this goal" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 107). However, enhancing learner autonomy is not always easy; it has risks (Dörnyei, 2001). Therefore, the educator should understand learners' needs and make the appropriate choices depending on different situations.

Summary

I will conclude by further summarizing the methods that enhance greater self-directedness. Firstly, teachers should provide learners with a supportive learning environment to encourage them in a positive atmosphere and to help them to learn, resulting in constructive outcomes.

Secondly, making good use of learning strategies is also necessary. In particular, as stated by Leaver, Ehrman and Shekhtman (2005, p. 82), "metacognitive strategies include planning and rewarding oneself for specific kinds of progress" are "perhaps the most significant way to achieve success in autonomous (independent) learning because it is up to the learner to decide what to learn,

when to learn it and how."

Thirdly, feedback is a straightforward way to obtain learners' comments and suggestions in their self-directed learning. One such way is through questionnaires. The teacher should identify what he or she wants to know from learners and what are his or her goals. The teacher can start by making an outline first and then expand the outline. In addition, a questionnaire should be administered regularly if the teacher wishes to improve both teaching and learning.

Lastly, one of the most popular and effective ways to improve student learning is through the use of autonomous learning centers, which act as resource centers. The learner has freedom in choosing topics to learn, with or without the mentor's assistance. The next section of this paper will further explore the notion of the autonomous learning center.

Autonomous Learning Center

The autonomous learning center is a tool for learners and provides an environment where teachers can guide student's self-directed learning skills. In addition, the learning center provides well-rounded references, which aid

learners in finding information on their area of interest. By accessing an array of references, learners will become more independent and self-directed in their learning.

Autonomous Learner Model

The Autonomous Learner Model (hereafter abbreviated as the ALM) was designed by Betts and Kercher (1999). There are five dimensions of the ALM, which are as follows: orientation, individual development, enrichment, seminars, in-depth study.

Orientation. The dimension of orientation helps learners "discover more about themselves, their abilities, and what the program has to offer" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 3). As such, in the Orientation dimension, learners will gain an understanding of their abilities, interests, and talents.

Individual Development. By assessing the dimension of individual development, learners are provided with opportunities to become autonomous learners. That is, students may "develop the cognitive, emotional, social and physical skills, concepts and attitudes necessary for life-long learning" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 3). There are six areas related to the Individual Development dimension: inter/intra personal, learning skills, technology, college

and career involvement, organizational skills, and productivity.

Enrichment. Learners have the opportunity to explore subject matter outside of a regular curriculum, thus enriching their learning. The emphasis is placed on "learner-based content." Learners can decide "what is to be taught, when it is to be taught and even how it will be taught" by getting rid of so-called "prescribed content in traditional classroom" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 266). In addition, it also offers learners opportunities to experience three levels of "learner-based content." Learners will start by exploration, which asks learners to explore "what is available but unknown to them" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 266); followed by investigation, which offers learners an opportunity to investigate what they have explored; and finally, in-depth study, in which learners choose a topic they are passionate about and study it.

Seminars. Here, the emphasis is placed on the "production of ideas and projects" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 288). Learners will present a topic of their research as a seminar to the rest of the class and other interested people. Significantly, it "provides learners the chance to

move from the role of a student to the role of a learner" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 4). At this stage it is imperative that students "have the opportunity for independent individual and group learning" to develop new knowledge (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 4).

In-depth Study. Learners have the opportunity to choose what they are interested in, their above mentioned passion area, and explore it deeper, either by working with a group or independently. Learners then use facilitation of mentorship from "the teacher, content specialist, and mentors" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 4). Moreover, learners have to make progressive presentations at regular intervals. The presentation has to incorporate "all the skills learned in technology, production and organization," and also have a "professional appearance" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 305).

Betts and Kercher (1999) argued that the ALM is designed especially for talented and gifted children; however, it can be implemented at all levels. Throughout the implementation, "it has proven to be effective in developing life-long learning for all students" (Betts & Kercher, 1999, p. 5).

Although outstanding research on the ALM has been done by Betts and Kercher (1999), the initial idea of the ALM

was set forth by Goertz and Betts (1989). Goertz and Betts (1989) argued for the Learning Center Approach to meet the needs of gifted students and named it the ALM. However, it is still a controversy within the field as to whether autonomous learning is only effective for talented and gifted learners or if it is effective for all learners. Because the mission of life-long learning is to pursue the highest level of learning, greater autonomy is an essential component for learners to achieve the highest level of learning. Autonomous learning provides learners an opportunity to explore self-selected passion areas. It is a "learner-based content."

Due to the fact that learners are the prime agents in their life-long learning, they decide planning, scheduling, revising and producing throughout the entire learning process. Furthermore, this process empowers learners to understand themselves; namely, their learning styles, their preferences in learning strategies, their areas of interest in learning, and so forth. Therefore, autonomous learning is for everyone, in order to fulfill self-actualization in lifelong learning. There is no doubt that talented and gifted learners perform better in this type of learning environment. However, autonomous learning should

not be limited to particular groups. It is suitable for all people who put in the effort to pursue lifelong learning regardless of learning style.

The Functions of the Autonomous Learner Model

There are three main functions of the autonomous learning center: providing a helpful learning environment that allows choice of a topic, offering practice along progressive continuum, and providing assessment/evaluation.

The autonomous learning center should offer learners a supportive, competent, and positive atmosphere in order for learners to pursue self-growth continuously beyond the regular classroom. In the autonomous learning center, learners are asked to take responsibility for their learning. They plan what they want to learn, and schedule when they want to learn and how they want to learn it. In other words, they use the skills that they already have and develop those they want to learn.

In addition, the autonomous learning center also offers learners opportunities to gain knowledge that they cannot obtain from the regular curriculum. Traditional classrooms use a so-called prescribed curriculum. Rather than sitting in the classroom, raising hands to ask questions and keeping notes during the class, the

autonomous learning center encourages the learner to move from "the role of a student to the role of a learner" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p 40). What is the difference between a student and a learner? A student that does a good job in school may not be interested in becoming a life-long learner. However, a learner carries on what students should do outside of school or after school, as they take on the immense task of becoming life-long learners. They explore, investigate, and evaluate. They carry out the task of becoming a life-long learner in every possible way, both through input and output.

Secondly, the autonomous learning center is a great resource for learners to practice with a progressive continuum. There are a variety of ways for learners to develop autonomous learning capacity and skills. Learners can start with activities that are centered-oriented, group-oriented, or technology-oriented, and so on. An autonomous learning center offers ample learning resources for learners to explore. It includes varieties of books, cards, songs, games, and other kinds of learning materials to help learners to learn. Also, learners are encouraged to ask the tutors questions. The tutors serve as facilitators to guide learners to the next step and solve problems. Thus,

it is strongly suggested that the tutors should be the teachers or course assistants, so they have knowledge of the material.

The final function of the autonomous learning center is to provide evaluation/assessment. The learning center should provide learners with rubrics and forms to aid learners in evaluating their learning results and provide information on ways to improve the effectiveness of their learning. Rubrics can also be made by learners themselves. A variety of rubric forms can be designed by learners with the assistance of the tutors. Learners can also get feedback from the tutors in order to further aid their future learning productivity.

Advantages of the Center for Autonomous Learning

Goertz and Betts (1989) proposed the idea of the autonomous learning center (ALC). The ALC allows learners to participate actively in their own learning. Students are encouraged to "do their own thinking" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40). Self-selection, self-direction and self-fulfillment can be realized through the autonomous learning model (ALM).

Another advantage of the ALM is it is "open-endedness." "In making decisions, it is necessary to converge on the best solution using convergent thinking

skills," as stated by Goertz and Betts (1989, p. 40). As such, it is important that learners have the ability to generate the best solutions or answers by using convergent thinking skills (Goertz & Betts, 1989).

Furthermore, the autonomous learning center offers an opportunity for learners to elect what topics they are interested in studying. As Goertz and Betts (1989) stated, the learning center "goes one step further to emphasize the processes of higher-level thinking, productive thinking, inquiry, and creative problem solving" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40). It "personalizes learning" so a learner "can move at his or her pace" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40). Therefore, learners can enjoy the experience while they are learning. It also makes learning a positive experience. As a result, learning becomes both enjoyable and significant.

Finally, the autonomous learning center "can be related to present world conditions" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40). A traditional classroom does not provide sufficient skills for students to cope with in a "fast-moving and open society" (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40). The learning center environment provides students with "social and intellectual skills (independence, responsibility, creativity, resourcefulness)," which encourages them to make choices as

independent thinkers (Goertz & Betts, 1989, p. 40).

List of Self-Access Centers

Benson (2001) provided an array of references for self-access centers. Nevertheless, some of the web links are no longer available. I have updated the web links as necessary (in parentheses); those that are no longer available have been removed from Benson's list.

Many self-access language learning centers maintain web sites containing information about their facilities and services. The following is a selection of those known to the author.

1. University of Cambridge (Independent Learning Centre)
<<http://www.langcen.cam.ac.uk/studyfac/privstud.htm>>
(Corrected as <<http://www.langcen.cam.ac.uk/>>);
2. Chinese University of Hong Kong (Self-access Centre)
<<http://www.ilc.cuhk.edu.hk/>>;
3. City University of Hong Kong (Self-access Centre)
<<http://www.cityu.edu.hk/elc/sac.htm>>
(Corrected as <<http://www.cityu.edu.hk/elc/>>);
4. Hong Kong University (Virtual English Centre)
<<http://ec.hku.hk/vec/>>;
5. Hong Kong University of Science and Technology,

Language Centre (Self-access centre)

[<http://lc.ust.hk/~sac/>](http://lc.ust.hk/~sac/);

6. University of Hull Language Institute (Open Learning Centre)

[<http://www.hull.ac.uk/langinst/open.htm>](http://www.hull.ac.uk/langinst/open.htm);

7. Universitat Jaume I (Centre d' Autoaprenentatge de Llengües) (in Catalan)

[<http://sic.uji.es/serveis/slt/cal/>](http://sic.uji.es/serveis/slt/cal/);

8. Macquarie University (Independence Learning Centre)

[<http://www.nceltr.mq.edu.au/ilc/>](http://www.nceltr.mq.edu.au/ilc/); and

9. University of Münster (Self-access Centre)

[<http://www.anglistik.uni-muenster.de/SAC/>](http://www.anglistik.uni-muenster.de/SAC/). (based on Benson, 2001, p. 234)

Additionally, there are numerous universities in Taiwan that provide a self-access learning center on their school web sites. Some of self-access learning centers are designed for languages other than English, such as Japanese. The websites contain both Chinese and English versions.

Additional references of self-access centers in Taiwan are listed as follows:

1. Fu Jen Catholic University 輔仁大學 (Online English Self-Learning Center)

[<http://ce.etweb.fju.edu.tw/self_learning/news/index.htm>](http://ce.etweb.fju.edu.tw/self_learning/news/index.htm);

2. National Central University 中央大學 (Self-access center)
<<http://140.115.107.200/guide/index.php>>;
3. National Sun Yat-sen University 中山大學 (Language Learning Lounge)
<http://zephyr.nsysu.edu.tw/self_access/newweb/index.php>;
4. National Kaohsiung First University of Science and Technology 高雄第一科技大學 (Multi-Media English Learning center) <<http://elearning.cge.nkfust.edu.tw>>;
5. National Taichung University 台中教育大學 (Self-access English Learning Center) <<http://www.ntcu.edu.tw>>;
6. Nan Kai University of Technology 南開科技大學 (Self-access Center)
<<http://www.nkut.edu.tw/onweb.jsp?webno=33333336;4>>; and
7. Shu-te University 樹德科技大學 (Self-access Foreign Language Learning Center) <<http://sac.zzd.stu.edu.tw/>>

I believe that these web sites are useful, not only for Taiwanese students but also for students with different cultural backgrounds. However, the information they provide is targeted to individuals whose first language is Chinese. Notably, some of the self-access centers are only for students and faculty from the university, whereas others are available for everyone.

Summary

To enhance productivity in learning, a variety of tools can be applied. The autonomous learning center is an effective one. In conclusion, the characteristics of the Autonomous Learning Center, are as follows:

Autonomous Learning Center is characterized by

1. Problem-based orientation;
2. Learning strategies-oriented/strategies-based;
3. Self-selective learning materials;
4. Tutor-assistance available;
5. Self-interest-oriented;
6. Self-planning-oriented;
7. Guidance of life-long learning;
8. Enhancement of self-confidence; and
9. Encouragement of self-motivation.

The autonomous learning center is well-rounded, as mentioned above. In addition, it provides a supportive environment. It helps to transform students into learners and helps them become life-long learners. Also, it facilitates self-growth by motivating learners to be more confident and take full responsibility for his/her own learning. The learner can choose what he/she is interested in and deepen that interest through study. When the learner

has questions, tutors are available to aid them. Most importantly, this paper provides numerous references to autonomous learning centers. In addition, a list of self-access centers is provided above by Benson (2001), from his book *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. This book is an excellent reference for those researching autonomous learning. Also, it is a good guide for those who wish to become more autonomous, independent, and self-directed in teaching or learning.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Procedure

Research Questions

The central issue of the project is the search for ways for English learners to overcome excessive stabilization in their second-language acquisition (fossilization) by engaging in self-managed learning. Therefore, the following questions emerge:

1. If an intermediate L2 learner has fossilized in his/her L2 learning, what fossilized elements does he/she have? From the result of the interviews, what language errors do Taiwanese intermediate or early-advanced language learners have in common?
2. If an intermediate L2 learner could attend an autonomous learning center, what learning strategies would she or he use there?
3. How can self-directed learning help intermediate L2 learners overcome fossilization and maximize their motivation and learning?

To explore these questions, a three-part research method has been developed.

Participants

In order to participate as subjects in the investigation of fossilized second-language acquisition elements of intermediate- or early-advanced- level learners, participants had to meet four criteria. The first criterion was that the individual needed to be an intermediate or early-advanced language learner. That means a participant had to be a pre-college English learner. Second, the participant had to be a student in the American Culture and Language Program (ACLP) on the CSUSB campus, for purpose of research availability. A third criterion was participants' length of residence (LOR) in the United States, although there was no specific limitation of years of LOR. Lastly, a participant's age of arrival had to be greater than eighteen years because the study focused on adult L2 learners. There were two Taiwanese female students in the ACLP who met the criteria and were chosen to participate in the study. To guard participants' privacy, their actual names are not used in the study.

Learner A: Emily. The first participant arrived in the United States in September, 2006. Therefore, her length of residence (LOR) in the United States was two years and one month. Her age of arrival (AOA) was 23. She was in Level

Six at the ACLP at the time of the interview. (There are six levels in the ACLP in CSUSB, with Level Six the highest level.) She had stayed in Level Six for three quarters. She stated that she failed in Level Four once because of a grammar class. Her total length of time studying English has been 10 years. This included both self-taught and teacher-centered instruction. Her study at the ACLP was her first in a total English environment in the United States. Her major was library and information sciences in a university in Taiwan. She is going to study for an MBA after she completes the ACLP.

Learner B: Mao. The second participant arrived in the United States in June, 2007. The length of residence (LOR) in the United States was one year and four months. She was in Level Six during the time of the interview. She had stayed in Level Six only one quarter without failing any class. Her length of time studying English has been 10 years, including both self-taught and teacher-centered instruction. This was also her first time to be exposed to a total English environment in the United States. Her major was finance in a university in Taiwan. She will continue to study for an MBA after she completes the ACLP.

Methodology

Together, these investigations help to delineate the ways. Students can improve their second-language acquisition (SLA) independently of classroom routines. The first aspect of this study is a set of interviews with Taiwanese intermediate and early-advanced English language learners from the American Culture Language Program (ACLP). The purpose was to ask about their language-learning experiences and learning habits. The study examines their learning experiences using transcripts from oral administration of the Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies Questionnaire (SDELSQ) in which they answer questions about their self-directed learning strategies and willingness to learn English independently. The second aspect of this study is an investigation of their fossilized language elements by examining the frequency of learners' syntactic errors in speech from the interview.

The research plan consisted of one survey, which was administered as an oral interview: SDELSQ, in which participants were asked about their English-language-learning experiences. The SDELSQ was based on a model provided by Zhao-Hong Han in her book Fossilization in Adult Second Language Acquisition (Han, 2004). The

interviews were videotaped and the interview data were converted into printed transcripts for the purposes of analysis. Not only were these transcripts analyzed for their responses, but also for fossilized elements in their speech. Firstly, learners' responses were used to confirm their willingness to learn English on their own and also to investigate their learning choices.

Secondly, Han (2004) had mentioned that some L1 and L2 researchers offered evidence of fixed developmental sequence for acquisition of English morphemes. Therefore, in order to verify second-language learners' fossilized language items, subjects' speech was divided into single sentences and grammatical forms were targeted as follows: progressive-ing, noun plural, copulas(is, am, are, was, and were), auxiliary-be, modal auxiliaries, auxiliary-do, auxiliary-have, articles(a, an, and the), regular past, irregular past, third person(-s), and possessive(-s). By analyzing second-language learners' speech errors, the study explored what fossilized language items were characteristic of their speech.

Instruments

Revised Version of Han's Taxonomy

Han's original taxonomy of reasons for fossilization (Han, 2004, p. 29) did not offer much detailed information of learning strategies. To amplify Han's taxonomy, there were several categories added to create the revised taxonomy used in this study (Appendix A).

Furthermore, there were five subcategories added under the category "Self-Directed Learning Factors": In/Out of Class, Attitudes, Motivation, Activities Outside Class, and Self-Directed Learning Choices. The categories "Learning Strategies" and "Self-Directed Learning Factors" were added under "Knowledge Processing" in order to fit the purpose of this study. Under the categories "Self-Directed Learning Strategies," an additional category was created titled "Inappropriate Learning Strategies." Under this three detailed categories were listed such as "Metacognitive," "Cognitive," and "Social/Affective" categories. The revised version of Han's taxonomy is easier to understand and contains more detailed information about learning strategies and self-directed learning factors.

Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies Questionnaire (SDELSQ)

Both participants were administered an oral interview: the Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies Questionnaire (SDELSQ). The SDELSQ (Appendix B) questionnaire consists of 40 questions which are based on Han's revised taxonomy (Appendix A). The purpose of the questionnaire was to investigate second-language learners' experiences as well as other factors. In addition, it ascertained their willingness to incorporate a set of self-directed learning strategies.

In order to assess second-language learners' fossilized elements, the time of each interview was set at 40 minutes. The learners were provided one minute per question to formulate their answers.

To ensure the accuracy of the results and quality of the research, hints about answers and translations of difficult terms were controlled. Participants' first language (L1-Chinese) was not encouraged in the interview. There were only one to two terms translated into their L1. By doing so, the results could be analyzed more accurately in order to meet the purposes of the research design.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Self-Directed Learning Profiles

In order to investigate what aspects of language that English language learners have fossilized in their learning process, this paper analyzes the Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies Questionnaire (SDELSQ) for two purposes: to focus on oral syntactic errors (fossilized elements), and to investigate fossilization factors.

Fossilized Language Elements

This chapter utilizes the SDELSQ to examine the frequency of the learners' syntactic errors in speech. Their accuracy rates, which focused on grammatical items, were analyzed to address the following research questions:

- If an intermediate L2 learner has fossilized in his/her L2 learning, what fossilized elements does he/she have?
- From the result of the interviews, what language errors do Taiwanese intermediate or early-advanced language learners have in common?

The summary data from analysis of the learners' fossilization are as shown separately as Tables 3 and 4 The

raw data of the learners are displayed in Appendices C and D. Tables 3 and 4 are distributed into two categories: near-nativelike items and fossilized items. The two categories are designated thusly: mastery at ninety percent plus is "near-nativelike," and mastery at a less-than ninety percent is deemed as fossilized.

Analysis of Emily's Syntactic Errors in Speech. As indicated in the simplified data shown in Table 3, Emily has achieved at near-nativelike level in three language items: auxiliary be, auxiliary do, third-person -s, and copula. She received 100 percent in auxiliary be, do, and third-person -s, and 91 percent in copula. The only mistakes she made were in plural -are and singular -is (example: *because office hours is very short).

However, she has fossilized in other language items before reaching near-nativelike level. The lowest percent of correct language items is 0 percent in use of regular past tense. She did not use past tense -ed when I interviewed her about past learning experiences (*We watch_ the English movies). Similarly, she did not correctly use irregular past tense when it was needed (*they teach the conversations). Moreover, she used an original (stem) form of a verb before the conjunction -or but she used

progressive -ing after the conjunction -or. The correct verb tense should be in agreement before and after the conjunction. Also, she used modal auxiliaries (will, would, can and could) incorrectly a few times (*Even when my friends were driving the car, we will listen to the radios).

Table 3. Putative Fossilized Items in Emily's Speech

Analysis of Syntactic Errors	
Near-nativelike Items	Attained %
auxiliary <u>be</u>	100
auxiliary <u>do</u>	100
third-person <u>-s</u>	100
copula	91
Fossilized Items	Attained %
noun plural	87
irregular past	83
modal auxiliaries	80
articles	58
progressive <u>-ing</u>	50
regular past	0
auxiliary <u>have</u>	-
possessive <u>-s</u>	-

Additionally, she consistently overused the article the when it was not needed. She tended to use the article the before a non-specific noun (*the English newspapers, *the conversations, *the grammar). Notably, she missed a quite often when nouns are singular and countable (*_ choice, *_ test, *_ native speaker, *_ real man). Particularly, she could not distinguish if the article an

have to be used in front of a vowel (*a English song).

Analysis of Mao's Syntactic Errors in Speech. Table 4 shows where Mao has reached a near-nativelike level and where she has not. Compared with Emily, Mao has stabilized in most morphemes and has not reached any language items at near-nativelike level. Surprisingly, the lowest percent (0 percent) that she has attained was regular past, similar to Emily (*they talk_ to us how to ..., *I use_ newspaper or magazine).

Table 4. Putative Fossilized Items in Mao's Speech

Analysis of Syntactic Errors	
Near-native Items	Attained %
-	-
Fossilized Items	Attained %
modal auxiliaries	88
copula	80
articles	60
auxiliary <u>do</u>	50
noun plural	15
regular past	0
progressive -ing	-
auxiliary -be	-
auxiliary -have	-
irregular past	-
third person <u>-s</u>	-
possessive -s	-

Moreover, she tended to miss noun plural -s when it was necessary (*newspaper_ or magazine_, *TV program_, *native speaker_, *send e-mail_ to my friend_). Furthermore,

she did not use auxiliary do correctly (*because sometimes I am lazy, so I am not too follow my schedule). Similarly, she misused the article the before a non-specific noun and missed the before a specific noun (*the magazines, *watch _ news, *use _ Internet). However, one mistake in article use that did not happen in Emily's speech was Mao's errors to use the to replace a before a countable noun (*in the party).

Mao has achieved mastery of two language items which are close to a near-nativelike level: copula and modal auxiliaries. However, she used the present singular form is when she should have used the past plural form were (*I will listen music and look website that is about English) and missed am if it was needed (*sometimes I _ absent, I will borrow...). Lastly, she was unable to use the past tense of the modal auxiliaries (could, would) appropriately a number of times (*we can find some information).

In summary, both near-nativelike and fossilized language items were concomitant in Taiwanese intermediate or early-advanced English learners' speech. The six language items which were fossilized most often in their speech were noun plural, irregular past, modal auxiliaries, articles, progressive -ing and regular past. The error

patterns in past tenses and articles were similar in both subjects. However, there were other error patterns which were different and distinctive based on the individuals. In sum, Taiwanese English learners had some stabilized items in common, whereas other characteristic items were stabilized uniquely.

Analysis of Learner Profiles

Because the fossilized language elements analyzed above only offer preliminary evidence as to what fossilized items are characteristic usage, and what common/different language errors learners make, a deeper investigation is required in order to explore why and how the learners have fossilized.

The related results are the transcribed results from the learners' interviews. There are six categories in the SDELSQ and the results of each category were analyzed in this section. The feedback related to these results is presented respectively in Appendices E and F. From both learners' interviews, interesting results were found as follows.

Self-Directed /Learners: Past. In this category, the learners' answers were "sometimes" or "often." In Taiwan, students receive spoon-fed instruction. Teachers guide

students in direct and overt ways. Instructors teach students and help them resolve problems if they do not understand. Thus, it can be assumed that teachers were very involved in students' learning. In addition, participants described enjoying watching movies in English, reading newspapers in English, and listening to music in English. These are not required learning activities. It is therefore obvious that using diverse learning activities is one of key factors in motivating second-language learners in their studying. The more interesting the learning activities they choose, the greater the motivation they have.

Self-Directed Learning: ACLP. At ACLP, the participants are still using non-required English learning activities. Emily still reads English newspapers, and Mao still watches TV programs in English. There are not many differences compared to their past learning as indicated on the SDELSQ.

However, when asked about their learning experiences, their answers differed. Emily's teachers never gave her choices about what or how to learn, whereas Mao's teachers consistently give her choices about what or how to learn. For example, Mao's teachers told her to talk with native speakers, watch TV programs in English to learn, and so on.

The reason can be inferred from the facts that they had different teachers throughout the time at ACLP. As such, these teachers had different teaching methods and styles. This might have resulted in the differing answers from the learners.

For strategies used in class, Emily liked listening to songs in English and Mao liked watching TV programs in English, which is also her favorite strategy. They both stated that they "sometimes and often" discuss assignments with classmates and ask teachers if there are questions. Therefore, the results indicate that past and current learning share some similarities, such as their choices of learning activities for English and their learning activities outside of school. However, Emily thought her study plans "almost never" worked well, but Mao thought her study plan "sometimes" worked well. Emily explained that if she has a test or exam, she makes a study plan for it. It is helpful if students make study plans. They should be taught and should be equipped with skills about how to make a good study plan.

Attitudes toward Self-Directed Learning. Emily and Mao scored from 6 to 7 on a scale of 10. This indicates that they are not interested in teacher-directed or teacher-

supervised, but they can accept if it is needed. Also, they have little interest in increasing their self-direction of learning.

Motivation. Emily had higher interest in her teachers' assistance and encouragement in directing her learning. Mao scored 6 on a scale of 10 in motivation to learn English outside the classroom, whereas Emily scored 7. This demonstrates that participants do not have a very high motivation to learn English on their own outside of the classroom. It also explains that the spontaneity of second-language learning outside of the classroom highly affects their learning behaviors. Most learners are lacking in spontaneity in learning on their own, unless external factors force them to do so.

Activities outside Class. The learners both have American roommates that they can practice their English with. We can see the influences of environment factors on their learning. Emily sometimes writes journal or diary entries in English because her teacher in ACLP told her to do so. However, Mao mentioned that she had no assignments related to journal or diary. Again, different styles of teachers affect learning effectiveness. Similarly, both learners "consistently" watch English TV news, programs, or

movies and "sometimes" access the Internet in English. They "often" and "sometimes" go to the computer room in Yasuda Center (at CSU-SB) to check e-mails or print homework when they do not have class. They did not mention the learning activities they do in the computer room. In addition, it seems that the learners did not take advantage of teachers' office hours to ask questions. Mao stated that she "almost never" used office hours to ask teachers questions because she always asked questions in class. On the other hand, Emily "sometimes" uses office hours but stated that they are always too short for her. Thus, it is important for teachers to offer sufficient office hours for students to take advantage of it. Also, teachers have to tell students how office hours work and the students can ask questions not only in class, but also after class during office hours.

Autonomous Learning Choices. The results indicate that Emily scored 4 on the scale of 10 in using Internet-based vocabulary exercises in the Learning Center. However, a more interesting finding is that she scored 9 on a scale of 10 in learning American culture through simulated on-line tours and talking in discussion groups. Mao scored 4 from a scale of 10 in pronunciation self-help using computer and talking in discussion groups. Surprisingly, Emily and Mao

both indicated as their first purpose of the Learning Center is to improve language learning in general; and second, to improve their future prospects. Moreover, Emily's biggest problem in her English acquisition is grammar and Mao's is speaking. Accordingly, each student has different difficulties in learning English. These students are motivated to learn English because they want to improve their English ability in general and also their future prospects.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY

Conceptual Framework

This study was designed to present an analysis of learning strategies that enhance learners' self-direction and assist them in becoming more autonomous in English learning. Also, this study investigates the resources that learners would like to gain from a learning center. Two Taiwanese intermediate learners were interviewed for the purpose of understanding more about the fossilization process. This study asked, if they are fossilized, what fossilized items impede their English learning?

A questionnaire (SDELSQ) was administered as a set of interviews recorded on video. The SDELSQ consisted of forty questions and each participant was given about 1 minute to answer each question. The interview data were converted into printed transcripts for analysis. The subjects' length of residence in the United States was recorded as well. The first student, Emily, had been in the United States for two years and one month. The second student, Mao arrived in the United States one year and four months before the date of the interview. From the interview transcript, the subjects'

grammar fossilization was analyzed, focusing on the following morphemes: progressive-ing, noun plural, copulas (is, am, are, was, and were), auxiliary-be, modal auxiliaries, auxiliary-do, auxiliary-have, articles (a, an, and the), regular past, irregular past, third person (-s), and possessive (-s). Each subject's transcripts were analyzed separately to explore the elements that were fossilized uniquely.

The Results of Data Analysis

The results of the SDELSQ showed that Emily and Mao have similarities and differences in which items are fossilized. The common errors in their speech were modal auxiliaries, articles (a, an, and the), noun plural, progressing-ing, and irregular past. In addition, learners had their own characteristic pattern of errors. For instance, Mao tended to use the to replace a before countable nouns (*in the party).

Moreover, similar errors were evident in both participants' speech. For instance, Emily often overused the article the when it was not necessary. She used the article the before a non-specific noun in her speech (*the English newspapers, *the conversations, *the grammar).

Similarly, Mao also had the tendency to misuse the article the before a non-specific noun and missed the before a specific noun (*the magazine, *watch_news, *use_Internet).

The results of the SDELSQ showed that learners had similarities and differences in learner profiles. The SDELSQ indicated that there were external motivators that helped learners' in second-language acquisition. These motivators were teachers' supervision and encouragement, and opportunities to be exposed to an English environment outside of school through activities and interests such as choosing to read the newspaper and listen to songs in English, and talking with native speakers to improve their English proficiency. Also, sometimes learners were motivated to engage in learning activities; sometimes they were not, depending on external factors. For example, students engaged in activities because teachers told them to do so or because they had an exam to study for. Therefore, teachers played an important role in learners' learning and helped them realize what she/he could and could not do. The teacher was not merely a facilitator, but also a participant in learners' learning.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Firstly, an array of self-directed learning (SDL) strategies has been discussed in this study in reference to student performance in a learning center. The study showed that learners have favorite learning strategies but these are limited in number. Therefore, it is important to emphasize a variety of SDL strategies; the teachers should model these strategies and tell students why and how they are useful. Teachers can also ask students to write a rationale for their personal learning choices. Thus, students can gain a better sense of SDL strategies and how to make use of them at the Learning Center.

Secondly, based on the research data, intermediate second-language learners will be helped to overcome fossilization if they have access to a supportive and positive learning environment. This would motivate them to reach the next level in English learning. Nevertheless, this study is only a pilot study. There were only two participants involved. This is a short-term research project with the goal of designing a model of set of SDL strategies for intermediate second-language learners to use in a learning center. Accordingly, a longitudinal research would need more participants in order to explore the

hypotheses further.

In addition, as Gass and Selinker (2008) suggested,
...a solid explanation of permanent or temporary
learning plateaus is lacking at a present due, in
part, to the lack of longitudinal studies that
would be necessary to create databases necessary
to come to conclusions regarding getting stuck in
another language. (p. 14)

Lastly, future longitudinal research needs to be
performed in order to verify the effectiveness of self-
directed learning strategies. In addition, self-directed
learning should be tested on a large number of students in
order to find out if SDL strategies help students overcome
fossilization. Hence, future in-depth and empirical studies
are needed.

APPENDIX A

REVISED VERSION OF HAN'S TAXONOMY OF PUTATIVE CAUSAL
FACTORS OF FOSSILIZATION

Revised Version of Han's Taxonomy of Putative Causal Factors of Fossilization [Excerpt]

(Internal) Cognitive	Knowledge processing (receptive/ productive)	Learning Strategies	In- appropriate learning strategies	Self- directed learning strategies	Metacognitive strategies		
					Cognitive strategies		
					Social/Affective strategies		
				Self- directed learning (Self- directed learning factors)	Human resources	In/out of class	Past
					Non-human resources		Now
					Attitudes	Teacher- directed, supervised	
						Willingness/ interest	
					Motivation	Teachers' assistance	
						On your own	
					Activities outside class	Productive skills	Speaking
							Writing
						Receptive skills	Listening
							Reading

(Internal) Cognitive (con't.)	Knowledge processing (receptive/ productive (con't.)		Self- directed learning (Self- directed learning factors) (con't.)	Autonomous learning choices	Computers Tutors Videos Discussion groups Problems Purposes	
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Source: Adapted from Han, Z-H. (2004). Fossilization in adult second language acquisition.
Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, p.29.

APPENDIX B

SELF-DIRECTED ENGLISH-LEARNING STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies Questionnaire

Code: _____ Age: _____

Site: _____ Date: _____

Interviewer: _____

Notes: _____

Start time: _____ End time: _____

Introduction

These questions are about your learning habits. I will be asking you about your classes and your learning outside of class, and about your sense of self-direction and self-motivation.

Self-Directed Learning: Past

1. In the past, in college or high school, in English class, have your teachers given you choices about what or how to learn?

- 1. almost never
- 2. sometimes
- 3. often
- 4. consistently

Please describe:

2. In the past, in college or high school, outside English classes, did you learn any English that was not required?

- 1. almost never
- 2. sometimes
- 3. often
- 4. consistently

Please describe:

3. In the past, have you ever used any learning materials for English that were not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

Self-Directed Learning: ACLP

4. At ACLP, do your teachers give you choices about what or how to learn?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

5. At ACLP, do you learn any English that is not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

6. Do you ever use any learning materials for English that are not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

7. Do you preview and review outside of class what you learn in class at ACLP?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

8. How often do you ask teachers if you have any questions?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

9. How often do you discuss your learning with classmates?

(For example, homework, assignments)

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

10. What strategies have you been using in class, and which are your favorites?

Please describe:

11. Do you make study plans and regularly check to see if you are keeping up with scheduled learning progress?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

12. Do you think your study plans work well?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

Activities outside Class

13. How often do you talk with native speakers?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

14. How often do you write a journal or diary in English?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

15. How often do you send e-mails, and use online chat rooms and forums in English?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

16. How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers in English?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

17. How often do you listen to English radio or songs?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

18. How often do you watch English TV news, programs, or movies?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

19. How often do you access the Internet in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

20. How often do you take advantage of office hours to ask your teachers questions if you don't understand?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

21. How often do you go to the computer room in Yasuda Center?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

22. What do you do there?

Please describe:

23. If you could do more autonomous learning there, what would you do?

Please describe:

Attitudes toward Self-Directed Learning

24. Do you like your teachers to direct and supervise your study?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

25. Would you like to increase your self-direction of learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Motivation

26. Do you think your teachers assist and encourage you to direct your own learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

27. How would you describe your motivation to learn English on your own outside of class?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Self-Directed Learning Choices

If you could go to a learning center to improve your English by working on your own, which activities would you choose to do?

28. pronunciation self-help using computer

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

29. Internet-based vocabulary exercises

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

30. viewing videos related to classroom-assigned literature

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

31. using a computer program to learn conversation

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

32. learning American culture through simulated on-line tour

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

33. learning English grammar through teaching videos

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

34. having private tutoring with a learning assistant
 <-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->
35. talking in discussion groups
 <-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->
36. improving listening skills through computer programs
 <-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->
37. using computer programs to improve TOEFL, TOEIC or
 other standardized test proficiency
 <-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->
38. If you could go to a learning center, what would be
 your purpose there? Please rank these from highest(1)
 to lowest(4).
- ___ assistance with current school assignment
 - ___ improve future prospects (Ex: job interviews, etc.)
 - ___ improve language learning in general
 - ___ meet specific needs (TOEFL, TOEIC, GRE and so on)
39. What is your biggest problem in your English
 acquisition?
 Please describe:
40. If you could not keep up with class progress or had too
 many absences, would you use resources of a learning
 center to make up classes or keep up with class
 progress?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

APPENDIX C

ANALYSIS OF EMILY'S SPEECH: THE ACCURACY RATE OF FOCUSED
SYNTACTIC ITEMS

Analysis of Emily's Speech:
The Accuracy Rate of Focused Syntactic Items

<u>Targeted Syntactic Items</u>	<u>Examples of Error Patterns</u>	<u>Numbers of Correct</u>	<u>The Sum of Correct</u>	<u>%</u>
progressive -ing	*Just check e-mails, or <u>surfing</u> .	1	2	50
noun plural -s, -es	*They taught conversations and grammars. *I will watch TV <u>s</u> . *We would listen to the radios or English songs.	34	39	87
copula <u>is</u> , <u>are</u> , were, was	*Because office hours <u>is</u> very short.	10	11	91
auxiliary <u>be</u>	No examples occurred.	1	1	100
modal auxiliaries <u>would</u> , <u>could</u> , <u>should</u> , <u>shall</u> , <u>might</u> , <u>must</u> , <u>may</u> , will, etc.	*Even when my friends were driving the car, we <u>will</u> listen to the radios. *We <u>can</u> see the capture.	8	10	80
auxiliary <u>do</u>	No examples occurred.	7	7	100
auxiliary <u>have</u>	No examples occurred.	0	0	-

Analysis of Emily's Speech:
The Accuracy Rate of Focused Syntactic Items (con't.)

articles a, the	*the English newspapers *the conversations. *We don't have __ choice *a English song *We have __ test *live in __ dorm *listen to a radio *__ native speaker *__ on-line chat room *__ computer *__ real man *the grammar	22	38	58
regular past -ed	*We watch__ the English movies. *I watch__ the English movies. *When I was in high school, our teacher always talk__ about the grammar and reading	0	3	0
irregular past	*They teach the conversations and grammars in the movies.	5	6	83
third person -s	No examples occurred.	1	1	100
Possessive -s	No examples occurred.	0	0	-

APPENDIX D

ANALYSIS OF MAO'S SPEECH: THE ACCURACY RATE OF FOCUSED
SYNTACTIC ITEMS

Analysis of Mao's Speech:
The Accuracy Rate of Focused Syntactic Items

<u>Targeted Syntactic Items</u>	<u>Examples of Error Patterns</u>	<u>Numbers of Correct</u>	<u>The Sum of Correct</u>	<u>%</u>
progressive -ing	No examples occurred.	0	0	-
noun plural -s, -es	*find some information from newspaper__ or magazine__	3	20	15
copula <u>is</u> , <u>are</u> , <u>were</u> , <u>was</u>	*I will listen music and look website that <u>is</u> about English. *sometimes if I __ absent, I will borrow...	8	10	80
auxiliary <u>be</u>	No examples occurred.	0	0	-
modal auxiliaries <u>would</u> , <u>could</u> , <u>should</u> , <u>shall</u> , <u>might</u> , <u>must</u> , <u>may</u> , <u>will</u> , etc.	*We <u>can</u> find some information from newspaper or magazines. *I <u>will</u> listen music and look website that is about English.	14	16	88
auxiliary <u>do</u>	*Because sometimes I am lazy, so I <u>am</u> not too follow my schedule.	1	2	50
auxiliary <u>have</u>	No examples occurred.	0	0	-
articles <u>a</u> , <u>the</u>	*I but <u>the</u> magazines. *in <u>the</u> party *watch __ news *use Internet	9	15	60

Analysis of Mao's Speech:
The Accuracy Rate of Focused Syntactic Items (con't.)

regular past -ed	*They talk__ to us how to... *I use__ newspaper or magazine. *And sometimes I listen__ to music.	0	3	0
irregular past	No examples occurred.	0	0	-
third person -s	No examples occurred.	0	0	-
Possessive -s	No examples occurred.	0	0	-

APPENDIX E

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING PROFILE: EMILY

Self-Directed Learning Profile: Emily
Feedback of Self-Directed English Learning Strategies
Questionnaire

Code: Learner A: Emily Age: 25
Site: Micro Media Room Date: July, 03, 2008
Interviewer: Ching Hsu
Notes: For participants' privacy, Learner B's actual name
will not be mentioned. All transcripts are verbatim.

Start time: 03:35 pm End time: 03:57 pm
A: Learner A I: Interviewer

Introduction

These questions are about your learning habits. I will be asking you about your classes and your learning outside of class, and about your sense of self-direction and self-motivation.

Self-Directed Learning: Past

1. In the past, in college or high school, in English class, have your teachers given you choices about what or how to learn?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Number 2, sometimes. Because our teachers... When I was in high school and college, they often gave us English songs or movies to choose to learn, and sometimes we watch the English movies.

I:Ok.

2. In the past, in college or high school, outside English classes, did you learn any English that was not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Number 2, sometimes. Because...um..., I went to the outside English classes and they gave me the English newspapers to read and sometimes English magazines.

I: So you went to cram school?

A: Yeah.

3. In the past, have you ever used any learning materials for English that were not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Two, sometimes. Sometimes I watch the English movies and we can see the capture.

I: Yeah.

A: sometimes they teach the conversations and grammars in the movies.

I: Ok.

Self-Directed Learning: ACLP

4. At ACLP, do your teachers give you choices about what or how to learn?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Almost never.

I: Ok.

A: Because I never learn, our teachers never give us a choice about what or how to learn. Just teach us grammars or TOEFL and listening, but we don't have choice to...We don't have any chance to choose it.

5. At ACLP, do you learn any English that is not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: I think sometimes.

I: Ok.

A: Um, sometimes we learn the English newspapers. We read the English newspapers to learn English.

I: Outside school? Like after school?

A: Yeah.

I: Ok.

6. Do you ever use any learning materials for English that are not required?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes, um...

I: Like...what do you do after school to learn English?

Like...

A: Listen to a radio, or watch movies to learn.

I: Ok.

7. Do you preview and review outside of class what you learn in class at ACLP?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes. Um, we always review for the class, but just sometimes preview.

8. How often do you ask teachers if you have any questions?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Often.

I: It's in ACLP, right?

A: Yeah. Because in ACLP, the teachers... If we ask any questions, they have patience to answer it. So we often

ask him.

9. How often do you discuss your learning with classmates?

(For example, homework, assignments)

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes. If we have group assignments, we sometimes discuss about it. Or about writing, we can discuss our ideas.

10. What strategies have you been using in class, and which are your favorites?

Please describe:

A: Um, I don't. Um, I think maybe in listening class, we can listen a English song or watch the movies. It makes us have motivation to learn English. It's my favorite.

11. Do you make study plans and regularly check to see if you are keeping up with scheduled learning progress?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes. Sometimes I make study plans. But it's sometimes not...It doesn't work.

12. Do you think your study plans work well?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Almost never.

I: So you think that doesn't work well?

A: Yeah.

I: Ok. So can you please describe a little bit?

Like...for example...

A: If we have test or something, we need to study about it, right!? And I will made a study plan. But if I stay at home, I will watch TVs or listen to a radio or eat something. So never follow the study plans.

I: Ok.

Activities outside Class

13. How often do you talk with native speakers?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes.

I: Can you please describe a little bit like "How did you know them? In campus, off campus, or...?"

A: Because I live in dorm, so my roommate is...She is native speaker. And sometimes I can chat with her.

14. How often do you write a journal or diary in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

I: It includes the assignment, so if your teacher gives you the assignment...

A: Sometimes. Because our teacher gave us maybe one week for two journals.

I: It's from ACLP or it's from...?

A: ACLP.

15. How often do you send e-mails, and use online chat rooms and forums in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Almost never.

I: So you always...Can you please describe a little bit...like...

A: Because I never use on-line chat room and forums in English, but I sent e-mails to write group members for assignment.

I: In English, right?

A: Yeah.

I: So probably it's sometimes in sending e-mails, right?

A: Oh, yeah.

16. How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Often. Because I like to read magazines, so almost every week I buy magazines to read it.

I: What kinds of magazines do you buy, like entertainment, or...?

A: Yeah.

I: In English, right?

A: Yes.

17. How often do you listen to English radio or songs?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Often. Because I like to listen to the music, so even when my friends were driving the car, we will listen to the radios or English songs.

18. How often do you watch English TV news, programs, or movies?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Consistently. Because I like to watch TVs, TV programs.

So when I go home, my first thing is open the television to watch TV. Yeah.

19. How often do you access the Internet in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes. Because I always use Chinese to...um...

I: To surf the Internet? When you access the Internet, you often access the Internet in Chinese?

A: In Chinese.

I: But like you said sometimes, sometimes you do access the Internet in English, right?

A: Yeah.

I: So like...which websites or what did you do there?

What do you do often?

A: Oh...use...um...shopping, the on-line shopping.

I: So it's like e-bay or something?

A: Yeah.

20. How often do you take advantage of office hours to ask your teachers questions if you don't understand?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Sometimes. Because office hours is very short, so we don't have so many times to ask questions, always in school.

I: Ok, so you always ask your teachers questions after class?

A: Yeah.

21. How often do you go to the computer room in Yasuda Center?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

A: Often. Because...um...when we take a break, or we don't have class. I always go to the computer room.

I: Ok.

22. What do you do there?

Please describe:

A: Um, just check e-mails, or surfing...use the messenger to chat with friends.

23. If you could do more autonomous learning there, what would you do?

Please describe:

I: Autonomous learning is like self-directed learning. If you could do more to help yourself to learn by yourself, what would you do?

A: Maybe to improve my listening. If I could do, like I

can use the headphone or microphone. Yeah.

I: So you prefer to watch the movies or listen to the radio to improve your listening, or like what kinds of things would you prefer to improve your listening?

A: Listen to the music or...yeah.

Attitudes toward Self-Directed Learning

24. Do you like your teachers to direct and supervise your study?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

A: Um...

I: Like...Do you like studying by yourself or do you like your teachers to direct you like... "Ok. You have to do that next, or you have to do that after."

A: Oh.

I: Or you don't like it...?

A: Six.

I: You think it's like in the middle, so-so, sometimes?

25. Would you like to increase your self-direction of learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....☒7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Motivation

26. Do you think your teachers assist and encourage you to direct your own learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....☒8.....9.....10 (High)->

27. How would you describe your motivation to learn English on your own outside of class?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Self-Directed Learning Choices

If you could go to a learning center to improve your English by working on your own, which activities would you choose to do?

28. pronunciation self-help using computer

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

29. Internet-based vocabulary exercises

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

I: So you don't want to learn vocabulary?

A: I don't want. I think I can learn it by myself. I don't need to...

30. viewing videos related to classroom-assigned literature

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

31. using a computer program to learn conversation

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

32. learning American culture through simulated on-line tour

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

I: Simulated which is...It's not real, but they pretend to be real. It's like...you know, like a video game. It's like real people, they...At the same time, they are playing video game.

A: Oh.

I: But in the video game, it's not real a person.

A: Oh. Nine.

33. learning English grammar through teaching videos

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

I: It's like, you know, like cram school. Teachers have a video they recorded. So they play, you just sit in front of the TV or computer, but it's not...yeah.

34. having private tutoring with a learning assistant

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

I: A learning assistant is like a tutor. (The word translated into Chinese).

A: Private? But it's from computer or it's real man?

I: (This sentence was translated into Chinese).

35. talking in discussion groups

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

36. improving listening skills through computer programs

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

37. using computer programs to improve TOEFL, TOEIC or other standardized test proficiency

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

38. If you could go to a learning center, what would be your purpose there? Please rank these from highest(1) to lowest(4).

4 assistance with current school assignment

- 2 improve future prospects (Ex: job interviews, etc.)
- 1 improve language learning in general
- 3 meet specific needs (TOEFL, TOEIC, GRE and so on)

39. What is your biggest problem in your English acquisition?

Please describe:

A:...

I: Because English is your second language, right?

A: Yeah.

I: So what is your biggest problem so far?

A: Um...I think the grammar is very hard to me. And when I was in high school, our teacher always talk about the grammar and reading. But it's still very hard.

I: Ok. That's it?

40. If you could not keep up with class progress or had too many absences, would you use resources of a learning center to make up classes or keep up with class progress?

- 1. almost never
- 2. sometimes
- 3. often
- 4. consistently

A:...

I: Like if you cannot get up too early, or if you are sick too many times, and you cannot go to classes. Like teachers tell you "Ok, you have to make up classes, or you will be failed". Then would you like to use resources of a learning center to make up classes or keep up with class progress? Because you are sick, so

that you miss some classes, then...

A: Sometimes.

I: Ok. Thank you. That's it.

APPENDIX F

SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING PROFILE: MAO

Self-Directed Learning Profile: Mao
Feedback of Self-Directed English-Learning Strategies
Questionnaire

Code: Learner B: Mao Age: 26
Site: Mao's home Date: Aug, 05, 2008
Interviewer: Ching Hsu
Notes: For participants' privacy, Learner B's actual name
will not be mentioned. All transcripts are verbatim.

Start time: 02:05 pm End time: 02:35 pm
B: Learner B I: Interviewer

Introduction

These questions are about your learning habits. I will be asking you about your classes and your learning outside of class, and about your sense of self-direction and self-motivation.

Self-Directed Learning: Past

1. In the past, in college or high school, in English class, have your teachers given you choices about what or how to learn?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Often. They talk to us how to...how to learn, so we can find some information from newspaper or magazine.

2. In the past, in college or high school, outside English classes, did you learn any English that was not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Often. I will listen music and look website that is about English.

3. In the past, have you ever used any learning materials for English that were not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Often. I use newspaper or magazine. And sometimes I listen to music.

Self-Directed Learning: ACLP

4. At ACLP, do your teachers give you choices about what or how to learn?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Consistently. They...they...um...We can talk to native speaker and sometimes we can watch TV program.

5. At ACLP, do you learn any English that is not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. I watch TV program everyday.

6. Do you ever use any learning materials for English that are not required?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: I buy the magazines such as: Business Week or Times.

7. Do you preview and review outside of class what you learn in class at ACLP?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. If I feel this class is very difficult, I will preview...preview.

I: So if you think the class is difficult, you will review or preview?

B: Preview and review.

I: So you will preview first at home then you will review after class.

B: Yes. If I feel it's difficult.

8. How often do you ask teachers if you have any questions?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. If I don't understand what they say, I will ask them.

I: So you will ask teachers after class or you will ask...

B: In the class.

I: You will just raise your hands and...

B: Yes.

I: Ok. Do you go to ...Do you use office hours to ask teachers questions?

B: No.

I: You just ask teachers questions in the class.

9. How often do you discuss your learning with classmates?

(For example, homework, assignments)

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Often. When we have present in class, we always discuss to it.

I: So teachers give you guys a chance to discuss in the class?

B: Yes.

I: Do you discuss your homework or assignment after class? Like outside school?

B: Yes.

10. What strategies have you been using in class, and which are your favorites?

Please describe:

B: Um, watch TV program and listen music, and read newspaper or magazine...which one...and...My favorite is watch TV program.

11. Do you make study plans and regularly check to see if you are keeping up with scheduled learning progress?

1. almost never

2. sometimes .

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. (After 10 seconds).

I: So what did you write in your study plan? Like what's your study plan about?

B: Um, I will see the syllabus and make a calendar.

I: So you will arrange time to...maybe...arrange some time for a study group or you will...

B: Just study by myself.

I: Ok. You like studying by yourself?

B: Yes.

I: So the study plan maybe...It's about just like...

B: Schedule.

I: Yeah. Like what you're gonna do tomorrow morning, lunch time, afternoon and night.

B: Yes.

12. Do you think your study plans work well?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. Because sometimes I am lazy, so I am not to follow my schedule.

I: So sometimes you follow your schedule, sometimes you don't.

B: Yes.

Activities outside Class

13. How often do you talk with native speakers?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes, in the party (laugh).

I: So in a party?

B: Yeah, in party or in class.

I: No, this is outside class.

B: Outside class, oh, in the party.

I: so when you go to a party, like if you see native speakers, you will talk to them?

B: Yes.

14. How often do you write a journal or diary in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Almost never.

I: Can you please describe a little bit?

B: I never write a journal.

I: So in your high school time, your high school English teacher. She or he never told you like... "you have to write a journal or diary?"

B: No.

I: Ok.

15. How often do you send e-mails, and use online chat rooms and forums in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Twice a week, so it's sometimes. Sometimes I will send e-mail to my friend. They come from Japan, Korea.

16. How often do you read books, magazines, or newspapers in English?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. Sometimes I will...read magazine and newspaper. Maybe once a week.

I: But you don't read books in English?

B: Not...

I: Not quite often?

B: Yes.

17. How often do you listen to English radio or songs?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Almost everyday.

I: So it's consistently.

B: I like listen Akon...music.

18. How often do you watch English TV news, programs, or movies?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Consistently. I...My favorite TV program is CSI, Las Vegas and New York.

19. How often do you access the Internet in English?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. Sometimes I will search websites such as Times. I will watch news.

20. How often do you take advantage of office hours to ask your teachers questions if you don't understand?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Almost never. Because if I have any questions, I will ask my teacher in the class.

21. How often do you go to the computer room in Yasuda Center?

1. almost never

2. sometimes

3. often

4. consistently

Please describe:

B: Sometimes. So when I print my homework, I will use the computer room.

22. What do you do there?

Please describe:

B: Print my homework.

I: So that's it? What else?

B: And use Internet.

23. If you could do more autonomous learning there, what would

you do?

Please describe:

B: Maybe I will search English websites such as CNN and I will listen to the news.

Attitudes toward Self-Directed Learning

24. Do you like your teachers to direct and supervise your study?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....☒.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

25. Would you like to increase your self-direction of learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....☒.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Motivation

26. Do you think your teachers assist and encourage you to direct your own learning?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....☒.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

I: So you think your teachers...They help you and encourage you to direct your own learning.

B: Yes.

27. How would you describe your motivation to learn English on your own outside of class?

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

Self-Directed Learning Choices

If you could go to a learning center to improve your English by working on your own, which activities would you choose to do?

28. pronunciation self-help using computer

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....☒4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

29. Internet-based vocabulary exercises

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....☒5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

30. viewing videos related to classroom-assigned literature

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

31. using a computer program to learn conversation

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....☒5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

32. learning American culture through simulated on-line
tour

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

33. learning English grammar through teaching videos

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

34. having private tutoring with a learning assistant

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....☒6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

35. talking in discussion groups

<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....☒4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

36. improving listening skills through computer programs
<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

37. using computer programs to improve TOEFL, TOEIC or
other standardized test proficiency
<-(Low) 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9.....10 (High)->

38. If you could go to a learning center, what would be
your purpose there? Please rank these from highest(1)
to lowest(4).

- 3 assistance with current school assignment
- 2 improve future prospects (Ex: job interviews, etc.)
- 1 improve language learning in general
- 4 meet specific needs (TOEFL, TOEIC, GRE and so on)

39. What is your biggest problem in your English
acquisition?

Please describe:

I: So when you study English, what's your biggest
problem?

B: Maybe speaking.

I: So you think speaking is the most difficult part for
you?

B: Yes. And I have to organize what I have to say in
English. So it's very difficult.

I: So how about the grammar part? You think grammar is
not too difficult?

B: It's more easy.

I: Than speaking?

B: Yes. Than speaking and listening.

40. If you could not keep up with class progress or had too many absences, would you use resources of a learning center to make up classes or keep up with class progress?

1. almost never
2. sometimes
3. often
4. consistently

B: Often.

I: You would like to use that?

B: Sometimes if I absent, I will borrow...ask...

I: You will borrow some books or notes?

B: Yes.

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