Learner autonomy in the Norwegian EFL classroom: A study of high school teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy

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Abstract in Norwegian

Denne masteroppgaven er skrevet innen fagområdet for engelsk didaktikk, hvor formålet er å se på hvordan norske engelsklærere i den videregående skolen tilrettelegger for elevautonomi. Dette innebærer både deres holdninger og selve arbeidet de gjør for å fremme elevautonomi. Oppgaven tar først og fremst for seg *hvordan* lærere fremmer elevautonomi, men undersøker også hvor konsistent arbeidet er. I tillegg blir det forsket på om lærernes bakgrunn har en innvirkning i tilretteleggingsarbeidet, samt om deres syn på elevenes evner påvirker om de fremmer elevautonomi. Studien er landsdekkende og ble utført høsten 2019 ved bruk av en metodetriangulert spørreundersøkelse. Dataen er basert på svarene fra 77 lærere mellom 24-67 år, hvorav 57 respondenter er kvinner og 20 er menn. Alle som har deltatt i undersøkelsen underviser i engelsk på enten vg1 yrkesfag, eller vg2 og vg3 studieforberedende.

På grunnlag av svarene i undersøkelsen ser man at norske engelsklærere i den videregående skolen er positive til elevautonomi, og at de ser nytteverdien det har for språklæring og læring generelt. Det kommer frem at en stor del av lærerne ofte tilrettelegger for elevautonomi, og at de bruker flere ulike tilnærmingsmåter. Å inkludere elevene i beslutningstaking - spesielt i valg av oppgave og arbeidsform - er en av de tilnærmingene som forekommer oftest. Videre diskuteres det hvor lite konsistent tilretteleggingen er, og at den varierer etter hvilken klasse eller elever lærerne har. Samtlige sider ved tilretteleggingen er også differensiert på bakgrunn av variabler i lærernes kjønn, samt hvilke trinn og utdanningsprogram de jobber på. Blant annet indikerer funnene at kvinner synes at det er mer tidkrevende å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi enn menn, og at menn er mer positive når det gjelder å inkludere elevene i valg av aktiviteter og i vurderingsprosesser. Funnene indikerer også at lærere som jobber på studieforberedende i vg3 har et sterkere fokus på å fremme elevautonomi enn hva lærere i vg1 på yrkesfag har. Videre ser man at dette henger tett sammen med lærernes syn på elevenes modenhet og ansvarlighet, som ofte avgjør hvorvidt lærerne velger å fremme elevautonomi. Lærerne anser spesielt elever i vg1 på yrkesfaglige utdanningsprogram som mindre modne og ansvarlige, og fokuserer dermed mindre på elevautonomi med disse elevene. Følgelig argumenteres det at dette kan få uheldige konsekvenser for denne elevgruppen.

Denne studien gir et innblikk i hvordan lærere jobber med elevautonomi og hvilke faktorer som påvirker tilretteleggingsarbeidet. Hensikten er å tydeliggjøre elevautonomi på grunnlag av delte erfaringer som senere kan skape et fundament for en bredere forståelse for dets praktiske aspekter, samt de utfordringene lærere står overfor. Studien åpner også opp for det å reflektere over egne holdninger og hva som kan skje hvis disse får fotfeste i klasserommet.

"Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day.
Teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime"

- Chinese Proverb -

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List of Abbreviations

EFL	**English as a Foreign Language**
LK06	**National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion (introduced in 2006)**
MMR	**Mixed Methods Research**
CRAPEL	**Le Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues**
CEF	**The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages**
ELP	**The European Language Portfolio**
NSD	**Norwegian Social Science Data Services**
LAP	**Learner Autonomy Profile**
SDT	**Self-Determination Theory**
SPSS	**Statistical Package for Social Sciences**
ANOVA	**A One-way Repeated Measure Analysis of Variance**

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1. Introduction

1.1 Aims and Scope

This paper aims to investigate how teachers work with learner autonomy and the research question is formulated as follows: "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?". The paper reports on a large-scale study on learner autonomy in language learning carried out with English teachers in Norwegian high schools. The research was carried out by using a questionnaire with a mixed-methods research design, where teachers' teaching practices concerning learner autonomy was the subject of study. Primarily, the focus was on what methods and strategies English teachers use to facilitate learner autonomy, although some attention was also paid to 1) if teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently, 2) their background and how this affects the way they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy, and 3) if teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy is defined as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 58), and is a well-established concept that is recognized as a desirable goal of second and foreign language learning (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019). Theories on learner autonomy highlight the positive impacts that responsibility and influence can have on learners: regulating one's own learning, stimulating metacognition, and enhancing motivation (Dam, 2011; Ushioda, 2014). Motivational theory accentuates the crucial role that autonomy plays vis-à-vis language learning. Self-direction and personal agency stimulate motivation, which is essential to language learning as it motivates learners to achieve their goals (Dickinson, 1995; Lasagabaster et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ushioda, 2014). Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012a) and Cornford (2002) similarly emphasize that learner autonomy stimulates the skill of learning to learn and prepares students for life-long learning. In this way, the development of autonomy is simultaneously the development of a learner as a human being because it enables them to encounter learning-centered problems independently both in and outside the classroom (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a). For these reasons, learner autonomy is essential to language learning and hence sparked my interest in how it is fostered. In the next section, I present my motivations for investigating how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy.

1.2 Background

Throughout my years of studying both English and Norwegian didactics, I have discovered copious intriguing factors that influence language learning. Learner autonomy was one of the concepts that interested me the most because of its advantages to the students. The term 'learner autonomy' was mentioned on several occasions in our textbooks; however, *how to develop* learner autonomy was never explicitly discussed. As a future language teacher, I found this frustrating because I could see all the advantages my future students could gain from developing learner autonomy.

Fortunately, in my last course of didactics, I finally came across a guide on how to develop learner autonomy. This guide was Dam's article *Developing learner autonomy with school kids: principles, practices, results* (2011). Reading her article was a revelation because it described very strategically how trying to develop learner autonomy could be carried out. I did further research on finding similar guides, and surprisingly, I could not find many other similar 'guides' on how to develop learner autonomy in the Scandinavian context. Although studies do exist on developing learner autonomy internationally, e.g. Thanasoulas (2000), little research has been done on how autonomy is or should be facilitated by EFL teachers in the Norwegian context, for instance. It occurred to me that this could imply that there are likely few or vague guidelines for implementing learner autonomy in practice or that teachers face challenges when trying to facilitate it. This notion sparked my interest in investigating teacher practices with respect to learner autonomy. In the following section, I provide a basis for the relevance of studying learner autonomy.

1.2.1 Relevance

Research on how Norwegian EFL high school teachers facilitate learner autonomy is relevant for several reasons. First, Benson claims that "for many language teachers, autonomy is a good idea in theory, but somewhat idealistic in practice" (Benson, 2011, p. 119). Studies concerning teacher cognition and learner autonomy confirm Benson's claim, as they find that teachers believe learner autonomy to be idealistic in terms of its implementation in teaching practices (Haji-Othman & Wood, 2016; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Lee, 2009, as cited in Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019). Teachers' conception of the term learner autonomy is also often limited (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012), which indicates a gap in the literature as the teachers' understanding of the term directly influence the students' learning (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019). It is thus necessary to study how teachers facilitate learner autonomy so that their

practices are displayed, and their challenges in the facilitation of it can become more visible. It is also possible that a study such as this can highlight strategies, methods, and practices implemented by teachers who do not find learner autonomy idealistic in practice.

Second, autonomy is an accentuated part and firmly embodied within the educational framework in Norway, but with a general approach and vague instructions for how to facilitate it. The Core Curriculum covers many of the aspects we relate to learner autonomy, such as enabling the students to assume responsibility for their own learning: "the young must gradually shoulder more responsibility for the planning and achievement of their own education - and they must take responsibility for their own conduct and behavior" (Udir, 2006, as cited in Trebbi, 2008, as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 17). Here, the importance of enabling learners to take responsibility is stressed, but not how it should be actualized. It is also stated in the regulations for the Education Act for primary and secondary education and training (§ 1-1) that students have the right to adapted education and should have a joint responsibility and the right to participate (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 1998). It is thus a *right* the students have and it is, therefore, important to understand *how* to achieve and sustain this right. Udir (2015) does, in some ways, point out how teachers can involve students in their own learning and development by explaining that teachers can adapt their teaching to include their students in choices around learning, for example, regarding learning material, work forms, organization, and assessment. Although including learners in decisions is one of the principles of facilitating learner autonomy, one principle alone is not sufficient to instruct teachers on how to facilitate it. Vague guidelines could negatively affect teachers' readiness and willingness to facilitate learner autonomy and could be one of the reasons why teachers find it idealistic to implement in practice. Thus, teachers should be acquainted with time-efficient and diverse methods for how one can facilitate learner autonomy.

The relevance of this project is thus that, first, it provides a basis, in terms of presenting what strategies and methods teachers use, to understand how they facilitate learner autonomy and how they experience it, and second, the findings from projects regarding teacher practices can be used in further studies on how EFL (and other language) teachers in Norway can facilitate learner autonomy. Moreover, teachers can use the findings to reflect on their own teaching practices in terms of what is efficient, and what is not, what methods to use, what challenges they encounter, and so on. School leaders and curriculum makers can similarly learn more about how teacher autonomy is implemented in practice and this should help them to create more explicit guidelines in the future. Finally, teacher educators can use the findings of

this project to further the discussion on the implementation of learner autonomy via teacher practices.

1.3 Related Research

Learner autonomy is a concept that has been studied to a great extent, especially by researching student and teacher beliefs and cognition about learner autonomy. However, studies about what teachers do to facilitate learner autonomy in their classrooms are fewer in number. Indeed, few studies have explicitly focused on whether (and how) teachers facilitate learner autonomy, and to my knowledge, little research has been conducted on language teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy in Norway. Hence, this project uses international studies as reference points (e.g. Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Dam, 2011; Ürün et al., 2014), with particular attention paid to Dam (2011).

The Danish teacher and scientist, Leni Dam, designed an outline for her findings on how to strategically facilitate learner autonomy (Dam, 2011). The principles she outlined drew from her own experience as an EFL teacher in a middle school in Denmark. She underlines the imperative of giving the students choices concerning their education, whether that be freedom of choice in tasks, content, or strategies. Other decisions that the students can take part in is whether they should work individually or in a group, what activities they prefer, and time limits. Being involved in decision making makes learning, according to Little (1991, p. 8) "more focused and more purposeful, and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term". This point accentuates the importance of including the learners in decision making. Dam's (2011) article gives a brief overview of how to effectively involve the students in choices and decision making, which is an essential principle of learner autonomy. Dam (2011) also writes about how one can implement other principles of learner autonomy, such as how to achieve authenticity in the classroom, and how to ensure that the students evaluate nearly all lessons without it being time-consuming. As for the latter, Dam's (2011) solution is an effective use of logbooks where the students assess the learning outcome, activities, time limit, tasks, and content by using Likert scales, smileys, or other easy scales. The principles mentioned above are essential to this thesis and will be further discussed in the following chapter and compared with how Norwegian EFL high school teachers work with learner autonomy.

In addition, Linda Haglund's master's thesis (2018) about Norwegian EFL high school teachers' beliefs and cognitions about learner autonomy will provide a fundamental basis for this thesis. Since this project examines what the teachers do, their beliefs and cognitions will

be essential because they affect their choices when making decisions. However, it is important to emphasize that this project differs from (and builds on) Haglund's since it focuses on teachers' actual practices, whereas Haglund's thesis investigated exclusively teachers' beliefs. The findings in Haglund's thesis (2018) indicate that Norwegian EFL high school teachers see challenges in the work of facilitating learner autonomy. In Haglund's questionnaire, 200 respondents were asked if they saw any difficulties or challenges when trying to foster learner autonomy in the EFL classroom. A total of 160 respondents answered yes to that question, and 61 of them claimed that the most challenging aspect of the facilitation of learner autonomy was that students are not capable of taking responsibility, or that they are too immature (Haglund, 2018, p. 75). Other challenges they mentioned also had to do with their students, such as a lack of motivation. Interestingly, teachers seem to focus on problems with their students and not their own shortcomings. As Haglund (2018) suggests in her thesis, the challenges teachers face could prevent them from facilitating learner autonomy and more attention should thus be paid to this topic. These are some noteworthy findings that I will shed light on when discussing the teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy.

1.4 Research Methods

This paper reports on a large-scale study on how learner autonomy is facilitated by EFL teachers in Norway. The research was carried out by sending a questionnaire with a mixed-methods research design to every Norwegian high school. A questionnaire with an MMR design involves both qualitative and quantitative answers. To limit the scope of this project, the following criterion was set: potential teacher participants had to work in either vg1 vocational studies, vg2 general studies, and/or vg3 general studies. A total of 77 Norwegian EFL high school teachers took part in the survey. The analysis of the data consists of two sections: the first section lists the quantitative and qualitative data, accompanied by figures, tables, and the participants' statements while the second section consists of a discussion and analysis of the main findings. For a thorough description of the research methods used in this project - see Chapter 3.

1.5 Research Questions

This paper aims to investigate how teachers develop learner autonomy in their students, and the main research question is formulated as follows: "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?". To explore this topic, additional, supplementary research questions were also investigated and these are listed below:

1. Do teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently?

2. Do the teachers' backgrounds (e.g. age and gender) affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy?

3. Do teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy?

The supplementary research questions further explore teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy and what factors may influence this facilitation. The first additional research question examines how consistently teachers facilitate learner autonomy. The intention is to reveal the manner of how teachers facilitate learner autonomy and disclose the reasons why it is facilitated in a particular manner. Next, the second research question investigates variables that might affect the facilitation of autonomy. If there are variables that come into play for the facilitation of learner autonomy, negatively or positively, we ought to identify and discuss them. Finally, the third research question aims to discover if the teachers' cognitions influence their facilitation of learner autonomy. In this regard, we will question if teachers facilitate learner autonomy less or more based on how they view their learners. If teachers perceive some learners as irresponsible, does it hinder them from facilitating learner autonomy with these students? Or, if teachers perceive some learners as more mature, will this perception lead teachers to increase the students' inclusion in the learning process? Are classes collectively viewed with such cognitive assumptions? The discussion of this research question identifies these aspects. In sum, the research questions are supplementary to the main research question and can help elaborate on this topic.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters: introduction, theoretical framework, research methodology, findings and discussion, and finally, the conclusion. The introduction entails the thesis' aims and scope, the background rationale, and previous research. Next, the chapter of the theoretical framework gives a thorough definition of learner autonomy and explores the concept further by looking at relevant literature. In the chapter on research methodology, the outline and ethics of the research design are provided. The chapter also includes limitations and gives the reader information about how the research was carried out. In the following chapter on findings and discussion, a full report on the results is presented, along with an analysis of the findings. Finally, the last chapter provides a summary, implications, and suggestions for further research.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Introduction

This project investigates how teachers facilitate learner autonomy in the EFL classroom in Norwegian high schools. The present chapter aims to discuss and analyze the concept of *learner autonomy* and its relevance to EFL teaching and learning. First, the term is presented through a description of what it is and what it is not. Next, salient principles of learner autonomy, as well as the practical implementation of these principles, are discussed. Literature that touches on the benefits and challenges of learner autonomy in EFL learning is also presented. Because the teacher is a mediator between the curricular guidelines, classroom practices, and his or her learners (Patankar & Jadhav, 2013), the study also examines references to learner autonomy in both the Norwegian curriculum and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF). Additionally, learner autonomy is discussed in a broad context that includes societal, educational, economic, and digital perspectives.

2.1.1. What is learner autonomy?

In this section, I discuss the many ways in which the concept of learner autonomy has been defined over the years and how the concept has been operationalized in this study. The first step in defining learner autonomy is to discuss its relation to the closely related term 'autonomy'. Because the terms are so similar, confusion can sometimes arise: is 'learner autonomy' the same as 'autonomy'? Firstly, one difference between the terms is that autonomy relates to the home sphere, and not necessarily schools and learners (Haglund, 2018). Secondly, autonomy is defined as more self-instructed and independent than is learner autonomy. In the Cambridge Dictionary, autonomy is defined as "the right of an organization, country, or region to be independent and govern itself" and "the ability to make your own decisions without being controlled by anyone else". Learner autonomy, on the other hand, has been defined by scholars such as Holec (1981), who first coined the term, and Benson (2011), who later modified Holec's definition as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (Holec, 1981, p.3) to "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 58). One similarity that we see between autonomy and learner autonomy is that it is an *ability*. A second similarity is that both emphasize taking *control*. These similarities notwithstanding, there is one important difference between the two terms: whereas learner autonomy involves the learner taking responsibility,

autonomy is described as not being controlled by anyone else. This suggests a more self-instructed conceptualization, which is not what learner autonomy is about (for a discussion of this particular point, see Section 2.1.2). While this is an important distinction, the terms hold many similarities and, thus, this paper will not define the terms differently but will instead refer to the two terms as one - learner autonomy is the same as autonomy. In this context, the reader should thus think of the *learner's* autonomy whenever 'autonomy' is mentioned in this paper.

Autonomy is not the only concept that shares similarities with learner autonomy; there exists a myriad of different definitions and synonyms for the term. For instance, learner autonomy has also been defined as independence, language awareness, self-direction, and andragogy (Candy, 1991; James & Garret, 1991; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, 1983; Lier, 1996; Sheerin, 1991, as cited in Thanasoulas, 2000). Little (1991, p. 4) defines learner autonomy as the capacity for "detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action". This definition implies that autonomous learners have the capacity to use metacognitive skills in overcoming language problems or to regulate their learning (Ushioda, 2014, p. 40). Ushioda (2014) thus sees learner autonomy as when the learner exercises his or her metacognitive skill to regulate their learning and to address the problems they face in their learning process. Ushioda (2014) further explains that motivation is what makes the learner capable and willing to exercise their metacognitive skills.

Although there exist various definitions, much of the literature on learner autonomy uses Holec's (1981) and Benson's definitions (2011) when defining learner autonomy. Holec was the first scholar that defined learner autonomy and, in his book, he provides a thorough definition of learner autonomy and all the benefits it confers. He argues that learner autonomy can be defined as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (1981, p.3). Furthermore, he explains learner autonomy and what it entails: taking charge of one's own learning involves the learners taking responsibility for all aspects of his or her learning, which includes 1) determining the objectives, 2) defining the content and progression, 3) selecting methods and techniques, 4) monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and 5) evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981). All these aspects of learner autonomy are thus seen as the key to becoming a self-regulated, autonomous, and responsible learner. Benson (2011, p. 58) offers a closely related definition "the capacity to take control of one's own learning". According to Benson (2011), 'control' is more amenable to empirical investigation than 'taking charge' (Murray, 2014). In my understanding of learner autonomy, it entails the learner's awareness of how he or she learns, and the learner's ability and willingness to take action and responsibility

for his or her learning. It is about the learner's capacity and urge for independence, self-regulation, and personal agency. Learner autonomy, in this paper, is also defined as a developmental process where the learners are developing the skill of learning to learn, which leads to lifelong learning (Cornford, 2002).

2.1.2 Misconceptions about learner autonomy

Even though there are relatively thorough and detailed definitions of learner autonomy, it is still important to describe what it is *not.* After all, learner autonomy is sometimes an unfamiliar concept for some teachers (see Haglund, 2018) and requires a thorough description to understand how the term is interpreted in this paper and to avoid misconceptions. Dam (2001, p.41) claims that "people often connect the concept of learner autonomy with chaos and imagine learners doing what they want to do and when they want to do it". This is a common misconception that confuses learner autonomy with self-instruction exclusively. In his article, Little (1991, p. 3) discusses this issue and explains what learner autonomy is not. In his view, learner autonomy is not synonymous with 'self-instruction'. Learner autonomy is not learning without a teacher or relying entirely on oneself. It is not, as Little underlines, only about how the learning is arranged and organized. Dam (2011) supports this view and states that learner autonomy does not imply the absence of the teacher. It is important to emphasize that learner autonomy is *not* the same as self-instructed learners who do whatever they please. Contrarily, both Dam (2011) and Little (1991) emphasize the teacher's role and how it is vital that teachers guide, support, scaffold, and monitor the learner. In this paper, learner autonomy is regarded as a *teacher-monitored* process where the learner is active, involved, independent, and takes responsibility.

At the same time, when claiming that learner autonomy is a teacher-monitored process where the teacher's role is significant, it is crucial to underline that it does not imply that learner autonomy is something that teachers do to their learners. Little (1991, p. 3) claims that this is another common misconception and that many think of learner autonomy as a methodology. Nevertheless, he argues that it is partly true because teachers sometimes do contribute to the development of learner autonomy through encouragement; however, it is the learner that develops autonomy and it is, therefore, not within the teacher's power to directly create it in their learners. This would appear to suggest that teachers cannot really develop learner autonomy and would thus be a criticism of my project. Notwithstanding, the teacher can indirectly develop learner autonomy by scaffolding his or her students (Dickinson, 1994;

Ushioda, 2014). The teacher's role in the development of learner autonomy is thus as a scaffolder, a guide, and a motivator for the students to become more autonomous. The teacher is the one who facilitates autonomous learning by motivating, helping, supporting, and structuring the work, and *offers* the learners involvement in their own education and the opportunity to take control gradually. Whether the learners choose to be more autonomous is an individual decision and beyond the teacher's control. I thus agree with Little that the teachers cannot necessarily directly develop learner autonomy; however, I believe that teachers are important in promoting and facilitating the pathway of developing learner autonomy.

Another misconception that Little (1991, p. 3) points out is the belief that autonomy is a behavior or a state. He claims that this is not true because autonomous behavior can manifest itself in various ways and in different areas. In addition to this, learners sometimes fake autonomous behavior to please the teacher (Breen & Man, 1997, as cited in Benson, 2011). To sum up, learner autonomy does *not* imply self-instruction and the lack of a teacher, nor does it refer to a procedure or a methodology (Dickinson, 1994). Instead, I would agree with Dickinson (1994, p. 5), who sees autonomy as a "goal of education", where working towards this goal implies that the teachers must involve their students and that the students must take responsibility for their own learning.

2.1.3 The hierarchy of learner autonomy

Dam (2011) stresses that learner autonomy is a lifelong developmental process, which is also how learner autonomy is viewed in this paper. It is easier to understand what is meant by 'developmental process' if we look at Littlewood's (1996) hierarchy of levels of autonomy because it indicates that autonomy is something that develops gradually. According to Littlewood (1996), there exist three different domains of learner autonomy: as a communicator, as a learner, and as a person. The first and most basic level of autonomy, i.e. as a communicator, has to do with autonomy in relation to the target language and the ability to use strategies to communicate. The second is more of a general domain, autonomy as a learner, and it refers to self-directed learners who use strategies for learning. The final domain is the highest level, autonomy as a person, which involves being autonomous outside the EFL classroom and is more of a personal development. According to Littlewood (1996), autonomous persons are capable of acquiring knowledge autonomously in everyday situations. This adaption is achieved through developing learner autonomy and can thus be used in both language learning and real-life situations. However, as Little (1995, p. 176) argues, "for in the case of language learning

the whole point of developing learner autonomy is to enable learners to become autonomous users of their target language. In other words, learner autonomy has two distinct dimensions, one pedagogical and the other communicative". Little (1995) thus seems to support the hierarchy that Littlewood (1996) describes. Little (1995) further explains that the development of autonomy first needs to be successful in language lessons before the learners can be autonomous language users in the target language community. It is, therefore, crucial that teachers help their learners become autonomous communicators in the language learning classroom to help them become autonomous communicators outside school.

2.2 Earlier Conceptions of Learner Autonomy

Although autonomy is a concept that many people - language teachers especially - are familiar with today, it was not many decades ago that it was introduced as a new concept. It was introduced in 1971 by the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project, under the founder of the *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL), Yves Châlon (Benson, 2011). After he died, a professor named Henri Holec took over as Director, after which Holec first coined the term *learner autonomy* in 1981. This term was part of a report for the Council of Europe in 1979 (Little, 2008). This suggests that even though the concept of learner autonomy was coined about four decades ago, it is relatively new in the field of didactics.

In the early literature on developing learner autonomy, authentic materials were considered important and were seen as something that gives the learners motivation to learn, and that this motivation would lead to self-access and self-directed learning (Benson, 2011). Today, authentic materials are still vital elements in language learning and learner autonomy. Holec (1981) explains that acquiring learning naturally is how the learners are able to take charge of their own learning, and Dam (2011) reasons that the teaching should, as often as possible, simulate real-life situations. Authenticity in the EFL classroom creates a solid foundation for the learning environment. A learning environment that is close to real-life situations where the learners act and speak as themselves, Dam (2011) claims, is how we help the learners to become *genuine users* of the target language both inside and outside the classroom.

Before learner autonomy was familiarized as a concept, teaching was often teacher-oriented - the creation of knowledge was the teacher's responsibility (Benson, 2011). With learner autonomy came a shift in teaching that was new for both the teachers and the learners: a learner-oriented teaching. This included an individualization of the learner, as CRAPEL

(Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues. English translation: the Center for Research and Applications in Language Teaching) stated that they should engage in self-directed learning, which includes determining one's own needs and acting upon them (Benson, 2011). This created a contrast between teacher-oriented and learner-oriented teaching. It seems that there are trends in teaching and that they come and go as we learn more. Currently, the curriculum focuses on teaching that encourages the learners to be more active and responsible (Knaldre, 2015). In the following sections, we will look more at how learner autonomy is implemented in LK06 and the new curriculum.

2.3 Learner Autonomy in the Curriculum

When discussing learner autonomy, we must naturally elaborate on its role in the Norwegian curriculum. Ultimately, it includes the teacher's guidelines and the learner's aims. For the teachers to be able to facilitate learner autonomy, it is first imperative that the curriculum is flexible enough to allow teachers to decide how teaching should be carried out. This paper pays attention to both the current curriculum, LK06, and the new curriculum that was completed (note: only for vg1) November 2019. The new curriculum will be introduced in schools from August 2020 for vg1, August 2021 for vg2, and August 2022 for vg3. Indications of learner autonomy are found in both the current and the upcoming curriculum. Both curricula underline the importance of students taking more responsibility for their own learning and being more involved in assessments. However, it is up to the individual teacher how to interpret and work on this matter. The Norwegian curriculum is thus quite open, trusting the teacher's individual and professional take on the curriculum to practice it most aptly. With trust comes great responsibility, but it also gives the teacher the possibility of using their professional competence and their creativity to facilitate teaching in a way that they believe is in the best interest of their learners.

2.3.1 The National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion, LK06

Today, the current national curriculum in use is the Norwegian Curriculum of 2006 (National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion, LK06). In a project carried out by EuroPAL on autonomy in language learning, Norway was described as the country with the most strongly articulated policies for encouraging autonomy explicitly on paper (Benson, 2011).

The document that EuroPAL referred to was the Norwegian National Common Core Curriculum for primary and secondary schools, which stated that:

> Education shall provide learners with the capability to take charge of themselves and their lives, as well as with the vigour and will to stand by others. [Education] must teach the young to look ahead and train their ability to make sound choices, allow each individual to learn by observing the practical consequences of his or her choices, and foster means and manners, which facilitate the achievement of the results they aim at. The young must gradually shoulder more responsibility for the planning and achievement of their own education - and they must take responsibility for their own conduct and behavior (Udir, 2006, as cited in Trebbi, 2008, as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 17)

The essence here, it seems, is that learners should be self-directed and that they should take more responsibility, which indicates that the education should lean towards a more autonomous approach. Besides, it also implicitly signifies that the teachers know how to facilitate learner autonomy. Following this, one thinks that autonomy is something that should be *taught*, not acquired naturally, which Benson (2011) explains is not feasible. Instead, he claims that teachers can "foster" learner autonomy by stimulating and supporting the autonomous development of the learner (Benson, 2011, p. 124). Thus, to be able to realize the LK06's ambition to make the learners more responsible, the teachers must *encourage* them and *let* them take that responsibility.

Moreover, there are two other important principles of learner autonomy that can be identified in LK06. Firstly, LK06's view on the importance of using several language learning strategies, and that the students themselves should consider what strategies are the most efficient, is one notable correlation we notice with regard to learner autonomy. The focus on language learning strategies is seen in three of four sections in the English Core Curriculum, under 'language learning', 'oral communication', and 'written communication' (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013, p.10). Secondly, LK06 also emphasizes, in various sections, that evaluation should be used throughout one's education, and learners' self-evaluation is especially emphasized. Evaluation is a crucial element in developing learner autonomy and it is a positive step that the curriculum emphasizes the importance of self-evaluation in language learning. In all, the LK06 seems to acknowledge the value of active learners who are involved in their learning process. However, it is the teacher's duty to ensure that the learners get the

support and encouragement they need for them to take this responsibility. Nonetheless, the curriculum serves as the teacher's guideline and should be studied in greater detail. If the teachers are expected to foster learner autonomy, the curriculum should be open to the degree that allows the teachers to determine how they prefer to teach (Little, 2008).

Little (2008) also mentions that the curriculum should ensure that the forms of assessments mirror the self-assessments that students are used to in the autonomous classroom. In his thesis, Knaldre (2015) claims that the curriculum is based on method-freedom and clear competence aims and he argues that LK06 gives a lot of the responsibility to the teachers. Consequently, Knaldre (2015) argues that it requires the teachers to be *able* and *willing* to take on this responsibility. The findings also indicate that LK06, with its inclusion of competence aims, are centered on the learners and can help learners to create an awareness of their own learning and to keep track of their progress (Knaldre, 2015). At the same time, the competence aims have a strong focus on summative assessment and could thus cause both the teachers and learners to focus on 'getting through' these aims instead of focusing on the actual learning that takes place (Knaldre, 2015). Besides, summative assessments do not mirror the types of self-assessments that autonomous students would be used to, and it is thus challenging to facilitate learner autonomy. In this way, Knaldre (2015) argues, the competence aims in LK06 could contribute to counteract with the facilitation of learner autonomy.

2.3.2 The Core Curriculum

In 2017, the Norwegian Core Curriculum was released and it is included in this chapter because it sets the foundation for the values and principles in the curricula and because it contains indications of learner autonomy. The Core Curriculum placed an even stronger emphasis on the skill of learning to learn in schools, with the section called 'learning to learn' (Læreplanverket, overordnet del, 2017, p. 12. - own translation). Læreplanverket (overordnet del, 2017) suggests that the reason why learning to learn is emphasized is, first and foremost, because it can be adapted to all types of learning and because it triggers metacognition which can lead to reflection about, and an understanding of, learning. A better understanding of how one learns can spur motivation, which could invoke independence and set a foundation for lifelong learning strategies (Cornford, 2002; Ushioda, 2014). A basis to achieve this is to ensure that the teaching is focused on the learner's motivation, attitudes, and strategies (Læreplanværket, overordnet del, 2017). The learner's active involvement in the learning process is also stated in the Core Curriculum, where it is seen as a way to make the

students aware of their own learning strategies and to help them use their awareness of their own learning to adapt to other situations (Læreplanværket, overordnet del, 2017). In this way, the Core Curriculum's focus on active students with the skill of learning to learn could suggest a call for a stronger focus on learner autonomy in education.

2.3.3 The new curricula

In the fall of 2018, Norway started to revise the curricula for primary and secondary education, and by 2022, all new curricula will be released. For vg1, the curriculum was already completed in November 2019 and is to be introduced in schools from August 2020. For vg2, it will be introduced in August 2021, and vg3 will be introduced by August 2022. According to the former Norwegian Education Minister, Jan Tore Sanner, the new curricula give the learners a better foundation to reflect, be critical, explorative, and creative (own translation, Regjeringen.no, 2019), all of which are vital for developing learner autonomy.

The new curriculum for vg1 has many connections to learner autonomy and is thus an excellent framework for teachers who want to facilitate learner autonomy. The curriculum has a focus on in-depth learning (in Norwegian, 'dybdelæring'), where students are expected to reflect on what they learn and to develop critical thinking (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019). Responsibility for one's own learning is also a part of the wording that is emphasized in the renewal of the subjects (in Norwegian, 'fagfornyinga'), where it is underlined that students should be more active and take more responsibility (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019). The student's involvement is also included, where it is pointed out that the students themselves shall choose what texts they want to read based on their own interests (own translation, Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019). Self-evaluation is also stressed, which is an essential principle of learner autonomy: it is stated that teachers should allow their students to put into words what they feel they are learning and to reflect on their own development in English (own translation, Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019).

In relation to the teacher's role, the curriculum sees the teacher as a guide and supporter. It places much responsibility on the teacher by stating that it is the *teacher* who shall facilitate student participation and stimulate the student's desire to learn by employing varied strategies and learning resources (own translation, Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019). Additionally, it is emphasized that the teacher and students should be in dialogue about the students' development in English. The teacher should provide guidance on further learning and adapt the training so that students can use the advice to develop reading, writing, and oral and digital skills in the

subject (own translation, Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019). This demonstrates that the curriculum supports the view of the teacher as the one who can offer students the tools they need to be able to learn on their own. In addition, it signals that the teacher's role is to scaffold the learners.

2.3.4 The Common European Framework

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment (CEF) provides a common basis for the elaboration of, among other things, curriculum guidelines, and specifies what students have to learn to use English (or a language in general) for communication (Council of Europe, 2001). One of the contributions the CEF made to the area of language learning was the European Language Portfolio (ELP), which, according to Little (2008, p. 254) could "provide a focus for developing a whole-school approach to language teaching for learner autonomy". The portfolio was introduced to give the learners the tools they needed to monitor their planning and work and evaluate their learning process and achievements. According to the CEF (2001), ELP supports the development of learner autonomy. The former Director of the Council of Europe, John Trim, points out that learner autonomy is essential to language teaching and claims that the CEF is a valuable tool for its effective facilitation (Trim, n.d., p. 235). However, Knaldre (2015, p. 36) argues that the Norwegian model of ELP seems to lack a social dimension as the learners are not encouraged to interact or collaborate when working with it. In addition, the Norwegian model of ELP does not encourage the learners to write in their target language(s).

The CEF does not explicitly use the term *learner autonomy* but instead uses phrases like "ability to learn" and "savoir-apprende" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 12). In the CEF, the ability to learn is presented as highly relevant to language learning for several reasons. They mention that it "mobilises existential competence, declarative knowledge and skills, and draws on various types of competence. Ability to learn may also be conceived as 'knowing how, or being disposed, to discover 'otherness'" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 12), which can refer to, for example, other cultures or other languages. It can be used to develop intercultural competence, where students learn about 'the other' to understand other individuals and cultures, but also, and most importantly, how to communicate with 'the other'. Thus, CEF (2001) claims, the skill of learning to learn is advantageous both in language learning and in life in general.

To exemplify the ability to learn, the CEF describes three types of competences. The first, which is existential competence, entails that the learner, without pressure or a request from others, takes the 'initiative' and 'risks' in face-to-face communication with others (Council of

Europe, 2001, p. 12). Students who have existential competence take the initiative to converse with others, are attentive listeners, and understand that misunderstandings between cultures might occur. In addition, they are not afraid to ask for help from those they are communicating with, such as asking them for a word they forgot or how to rephrase what they just said (Council of Europe, 2001). The second competence they mention is declarative knowledge, which involves awareness about patterns of the language such as morphology, syntax, and religious or social connotations (Council of Europe, 2001). Finally, the third competence the CEF (2001) mentions is skills and know-how, which entails the learners' ability to use, for instance, a dictionary or the internet as learning resources. These three competencies are valuable to all EFL learners and learners in general because 1) to speak English, one must make efforts to communicate, 2) to learn English sufficiently, one needs knowledge about morphology, syntax, and social or religious connotations, and 3) if learners are to use or learn English on their own, learners should know how to access tools that help them in this process.

2.4 Reasons for Facilitating Learner Autonomy

Although teachers should focus on learner autonomy because it is stated in the curricula, there are a lot of other grounds to facilitate learner autonomy, and they are presented in the following sections. The benefits of learner autonomy involve not only the student's learning outcome, but can be viewed in a much more complex and extensive perspective. In the following sections, learner autonomy is seen in relation to the learner's personal gains inside as well as outside the classroom. Also, society's profit is discussed, where learner autonomy is seen as beneficial for economics and job markets. We start with a discussion of the learner's benefits.

2.4.1 The learner

Studies have found that there is a correlation between learner autonomy and language proficiency (Ablard & Lipschultz, 1998; Corno & Mandinach, 1983; Risenberg & Zimmerman, 1992; Zhang & Li, 2004, as cited in Dafei, 2007, p. 8). Studies suggest that learner autonomy can help learners improve their language proficiency and that autonomous students often have a higher level of language proficiency (Corno & Mandinach, 1983, as cited in Dafei, 2007). Similarly, high-achievement learners apply different autonomous strategies (Ablard & Lipschultz, 1998, as cited in Dafei, 2007). These findings are exceptionally relevant for

language learning and establish the crucial role that learner autonomy should have in language learning.

However, learner autonomy is also relevant to situations besides language learning and education because it is based on strategies that the learner might find useful for learning in general. Autonomous learners acquire knowledge and transfer knowledge into other situations and contexts (Little, 1991). This skill helps learners build a foundation for lifelong learning that is useful to the learner outside school as well. As Bruner (1966 p. 53) states, the goal of instruction should be to make the learner self-sufficient; "otherwise, the result of instruction is to create a form of mastery that is contingent upon the perceptual presence of the teacher". In other words, education should focus on making the learner autonomous because it is not favorable to have students that are only capable of learning when the teacher helps them. To ensure that the learners are autonomous and can use their skills and knowledge to be better prepared for situations outside school, Dam (2011) claims that teachers have to promote action knowledge as opposed to school knowledge. According to Barnes (1976, as cited in Dam, 2011), school knowledge is knowledge presented to the learner, which is partly grasped but mostly remains as the teacher's knowledge. Oppositely, action knowledge is when the learner makes the acquired knowledge their own and adjust the knowledge to their world views, which they use to cope with living (Barnes, 1976, as cited in Dam, 2011). If teachers are to promote action knowledge, they must make the learners more active and involved in their own learning (Dam, 2011). Learner autonomy is thus something that assists the learner in becoming more active and to feel more involved in language learning, and also focuses on a type of knowledge that learners can find useful in life outside school.

Another key strength of learner autonomy is that evaluation is an important step in the process, which requires the learners to examine their learning outcome. This sparks their metacognition because it forces them to reflect on their own thinking, their process of planning, their understanding, and their performance (Dam, 2011). When the learners self-reflect, they can gain insight into how they learn, and this creates a foundation for a more efficient learning process. In addition to this, the learner's evaluation is useful to the teacher because it indicates how the student learns, what methods are useful to them, and their learning outcome. This is valuable information for the teachers because it allows them to reflect on their own teaching, as well as keep track of what the students learn. Indeed, what the teachers think they teach and what the learners learn is not always in harmony, but evaluation can be helpful to decrease this gap.

One of the benefits of facilitating learner autonomy is that it can boost motivation in the EFL classroom (Dickinson, 1995). Motivation is imperative for learners both in language learning and in general because it gives them the drive to reach for their goals (Lasagabaster et al., 2014). Dickinson (1995) argues that learner autonomy is a valuable tool for language learning as it enhances motivation. She explains that when learners take responsibility and control their own learning, they attribute their success or failure to their own efforts instead of attributing them to factors they cannot control. This reasoning makes the learners realize that they are the ones that must make the effort to achieve success, which can be motivational (Dickinson, 1995). Lasagabaster et al. (2014) support this, claiming that the feeling of being in control can give the learners joy and satisfaction, and that autonomy is about exercising personal control which is motivational because our actions feel self-determined as opposed to being controlled. This is the foundation for what Ryan and Deci (2000) call the motivational theory of self-determination.

Self-determination theory (SDT) is concerned with motivation and how innate psychological needs such as competence and autonomy should be satisfied in order to achieve intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT thus involves the relationship between competence, autonomy, and motivation – psychological needs, as Ryan and Deci (2000) refer to them, which all seem to be dependent on each other for *growth* and *development*. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), some studies show that teachers who facilitate autonomy "catalyze in their students greater intrinsic motivation, curiosity, and desire for challenge" (e.g., Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981; Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986, as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70-71), in comparison to more controlling teachers whose students lose initiative and learn less effectively (Amabile, 1996; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Utman, 1997, as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). Autonomy thus has a pivotal role in promoting motivation.

2.4.2 The economic significance of learner autonomy

Autonomous students possess the skill of learning to learn, which is recognized as essential for developing lifelong learning (Cornford, 2002, p. 357). Learning to learn involves successful information processing and knowledge centered on cognitive and metacognitive skills. These skills are highly valued in our cognitively demanding society (Cornford 1999a, 2000, referred in Cornford, 2002, p. 357). Learner autonomy can thus be considered an economic advantage if we choose to look at it from a broader perspective. In fact, Benson

(2011) claims that several governments and institutions see learner autonomy as a learning opportunity that could lead to economic advantage because developing autonomous and self-directed learners can result in a decreasing need for support by the teacher per learner. Thus, from a larger perspective, language education can benefit from learner autonomy as it can reduce the per capita costs. In addition to this, with the market's technology that is ever more advanced and user-demanding, a worker that is equipped with the skill of learning to learn is preeminent (Benson, 2011). Autonomous learners should be attractive to the job market, as flexible and adaptable workers with the skill of learning to learn are more likely to have a better encounter with new situations and challenges (Little, 2008). Hence, it is helpful for the learner to develop autonomy because it can make them more equipped when facing changes or problems in their occupation. Consequently, autonomous learners are valuable to society because they are more prepared to overcome the challenges or new situations the job market might potentially create for them.

2.4.3 Learner autonomy in the technological world

From a broad perspective, learning to learn is also a beneficial tool to adapt and to keep up with technological developments (Cornford 1999a, 2000, referred in Cornford, 2002, p. 357). We often encounter digital devices such as smartphones, tablets, and televisions in our daily activities, both private and at work. Being autonomous in today's society is essential because we often meet great demands on technological platforms and when using digital resources. Lai (2019) explains that "technological environments pose great demands on learners' digital, information, and media literacy, as well as their self-organization skills and metacognitive strategies" (Hafner, Chik, & Jones, 2015; Toffoli & Perrot, 2017, as cited in Lai, 2019). For instance, being able to use computers and navigate the internet is a requirement in many professions. This demands the user to master technology independently and to use strategies for efficient use of technology. Of course, one can ask for assistance; however, it would be extremely inefficient to always ask for help. The world is becoming increasingly digitalized, and it is thus important to be able to master the technological parts in our everyday life independently, and preferably, time-efficiently. Furthermore, mastering the digital devices is not the only challenge; the internet itself comes with obstacles such as fake news and cookies, to mention some.

In a more narrowed perspective, the potential obstacles the users could face on social media should encourage the users to think and act critically when browsing the internet. It is

therefore pivotal that the teachers encourage their students to think critically, which can be achieved by promoting autonomous learners. According to Egitim (2016), autonomous learners are independent and critical thinkers because they can self-direct their thinking. This, he claims, makes them access the knowledge critically and generate well-reasoned judgments. In turn, this makes them less dependent on their teacher and thus opens them to an objective and impartial evaluation of their thoughts (Egitim, 2016). This skill is highly beneficial in today's society.

2.5 Teacher Cognition: Beliefs, Attitudes, and Perceptions

Teacher cognition can affect the teachers' practices in their classrooms. Every choice that the teacher makes in his or her classroom is shaped by the teacher's cognition; his or her own thoughts, perceptions, and beliefs (Borg, 2003). Borg refers to teacher cognition as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Kagan (1990, p. 419) provides a more comprehensive definition, including some of the different aspects the teachers know, believe, and think of; defining teacher cognition as the "pre- or inservice teachers' self-reflections; beliefs and knowledge about teaching, students, and content; and awareness of problem-solving strategies endemic to classroom teaching". Knowledge and beliefs strongly influence our actions, and, in this way, teacher cognition is key to the process of understanding teaching (Borg, 2006). The teacher's cognition is thus also essential to understanding how teachers view and facilitate learner autonomy. Borg and Al-Busaidi argue that "understanding such beliefs is central to the process of understanding and promoting changes in the extent to which teachers promote learner autonomy in their work" (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a, p. 7). The teachers' negative or positive attitudes towards learner autonomy might affect if and how it is fostered in their classrooms. Due to this, it is relevant to look at the teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards learner autonomy.

If we look at studies where teacher cognition and autonomy have been researched, we find that a lot of the teachers are positive towards learner autonomy (e.g. Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Haglund, 2018). The findings indicate that copious teachers believe that autonomy has a positive impact on language learning. On the other hand, teachers believe that it is difficult to facilitate learner autonomy in the classroom and many are reluctant to the thought of engaging their students in determining content (Haglund, 2018; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a; Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012b). In Nakata's study (2011), teachers acknowledge that learner autonomy is important but they feel that they are not ready to facilitate it. Some of the recurrent reasons why teachers are reluctant to include their students in decision making are

because they perceive their learners as irresponsible and unmotivated, but some also mention that they are not certain of how to facilitate learner autonomy. Findings such as the ones mentioned above suggest that the practices of learner autonomy should be made more familiar to the teachers. One could perhaps implement it in teacher education, focusing on how to easily incorporate the principles of learner autonomy into practice. After all, if the teachers believe that it is difficult to facilitate learner autonomy, it is reasonable to say that it is unlikely that they will promote it. Teacher education should thus contribute to change this belief.

2.6 Learner Autonomy: Principles and Practices

Learner autonomy relies heavily on what the learners actually *do,* and this project emphasizes the teachers' efforts to facilitate learner autonomy. This section will thus concern the practical aspects of learner autonomy and discuss what the teachers can do to facilitate learner autonomy in their classrooms.

2.6.1 The principles and practices regarding learner autonomy

In this section, the principles of developing learner autonomy are discussed. They are primarily based on the principles in Dam (2011). The principles are sectioned into five: choices, scaffolding, focus on learning instead of teaching, authenticity, and evaluation. Below is an explanation of the principles and how they can be put into practice.

Choices

To give the learners choice is an excellent first step towards developing learner autonomy because decisions stimulate the sense of personal agency, and the feeling of being in control over the learning process can be very motivational (Ushioda, 2014). Scholars such as Benson (2011), Dam (2011), Holec (1981), and Little (2006) all underline the importance of choice, as it includes the learners in the learning process and is part of making them responsible for their learning outcome. In their study, Deci and Ryan (1985, as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70) found that "(…) choice, acknowledgment of feelings, and opportunities for self-direction […] enhance intrinsic motivation because they allow people a greater feeling of autonomy". Choices give the learners a sense of being in control, where they take an active part in their own learning process. Dam (2011) points out that the teacher should give the learners the freedom to choose activities, partners, content, aims, and how they want

to evaluate themselves. In motivational research, it is found that even the smallest choice has a motivational impact on the learners (Ushioda, 1996, 2006, as cited in Dam, 2011).

Making a decision requires the learners to reflect on their choice, which heightens awareness of their own learning and enables critical thinking (Dam, 2011; Fenner, 2006). When the learners choose, they must calculate their options and think about the possible outcome their choices will have. If the learners are encouraged to give reasons for their decisions, they are in the process of developing meta-communication and their cognitive reflection eventually aligns with this meta-communication (Fenner, 2006). It also makes the learners more involved because they can express their own opinions, wants, and needs, which can make them feel responsible for the learning process and outcome (Dam, 2011). Including learners in setting personal aims is especially of value. Learners who set meaningful short-term goals must engage in critical thinking of their current needs and abilities, and must further break the learning process down into manageable steps that lead them to their long-term goals (Ushioda, 2014). Planning and goal-setting require the learner to think critically about their own learning and to reflect on strategies that help them achieve their goals. In this way, students who are included in planning and setting aims exercise and develop metacognitive skills that they can use to regulate their learning (Ushioda, 2014).

Even though there are several benefits to making the learners more active by giving them choices, there is one challenge: the learners might not always make the *right* choices for themselves. Ushioda (2014, p. 40) explains that learners might be motivated by choices but perhaps not motivated enough to "engage with the increasing cognitive and linguistic challenges of learning". As Fenner (2006) argues, when it comes to choosing content, the learners often choose from the areas they are comfortable with; areas they already have some knowledge about. For that very reason, the teacher must be involved in the process and make sure that the students challenge themselves.

Scaffolding

Autonomy is something the learner develops, but this development also involves scaffolding by the teacher. Scaffolding can be traced back to Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development – the idea that learning is constituted by interacting and communicating with others, and that the more capable learner helps the other learner to acquire knowledge (Vygotsky, 1996). Scaffolding is when a more capable person (the teacher, peers, or others) supports the learner, and eventually, the support decreases as the learner becomes more independent and can manage to perform the task without assistance (Wood et al., 1976). Rotella

(2011) describes scaffolding as "a tool (i.e., assistance from others) for an individual to reach another level of knowledge or skill that could not have been gained without assistance". Giving the learner strategies, the possibility for choosing activities and content, but within guidelines from the teacher, is part of how scaffolding is performed in the EFL classroom when fostering learner autonomy. Masouleh and Jooneghani (2012) explain this as follows:

> "Autonomy as a socio-cognitive system is not a state but a no-linear process which undergoes variability. Thus, autonomous learners take advantage of the linguistic affordance in their environment and act by engaging themselves in second language social practices. Hence, being autonomous, in initial state, involves being scaffolded by teachers in order to enhance the process of learning. Without this, it would be difficult to implement independent learning in a coherent way and to attract institutional commitment" (Masouleh & Jooneghani, 2012, p. 841).

By the same token, learners are, in some ways, dependent on the teacher before they can become independent learners. The process of making the learners independent thus requires the teacher to scaffold them. A first step in making the learners more independent is to make sure that learners are acquainted with guidelines. According to Dam (2011), it is important to remember that the learner should always have clear guidelines to feel secure. If students are expected to take more control and responsibility, they need to know *what* is expected of them, and it is the teacher's responsibility to ensure that they are aware of the guidelines. These guidelines can be curricular guidelines, the structure, and extent of an exam or a test.

The next step in scaffolding the learners is to help them develop critical thinking that enables them to take control of their learning process. If learners do not feel personal agency in controlling their cognition and motivation, they can develop negative patterns of thinking, motivation, and behavior, which can make them persistently dependent on the teacher, avoid tasks, or give up when they encounter problems and challenges in learning (Ushioda, 2014). According to Ushioda (2014), the teacher can help the learners avoid these negative patterns if they scaffold the learners by having a problem-focused dialogue with the students. In this dialogue, the teacher motivates the students to do critical thinking on their own, which builds on Vygotsky's (1996) sociocultural theory that learning is constituted on problem-solving through discourse with others who are more competent. The learners must internalize the metacognitive thinking themselves if the goal is for the learners to become more independent. Thus, the teacher must make the students aware of their own role in constructing thinking

processes that motivates them to think through the problem themselves (Ushioda, 2014). To do this, the teacher must scaffold the learners by modeling specific self-verbalizations that help them structure necessary strategic processes to solve a problem. Ushioda (2014, p. 43) gives examples of self-verbalizations:

a) Okay, first thing we need to ask ourselves is…
b) Next, we need to work out a plan…
c) Then we can focus on…

This way, the teacher can mediate strategic thinking skills that help the students develop a private speech that enables them to regulate their thinking in the face of challenges. The teacher can also scaffold the learners by asking them critical conceptual questions that challenge the learners to do the thinking themselves, to talk about the problem, and discuss solutions:

a) What do you understand to be the key message in this paragraph?
b) How would you go about correcting this sentence? (Ushioda, 2014, p. 43, 44).

These discourse strategies of scaffolding the learner motivates the students to independently face the challenges they meet, which also stimulates the sense of personal agency. It is thus necessary to teach the students strategic guidelines for problem solving and to encourage them to think critically on their own.

Another way to focus on scaffolding the learners is, according to Dam (2011), to arrange for a social seating where the learners sit in groups or pairs so that they are both social and able to receive assistance from a more capable peer if needed. This also reduces the need for help from the teacher, which is immensely time-efficient to the teacher who has many students to attend to. In addition to this, the learners feel more secure because they speak in a group or to a peer instead of the entire class, which provides a good foundation for being a more active communicator in the language learning classroom.

Learning, not teaching

Active learning is essential in the language learning classroom. To focus on learning instead of teaching is a way of thinking that Dam (2011) encourages teachers to follow. Instead of focusing on the teaching, she argues that the teacher's interest should be in what the learners actually learn and how they most optimally acquire knowledge. If teachers ask themselves, "how do I best support my learners in learning (…)? (Dam, 2011, p. 43), the teachers build on

a learner-centered classroom that focuses on action knowledge, as opposed to school knowledge[1]. This again, Dam (2011) argues, influences the teacher to choose activities where all learners take an active part.

Authenticity

It is often emphasized that creating authentic situations in the EFL classroom is important, and scholars explain that authentic situations are constituted by using the target language as a tool for communication consistently in all situations in the EFL classroom (Little, 1997; Dam, 2011; Benson, 2011). It is essential to language learning that one of the main goals is to make the learners genuine users of the target language (Dam, 2011). Also, it is emphasized that the learners should speak the target language in a way that is natural to them, in a way where they act like themselves. The communication should mirror real-life situations where the learners are asked questions where they must give their own genuine answers, not reproductive answers they have memorized. Dam (2011) explains that this is more meaningful to the learner because they formulate and express their own personal thoughts. Dam (2011) proposes some suggestions to how the teacher can arrange for authentic situations in the classroom. The activities that Dam (2011) suggests are: small talk with a partner, to make a play, to make a radio- or a TV program, make a PowerPoint presentation, set up a talk show, to give a talk or text production in small pairs or groups. These are all authentic language situations and activities where the learners are involved in language production.

Evaluation

Evaluation can be divided into teacher feedback and students' self-assessment. It is seen as an important part of the process in developing learner autonomy (Little, 2006) because it is a beneficial tool to gain insight into what the students actually learn, how they feel they learn best, and what the teacher can do to support them in their learning. Evaluation is used as a way to spark the learners' metacognition where they reflect on their own learning – what they have learned, what makes them learn, and what they see as obstacles in their learning process (Ushioda, 2014). It is also beneficial because, in this way, they can keep track of their own development, which enhances motivation (Thanasoulas, 2000). In all, evaluation helps the learners know what they have learned, what they need to practice, and how they can do it. Hence, evaluation is a tool to kindle the learners' motivation.

[1] See Section 2.4.1 for an explanation of 'school knowledge' and 'action knowledge'.

In addition to being motivational for the learners, using evaluation as a tool in the classroom can function as an eye-opener for the teacher because the students do not always necessarily learn what the teacher thinks they are learning. For this very reason, it is crucial to ask the students what they have actually learned. It is imperative that every evaluation happens on a daily basis and that it is followed up by discussing it with other peers, plenary in class, or together with the teacher (Dam, 2011). In addition to this, the students should have the opportunity to evaluate themselves before the teacher evaluates a test (Dam, 2011). At the same time, some teachers experience evaluation processes as time-consuming and therefore, many sometimes refrain from using it. Dam (2011) acknowledges this issue and agrees that evaluation does take *some* time but it does not necessarily need to take *a lot* of time. She explains that it needs to be done on a daily basis and that there are efficient ways to do this. For instance, the students can evaluate themselves by using smileys with different 'moods' that represent, for example, their efforts. One could also use a Likert scale with numbers from, for instance, 1-5, where the numbers represent how much they understand or other things they are asked to evaluate. Additionally, the students can always explain why they select the smileys or numbers that they do, and they can also write a short note on what they need to improve.

To make sure that the evaluations are kept orderly, the students should, according to Dam (2009; 2011), use logbooks. She explains that logbooks are valuable tools that are advantageous when developing learner autonomy. Evaluation in logbooks is helpful for both the students, the teachers, and even the parents because it is systematic as it is organized into one place, and in addition, it is easier to keep track of their/their own progress. The logbooks can (and should) also include the entire learning process, where the students can use it to plan their work and carry out the actual work. This is also a great opportunity to include the parents, which Dam (2011) mentions is necessary. By using the logbooks, the parents are informed and able to follow their children's work and progress in school. In addition, it can also be used by the parents and teachers to communicate.

2.6.2 The EFL teacher's role in learner autonomy

In this section, it is made clear what the teacher's role includes. The teacher's role was also briefly mentioned in Section 2.1.2, where it was underlined that it is the *learner* that develops autonomy, not the teacher. It was also mentioned that learner autonomy is not something the teachers 'do' to their learners. Instead, it is a development only the learner him- or herself undergoes. However, learner autonomy does *not* imply that the students are self-

instructed or that the teacher's role is non-existent. On the contrary, the teachers have a vital role in the facilitation of learner autonomy, where they must help their learners become more independent. According to Little (1999, 2000a, 2000b, as cited in Little, 2003, para. 3), the teacher's role is "to create and maintain a learning environment in which learners can be autonomous in order to become more autonomous". This view of the teacher's role thus seems to draw parallels to the neo-Vygotskian psychology (Little, 2003), where social interaction during the learner's cognitive training, such as scaffolding[2], is seen as an important step in the process of developing learner autonomy. As a scaffolding teacher, Dam (2011) points out that the teacher should be involved, supportive, and give the learners the freedom of choice, but also give them guidelines to make them ready to take on the responsibility, make them feel secure, and to meet the curricular requirements.

Dam (2011) mentions that the teacher's role also includes structuring the lessons, where the end of every lesson involves self-assessment. It is also important to gradually give the learners more time to work on their own as they develop autonomy. According to Dam (2011), it is optimal to divide the lessons into three parts; teacher's time, learner's time, and together time. This way, the teacher can use the teacher's time to tie up loose ends from previous lessons or introduce a new topic to the class, the learners can have learner's time and work independently, and finally, the together time can be used to explain if anything is unclear, or to evaluate the lesson in plenary. As the learners become more autonomous, the more learner's time they receive, and the teacher's time is thus reduced.

It has been stated that even though the teacher has an important role in supporting the development of learner autonomy, it is, after all, the learner who is responsible for the development of learner autonomy. Hence, to understand how learners develop autonomy, we must examine what strategies they (can) use. If we know their strategies, we can better understand how to help them along the way. And, as Haglund (2018) explains, in facilitating learner autonomy, the teacher should offer the learner choices about how they want to work and what strategies they want to use. The teacher's role includes giving the learners knowledge about different strategies. According to Rubin (1975, as cited in Griffiths, 2008, p. 83), strategies are "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge". This suggests that they are helpful tools the learners can make use of when they are practicing the skill of learning to learn and taking more responsibility for their learning. Hopfenbeck (2014, p. 143, as cited in Fenner, 2018) identifies two main categories for learning strategies: cognitive

[2] For a full overview of scaffolding and autonomy, see the paragraph under 'Scaffolding' in Section 2.6.1.

and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies involve strategies that help memorizing and 'rehearsing' the learning material, while metacognitive strategies are employed to evaluate the strategies one uses. Learning strategies that are consciously practiced can help facilitate learner autonomy as strategies make learners aware of a number of learning strategies they can use to improve their learning (Fenner, 2018). Fenner (2018) underlines that it is necessary to emphasize that learning strategies differ from learner autonomy as strategies only involve one aspect of learner autonomy. Compared to learner autonomy, Fenner (2018) argues, learning strategies include various sets of skills that can be learnt and practiced. Moreover, Griffiths (2013, para. 5.) claims that "higher level learners report the use of a wide range of various kinds of strategies (…) [and] the more successful students frequently use a large number of different strategy types". For these reasons, the teacher should help the students learn about several types of strategies to show them what possibilities they have. As Haglund (2018) points out, it is beneficial if the teacher scaffolds the learner in this process so that they learn about strategies while being monitored. In this way, Haglund (2018) explains, it is more probable that, in the future, the learners feel more secure and confident when they use language learning strategies on their own.

Furthermore, Dam (2011) mentions that the teacher is responsible for offering the learners activities that all learners in the EFL classroom can take part in, and activities that the learners themselves can be in charge of. The activities should, Dam (2011) underlines, encourage the learners to speak English and spur authentic language situations. Hence, the teacher should choose language tasks that encourage the learners to speak English and where they formulate their own, authentic answers[3]. It is also important that the teacher always speaks English in the EFL classroom (Dam, 2011). Understandably, it might not feel natural for the students to speak English in the classroom if the teacher avoids doing so.

2.6.3 The EFL students' role in learner autonomy

The learner's role in developing learner autonomy is to take responsibility for their own learning and to do so, the learners must be both willing and capable of taking this responsibility (Holec, 1981; Dickinson, 1994). To take charge of one's own learning is part of how Holec (1981) defines learner autonomy and he explains that the learner takes charge by, for instance, defining learning objectives or making choices based on personal preferences. Learners should

[3] A list of what types of activities spur authentic language use in the classroom is provided in Section 2.6.1.

also be responsible for making decisions about ways of reaching those objectives, materials, sources of input, and activities (Dickinson, 1994, p. 4). According to Wang and Peverly (1986, as cited in Dickinson, 1994, p. 6), active and independent learners are effective learners. They identify, formulate, and change their goals to suit their learning needs and interests (Dickinson, 1994, p. 6). It is imperative that the learners take part in decision making because it is part of how the learner constructs and defines the knowledge that the learner wants to acquire (Holec, 1981). The learner thus acquires a more subjective and individual knowledge and makes the learning more personal. Holec (1981) explains that if the learners feel that the knowledge is their own, they are more likely to become active and independent participants in their learning process. Thus, the learner does not have to depend on the teacher to the same extent (Holec, 1981). The risk here is that the learner makes the wrong decisions (Dickinson, 1994, p. 5). The teacher should thus be there to monitor the learners and to guide them in the right direction.

2.7 The Challenges of Learner Autonomy

The gradual development of facilitating learner autonomy is not necessarily free of obstacles. In the following, some of the many challenges the teachers might face are addressed.

Measurement

Can learner autonomy be subject to measurement? Indeed, gradually taking increased responsibility signifies that the learner has become more autonomous; nevertheless, it cannot be regarded as a *fact* that the learner *is* more autonomous. This is only a matter of opinion, and it is important to also note that autonomy must be viewed as a process with different degrees – not a dichotomous state where one either possesses autonomy or is bereft of it. Nevertheless, there exists a tool for measuring learner autonomy, which is called the Learner Autonomy Profile (LAP). In short, the LAP views learner autonomy as a construct of four components: 1) the desire to learn, 2) learner resourcefulness, 3) learner initiative and 4) learner persistence (Confessore & Park, 2004, p. 42). Each of these four constructs also includes three to seven components (Confessore & Park, 2004, p. 42). Teachers can thus measure an individual learner's autonomy by reviewing these components to make a profile, which can later be compared and see if there appears to be a high or low level of autonomy. However, if learner autonomy should be the subject of measurement, we should determine which components of

autonomy are necessary (Benson, 2011). Little (1991) also sees the measurement of learner autonomy as problematic, as autonomous behavior can manifest itself in various ways.

Autonomous teachers and teacher education

Teacher education programs should ensure that all teachers understand what autonomous behavior entails and should try to promote autonomous behavior in teachers. Scholars indicate that there is a relationship between learner autonomy and teacher autonomy (Nakata, 2011; Little, 1995; Little et al., 2003; Little, 2009; Smith, 2000), and explain that the facilitation of learner autonomy is dependent on the facilitation of teacher autonomy (Little, 1995; Smith, 2000). The AILA Symposium of the Scientific Commission of Learner Autonomy in Language Learning in Tokyo stated that teachers must either be autonomous in the "sense of being 'free' to organise learning in new ways, or in the sense of having experience of the demands of learning autonomously" if the teacher is to be in a position to facilitate learner autonomy (Lamb, 2008, p. 5). Little (2000, p. 45 as cited in Lamb, 2008, p. 5) builds on this and explains that teachers need to know what it entails to be an autonomous learner if they are expected to develop autonomous learners, and that teachers should use the same reflective and self-managing processes they use when they learn and apply these to their teaching.

Vieira (1997a, as cited in Smith, 2000, p. 90) found that "teachers become more reflective as learners become more autonomous and vice versa". This claim suggests that teacher autonomy is important for the development of learner autonomy. It is an advantage for both the teachers and the students if the teachers are autonomous themselves because they will have a better understanding of what being autonomous implies and this can increase the chances of succeeding in developing autonomous learners (Little, 1995). If they know what learner autonomy is, they should be able to understand and accept that it takes time to develop autonomous learners, and that patience is needed both in the process of facilitating the lessons and in the individual developmental process within the learner. Following this, teacher education programs must encourage the teachers to be autonomous themselves (Little, 1995; Smith, 2000), and inform teachers about all aspects of learner autonomy, both the peaks and valleys.

Teacher collaboration

It is much more efficient and less confusing for the learner if he or she is exposed to learner autonomy consistently in all subjects (Little, 2008). Hence, teachers should collaborate in the work of developing autonomous learners. According to Little (2008), it is important that

all teachers are equally devoted and that they collaborate on the curriculum, classroom methods, and evaluation. Teacher collaboration is considered increasingly more important (Ronfeldt, Owens Farmer, McQueen, & Grissom, 2015, as cited in Vangrieken et al., 2017, p. 302). In spite of this, according to Moomaw (2005) and Street and Licata (1989) (as cited in Vangrieken et al., 2017, p. 302), teachers' common-sense beliefs and the theoretical definitions of autonomy often lead to them viewing autonomy as individualism or independence. In addition, they argue, the "long standing culture of teacher isolation and individualism relates to and amplifies teachers' interpretation of individualised autonomy as independence" (Vangrieken et al., 2017 p. 302). This view of autonomy could lead teachers to a negative attitude towards teacher collaboration because it would appear as a threat to the teachers' autonomy (Moolenaar, 2010; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vangrieken et al., 2015, as cited in Vangrieken et al., 2017, p. 302). This is unfortunate, as we see a rising significance of teacher collaboration (Vangrieken et al., 2017, p. 303), with it leading to an improvement in teachers' teaching practices and morale, improvement in the students' learning and performances, and leads to "a school climate that is more supportive of innovation" (Bertrand, Roberts, & Buchanan, 2006; Main & Bryer, 2005; Moolenaar, 2010; Ronfeldt et al., 2015, as cited in Vangrieken et al., 2017). School leaders should thus inspire the teachers to see the values of teacher collaboration and encourage teachers to work collaboratively.

Students

Developing learner autonomy requires the learner to have the capacity to take responsibility (Benson, 2011). However, sometimes, teachers feel that they cannot give their students responsibility because some students are too immature or irresponsible to handle the tasks or the freedom teachers give them (Haglund, 2018). Sixty-one teachers identify this problem in Haglund's (2018) study and comment that this is a challenge to their facilitation of learner autonomy.

Another pitfall is 'pseudo-autonomous' students; learners who appear autonomous when in reality they are only displaying a behavior that he or she thinks that the teacher wants, in order to satisfy the teacher (Breen & Man, 1997, as cited in Benson, 2011). The challenge here is, primarily, that the student is falsely considered autonomous, and secondly, but perhaps most importantly, it makes it even more difficult to understand how learner autonomy develops and thus how it could be facilitated.

Formal teaching

The final challenge of learner autonomy that is discussed in this paper, is that it is a contradiction to facilitate learner autonomy through formal teaching when learner autonomy should come naturally (Holec, 1981). According to Thomson (1996, as cited in Benson, 2011), we are all naturally self-directed as we learn our first language by natural means but the self-directedness fades away via formal education. Holec (1981) states that teaching the students to be self-directed through non-self-directed teaching could have the opposite of the desired effect because the learning itself would not be self-directed.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The present study examines how EFL teachers in Norwegian high schools facilitate learner autonomy in their classrooms. The research was carried out by sending an online questionnaire to all public and private high schools in Norway with a response rate of 77 teachers in all. The respondents in this study were all EFL teachers in vg1 vocational studies, vg2 general studies, and vg3 general studies. The questionnaire was designed using a mixed methods approach, involving both qualitative and quantitative items. This chapter aims to give a thorough insight into how the study was conceived and carried out, including the methods used and how data was collected and analyzed. It also discusses ethical considerations, possible limitations, reliability, and validity.

3.2 Rationale for Method and Design

To examine how EFL teachers in Norwegian high schools facilitate learner autonomy, an online questionnaire was designed to carry out the research. Online surveys can have potential weaknesses (e.g. perceived as junk mail, or impersonal - for a list of weaknesses, see Evans & Mathur, 2005). Nevertheless, the research was conducted via an online survey because it is more efficient to collect the answers (Evans & Mathur, 2005) and it is a productive way to reach out to many respondents (Saleh & Bista, 2017). It appears that scholars are ambiguous to whether online surveys have higher response rates than paper surveys, as some argue they do (Heerwegh, Vanhove, Matthjis, & Loosveldt, 2003; Joinson, Woodley, & Reips, 2007, as cited in Saleh & Bista, 2017), while others see a decline in response rates when using online surveys (Fan & Yan, 2010; Fosnacht, Sarraf, Howe, & Peck, 2017; Roberts & Allen, 2015; Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002; Sheenan 2001, as cited in Saleh & Bista, 2017). Haglund's study (2018) received a large number of respondents, and in hope for the same outcome, I conducted the research via an online survey, and decided to design the questionnaire with both open and closed questions instead of doing both a survey and interviews.

Open questions give the possibility for more qualitative answers while the closed questions do not (Creswell, 2014). This type of design – a questionnaire with both open and closed answer options – can be defined mixed methods (MMR) since it refers to "(…) the type

of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (Johnson et al., 2007, p. 123). Hence, the research was designed by mixing methods, both qualitative and quantitative. Method triangulation enables the researcher to study a larger selection of respondents and receive more articulate and personal answers at the same time. Also, it allows for analyzing the data in-depth and on a large scale, which provides solid information to measure and to study behavior. Moreover, using both methods provides a mutual relationship in terms of the strengths and weaknesses of the methods (Creswell, 2014). In a study such as this project, these factors are particularly beneficial.

It is possible that an interview would have provided more detailed descriptions and certainly, it would allow for the chance of feedback. However, answering a questionnaire designed with MMR instead of an interview makes it easier for the respondents because they have more time to think about the questions before they answer. It also makes it possible to receive answers from respondents from all over Norway, instead of just a few nearby. The respondents' anonymity is also a factor that is secured by using a questionnaire with MMR instead of an interview. Of course, interviews can be anonymized; however, respondents often disclose more sensitive, honest, and free-spoken answers in surveys than in face-to-face interviews or over the telephone (Murdoch et al., 2014). A more detailed description of MMR is presented in Section 3.3.1.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 The mixed methods research design

To define MMR is difficult because there are a variety of different definitions of it. Johnson et al. (2007) discuss this very issue. In their article, they offer a variety of definitions, but conclude with the idea that MMR can be defined as "an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research (…)" (Johnson et al. 2007, p. 129). This is beneficial because the synthesis of the methods implies that "it recognizes the importance of traditional quantitative and qualitative research but also offers a powerful third paradigm choice that often will provide the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results (…)" (Johnson et al. 2007, p. 129). By using an MMR design, one gets the benefits from both the qualitative and the quantitative methods, which is very pragmatic.

With an MMR design, one can, according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), choose whether the data collection and analysis should be in parallel or sequential phases. I chose to design the questionnaire with parallel questions that were both quantitative and qualitative. This allowed me to do large-scale research, as well as receiving the respondents' own explanations and thoughts. However, it is pointed out that using MMR design can be a disadvantage because mixing two methods can lead to confusion. It is argued that validity is reduced by combining qualitative and quantitative methods and that it thus should be kept apart to avoid confusion (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Teddlie & Tashakkori (2003) also mention that it can lead to inaccuracies. Other scholars argue against this, claiming that it is, rather than being confusing, immensely helpful (Brown, 2009, as cited in Ng & Brown, 2012). They claim this by referring to the opportunities to ask a question and give additional information to close-ended questions (Brown, 2009, as cited in Ng & Brown, 2012). This, they argue, can clarify confusion, and in addition, open up the possibility to cross-validate the sections (Brown, 2009, as cited in Ng & Brown, 2012).

3.3.2 The questionnaire

The aim was to conduct a large-scale study to generalize the findings and thus, using a questionnaire appeared to be the most efficient and realistically achievable way. Observation would be difficult because it would be necessary to observe many teachers in different counties over a long period. Amassing interviews was also considered, but I found it more efficient and reliable to go for a questionnaire with mixed methods. Hence, a questionnaire with an MMR design that contained 21 questions was created. This allowed me to quickly collect a large amount of data that stores digitally and is more efficient in terms of structuring and collecting the data. The questionnaire contained (if one does not count the questions about the respondents' background) ten closed questions and five open questions. If one adds the sections with the optional comments, the questionnaire contained nine open questions.

The questionnaire was created in SurveyXact and in Norwegian instead of English. I made this decision because I was inspired by Haglund's (2018) research on learner autonomy. She explained that her survey attracted many respondents, which she believed was because she designed the questionnaire in Norwegian. In her opinion, presenting learner autonomy in Norwegian attracts more respondents because the term is more familiar in the respondents' mother tongue than in English.

3.3.2.1 Designing the questionnaire

This section provides the reader with information about the intentions behind the questions in the questionnaire of the survey. Please see Appendices V and VI for an overview of the questionnaire. Appendix V contains the original Norwegian version of the questionnaire. For a translated English version, please see Appendix VI. Although I created the questions, I drew inspiration from the questionnaire in Haglund's study (2018), as well as the principles and practices of learner autonomy in Dam's article (2011).

The questionnaire was separated into three 'sections'. Section one contained questions 1-6 and included questions about the respondents' background information. Section two contained questions 7-13, and the questions explored the respondents' attitude towards learner autonomy. Finally, the third section consisted of questions 14-21, which aimed to find out how the teachers work with facilitating learner autonomy.

The introductory page of the questionnaire stated the purpose of the questionnaire and asked the respondents to answer thoroughly based on their experiences as teachers in vg1 vocational studies, vg2, and vg3 general studies. Additionally, the introductory page included the consent itself. To proceed with the questionnaire, the respondents needed to consent to a) having received and read the information and consent form attached to their email, b) having the opportunity to ask questions, c) consent to participate in the survey, and d) consent to let me process the information given in this survey until 15.05.2020.

As previously mentioned, the questions in section one involved questions about the respondents' backgrounds. The background information was not this project's essential concern; hence, the survey did not ask for an excessive amount of background information, although, it did ask questions concerning the respondents' years of experience, what level/program they teach in, what county they are from, gender, age, and educational background. These factors are later used to compare the respondents and to find possible correlations in how they work with learner autonomy. In addition, it enabled me to check if the respondents indeed were from all over Norway. This affects how geographically representative the sample is in terms of EFL teachers in Norway, which is important to account for in a national study such as this.

Section two, questions 7-13, explored what perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs the teachers have about learner autonomy. The questions provided a foundation for correlation to how the teachers work with learner autonomy. Question 7 was set to find out if the teachers are familiar with the term learner autonomy. If the teachers answered that they did not know or

were unsure what learner autonomy is, a definition by Holec (1981) appeared. The next question, number 8, was a follow-up question where the goal was to understand what learner autonomy meant to the teachers. In the following questions, the intention was to collect the respondents' attitudes and beliefs towards learner autonomy. Hence, in questions 9-11, the questions aimed to see if teachers were generally positive or negative towards learner autonomy, as well as if they saw the benefits and importance of it. Question 12 was set to find out if the teachers believe that their students need to be autonomous before they start the work on developing learner autonomy. The last question in this section aimed to find out if there is a correlation between what factors the respondents perceive as important and if they use these principles in facilitating learner autonomy.

Section 3, questions 14-21, aimed to understand how, how often, why, and how consistently the teachers work with facilitating learner autonomy. These questions were set to answer this paper's main intention. The respondents were offered text boxes so that they could explain themselves, but some of the principles mentioned in Dam (2011) was also listed to see if the teachers' explanations matched with her principles of developing learner autonomy. In relation to this, I focused on understanding if/how the teachers use logbooks because Dam (2011) underlines the importance of it. This also applies to the organization of the teaching.

One should also note that because I wanted certain answers to be personal and expressive, I sometimes added a (voluntary) text box where the respondents could freely write what they had in mind on the topic. This was offered so that each teacher could present their own thoughts. In addition, a teacher colleague gave me informal feedback after reviewing the questionnaire and informed me that certain terms could be perceived as challenging, so I added a definition of both *metacognition* and *self-regulation.* This way, it was easier for the respondents to answer the questions.

3.4 Strategies

3.4.1 Choosing respondents

To delineate my project, I had some criteria: the respondents needed to be English teachers in vg1 vocational studies, vg2, and vg3 general studies. Ideally, I would want to include respondents from vocational studies vg2 and vg3, as well as respondents from general studies vg1; however, it is beyond the scope of this project. I established very early in the project that I wanted the respondents to have variations in programs and levels. Hence, I decided to reach out to potential respondents from two different types of English programs, as well as three

different levels. The reason for choosing both vocational studies and general studies was to investigate if there is a difference in the programs when it comes to facilitating learner autonomy. Similarly, it was decided that the respondents had to work at three different levels to identify differences between the levels and developing autonomous students. Because I am especially interested in high school teachers' practices as I want to work in high school myself, I focused on high school teachers as respondents instead of teachers at other levels. In addition, they have more mature students, which I believe allows for the teachers to be 'bolder' in terms of giving their students responsibility and involvement in choices. Thus, if my notion is correct: the older the students, the more opportunities for facilitating learner autonomy there are for the teachers.

Finally, it should be mentioned that three teachers stated that they did not work in the aforementioned program/level this semester. Nevertheless, I allowed these particular teachers to complete the survey, but they were asked to base their answers on their work in the programs/levels of criteria. I communicated this directly to the teachers, but I also stated it on the front page of the survey.

3.4.2 Data collection

After I created the survey on SurveyXact, I found a list on Wikipedia of all Norwegian high schools, both public and private. Next, I sent an email[4] to all these Norwegian high schools, requesting the contact details of the schools' English teachers at vg1 vocational studies, vg2 general studies, and vg3 general studies. I received a total of 332 email addresses. Next, I sent out an email[5] to all the 332 teachers, with an information- and consent form attached[6]. In the email, I presented myself and my reasons for requesting their participation, which included a short explanation of what the project aimed to do, and I later asked them to take part in my study and requested them to read the information- and consent form. My contact information and the link to the survey were also provided in the email.

I sent the link to the survey to the teachers in the middle of September, and it was active for several weeks after. I deliberately decided to have it open for this long because I wanted as many respondents as possible. Because the response rates were high, I did not need to contact the schools or teachers again. In addition, I received answers from almost all over Norway.

[4] This email is presented in Appendix I.
[5] This email is presented in Appendix II.
[6] The information- and consent form is presented in Appendix III.

Svalbard is not a Norwegian county, but a part of Norway, which is why I wanted to include teachers from Svalbard as well. Unfortunately, there were no participants from Svalbard. Nonetheless, 77 teachers responded to the survey.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

One of the considerations to take in research with an online questionnaire is that ethical standards secure the information that the respondents give (Dörnyei, 2007). Ethical considerations include the respondent's right to privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, data storage, and informed consent (Dörnyei, 2007). Even though my questionnaire asked for little personal information from the respondents, I thought it best to verify whether I needed approval to send out the questionnaire. Hence, I sent an application to the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) at the beginning of the project to ensure that the research was done legitimately and ethically and that I had taken all the precautions. I filled out an application where I informed them what my project entailed, what information I wanted to receive from the respondents and other related information.

As mentioned, the questionnaire did not ask for any personal details that could trace it back to a specific respondent. In addition, the webpage I used to design the survey, SurveyXact, do not save the respondents´ IP addresses. I also made sure that the 'anonymous mode' was used on SurveyXact. Hence, my application to the NSD was approved shortly thereafter[7] and they permitted me to carry out the research without any further ado.

When I sent the email regarding the questionnaire to the teachers, I added the information- and consent form, which stated that their participation was voluntary, their answers were anonymous, and that no information could be traced back to them. The consent form also ensured the teachers that they could withdraw at any time while doing the survey. The consent itself was digitalized, and the respondents could give their consent on the front page in the questionnaire. If they did not consent, they could not proceed with the questionnaire. The consent involved consenting to a) receiving and reading the information- and consent form attached to their email, b) having the opportunity to ask questions, c) participating in the survey, and d) letting me process the information they give until 15.05.2020.

[7] The approval from NSD can be seen in Appendix IV.

3.6 Analyzing Data

This research project was carried out using a questionnaire with both open and closed answers, and the analysis thus deals with both quantitative and qualitative data. In this section, I provide a detailed description of how the data was collected and analyzed.

The process of collecting quantitative data was straight forward. The survey was designed on SurveyXact, an online platform that shows a summary of all the answers, both close-ended answers and open-ended answers. It organizes the data in figures and tables with percentages, so SurveyXact already presented the percentages to me. I used these numbers to design tables and figures to get a better overview before I started with a more thorough analysis. To be able to do a more thorough analysis, however, I used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for work with descriptive statistics and to do significance testing via a one-way repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Mann-Whitney U. An alpha level of .05 was used for all the tests.

Collecting and analyzing the qualitative data was a more complex undertaking and is thus the main focus in this section. The qualitative data is analyzed using Creswell's guide (2014, p. 261), which contains six steps in the process of analyzing qualitative data. The six steps are as follows:

Step 1: Prepare and organize the data

The first step that Creswell (2014, p. 261) points out is to prepare and organize the data for analysis. He explains that the researcher first needs to store and transcribe the data material. The researcher must also decide if the data should be analyzed by hand or by using the computer. As Creswell (2014) mentions, there are many good programs available for computer analysis. For this project, transcribing was not necessary because there were no interviews. Instead, I collected all the qualitative answers in one document – one for each question. There were five open questions, but the sections with the voluntary comments also needed to be analyzed, which means that there were nine open questions in total. All of these were organized into separate documents and analyzed by hand. Analyzing it by hand could be more time-consuming; however, it is plausible that analyzing the data through a computer program would take even more time for me as I am not familiar with qualitative computer programs. Creswell (2014, p. 240) recommends choosing the way that oneself is most comfortable with and claims that doing it by hand is useful if you want to be close to the data. In addition to this, Creswell (2014, p. 240) mentions that analyzing by hand may be preferred when the database is fewer

than 500 pages. The qualitative data material in this project was not close to 500 pages, which made it possible to do it by hand. Therefore, I decided to do the qualitative analysis by hand.

Step two: Explore and code the data

To have a general idea and an overview of the analysis, the next step in Creswell's guide (2014, p. 261) is to read through the data material and make a preliminary analysis of it. Then, the researcher must code the data. The coding should reduce text or images to "descriptions and themes of people, places, or events" (Creswell, 2014, p. 261). Here, the researcher must try to examine and understand the meaning of the material. In this case, the material is the respondents' answers. Then, the researcher assigns a label or a code to the respondents' answers, where one answer is comprised of one idea or theme (Creswell, 2014). The codes can be in vivo codes (the respondents' words) and standard educational terms (Creswell, 2014).

Shortly after I closed the survey, I gathered all the respondents' answers in an excel sheet for a complete overview of their answers. I then looked at all their answers and especially studied their qualitative answers. I also made comparisons and looked for anything that seemed to stand out such as notable similarities or differences. After I had made a preliminary analysis of it, I was ready to divide the data into text segments and start making labels for these text segments. I struggled to find labels that would be appropriate for the respondents' answers but quickly turned to Haglund's (2018) study to be inspired by her labels. Haglund's study (2018) had many similar questions in her survey, and her color-coding inspired me. I thus used some of the labels she had organized to analyze my own data. I also used both in vivo codes and standard educational terms. Like Haglund (2018), I used Microsoft Word to code the data, where I highlighted the different labels. I organized all color-coded labels at the top of each document.

Step three: Coding to build description and themes

The third step in Creswell's (2014, p. 261-262) guide is to start color-coding to "develop descriptions (…) [and] to develop themes that present a broader abstraction than codes". After I had made the labels, I was ready to start color-coding the separate documents for each qualitative question from the survey. I used Microsoft Word and highlighted the respondents' answers by using the colors from the labels I highlighted previously. To illustrate how the color-coding was performed, I include an overview of all the respondents' answers from question 16, "How do you define the term learner autonomy?" in Appendix VII.

Step four: Represent and report qualitative findings

The fourth step in Creswell's (2014, p. 262) guide is to make visual representations of the data material by using figures, diagrams, and tables and make comparisons. I decided to make several visual representations by using tables and figures, where the data were compared and discussed. It creates an organized and comprehensive overview that I found useful and necessary when analyzing qualitative material.

Step five: Interpret the findings

The fifth step in Creswell's (2014, p. 262) guide is to interpret the findings. The researcher must make meaning of the organized data material by "advancing personal views, comparisons between the findings and the literature, and suggesting limitations and future research" (Creswell, 2014, p. 262). In this project, personal interpretations were made based on quotes from the participants and patterns of their answers. The findings in this project were compared to findings in other similar studies, and relevant literature is drawn into the discussion and reflection.

Step six: Validate the accuracy of the findings

The final step in Creswell's guide (2014, p. 262) is to validate the accuracy of the findings, which involves that the researcher investigates the accuracy and credibility of his or her findings through strategies such as member checking, triangulation, and auditing. Creswell (2014, p. 263) claims that the most common ones are triangulation and member checking. Member checking means that one or more participants check the accuracy of the account (Creswell, 2014, p. 259), while triangulation involves having the information drawn on multiple sources of information, individuals, or processes. In Section 3.7.1, I provide the reader with information about the reliability and validation in this research.

3.7 Limitations

This research aims to investigate how EFL teachers in Norwegian high schools facilitate learner autonomy. However, this project has some drawbacks in terms of generalization and can thus not account for *all* EFL teachers in Norwegian high schools. This is because a) to limit the scope of the project, only teachers in vg1 vocational studies, vg2 and vg3 general studies were included, and b) because not *every* teacher in the aforementioned level and program responded to my survey. This project can only generalize for all the 77 teachers who answered

the survey. Nonetheless, they represent many EFL teachers in Norwegian high schools, and the project can hence be considered as valuable even though it cannot be generalized completely.

Another of the limitations of the questionnaire is the answer options in question 14. In question 14, the respondents were asked if they facilitate learner autonomy, and the options were 'yes', 'no', and 'a little'. It is unfortunate that the option 'a little' was included here because it has to do with frequency, and can be confusing when discussing the data. In addition, there is already another question in the survey that asked the respondents to state how frequently they facilitate learner autonomy. The options in question 14 should have therefore been more specific, and only have included 'yes' and 'no' as options. Nevertheless, this could have potentially been a pitfall where the teachers that do not think they facilitate learner autonomy often, would select 'no' even though they do facilitate learner autonomy.

In question 6, the respondents were asked to state what type of education they have. Unfortunately, the question did not ask them to specify what degree they have in English. This should have been specified more clearly. For instance, some have just written "master" and "lektor", which is vague because this gives no information about whether they have a master's degree in English or another subject. In this regard, I do not use the answers from question 6 in the analysis.

Since learner autonomy is dependent on teacher autonomy (Little, 1995), it is unfortunate that the questionnaire did not include any questions about this topic. The reason why this was not investigated is simply that I was not aware that teacher autonomy and learner autonomy were co-dependent. It is possible that this is a limitation of the study.

Another limitation is the credibility of the answers from the respondents. Even though the study is anonymous, some teachers may claim that they know what the term entails even though they are not sure. Yet another setback here is that the definition of learner autonomy was provided before the respondents could define it themselves. I was unsure whether I should put the definition before or after they defined the term themselves since it can influence their answer, but at the same time, I did not want to cause confusion. I decided that not confusing the respondent was more important, and hence, I offered the definition first. I only did this with the respondents who said that they were uncertain or did not know what learner autonomy is. The teachers that ticked off that they were familiar with the term were not offered the definition.

It is also possible that teachers who were interested in learner autonomy participated in this project while the others that did not participate were not interested or did not know much about learner autonomy to participate.

Other limitations of this study are biases. There exist many types of biases; however, I

only mention the three most important for this research, which are loaded questions, social desirability bias, and confirmation bias. It is important to try and understand what can influence the respondents when conducting a survey. Being aware of what can influence their answers is important because answers can be biased through the questions that one has designed for the survey. Hence, it is important to try to conduct a questionnaire with as objective questions as possible, questions that are not leading or loaded with negative/positive connotations. It is also important to have in mind that respondents sometimes report what they believe the researcher wants them to answer or give answers they think will be viewed favorably (Cozby & Bates, 2017). This type of bias, social desirability bias, can lead the respondents to appear to care more about learner autonomy than they really do, or that they exaggerate their facilitation of it (Cozby & Bates, 2017). We should keep this in mind when we analyze the data; however, we can never really know what answers we can truly rely on, and therefore, we must trust the answers given in this research.

Not only should we have in mind that the answers could be biased, but we should also acknowledge that the analysis of them could be biased. Qualitative data is analyzed and interpreted by the researcher, and the researcher is never free of one's own beliefs and attitudes (Cozby & Bates, 2017). Also, the researcher can sometimes exclusively look for answers that confirm the researcher's findings or hypotheses. This type of bias, which is called confirmation bias, leads the researcher to neglect the answers that do not confirm the findings or hypotheses. Hence, the interpretation of the answers could be biased.

Another limitation of this study is that there was no follow-up questionnaire to receive feedback from the teachers after they completed the questionnaire. This would perhaps give insights to limitations of the questionnaire, or other comments that might have been useful.

Finally, using a Norwegian questionnaire for a project written in English is also a drawback because it is time-consuming with regard to translation. In addition, and perhaps most importantly, there is a pitfall with using translated data. Words are not always easy to translate directly, which can imply that they lose their meaning when translated. One can never be fully certain that the meaning is translated 100% accurately the way the respondent intended.

3.7.1 Reliability and validity

Proper research should achieve high reliability and validity. Validity refers to truth and an accurate representation of information, while reliability refers to the accuracy and stability

of the measurement of a phenomenon or a behavior (Cozby & Bates, 2017). Cozby & Bates (2017) also underline that you either have a measurement that is reliable, which gives the true measurement, and if not, the measurement is false. The difference between reliability and validity is that reliability concerns how stable and accurate the measurement is, while validity refers to whether or not the gauge that is being used really is the correct gauge to use as a measurement for the research. For instance, you can test the reliability of a questionnaire by doing test-retest or split-half tests, but the reliability does not imply whether you should have used a questionnaire or observation as a method. The validity does. First, we will look at the reliability in this study.

Primarily, it is necessary to talk about the reliability in this study to understand the validity. I conducted reliability tests to assess the internal consistency of the questionnaire's diverse scales (see Table 3.1). The Cronbach's alpha for each scale shows a high level of reliability.

Table 3.1: Reliability test

Name of scale	**Number of items**	**α**
Advantages of learner autonomy	7	.938
Disadvantages of learner autonomy	7	.865
General learning ability	5	.954
Beliefs in the facilitation of learner autonomy	10	.800
Practices supporting learner autonomy	11	.777

The alpha coefficient in the table above shows high levels of reliability, and we can thus assess the validity. However, the validity of the study is not easy to calculate. There are numerous types of validity, and this thesis cannot account for all. Nevertheless, there exists a distinct type of validity for mixed methods research that is called legitimation, which is different from validity in mono-research methods (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Onwuegbuzie & Johnson (2006) identify nine types of legitimation: sample integration-, inside-outside-, weakness minimization-, sequential-, conversion-, paradigmatic-, commensurability-, multiple

validities-, and political legitimation. In the following, I briefly assess these types of validities except sequential, which is not an appropriate validity for the present study.

Sample integration legitimation

All teachers in this study successfully completed the quantitative questions and every teacher also completed the qualitative question of *how* they facilitate learner autonomy. However, some qualitative questions were optional, and thus only a few teachers commented on these. All the while, conclusions are drawn and generalized to the same population as both the qualitative and quantitative data are all from the same group of respondents.

Inside-outside legitimation

For this study, the quantitative data were dealt with objectively because of the web-based questionnaire, and I thus function as an outsider. At the same time, I also function as an insider that subjectively deals with the qualitative data. To limit the subjective outlook on the qualitative data, I used peers (two fellow MA students) to review the qualitative data.

Weakness minimization legitimation

While the strength of quantitative methods is that they can reveal patterns and correlations, the strength of qualitative methods is that they can reveal interpretations and elaborations of experiences. These methods thus equal out each other's weaknesses.

Data conversion legitimation

The qualitative data were categorized and converted to quantitative data through color-coded labels. Similarly, the quantitative data were, in some ways, converted into qualitative data through narratively analyzing the findings.

Pragmatic mixing legitimation

The pragmatic legitimation is based on whether the research purpose was met, which is difficult to answer. The research purpose was indeed met: the paper answers how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy. However, whether the reports from the teachers are representative, or even correct, is not assessable. Hence, if the premises of the answers are false, the paper does not accurately represent how teachers facilitate learner autonomy.

Commensurability legitimation

By switching between the qualitative and quantitative data, I ensure commensurability legitimation and get an integrated and broader viewpoint from the teachers' reports on how they facilitate learner autonomy.

Multiple validities legitimation

This study uses different strategies to investigate the same topic. To appropriately address the research question, it is useful to present inferences from both quantitative and qualitative data as it displays different aspects. This study investigates patterns through quantitative questions, as well as representing the teachers' experiences, self-rapports, and thoughts through qualitative questions.

Political legitimation

Several viewpoints from the teachers are integrated and represented to address the research questions appropriately.

The validity in this mixed methods research is hard to assess, as there are a number of aspects to take into consideration regarding modes of inquiry and data collection. Nevertheless, I have tried to ensure a comprehensive approach.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the data collected are presented and discussed with the relevant theory. The intention is to try and find similarities or differences in the findings to reveal a pattern. Little attention has been paid to how *Norwegian* EFL high school teachers facilitate learner autonomy in their classrooms in studies until now, and it is thus not very easy to provide the reader with similar national studies as references in the discussion. However, this project aims to contribute to further research on this topic by investigating how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school. The project can hopefully create a platform where teachers can read about other teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy. The current chapter will first present the reader with the findings. After, I try to answer the main research question, as well as the three additional research questions. The main research question in this paper is formulated as follows: "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?". The three additional research questions are listed below:

1. Do teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently?

2. Do the teachers' backgrounds (e.g. age and gender) affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy?

3. Do teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy?

The chapter tries to answer these research questions by displaying the collected answers from the respondents and analyzing them by looking for patterns and meanings.

It is essential to mention that the questionnaire contained some sections where the respondents could make further comments. These sections occurred in questions 10, 11, 13, and 18, and functioned as follow-up sections where the respondents could elaborate, explain, or give reasons for their previous answers. Additionally, question 19 was optional to answer because it only referred to those of the respondents that use logbooks. Not every respondent answered question 19 and the sections with additional comments; nevertheless, a lot of the respondents answered them.

It should also be remembered that the answers from question 6 ("what type of education do you have?") are not used in the analysis because the answers are ambiguous and do not specify what type of education the respondents have.

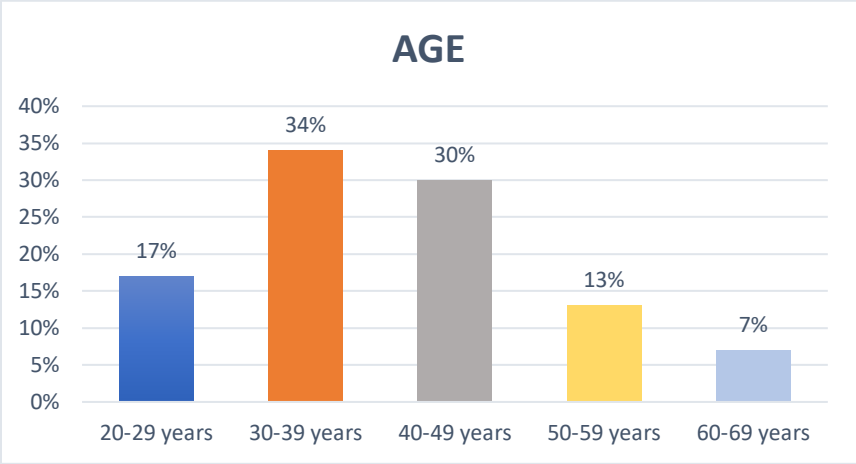
In the following chapter, both qualitative and quantitative results from the respondents' answers are presented. They are organized in nearly the same way the questions in the questionnaire were arranged, which means that the results from the teachers' follow-up comments are presented, along with the results from the related quantitative questions. The quantitative findings are presented in the form of descriptive statistics computed using SPSS. Results from ANOVA and Mann-Whitney U tests are also presented. The results from these tests are only provided where there are significant differences. The qualitative findings are presented narratively or by quotations, as well as in tables with categories, numbers, and percentages. The comments and quotations are translated from Norwegian to English as verbatim as possible, although some quotations are adjusted with minor changes for semantical reasons where a verbatim translation would not be comprehensible. Not all qualitative comments are included because first, it is not necessary as many comments are repetitive, and second, it would take up a large amount of place. The comments that are included are the most relevant and often represent general notions from the teachers' qualitative answers.

4.2 The Respondents' Background Variables

As discussed in Section 2.5, teacher cognition is essential to understand how teachers view and facilitate learner autonomy. Could the teachers' backgrounds shape their cognition about learner autonomy and how they facilitate learner autonomy? Some studies have found that teachers' and student teachers' backgrounds sometimes do affect their perceptions of learner autonomy (Ürün et al., 2014; Javid, 2018). This project examines if certain variables such as gender, age, level and program, years of experience, and county affect how teachers perceive and facilitate learner autonomy. It is important to stress that this project cannot account for *why* there are differences, as it is beyond the scope of the study. Nevertheless, the differences are discussed and compared to other similar studies that concern teachers' background differences and the perception and facilitation of learner autonomy. In the following, the respondents' background information is displayed.

4.2.1 Age

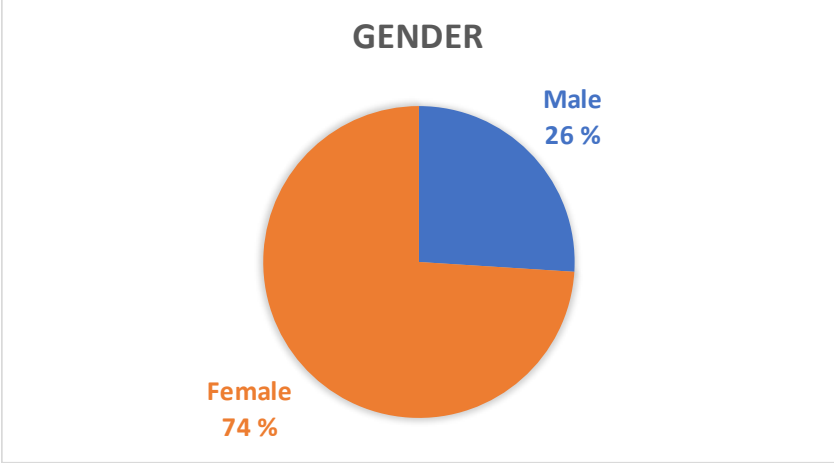
Figure 4.1: Age



The figure above illustrates the respondents' age groups in percentages. The participants in the study were between the ages of 24 and 67, where the average age was 40.8 years old. The differences in the participants' age provide this research with representativity.

4.2.2 Gender

Figure 4.2: Gender



The figure above represents the respondents' gender in percentages. As Figure 4.2 illustrates, females are overrepresented in this study, of which 74% are females, and 26% are males (57 women and 20 men).

4.2.3 Years of experience

The participants were asked to state approximately how many years they had worked as an English teacher. It is necessary to point out that this implies that some respondents may have worked as a teacher for more years than they stated here because they might have taught other subjects before they started to teach English.

Figure 4.3: Years of experience

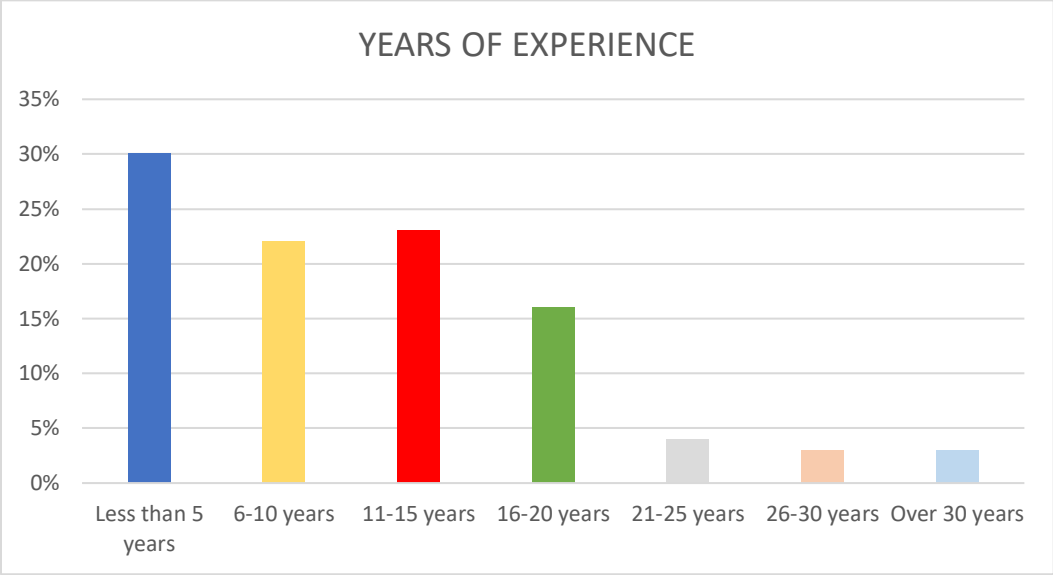
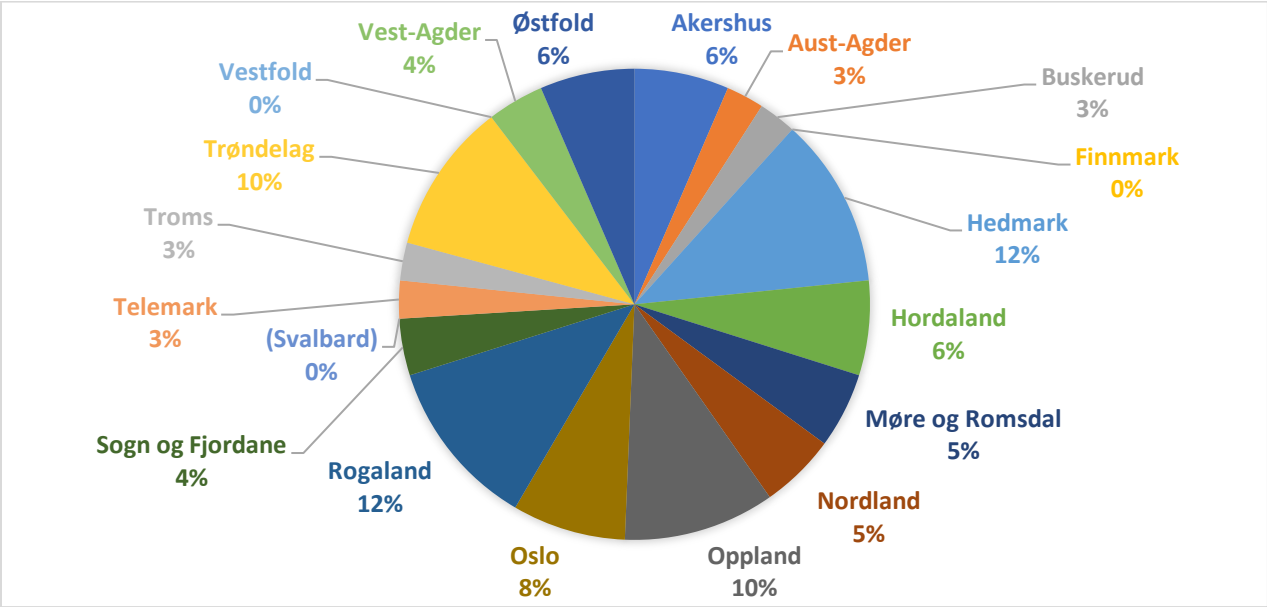


Figure 4.3 represents the respondents' years of experience as English teachers in percentages. If we look at Figure 4.3, we see that teachers who have less than five years of experience are overrepresented, and that there are few respondents with more than 20 years of experience as an English teacher.

4.2.4 Counties

Figure 4.4: Counties

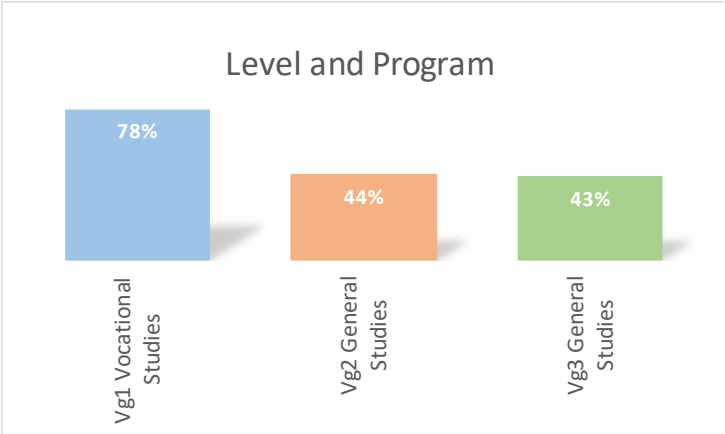


This research was carried out before 18 counties in Norway merged to 11 on 01.01.2020[8]. Hence, I present and use the numbers of the counties the teachers stated that they worked in *before* the merging since the respondents answered before 01.01.2020. The numbers in Figure 4.4 thus illustrate how many respondents from each county (before the merging) that took part in the survey. Svalbard has no municipalities and is not recognized as a county; nevertheless, I included it as an option in the questionnaire because it is, after all, a part of Norway. Unfortunately, the survey received no respondents from Svalbard. Similarly, there are no participants from Vestfold nor Finnmark. Thus, the research does not provide full representativity in terms of collecting respondents from all counties in Norway. In addition, some counties are over- and underrepresented. For example, 12% of the respondents are from Rogaland, while there are only 3% from Aust-Agder. Taking this into consideration, the representativity of the research is, in some ways, limited. Despite that, there are many respondents in total (77), representing not all, but many counties and the numbers should thus be an adequate basis for the analysis.

[8] Hordaland and Sogn og Fjordane became Vestland; Østfold, Akershus and Buskerud became Viken; Hedmark and Oppland became Innlandet; Vestfold and Telemark became Vestfold og Telemark; Vest-Agder and Aust-Agder became Agder; Troms and Finnmark became Troms og Finnmark (Regjeringen.no, 2019).

4.2.5 Levels and programs

Figure 4.5: Level and program



The figure above represents in percentages what levels and programs the respondents work in. Most of the teachers work in vg1 vocational studies, while 44% state that they work in vg2 general studies, and 43% vg3 general studies. It should be noted that it was possible to choose several options. Thirty-nine respondents chose one of the categories, while 27 respondents chose two of them, and 11 respondents chose all three.

4.3 Teacher Cognition and Learner Autonomy

In Section 2.5, teacher cognition was discussed, and it was mentioned that teachers' beliefs and attitudes can influence their actions and affect their teaching practices. This suggests that the respondents' negative or positive beliefs and attitudes towards learner autonomy can alter how they facilitate learner autonomy. It is thus important to investigate what the respondents' beliefs of learner autonomy are, to understand how they facilitate learner autonomy. In the following section, we look at the respondents' beliefs about learner autonomy.

4.3.1 Familiarity with the term learner autonomy

The respondents were asked if they were familiar with the term 'learner autonomy' to see how many teachers are aware of the concept of learner autonomy. It is necessary to have an overview of how many teachers are familiar with the term to see approximately how many teachers facilitate learner autonomy consciously. This is later discussed in Section 4.5.2, where I examine how many teachers that are familiar with the term claim they facilitate learner

autonomy. The numbers and percentages of how many teachers that are familiar with the term is provided below:

Table 4.1: Teachers' familiarity with the term learner autonomy

"Are you familiar with the term learner autonomy?"

	n	%
1	7	9.1
2	25	32.5
3	45	58.4

1 = No, 2 = A little, 3 = Yes

The table above shows that the majority of the teachers are familiar with the term *learner autonomy* and that few are not familiar with it. Some state that they are 'a little' familiar with the term. The results indicate that learner autonomy is a known concept for many teachers. We later compare these results to how many teachers that say they facilitate learner autonomy to examine if they do it consciously.

4.3.2 Defining learner autonomy

The respondents were asked to define learner autonomy in their own words. The intention was to examine what the teachers think learner autonomy is and what it involves. The teachers' responses held many various aspects of learner autonomy and learning in general. A table of how the teachers define learner autonomy is provided below (note that the teachers could select more than one category):

Table 4.2: How teachers define learner autonomy

Category	**Frequency**	**%**
Responsibility/control of own learning	29	37.66
Choice	27	35.06
Independent learners	22	28.57
Metacognition	14	18.18
Other	13	16.88
Methods/strategies	12	15.58
Active learners	12	15.58

Learning objectives	9	11.69
Scaffolding	7	9.09
Evaluation	5	6.49
Adapted education	5	6.49

The table includes some of the categories that Haglund (2018) used in her thesis, as well as some new categories that are more appropriate for the respondents' answers in this project. As the table illustrates, there are many different definitions of learner autonomy. However, the two most common definitions are that learner autonomy means giving the learner choices (in tasks, evaluation, assessment forms, learning material, content, and planning) and that it involves the learner's ability or will to take responsibility and control of their own learning. These two categories were also the two most common categories for teachers' definition of learner autonomy in Haglund's (2018) and Borg & Al-Busaidi's studies (2012b), based on Norwegian high school teachers and teachers in higher education in Saudi-Arabia. However, in their studies, the respondents defined learner autonomy as the learner's choice more frequently than as the learner's responsibility. It is possible that the teachers were inspired by Benson's (2011) and Holec's (1981) definitions, which both underline the importance of choice and responsibility. Notwithstanding, teachers mentioned many other important aspects of learner autonomy as well, as the table above illustrates.

By 'choice', the teachers referred to diverse types of choices. Some teachers explained that learner autonomy implies giving the learners choices in tasks so that the learners can choose from their level and prerequisites. They claimed that this is a way to include them in the learning process and to influence their own learning. Other ways the teachers defined learner autonomy in relation to 'choice' was letting the learners choose between evaluation- and assessment forms, learning material, content, and including them in the planning process.

When it comes to defining learner autonomy as 'independent' learners, the teachers explained that autonomous learners are self-directed learners. Some pointed out that this implies that learners take the initiative to learn on their own in different situations. Others said that learner autonomy is when the classroom is learner-directed, where the learner is self-driven. This means that the learners explore learning situations on their own, that they can extract relevant information and access it critically and incorporate this information reflectively.

The category 'other' includes answers from the respondents that I could not find a category for, or that would only form a category with one answer. A list of all answers is provided in Appendix VII, and the comments that are categorized into 'other' can be seen there, but two of them are also included here to illustrate why they fall into the category of 'other':

"The student's ability to take advantage of a learning situation and to find learning in different situations" (own translation, #76). This quote seems to refer to the learner's ability to transfer the acquired knowledge into different contexts, which Little (1991, as cited in Benson, 2011) explains that the autonomous learner should be able to do. Although it is a very important aspect of learner autonomy, no other teacher has commented on this matter, and it thus falls under 'other'.

Another respondent mentioned the competence aims: "Almost the same as what is listed under language learning in the competence aims for English after vg1" (own translation, #3). Considering that the new curriculum does not have a separate section called 'language learning', this respondent seems to refer to the competence aims under 'language learning' in LK06 (Udir, 2013), which lists these aspects:

> The aims of the training are to enable the learner to
>
> - give examples of situations where it might be useful to have some English language skills
> - find words and phrases that are common to English and one's native language
> - use digital resources in experiencing the language

These competence aims describe different facets of language learning. For example, the first aim seems to signify that the learner must see the relevance of English language learning, and this can be linked to two principles of learner autonomy – metacognition and authenticity. If the learners reflect on situations where English language skills are important, the learners are most likely to, at the same time, reflect on *why* learning English is important (metacognition). In addition, they can reflect on English language usage in real-life situations where they are genuine users of the target language. As mentioned before, Dam (2011) explains that the teaching should, as often as possible, focus on authentic, real-life situations. The comment from respondent #3 is thus also an important aspect of learner autonomy.

In sum, teachers define learner autonomy as the learner's ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to participate in decision making.

4.3.3 How important teachers perceive learner autonomy to be

The teachers were asked to rate how important they perceive learner autonomy to be on a scale from very unimportant to very important. The results are provided in the table below:

Table 4.3: Teachers' beliefs about the importance of learner autonomy

"How important do you think it is to facilitate learner autonomy?"

n	M	SD
77	4.78	1.354

1 = Very unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Partially unimportant, 4 = Partially Important, 5 = Important, 6 = Very important

The table above lists the descriptive statistics regarding how important teachers perceive the facilitation of learner autonomy to be. The results indicate that most teachers think it is somewhat important. In other studies, the results also indicated that many teachers believe that learner autonomy is important (Haglund, 2018; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012a; Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012b; Nakata, 2011). This suggests that teachers believe in the advantages of learner autonomy because it would be unlikely that they think learner autonomy is somewhat important if they do not agree with the advantages.

4.3.4 Perceived advantages

Table 4.4: Perceived advantages of learner autonomy

"Tick off the boxes on how much you think these are the benefits of learner autonomy"

	n	M	SD
Motivation	77	5.01	1.262
Self-regulation	77	4.97	1.158
Metacognition	77	4.86	1.167
Effort	77	4.73	1.143
Self-realization	77	4.69	1.238
Self-confidence	77	4.83	1.031
Learning to learn	77	5.19	1.101

1 = Completely disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Partially disagree, 4 = Partially agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Completely agree

The table above lists the descriptive statistics regarding what teachers perceive as the benefits of learner autonomy. The results indicate that teachers see learning to learn and motivation as the most outstanding advantages of learner autonomy. Interestingly, that learner autonomy can enhance motivation was the most frequent answer in Haglund's (2018) study, however, only three out of 200 respondents mentioned learning to learn. Contrarily, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) found that learning to learn and motivation are perceived as the two most important reasons for developing learner autonomy.

The teachers could also add comments about the perceived advantages of learner autonomy, and 18 of them did. Many had some interesting reflections about aspects regarding the benefits of learner autonomy, and some of them are included here (other comments were very similar and do not need to be included). Some teachers explained why they think motivation is one of the benefits of facilitating learner autonomy: "I think that learner autonomy leads to independent choices and actions, which can affect effort and motivation in subjects the student does not feel are relevant to them" (own translation, #56). This respondent seems to reflect on the way autonomous behavior can spark motivation.

Another respondent elaborated on the connection of motivation and effort but emphasized how the students' awareness of own learning plays a crucial role, "If you understand how and why you learn and can reflect independently around these matters, you will eventually be aware that you have the control, which can strengthen motivation and effort" (own translation, #53).

Metacognitive abilities were also highlighted by another respondent, who sees autonomy as a type of self-awareness "Awareness of who you are and what you do and why and how" (own translation, #7). This respondent seems to suggest that self-awareness, knowing one's own needs, strengths, weaknesses, goals, and motivations, leads to a better capability for independent and autonomous behavior.

One of the respondents reflected on how learner autonomy begets a different corporation of knowledge which again creates a sense of ownership of the knowledge, "When it comes to learner autonomy, I see that the students store and use the information in a different way than when they are 'force-fed' with information from us teachers. It generates curiosity and ownership to the knowledge they learn on their own" (own translation, #12). This could also relate to motivation, considering that the feeling of ownership can instill motivation.

Finally, one respondent pointed out that learner autonomy is not yet advantageous before the students are prepared for it, which the teacher must help them to be, "One of the prerequisites of learner autonomy should, in my view, be to have a certain degree of self-

regulation. The students should be able to plan, have an overview, and organize their own work before they can understand what goals they should set based on their own level. They should have a certain overview of strengths and weaknesses so that they can set realistic goals for themselves. In many cases, it can be smart that the teacher helps the students to initiate this process" (own translation, #33). In sum, this comment seems to indicate that a prerequisite for developing learner autonomy is that the students must be able to self-regulate and take responsibility based on their own needs, strengths, weaknesses, and goals. This final comment represents what many of the teachers have touched upon when discussing the advantages of learner autonomy.

4.3.5 Perceived disadvantages

Table 4.5: Perceived disadvantages of learner autonomy

"Tick off the boxes on how much you think these are the disadvantages of learner autonomy"

	n	M	SD
It is time-consuming to facilitate it	77	3.90	1.501
I am not sure how I can facilitate it	77	3.44	1.391
Some students are unable to identify their needs	77	5.01	.980
Some students are unable to identify their strengths	77	4.68	1.141
Some students are unable to identify their weaknesses	77	4.61	1.194
Some students are unable to identify their own progress	77	4.87	1.018
Some students are unable to identify their own learning	77	4.77	1.062

1 = Completely disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Partially disagree, 4 = Partially agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Completely agree

The table above lists the descriptive statistics regarding what teachers perceive as the disadvantages of learner autonomy. The results indicate that teachers agree that the most disadvantageous side of the facilitation of learner autonomy is that some students are unable to identify their needs. A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to examine if the respondents' variables are statistically significant for their perceived disadvantages of learner autonomy. The results indicate that female teachers think it is more time-consuming to facilitate learner autonomy than male teachers [U = 383.000, p = .027].

The teachers could also add comments about the perceived disadvantages of learner autonomy, and 15 of them did. Two of them have some interesting reflections about aspects regarding the disadvantages of learner autonomy (the other comments were similar to these and are therefore not included): "So far, I have only experienced negative aspects of it [learner autonomy] if the students get too much control. It is important that the pedagogical and didactical is ensured by the teacher through ultimately having some control him- or herself" (own translation, #25). Seemingly, the respondent assumes that a balance of control between the teacher and the student is necessary to ensure that the responsibility given is not misused.

"The demand for adapted education comes into play. Student groups consist of diversity, some are mature, and others are immature. It is difficult to facilitate student autonomy in large groups. The teacher may soon lose the overview" (own translation, #49). This respondent touches on student diversity and how this can be an obstacle with respect to adapted education. Additionally, the respondent reflects on how the challenge of diversity concerns maturity, not necessarily the learner's needs or competencies.

Both answers are about *control* (have "control", "lose overview", i.e. control), which is not conducive to learner autonomy necessarily. There appears to exist a tendency of the desire to maintain control and anxiety of losing it, which could beset the process of facilitating learner autonomy. As Dam (2011, p. 41) points out, this issue is not uncommon but the development of learner autonomy is dependent on the teacher to learn and accept to "let go". To make this process fluent, it must evolve gradually step by step.

4.3.6 Perceptions of the learner

Considering that the teachers' beliefs shape their choices (Borg, 2003), the teachers' perceptions of their learners shape if and how they choose to facilitate learner autonomy. In this section, we look at the quantitative responses of how teachers perceive their students' ability to develop autonomy, as well as some qualitative descriptions of how the teachers perceive this in their learners.

Table 4.6: Perceptions of the learner's ability to develop autonomy

"I believe that in order to facilitate learner autonomy, students must first have the ability to…"

	n	M	SD
… Identify their needs	77	4.55	1.119
… Identify their strengths	77	4.44	1.006
… Identify their weaknesses	77	4.45	.981
… Monitor their own progress	77	4.39	1.053
… Evaluate their own learning	77	4.52	1.083

1 = Very unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Partially unimportant, 4 = Partially Important, 5 = Important, 6 = Very important

The table above lists the descriptive statistics regarding what abilities teachers think their learners must have to facilitate learner autonomy. The results indicate that teachers partially agree or agree that their learners must be able to identify their needs, strengths, weaknesses, progress, and evaluate their own learning before the teacher can facilitate learner autonomy. Teachers seem to think that the most important ability is that learners can identify their needs.

In the sections where teachers could make further comments on the advantages and disadvantages of learner autonomy, some also addressed issues that revealed their beliefs of what abilities the teachers think their learners must have to facilitate learner autonomy: "Many students are too immature to be able to become autonomous" (own translation, #5). This comment seems to indicate that immaturity is an obstacle for becoming autonomous, which highlights an interesting aspect of the challenges in the facilitation of learner autonomy.

"Some students see it as an opportunity to ease the demands and workload" (own translation, #26). Seemingly, the respondent feels that his or her students are too lazy to make an effort when given responsibility.

"Students are like electricity: they choose the path with the least resistance. This is especially true for VG1 vocational subjects - and the answers here are vastly different based on which student groups we are talking about, so the results here will not be quite right without that distinction" (own translation, #31). The respondent touches on the tendency of irresponsibility for vg1 vocational studies students, which stereotypes one particular group of students. However, this appears to be a common stereotype among teachers, as several other teachers expressed this same notion.

To sum up, these three comments represent the indications of many other comments found in this study and hence, the general notion is that learners are immature and irresponsible or lazy and that this is a challenge in the process of developing autonomous learners. This criticism of the learners is not surprising, as Dam (2011) found that one of the obstacles language learners have in the process of developing learner autonomy is the student's ability to be responsible.

4.3.7 Perceptions of how to facilitate learner autonomy

Table 4.7: What teachers consider important when facilitating learner autonomy

"What do you think is important in the facilitation of learner autonomy?"

	n	M	SD
To include the learners in the planning process	77	4.73	1.021
To include the learners in the evaluation process	77	5.08	.774
Giving the learners choices	77	5.14	.738
Allowing the learners to decide the type of work form (individual, group work, pairs...)	77	4.47	.804
Allowing the learners to determine the content	77	3.90	.981
Familiarize the learners with the learning objectives	77	5.21	.817
Teach the learners how to find information on their own	77	5.43	.677
Teach the learners how to learn on their own	77	5.49	.719
Give the learners knowledge about their own learning	77	5.26	.715
Give the learners responsibility for their own learning	77	5.00	.858

1 = Very unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Partially unimportant, 4 = Partially Important, 5 = Important, 6 = Very important

The table above lists the descriptive statistics regarding what teachers perceive as important for the facilitation of learner autonomy. The results indicate that teachers think that many of the listed points in the table are either important or very important. Allowing the learners to determine the content is considered the least important. Teachers perceive all the other listed points as important and very important and think that it is most important to teach their learners how to learn on their own.

The teachers could also add comments about what is important in the facilitation of learner autonomy, and 10 of them did. One of the respondents underlined the importance of

building independence: “An important quality for them to develop in this context is to become independent. My goal, in all classes and all subjects, is to show the students how they can seek out help, find information and show them how they can use helpful tools (dictionary, Thesaurus, source reference, etc.). This is purely methodological to show them how they can encounter a ‘problem’ or a question” (own translation, #33). This respondent identifies one of the essences of learner autonomy. To become autonomous, students need to know *how* to find information and work on their own. The teacher can provide the learners with a helpful tool to build learner independence and self-directed learners.

Another respondent reflected on the importance of helping the student to learn more about their own needs: “To teach the students to learn more about themselves regarding life and learning, in particular, is important, but not just school; what do I like, what makes me motivated, when do I lose concentration, etc.” (own translation, #56). If the teacher helps his or her students to identify their own needs, the students can reflect on what makes them motivated. Motivation is key to self-access and self-directed learning (Benson, 2011). Teachers can stimulate the learners’ motivation by letting them choose because choosing requires the learners to reflect and can heighten their awareness of their own learning (Dam, 2011; Fenner, 2006; Ushioda, 1996, 2006, as cited in Dam, 2011). This way, students are better able to identify their needs, which in turn can stimulate motivation. These factors can set a good foundation for building autonomous students.

Another respondent contemplated the importance of giving the learners choices:

> I think it is important to give the students choices, and that students can help determine both form and content. At the same time, I think this must be done together with the teacher, where the teacher, for example, provides some alternatives to choose from. Or make sure that the choices that are made are within the curriculum guidelines, etc. As a teacher, it is important to keep a balance between giving the students choice, co-determination, and responsibility, while at the same time taking care of the subject matters. It is primarily the teacher who is responsible for following the curriculum, that the subject follows the plans, etc. that are set. It is important for students to choose and learn to learn in a safe environment. (own translation, #73)

This teacher reflects on how important it is to ensure that learners are given choices but within restraints. It is necessary that the teacher is involved in this process because as Fenner (2006) argues, one of the challenges of giving learners choices is that the learners do

not always make the *right* choices for themselves. Instead, learners tend to choose from the areas they are comfortable and familiar with (Fenner, 2006). Consequently, teachers should give their learners freedom of choice, but within restraints.

4.4 Facilitation of Learner Autonomy

To answer the main research question, "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?", I asked the respondents questions that concerned *how, how often,* and *why* they facilitate learner autonomy. In the following sections, we look at the respondents' answers both in quantitative and qualitative forms. The answers can reveal what strategies the teachers use in their facilitation of learner autonomy.

4.4.1 Teachers that facilitate learner autonomy

First of all, it is interesting to look at how many of the respondents facilitate learner autonomy. The number of respondents that facilitate learner autonomy in their EFL classrooms is listed below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: The number of respondents that facilitate learner autonomy

"Do you facilitate learner autonomy?"

	n	%
No	3	3.9
A little	45	58.4
Yes	29	37.7

Apparently, many teachers facilitate learner autonomy. 38% reports that they do, 4% states that they do not, and the majority (58%) answers 'a little' which indicates that they, to some degree or sometimes, facilitate learner autonomy. I wanted to learn more about what variables can affect whether or if the respondents facilitate learner autonomy. To do this, I checked if there was any statistically significant difference between the respondents' background variables and if they facilitate learner autonomy. Only the level and program that the respondents work has a statistically significant impact (see Table 4.9):

Level and program

Table 4.9: Learner autonomy facilitation based on level and program

"Do you facilitate learner autonomy?"

Level and program	n	M	SD
Vg1 Vocational Studies	60	2.30	.561

Level and program	n	M	SD
Vg2 General Studies	34	2.44	.561

Level and program	n	M	SD
Vg3 General Studies	33	2.48	.508

1 = No, 2 = A little, 3 = Yes

The results indicate that teachers in vg1 vocational studies facilitate learner autonomy the least, while teachers in vg3 general studies facilitate learner autonomy the most. An ANOVA was carried out to ascertain if there are statistically significant differences between teachers based on levels and programs. The results indicate that teachers in vg3 are more positive regarding the facilitation of learner autonomy [$F(1,75) = 4.271$, $p = .042$]. This is the only variable that affects if the teachers choose to facilitate learner autonomy or not.

I also wanted to look for other possible correlations between if the teachers facilitate learner autonomy and all other answers from every closed question in the survey. Only the perceived disadvantages of learner autonomy were statistically significantly impactful. An ANOVA was carried out to see if there were statistically significant differences between the facilitation of learner autonomy (see Table 4.5) based on how strongly teachers perceived the challenges of facilitating learner autonomy (see Table 4.8). The results indicated a statistically significant difference regarding if the teachers facilitate learner autonomy and how time-consuming they perceive the facilitation of learner autonomy to be [$F(2,74) = 3.858$, $p = .025$]. The respondents who facilitate learner autonomy fully see it as being statistically significantly less time-consuming than do those who facilitate it partly [$p = .021$]. The results also indicated a statistically significant difference between if the teachers facilitate learner autonomy and how unsure they were in terms of knowing how to facilitate learner autonomy [$F(2,74) = 4.152$, $p = .020$]. Those who facilitate learner autonomy partly, are statistically significantly more unsure about how to promote it, than do those who facilitate it fully [$p = .031$].

4.4.2 Frequency of facilitating learner autonomy

Table 4.10: How often teachers facilitate learner autonomy

"How often do you facilitate learner autonomy?"

	n	%
Never	1	1.3
Rarer	9	11.7
Monthly	23	29.9
Weekly	30	39.0
Daily	8	10.4
In all my English lessons	6	7.8

Before discussing the results, a distinction between the options 'in all the English lessons' and 'daily' should be made clear. There are two reasons why these are kept separate, and the first reason is that some teachers might not facilitate learner autonomy in *every* English class they teach. This can happen because they do not perceive one of their classes as capable or responsible enough to make adequate decisions for themselves. These are, of course, only speculations. The other reason is that some teachers might not work full time. If they only work once a month, they will perhaps choose to answer that they only facilitate learner autonomy once a month. Instead, 'all of my English lessons' is an option for those who do not work full time but consistently facilitate learner autonomy. These are the two reasons for making a distinction between two options that appears to be similar.

The respondents answered how often they facilitate learner autonomy, and the table above shows that the majority of the teachers (39%) reported that they facilitate learner autonomy weekly. 8% reported that they did it in all their English lessons, 10% said that they facilitate learner autonomy on a daily basis, 30% do it monthly, 12% rarely do it, and finally, 1% never facilitate learner autonomy. In all, 57% do it weekly or more, which shows that teachers facilitate learner autonomy often.

The respondents could make further comments on this question. Some mentioned that they do not have a plan for how often they facilitate learner autonomy – they "just do it" (own translation, #33). Some also explained that they sometimes give the learners choices in activities and contents without really having an agenda of making the learners more autonomous, while others stated that they facilitate learner autonomy only to remind the learners that they have a choice.

4.4.3 Reasons for facilitating learner autonomy

Table 4.11: Reasons for facilitating learner autonomy

Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Motivation	24	31.17
Lifelong learning/learn to learn	24	31.17
Learn to take responsibility	17	22.08
Metacognition	13	16.88
Other	12	15.58
Learning/ improve proficiency	10	12.99
Active students	10	12.99
Independence	8	10.39
Curricular/school guidelines	7	9.09
Adapted education	6	7.79
Decision making	5	6.49
The student's well-being	4	5.19
Sense of achievement	4	5.19
Ownership	3	3.90
Classroom environment	3	3.90

The table above represents the teachers' reasons for facilitating learner autonomy. Most teachers claimed that the reasons they facilitate learner autonomy are to enhance the learner's motivation and to practice the students' skill of learning to learn. Many teachers explained that they facilitate learner autonomy because of various aspects that are listed in the table above. It seems as if many of the aspects interact with each other; one element leads to another. I explain this notion in the following: some of the teachers explained that by giving the learner choices, the learners are included in the learning process and are able to influence the educational frameworks. Many point out that they believe that this enhances the feeling of ownership, control, and responsibility, which again boosts motivation, sense of achievement, and results in active and independent learners who develop metacognitive abilities because they have to *reflect* when they make a choice. Hence, many teachers listed various reasons for why they facilitate learner autonomy. The category 'other' includes answers that did not really answer the question. For example, some answered how often they facilitate learner autonomy, while others explained how.

It is necessary to note that many of the reasons in the category above are similar to the perceived advantages of learner autonomy. Nevertheless, they are separated in different sections because even though some teachers see the advantages of learner autonomy, it is not given that they facilitate it. However, if we compare the perceived advantages to the reasons

why teachers facilitate learner autonomy, we see that they are relatively identical (see Table 4.4). Teachers perceive learning to learn and motivation as the most outstanding advantages of learner autonomy, which are the two most common reasons for the facilitation of learner autonomy. This finding builds on that teacher cognition shapes the teacher's action (Borg, 2003). In the following sections, we shall see *how* teachers facilitate learner autonomy.

4.4.4 How teachers facilitate learner autonomy

To understand how teachers facilitate learner autonomy, the respondents were asked to answer both questions with closed alternatives and questions where they could elaborate and give detailed answers about how they facilitate learner autonomy. I first start by looking at the quantitative answers, followed by the teachers' qualitative answers.

4.4.4.1 Quantitative illustrations

Table 4.12: Methods used when facilitating learner autonomy

"What is true about your work on facilitating learner autonomy?"

Students…	n	M	SD
… are given freedom of choice in tasks	77	4.53	.981
… are given freedom of choice in activities	77	4.31	1.016
… are given freedom of choice in work form (individually, pairs, groups)	77	4.61	1.041
… are given freedom of choice in the assessment form (e.g., written, oral, digital, etc.)	77	3.92	1.073
… evaluate their work (e.g., effort in lessons, presentations, tests, etc.)	77	4.47	1.021
… log their work	77	2.92	1.211
… are included in the assessment process	77	4.32	.924
… are included in the planning process	77	4.04	1.141
… are included in the evaluation process (evaluation of e.g., teaching, work done, activities, tasks, etc.)	77	4.49	.968
… are allowed to determine the content	77	3.83	1.044
… seek out much information themselves	77	4.26	1.185

1 = Completely disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Partially disagree, 4 = Partially agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Completely agree

The table above shows how teachers facilitate learner autonomy. The results indicate that many teachers agree that they give their students freedom of choice in tasks and work forms. Teachers partially agree that they give their students freedom of choice in activities, give their students freedom of choice in the assessment form, include the students in the assessment process, include the students in the planning process, allow the students to determine content, and let their students seek out much information on their own. The teachers partially agree that they make their students evaluate their work and that they include their students in the evaluation process. The results also indicate that few teachers make their students log their work, as many teachers answered that they partially disagree that they make their students log work. To sum up, the findings indicate that the teachers facilitate learner autonomy mostly by giving the students freedom of choice in terms of working forms (group, peer, individual work) and by choosing tasks. Three of the least common ways to facilitate learner autonomy is to encourage the students to log their work, to allow them to determine the content, and to have them choose the type of assessment.

Tests were carried out in SPSS to see how teachers facilitate learner autonomy based on their background variables such as what counties they work in, what levels and programs they work in, age groups, gender, and years of experience. The results show that the only variable that is statistically significant for how teachers facilitate learner autonomy is their gender. The results are listed in the table below:

Table 4.13: Learner autonomy facilitation based on gender

"What is true about your work on facilitating learner autonomy?"

Students…	Gender	n	M	SD
… are given freedom of choice in tasks	Female	57	4.44	.907
	Male	20	4.80	1.152
	Total	77	4.53	.981
… are given freedom of choice in activities	Female	57	4.14	.990
	Male	20	4.80	.951
	Total	77	4.31	1.016
… are given freedom of choice in work form	Female	57	4.61	1.013
	Male	20	4.60	1.142
	Total	77	4.61	1.041
… are given freedom of choice in the assessment form	Female	57	3.91	1.123
	Male	20	3.95	.945
	Total	77	3.92	1.073
… evaluate their work	Female	57	4.39	1.048
	Male	20	4.70	.923
	Total	77	4.47	1.021
… log their work	Female	57	2.96	1.210
	Male	20	2.80	1.240
	Total	77	2.92	1.211
… are included in the assessment process	Female	57	4.14	.854
	Male	20	4.85	.933
	Total	77	4.32	.924

… are included in the planning process	Female	57	4.04	.999
	Male	20	4.05	1.504
	Total	77	4.04	1.141
… are included in the evaluation process	Female	57	4.44	1.018
	Male	20	4.65	.813
	Total	77	4.49	.968
… are allowed to determine the content	Female	57	3.72	.959
	Male	20	4.15	1.226
	Total	77	3.83	1.044
… seek out much information themselves	Female	57	4.25	1.199
	Male	20	4.30	1.174
	Total	77	4.26	1.185

1 = Completely disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Partially disagree, 4 = Partially agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Completely agree

Table 4.8 lists the descriptive statistics for teachers' responses on how they facilitate learner autonomy based on gender. The results indicate that males agree more than females in terms of the various ways of facilitating learner autonomy, except for making their students log their work and freedom of choice in work form. A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to ascertain if there are statistically significant differences between teachers based on gender. The results indicated that male teachers are more positive regarding the students' participation in choosing activities [U = 778.000, p = .012] and students' inclusion in the assessment process [U= 798.000, p = .005].

4.4.4.2 Qualitative descriptions

The previous section illustrates the quantitative results for how teachers facilitate learner autonomy. The teachers could also add follow-up comments about how they facilitate learner autonomy, and 10 of them did. Some of the comments are included below.

One teacher explained that the way he or she facilitates learner autonomy relies heavily on what students he or she has: "This is entirely dependent on the group of students" (own translation, #35). Another respondent also mentioned that how he or she facilitates learner autonomy depends on the learners: "I do a combination of all this - but how often varies from class to class. My experience is that many, especially in VG1 vocational studies, find it difficult to choose, assessment is incomprehensible, and the competence aims are soaring. Independence must be trained within certain restraints" (own translation, #56). This teacher points out a specific group of students – vg1 vocational studies – and claims that this group of students, in particular, have difficulties with various aspects such as decision making, assessment, and competence aims. One of the other respondents also mentioned that the facilitation of learner autonomy depends on his or her learners. This respondent further emphasized why: "It is not

right for me to say that the 'students' do this or that. Individual adaptation happens when they [the students] can choose to do tasks themselves, or how thoroughly they engage in various tasks" (own translation, #64). This suggests that this teacher has no specific way to facilitate learner autonomy for all her students, but instead, the facilitation is differentiated based on the students' choices and their effort.

Other respondents made comments about the manner of how they facilitate learner autonomy: "I must emphasize that this is done with moderation. I like to let my students have a great influence on the content of the lessons and in the subject, but I also have to ensure that the teaching and didactics are taken care of, not to mention that they receive the training they need to reach the competence goals" (own translation, # 25). Another respondent also explained the manner of the facilitation of learner autonomy: "By partially agreeing, I mean that I do this occasionally when it is apt. Not every time. In different ways at different times" (own translation, #66). A third respondent was more specific on *how* he or she facilitates learner autonomy: "I do not necessarily do everything at the same time, even though they have much freedom of choice. So it is not always possible for them to choose a working method, and they are not always free to choose freely between assessment forms either. So there are degrees of freedom of choice involved here as well" (own translation, #73). It seems that the respondents facilitate learner autonomy in different manners: they vary on what the students can choose from, which students they focus on learner autonomy with, and how often they facilitate learner autonomy. The various manners of the facilitation of learner autonomy seem often to be based on how independent and responsible the teachers perceive their students to be.

The two previous paragraphs display some of the follow-up comments from the teachers on the question, "How do you facilitate learner autonomy?". The comments mostly involved how frequently the respondents facilitate learner autonomy and with what students. In the following paragraphs, the answers are based on the same question, but here, the respondents describe in detail what methods and strategies they use to promote learner autonomy. The table below offers the reader with a representation of categories that describe what methods or focus areas the teachers use to facilitate learner autonomy.

Table 4.14: Representation of how teachers facilitate learner autonomy

Category	**Frequency**	**%**
Choice/co-determination	43	55.84
Evaluation and reflection	30	38.96

Responsibility/control of own learning	13	16.88
Scaffolding	12	15.58
Student-teacher conversations	12	15.58
Learning objectives	10	12.99
Other	10	12.99
Differentiation/ adapted education	7	9.09
Methods/strategies	6	7.79

Choice/co-determination

The table above shows that teachers facilitate learner autonomy in many different ways. The first category, choice/co-determination, is the most common way to facilitate learner autonomy. Teachers give their students the freedom to choose in many different areas. One of those areas is assessments, where many teachers explained that they include the students in the planning process of assessments. Some mentioned that they let their students take part in deciding when they are going to have assessments, how many, what form, and what it should include. For example, students can choose the form of assessment, for instance, oral or written, where the students must choose the other form the next time. Other teachers let their students decide if the assessment should be summative or formative. Several teachers also said that their students can give inputs to form the assessment criteria. In addition, many let their students choose the evaluation form.

Another area the teachers let their students choose from is tasks. Teachers let students choose between tasks with different levels, but also what type of tasks. Some also let their students influence what the tasks consist of (for example, what theme) and how they are formed.

Students can also determine what theme they want to learn more about, when they want to learn about it, and what specific elements of that theme should be in focus. One teacher explained that he or she asks the students questions about what topic they prefer through an anonymous survey online. One teacher makes the students vote for what theme they want: "If we have worked with media in international English, the students themselves must define a research question within that topic. Sometimes I present three different themes with a film that represents each topic. I briefly introduce what the theme is about, what the film is about, and how we should work on this. Then the students get to vote on what topic we are addressing" (own translation, respondent #43). Another respondent described it this way: "When I start with

a specific theme, I let the students give feedback and inputs on it, and they also come up with additional information, or ideas of content, in addition to what I propose. It is a collaboration between them and me. It can also sometimes be the opposite, where I let the students come up with a theme or idea for a competence aim, and then I make a teaching program and tests that suit it" (own translation, #54).

Some teachers also let their students choose content, and this is done in several ways. For example, some let their students choose what poem or book they want to read or present, what movies they should watch, and others have projects where each student can choose their field of interest. Students are also included in deciding the activities. Some make recommendations of good texts or websites that the teacher and class can use as learning tools. Some students are even included in the process of planning the content for the year schedules.

Teachers also let their students choose the work form where students decide if they want to work independently, in pairs, or groups. Other teachers let their students decide what methods to use. For example, they let the students decide how they want to work with a text. Some ask the students what learning methods they prefer and let them choose between, for example, that the teacher presents a topic, or they watch a movie, or they listen to a podcast.

Evaluation and reflection

Many respondents said that they facilitate learner autonomy through evaluation and reflection. Teachers explained that they let their students evaluate both themselves and each other. What they evaluate varies from texts to presentations. Some teachers mentioned how they make their students evaluate themselves, and some stated that they do it by questionnaires, while others do it through conversations by asking them questions that help the students reflect on their learning process and progress. A lot of teachers said that they make their student evaluate their progress in English. Some explain that they do this by making their students read texts they wrote a long time ago and evaluate their progress. Others make their students describe what they have learned, their progress, strengths, and weaknesses, while some make them grade themselves. It varies how often they do it. Some do it after every lesson, some do it only after assessments, while others do it by the end of the year.

Responsibility/control of own learning

It is difficult to distinguish between if the teachers' comments should be categorized as responsibility/control of own learning or choice/co-determination, as these can be perceived as similar. If the learner is given a choice, he or she is also at the same time given responsibility.

However, some of the answers illustrated that there is a difference. For example, one teacher explained that she makes her students find grammatical errors in their texts themselves. This is not a matter of choice but a responsibility. In those cases, it is easy to label it under the category of responsibility and control. I also label it in this category if the respondents specifically write 'responsibility' or 'control'.

The teachers give their students responsibility in diverse ways. One teacher explained it this way: "I do not correct their written texts but give them feedback on, for example, semantical errors. They have to find out how to rewrite the text or sentences correctly on their own" (own translation, #1). Others make their students investigate topics on their own. Some teachers also make their students formulate questions for the tests, and set and write their own learning goals. Still others *talk* and *inform* their students about the responsibility they have. The teachers talk about the responsibility the students have for their own learning, and they discuss that they are becoming adults who have a responsibility to obtain the necessary tools, like for example, dictionaries and glossary books. In addition, teachers remind the students that they also need to be responsible by making notes of the lessons and to do their homework.

Scaffolding

Teachers did not mention that they scaffold their learners by using that exact word, but I labeled some of the teachers' comments as scaffolding based on the way they reported facilitating learner autonomy. Some teachers explained that they show their students what tools they need, how to use them, and that they help their students use them. One of the examples the teachers have mentioned is how to cite sources and where students can read about how to cite sources. Others mentioned that they show them how to use dictionaries and how to find reliable sources on the internet. Several teachers also said that they give their students tools to analyze texts and that they first show them how to analyze a text, then they analyze texts together, and finally, the students try to analyze texts on their own. Many teachers described themselves as a supervisor that lead the way by guiding the students through showing and teaching them about strategies that help them solve a task. These strategies included, for example, teaching the students reading strategies, strategies for memorizing, writing strategies, and strategies for learning new words and expressions.

Student-teacher conversations

One way that the teachers facilitate learner autonomy is though having student-teacher conversations. The teachers mentioned several aspects they talk about when they have these

conversations with their students. Some talk about the assessment forms, assessment results, the content (in assessments and the teaching in general), work forms, work methods, texts that the students have chosen, helping tools they have used, methods, and strategies. They also talk about how the students have used their time, how they have prioritized, and how their efforts have been. Finally, they talk about the student's self-evaluation, his or her strengths and weaknesses, progression, and what they need to work on going forward. In addition, some teachers also discussed the students' goals, ideas, expectations, collaboration with other students, and the student's wellbeing.

Learning objectives

A number of the teachers explained that they facilitate learner autonomy by making the learners familiar with the competence aims and clarifying the meaning of them so that they are recognizable and easy to interpret. Then, the learners set their own learning objectives and define criteria for their work.

Other

Ten respondents' answers were categorized as 'other'. This included answers such as "…" or "I do not facilitate learner autonomy often". There was also one comment that I struggled to categorize: "In order to get the students through the course, I am dependent on autonomy and therefore try to arrange for a high level and at the same time put out enough 'breadcrumbs' to guide those who need more control towards the goal" (own translation, #5).

Differentiation/adapted education

Some teachers explained that they facilitate learner autonomy by adapted education. Few of them explained *how* they can achieve differentiated education. The only teacher that described how, explained that he or she makes his or her students identify their needs through an evaluation, where the teacher tries to facilitate according to their needs.

Methods/strategies

Finally, few teachers mentioned that they focus on strategies as a way to facilitate learner autonomy but some said that they show their students learning strategies and learning methods that they can use to learn effectively. Most of them explained that they help their students and guide them when they do this, which is also a form of scaffolding and I have thus color-coded them both.

4.4.4.3 Logbooks

In Dam (2011), using logbooks for evaluation is said to be helpful for both the students, the teachers, and even the parents because it organizes the students' work into one place and makes it easy for the teachers and parents to keep track of the students' progress. Hence, one of the questions in the survey asked if the respondents make their students log their work. The question, along with the follow-up questions, is listed below:

Question 19:

If you get your students to log their work, answer:

A) Does it apply to all your students?

B) Where / how is it logged?

C) How often?

D) What type of work is logged?

E) Do you look at the log in hindsight?

Only 24 (31.17%) respondents answered that they get their students to log their work but not all 24 respondents answered every question (A-E). Below, the respondents' answers are presented.

A) Does it apply to all your students?

A total of 12 respondents answered that all their students write logbooks, while three respondents said that logbooks are only for some students. They did not mention the reason.

B) Where / how is it logged?

Thirteen respondents answered this question, and there were many different answers. None of the teachers described *how* the students log their work (for example, by using logbooks for evaluation where students use, for instance, Likert scales or smileys) but all of them reported using written logs. Most of them make their students log their work on their computers, either through OneNote, a folder in the online learning arena, the unit, or Google Docs. Some of the respondents also said that the students use their own notebooks to log work.

C) How often?

Table 4.15: How often the students use logbooks

Frequency	**n**
Weekly	2
Every two weeks	1
Monthly	1
After every lesson	3
After each theme or chapter	3
After projects/group projects	2
Once a year	2
Twice a year	3
Rarely	2

The table above illustrates how often the respondents make their students log work. According to Dam (2011), logbooks should include the entire learning process, so that the students can use it to plan, carry out, and evaluate their work. The numbers from the table above indicate that the teachers do not use logbooks as often as encouraged by Dam (2009), who points out that logbooks should be used daily.

D) What type of work is logged?

Table 4.16: What type of work is logged

Type of work	**n**
All types of work	2
Extensive projects	6
Individual work	1

The table above illustrates what type of work the teachers make their students log. Only two of them stated that their students log all types of work, while six of them explained that they only use logbooks in cases where the students have extensive projects, which also includes group projects. One said that the students log individual work exclusively.

E) Do you look at the log in hindsight?

In this question, the respondents were asked if they (meaning the teacher, the student, or both) look at the log in hindsight. All the 12 respondents that answered this question reported that they do look at the log in hindsight, although it varies between looking at the log alone (teacher/student) or together with the student. Few of them indicated that they look at the log together with the students. The majority of them explained that they, the teachers, look at it themselves, while their students do not. The teachers said that they look at the log to see what the students have done, the students' self-evaluation, and to create a foundation for student-teacher topic-based conversations. Some also look at the log together with their students when the teachers supervise the students' tasks or projects. One of them also mentioned that he or she sometimes gives the students feedback on their logs. The teachers that stated that only their students look at the logs in hindsight, explained that the students can use it as a helpful tool before assessments, to become aware of what they need to improve and to look for progress.

4.4.4.4 Variations in classes

The respondents were asked how they usually organize their lessons, and they could choose between three versions. Of course, teachers might vary between these versions but were asked to choose the version they use most often. The three versions are based on Dam (2011) and are listed below:

Version 1: Teacher talks -> students work -> summary together at the end of the session
Version 2: Teacher talks the entire session
Version 3: Students work the entire session

Seventy teachers selected version 1, none of them chose version 2, and finally, 7 of the teachers identified with version 3. None of the respondents chose version 2 (teacher talks the entire session), which suggests that all the teachers see the value of active learners in language learning. Version 1 is the most common way of organizing lessons and is similar to what Dam (2011) explains is an excellent way of organizing the lessons. According to Dam (2011), the most suitable way to organize the lessons if the teacher seeks to facilitate learner autonomy is to split the lesson in this order: teacher's time – student's time – together time. This way, the teacher can go through a topic or follow up on loose ends from other sessions, the students get to work on their own but with the teacher present and ready to help, and finally, they can reflect on the lesson, and the teacher can answer questions in plenary.

4.4.4.5 Different types of teaching

Question 20 asked the respondents if they work equally or differently with learner autonomy in their classes and to explain their answers. One of the limitations of this question is that I should have asked specifically *why* and *how* they work differently or equally. Nevertheless, many of the respondents gave detailed answers.

Table 4.17: Consistency in the facilitation of learner autonomy

Facilitation of learner autonomy in classes	**n**	**Percent**
Equal	10	12.99
Different	65	84.42
No answer	2	2.6

The table above illustrates how many teachers that facilitate learner autonomy equally or differently in their classes. Two respondents did not respond to this question.

1. Respondents who facilitate learner autonomy equally in all classes

Ten of the respondents answered that they facilitate learner autonomy equally in all their classes. Some made clear that they do it because they have few students in each class, and others explained that it is because they want to have a routine; the same approach in all subjects and classes. Some also underlined that even though they have the same approach, it works differently in terms of the group's attitudes, habits, and prerequisites.

2. Respondents who facilitate learner autonomy differently in all classes

Sixty-five of the respondents reported that they facilitate learner autonomy differently with their classes. From their responses, I could detect four overarching arguments that repeatedly occurred as reasons for facilitating learner autonomy differently. They were a) the classes are different, b) vocational and general studies are different, c) the levels are different (vg1, vg2, vg3), d) the number of students in classes is different.

A) Different classes

Thirty-six respondents explained that they facilitate learner autonomy because of how the classes are different. It is possible that some respondents were thinking of different classes in terms of level and program, but the majority of the ones that are counted here did not mention level and program but rather behavior, language proficiency, and motivation. The respondents underlined that different components play a part in why they facilitate learner autonomy differently in different classes, and I list them here: the students' metacognition, starting point, behavior, independence, interest, motivation, needs, language proficiency, maturity, professional level, and class dynamics. One teacher explained, "[It] depends on how motivated they are. If they only want to watch movies and do as little as possible, I give them less room for learner autonomy. If they show that they are interested and that they want to influence their own learning, I give them more room)" (own translation, respondent #29). Another one of the respondents also argued that he or she facilitate learner autonomy differently because "some classes like to be part of the decision-making, while others do not" (own translation, respondent #42).

B) Different programs

Eight of the teachers answered that they facilitate learner autonomy differently in the different programs (general studies and vocational studies). All of them claimed to facilitate learner autonomy more in general studies than in vocational studies.

C) Different levels

Seventeen teachers reported that they facilitate learner autonomy differently because of the different levels. Sixteen of the teachers explained that they put more focus on learner autonomy or are more open to facilitating learner autonomy with more adult students. Many of them mentioned that they have a stronger focus on autonomy in vg3 than in vg1, and some even stated that they nearly do not focus on autonomy in vg1 at all. One explained that "autonomy gradually develops with age, so it is budding in vg1 and considerable in vg3. Younger students are given alternatives, while older students are freer but still given certain constraints" (own translation, respondent #27). In contrast, one of the 17 teachers who answered that they facilitate learner autonomy differently, explained that he or she has a stronger focus on learner autonomy in vg1: "I focus more on autonomy in vg1. The curriculum is more open, and students are more mature and have a better understanding in vg2 and vg3, so it is not 'needed' as much at higher levels as it is in vg1" (own translation, respondent #55). The results from the

qualitative descriptions are coherent to the results from the quantitative descriptions, which indicate that teachers facilitate learner autonomy less in vg1 and more in vg3.

D) Different number of students

Four of the respondents reported that they choose to facilitate learner autonomy because they have a different number of students in each class. One respondent explained why: "In large classes (34-35 students), it is harder to have one-to-one conversations about the learning process" (own translation, respondent #47). Another respondent underlined that it is "hard to follow up large classes" (own translation, respondent #22).

4.5 Discussion of the Findings

The following sections try to answer the main research question, as well as the three additional research questions. In the following sections, I try to answer the research questions and to analyze them by looking for patterns and meanings of the findings. The findings are compared to similar studies and discussed to relevant theory. Firstly, the main research question is discussed.

4.5.1 The main research question

In the present section, I answer the main research question, "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?". A topic such as this is, in my view, important to investigate as it displays how learner autonomy is practiced in school, and hence, at the same time, it indicates how the concept of learner autonomy is understood. To answer this research question, I first examine teachers' perceptions and beliefs about learner autonomy, and secondly, I inspect teachers' practices that illustrate *how* teachers facilitate learner autonomy. In the following sections, I first list the most salient findings related to the main research question. Then, I analyze the findings and discuss how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school. Salient findings related to the main research question "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?" are listed below:

- 96% of the respondents facilitate learner autonomy. 4% of the respondents do not.
- 57% of the respondents facilitate learner autonomy weekly or more often.
- Students' enhancement of motivation and the skill of learning to learn are the two most frequent reasons for facilitating learner autonomy.
- If the teachers are unsure of how to facilitate learner autonomy, they are less likely to facilitate it.
- Teachers who facilitate learner autonomy partly are statistically significantly more unsure about how to promote it than those who facilitate it fully [p = .031].
- Teachers who facilitate learner autonomy partly see it as being statistically significantly more time-consuming than do those who facilitate it fully [p = .021].
- 84.42% of the teachers facilitate learner autonomy differently in different classes. Only 12.99% facilitate learner autonomy in the same way in all their classes.
- Teachers believe that teaching their students how to learn on their own is the most important practice in the facilitation of learner autonomy.
- The most common way for teachers to facilitate learner autonomy is by giving their students freedom of choice in tasks and work forms.
- Using logbooks is the least preferred method to facilitate learner autonomy. 31.17% of the teachers use logbooks.
- 91% of the teachers organize their lessons where the teacher talks, students work, followed by a summary together at the end of the session. 9% of the teachers organize their lessons where the students work the entire session.

Beliefs and attitudes

The findings show that most teachers facilitate learner autonomy, which indicates that the LK06 allows for learner autonomy to be implemented in practice. As Little (2008) explains, the facilitation of learner autonomy requires the curriculum to be open to the degree that allows the teachers to determine the way they want to teach. Knaldre (2015) asserts that LK06 gives Norwegian teachers method-freedom, but that it simultaneously places a certain responsibility on the teacher. In the present study, Norwegian teachers facilitate learner autonomy, which

indicates that they find LK06 to be open to a degree where they are able to facilitate learner autonomy. Unfortunately, I did not explicitly ask the respondents about their attitudes towards LK06, however, in Haglund's (2018) study, the respondents were asked if they thought LK06 gave them enough freedom to promote learner autonomy. The results suggested that the respondents seemed to think LK06 is open to the degree where they can facilitate learner autonomy, whereas 29% of them reported that they "completely agree", 36,5% chose "partly agree", 19,5% stated "either or/neutral", 13% chose "partly disagree, and 2% reported that they "completely disagree". In her article, Trebbi (2008, p. 50) supports the conception of the Norwegian framework as open and explains that "learner autonomy is a realistic goal within the framework of current legislation".

On the other hand, Trebbi (2008, p. 50) argues that "the ambiguity of official discourse does not promote learner autonomy in a straightforward way". In other words, LK06 displays vague and unclear ways to facilitate learner autonomy. Nevertheless, the ambiguity in the current curricular framework does not seem to hinder the teachers in this study to facilitate learner autonomy, so how do teachers know how they facilitate learner autonomy and what guidelines do they follow? Perhaps teachers facilitate learner autonomy not through curricular guidelines, but through their beliefs about learner autonomy. Trebbi (2008) explains that beliefs and attitudes often have a stronger impact on classroom practices than do curricular guidelines and reforms and that therefore, the teachers develop innovative teaching themselves. In this study, teachers find learner autonomy valuable to language learning, as most identified it as partially important and important (see Table 4.3). Concludingly, teachers may facilitate learner autonomy not only because they are obligated to hand on responsibility to their learners (Kunnskapsdepartementet,1998) but because they are motivated to do so by their positive beliefs and attitudes to learner autonomy in language learning. Followingly, it is likely that teachers facilitate learner autonomy based on their attitudes and beliefs, instead of curricular guidelines and educational framework, as the framework is ambiguous in terms of how to promote learner autonomy.

As teachers are likely to base their facilitation of learner autonomy on their own beliefs and attitudes of it, it is important to examine what those beliefs and attitudes are. The findings in this study show that teachers find learner autonomy valuable and somewhat important to language learning (see Table 4.3). Related to this finding, studies show the same indication (see examples in Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Haglund, 2018; Nakata, 2011; Ürün et al., 2014). In this study, teachers assume that the most advantageous effects of learner autonomy are that it enhances their students' motivation and improve their students' skill of learning to learn (see

Table 4.4). These two factors are incredibly beneficial for both language learning and learning in general (Council of Europe, 2001; Cornford, 2002; Ushioda, 2014; Dickinson, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000, Lasagabaster et al., 2014). Similarly, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012a) found that learning to learn and motivation are perceived by the teachers in their study as the two most eminent reasons for developing learner autonomy. That learner autonomy could increase motivation was also the most common answer in Haglund's (2018) study, however, learning to learn was only mentioned by three out of 200 respondents. Considering that many teachers see these two elements as the benefits of learner autonomy, it is not surprising that they perceive learner autonomy as important. In the following, we discuss some of the teachers' comments that relate to why they think motivation and learning to learn are two of the prominent benefits of facilitating learner autonomy.

One respondent commented that "I think that learner autonomy leads to independent choices and actions, which can affect effort and motivation in subjects the student does not feel are relevant to them" (own translation, #56). This quote suggests that being included in their own learning and taking responsibility and decisions leads to motivation. Others reasoned that "If you understand how and why you learn and can reflect independently around these matters, you will eventually be aware that you have the control, which can strengthen motivation and effort" (own translation, #53). This respondent seems to think that learner autonomy is about reflecting on the learning process; in other words, metacognition. The respondent further mentions that metacognition can lead to enhanced motivation and effort. Another respondent also mentioned that learner autonomy can spur metacognitive abilities: "Awareness of who you are and what you do and why and how" (own translation, #7). Ushioda (2014) explains the close relationship between metacognition and motivation, which he again connects to self-agency and learner autonomy. He explains that if the learners are involved in their own learning process by, for example, setting meaningful short-term goals, they need to reflect on their abilities and needs, which enhances their metacognitive awareness of their developing language skills (Ushioda, 2014, p. 36). Being involved in the learning process can create a sense of agency or personal control, which again can increase intrinsic motivation for learning, as intrinsic motivation is "underpinned by perceptions of competence and autonomy (in the sense of personal agency)" (Ushioda, 2014, p. 36). Autonomy, metacognition, and motivation are thus described as co-dependent factors, which some teachers touched upon in their comments.

Others reflected on how learner autonomy can lead to the skill of learning to learn. The comment from the following respondent seems to reflect on the ability of learning to learn rooted in curiosity and nourished by a different type of corporation of knowledge, "When it

comes to learner autonomy, I see that the students store and use the information in a different way than when they are 'force-fed' with information from us teachers. It generates curiosity and ownership to the knowledge they learn on their own" (own translation, #12). It is unclear here what 'in a different way' means; however, it can indicate that the students are able to *use* the knowledge. Since the teacher mentions ownership, perhaps this teacher is referring to what Barnes (1976, as cited in Dam, 2011) calls action knowledge – a type of knowledge where the learner adjusts it to their own world views, make it their own, and use this knowledge to cope with living. To achieve this, the learner must be able to transfer the acquired knowledge and to use it in different situations. Littlewood (1996) explains that autonomous learners acquire knowledge autonomously. Council of Europe (2001) calls this ability or competence for skills and know-how – the learner's ability to *use* their knowledge, for example, to be able to use the internet as a learning resource. The ability of learning to learn is explained to be advantageous for the job market, as they are more likely to have a better encounter with new situations and challenges (Little, 2008). Learning to learn is thus an important skill, and it is significant that teachers perceive it as one of the two most advantageous outcomes of learner autonomy. Since the teachers view learner autonomy to enhance this skill, they must perceive learner autonomy as important, which in this study, we find that they do (see Table 4.3). In the following paragraphs, we will look at teachers' practices of learner autonomy.

Teachers' practices

Based on the teachers' statements, I drew patterns that symbolize a general meaning for many of the teachers (see Table 4.14 for a full overview of how teachers claimed they facilitate learner autonomy). In the following paragraphs, I discuss three of the main findings of how teachers facilitate learner autonomy. I have sectioned these findings into 'choices', 'evaluation and reflection', and 'responsibility'. Finally, I also include a section where I make comments on other aspects of how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy.

- *Choices*

One of the key findings in this study is that teachers reported that they facilitate learner autonomy mainly by including their learners in decision-making, of which 43 teachers stated this. The teachers include their learners in many aspects of the learning process, like work forms, tasks, activities, assessment forms, and other aspects. Scholars such as Little (2006), Benson (2011), and Dam (2011) suggest that including learners in decision making is crucial

to learners' development of autonomy because it the feeling of personal agency generates motivation and stimulates critical thinking (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fenner, 2006; Ushioda, 2014). Dam (2011) also suggests that this inclusion involves choices of activities, partners, content, aims, evaluation forms, and more. Hence, it appears that Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in a satisfactory manner. In related studies, teachers' practices of learner autonomy are also often based on the learners' inclusion in choices (see Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012b; Dwee & Anthony, 2017; Haglund, 2018), which signals the importance teachers embed decision making for learner autonomy.

Since including the learners in decision-making appears to be the most common way to facilitate learner autonomy for Norwegian EFL teachers in high school, it is vital that teachers are aware that choices also can be demotivational. Students can feel that having too many options and choices is stressful and overwhelming (Tian & Wu, 2019). Hence, too many choices may be counterproductive and induce decreased motivation (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000). Instead, the teacher must a) give choices that meet the students' needs that are related to their goals, interests, and preferences, b) adequate level of difficulty, and c) include the opportunity of social learning and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These aspects of choices are crucial to take into consideration when giving learners options and it displays how the options the teachers give their learners must be reflected. In sum, it is vital that teachers contemplate the choices they give their learners and that they are aware of the impacts choice opportunities can have.

- Evaluation and reflection

The respondents find the role of evaluation and reflection vital to the work of developing learner autonomy, and in this study, it is the second most common way to facilitate it. It appears that many teachers make their students use evaluations, as thirty teachers stated that they use evaluation and reflection to facilitate learner autonomy. Scholars underline the importance of evaluation to support language learning as it sparks metacognition and enhances motivation (Dam, 2011; Little, 2006; Thanasoulas, 2000; Ushioda, 2014). Dam (2011) emphasizes the necessity of using logbooks in this process because it enables the learners to plan and carry out the work, as well as it is excellent for keeping an overview of the learners' progress. Logbooks can open for authentic communication between the learner, the teacher, and the parents (Dam, 2011). However, the least common way to facilitate learner autonomy is to encourage the students to log their work. Additionally, no teachers mentioned logbooks in the qualitative descriptions of how to facilitate learner autonomy. When asked about logbooks, only 31.17%

stated that their students use logbooks, and only 15.58% claimed that they make *all* their students write logbooks. Related to this finding, only two of 200 teachers in Haglund's study (2018) reported to use logbooks.

Is it possible that teachers are not aware of the benefits of using logbooks to facilitate learner autonomy? Or do they feel that it is too time-consuming? Little (1991) and Dam (2009) suggest that teachers are likely to feel that logbooks are unnecessary and time-consuming when they do not know how advantageous it can be. Hence, teacher educators and school leaders must make teachers acquainted with the benefits and use of logbooks.

- *Responsibility*

The findings indicated that 13 teachers believed that the facilitation of learner autonomy should be based on helping students to (in some degree) take control over and have responsibility for their own learning (see Table 4.7), and many teachers reported that they place responsibility on their students to become autonomous learners (see Table 4.14). In this study, giving the students responsibility is one of the top three approaches to facilitate learner autonomy. However, the findings showed that many find their students to be irresponsible and sometimes take advantage of the situation when they are given responsibility. Teachers listed this as a severe challenge in the work of developing autonomous learners. The consequence can thus be, that sometimes, teachers refrain from giving their learners responsibility. In regards to responsibility and this paradox, a further discussion is offered in Section 4.5.4 because it is relevant to the discussion of the third research question.

- Other

Teachers also mentioned some other ways they facilitate learner autonomy: scaffolding, student-teacher conversations, learning objectives, adapted education, and methods and strategies, respectively. These are discussed below.

Scaffolding

Only 12 of the teachers in this study mentioned scaffolding to facilitate learner autonomy; however, it is in the top four ways to facilitate learner autonomy. Related findings are seen in Haglund (2018), where 16 teachers scaffold their learners for the students to become autonomous. In the present study, teachers explained that they scaffold their students by talking and informing them about the responsibility the students have for their own learning, for doing

their homework, and taking notes of the lessons. Teachers stated that they have student-teacher conversations where the teacher emphasizes the adult that the learner is becoming, and the responsibility that follows. These strategies are significant to learner autonomy because teachers can alter their learners' self-beliefs through how they talk about them as learners (Riley, 2012). No teachers mentioned further strategies for enabling the students' critical thinking of the learning process and private inner speech (Ushioda, 2014), as discussed in Section 2.6.1.

Student-teacher conversations

Additionally, 12 teachers also mentioned that they facilitate learner autonomy through student-teacher conversations where they discuss the students' weaknesses, strengths, progress, and other aspects. It is not possible to draw conclusions of whether the mentioned topics of these student-teacher conversations (see Table 4.14) directly develops learner autonomy, however, it can be motivational for the learner and hence, if the students are more aware of what their goals are and how to achieve them, it can possibly spark the drive to become more independent. In this regard, a student-teacher conversation is a form of scaffolding, but of course, this depends on what is accomplished. It can also be regarded as a form of evaluation. Furthermore, the teacher can reflect on the student's learning, enabling the teacher to focus on learning, not teaching, which, according to Dam (2011), is crucial. At the same time, this type of conversation is also an authentic language learning situation, where the student can act as a genuine communicator in the target language. Hence, if the teacher makes use of the advantageous facets student-teacher conversations can generate, they are of particular value to the development of learner autonomy.

Learning objectives

Ten teachers said that they facilitate learner autonomy by making the students familiar with the competence aims and make the learners set their own learning objectives and define criteria for their work. Learning objectives can help learners feel more motivated because the criteria are based on their own goals, needs, and preferences, as well as making them feel more responsible for the learning outcome (Dickinson, 1994; Holec, 1981). It enables them to depend less on the teacher because when they acquire a subjective knowledge that feels personal, they become more invested and independent (Holec, 1981). However, studies show that there are reservations about this matter. In Haglund's (2018, p.54) study, half of the teachers were 'to a medium extent' open to having their learners take part in the learning objectives, and the other

half was partly critical to it. In addition, in Borg and Al-Busaidi's study, including the learners in deciding learning objectives was one of the least feasible and desirable practices in language learning (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012b). Contrarily, Balçıkanlı (2010) found in his study that most student teachers were positive to include the learners in deciding learning objectives, but that the teacher needed to be involved in the process. It seems thus that both student teachers and teachers have some reservations about including their learners in deciding learning objectives. Therefore, it is not surprising that as little as ten teachers claimed that they use learning objectives to facilitate learner autonomy in this study. Teachers might find it hard to balance the control learners should have in deciding learning objectives and how much the teachers should be involved in this process.

Adapted education

Seven teachers stated that they facilitate learner autonomy through focusing on adapted education, but few described *how.* Instead, teachers argued that it is difficult. In Section 4.5.4, this issue is discussed further.

Methods/strategies

Finally, six teachers reported that they focus on strategies to facilitate learner autonomy and explained that they show their students strategies and methods they can use for effective learning. However, none described what these strategies were, and thus, this does not form a proper foundation for a discussion.

Finally, 91% of the teachers reported that they organize their lessons by 'sectioning' them into three components: teacher's time, student's time, and together time, respectively. By organizing the lessons in this manner, teachers allow the students to work independently, and grant the learners time to work actively instead of being passive recipients of knowledge. At the same time, teachers can introduce new topics, and by the end of the lesson, the class can collectively reflect and elaborate on matters that were interesting or unclear, what they learnt, and evaluate the lesson. Such structuring of the lessons supports the idea of 'learning instead of teaching' (Dam, 2011), where the focus is centered upon the learner and the learning outcome. However, it is not given that the focus is set on learning instead of teaching, even though the learners work independently; it is necessary that the learning is reflected upon in hindsight, to gain insight as to *how* one learns and what strategies that are efficient.

The remaining 9% of the teachers reported that they most often let their students work the entire session. It is not unlikely that the teachers' focus on 'the active student' is affected

by the emphasis it has in LK06 and the even stronger attention it is given the renewal of the subjects. While it is important that teachers encourage students to be active and independent, it is also necessary that the teacher is involved and monitors them. Evaluation and reflection of the learning process is also crucial to increase the students' metacognitive skills, so they can develop strategies for independent work.

In conclusion, teachers make use of various strategies and methods to facilitate learner autonomy. Many are represented in this study; however, because the findings are based on teachers' self-rapports and cognitions about what they *think* they do, the order of the most common or uncommon ways to facilitate learner autonomy may be arbitrary. In other words, strategies for effective learning is listed as the least favorable way teachers facilitate learner autonomy, but it can be random due to the fact that teachers may have forgotten to mention this particular way of facilitating learner autonomy. It can also be a discrepancy in what teachers *think* they do and what they *actually* do.

Also, the findings are presented based on how I have interpreted and categorized them, which may have been interpreted falsely. In addition, when it comes to researching teaching practices, it is difficult to examine and ask questions that also take into consideration that all students and classes are different. Hence, it was difficult to ask questions that were based on practices in general, while at the same time, account for specific situations or students or classes. This was also mirrored in the answers from the respondents. All the while, it seems that there exists a pattern for a popular way to facilitate learner autonomy, namely, to include learners in their learning process by giving them choices. This was also reflected in other studies, such as Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012b) and Haglund (2018). Whether these choices are meaningful and actually acted upon, is another matter.

4.5.2 The first additional research question

In this section, I answer the first research question, "Do teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently?". I examine this question because it can display the manner of how teachers facilitate learner autonomy and disclose the reasons they facilitate it in a particular way. To answer this question, I first discuss the frequency of teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy. Next, I elaborate on the teachers' equal or different facilitation of learner autonomy. Salient findings related to the first additional research question "Do teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently?" are listed below:

- 84.42% of the teachers facilitate learner autonomy differently in different classes.
- 12.99% of the teachers facilitate learner autonomy equally in different classes.
- 57% of the respondents facilitate learner autonomy weekly or more often.

Frequency

Most of the teachers try to facilitate it weekly or more. In all, 57% do it weekly or more, which shows that teachers facilitate learner autonomy often. This is promising to see; however, learner autonomy is a full-time process and should be facilitated in all lessons to reach its full potential. It is possible that many teachers know this and respect this but feel that they cannot facilitate it more often due to the challenges they experience in the work of facilitating learner autonomy. Many teachers said that they facilitate learner autonomy because they think it leads to a better learning outcome, motivation, and lifelong learning but still reported that they facilitate learner autonomy monthly or rarer. If the teachers believe that learner autonomy can give their students these important benefits for language learning, they likely *want* to facilitate learner autonomy more often but do not feel like they have the time. A lot of the respondents stated this as a limitation to their facilitation of learner autonomy.

It is also possible that their work in facilitating learner autonomy is not really intentional, and that they 'just do it', as some have mentioned. Some have explained that they sometimes give the learners choices in activities and contents without really having an agenda of making the learners more autonomous. This could be the reason why some teachers facilitate learner autonomy weekly, monthly, or rarely. In addition to this, some have stated that they facilitate learner autonomy because the school administration asked them to. The same respondent reported that he or she facilitates learner autonomy weekly. If the work in facilitating learner autonomy is not inspired by the teacher him- or herself, it is possible that the motivation for facilitating learner autonomy may be lower and thus, less consistent.

Consistency in classes

This paper examines variations of the facilitation of learner autonomy in classes because it can disclose attitudes to learners as a group, which is interesting to investigate. The variations can, for example, involve whether the teacher includes learners in decision-making in one class but not the other. Consistency is thus when the teacher applies the same strategies for the facilitation of learner autonomy in all classes.

Only 12.99% of the teachers mentioned that they facilitate learner autonomy routinely and consistently in all classes. Teachers claimed that the reasons why they do it equally are because some have few students, while others wanted routines. Is consistency in classes important? According to Scharle & Szabo (2007), *consistent rules* are important because they indicate the teacher's expectations. Dam (2011) also underlines that it is essential that the students are aware of what is expected of them. However, these rules and expectations can vary from class to class. Additionally, teachers in the present study underlined that consistent approaches do not always have the same outcome. The outcome can be different in terms of the group's attitudes, habits, and prerequisites. That various classes (and levels/programs) respond differently to the same approach also mirrors that classes have different needs. Since 84.42% of the teachers facilitate learner autonomy differently in various classes, it indicates that teachers perceive classes differently, and also that different classes have different needs.

Concludingly, it appears that few teachers have consistent ways to facilitate learner autonomy. Instead, consistency in ways of facilitating learner autonomy mostly depends on the class, level and program, and (as we shall see in Section 4.5.4) the student.

4.5.3 The second additional research question

In this section, I answer the second additional research question, "Do the teachers' backgrounds (e.g. age and gender) affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy?". This question is raised because it can tell us something about the factors that come into play (or not) in the facilitation of learner autonomy. To answer this research question, I collected the respondents' background variables such as gender, age, county, years of experience, level and program, and type of education. I then used SPSS to compare these variables to their responses to all questions from the survey. I first list the most salient findings related to this research question, before I analyze the findings and discuss how the teachers' backgrounds affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy. It should be noted that it appears that there is little if any research that regards teachers' facilitation of learner autonomy based on their backgrounds, and thus, few studies are included for comparison. Salient findings related to the second additional research question "Do the teachers' background variables affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy?" are listed here:

- Teachers in vg1 vocational studies facilitate learner autonomy the least.
- Teachers in vg3 facilitate learner autonomy the most.

- Teachers in vg3 are statistically significantly more positive regarding the facilitation of learner autonomy [F(1,75) = 4.271, p = .042].
- Female teachers think it is more time-consuming to facilitate learner autonomy than male teachers [U = 383.000, p = .027].
- Male teachers are more positive than female teachers when it comes to including the students in choosing activities [U = 778.000, p = .012] and in the assessment process [U= 798.000, p = .005].

Level and program

The list above illustrates that there are some minor differences in certain areas when it comes to what level and program the teachers work. The results indicated that teachers who work in vg3 are more positive regarding the facilitation of learner autonomy. This result matches the teachers' qualitative responses, where they explained that they facilitate learner autonomy more in vg3 general studies than in vg1 vocational studies. One teacher responded to what abilities the students must have to be able to facilitate learner autonomy, and claimed that: "Students are like electricity: they choose the path with the least resistance. This is especially true for VG1 vocational subjects - and the answers here are vastly different based on which student groups we are talking about, so the results here will not be quite right without that distinction" (own translation, #31). This respondent seems to indicate that passive behavior is more common for students in vg1 vocational subjects. The respondent also seems to categorize the students in 'student groups', where a group of students – for example, vg1 vocational students - are more or less likely to have the abilities mentioned in Table 4.6.

It appears from the qualitative descriptions that many teachers identify the levels as an indicator for the students' maturity, where higher-level students (vg3) are considered more mature than lower-level students (vg1). Teachers explained that they gradually develop learner autonomy, where many give their vg3-students considerably more responsibility than vg1-students. Dam (2011) explains that learner autonomy is, in fact, a gradual process, which must align with the learners' capability for assuming responsibility. The level of autonomy increases when the learner takes more responsibility, which presupposes that the learner practices this responsibility. Thus, it is not surprising that teachers facilitate learner autonomy to some extent in vg1 and more in vg3.

Notwithstanding, students are all different, and teachers can hence only *assume* and *believe* that vg1-students are less mature than vg3-students. In that regard, teachers must do individual considerations based on students' needs and prerequisites. It is important that

teachers do not categorize students and view them as a group instead of as individuals, especially when it comes to their abilities. It is, therefore, essential that teachers are aware of this tendency of attitude towards vg1 vocational students. Summarily, when it comes to what level and program teachers work at, the teachers' backgrounds thus do affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy.

Gender

The results indicated that there are statistically significant differences between genders in the perceived disadvantages of learner autonomy. Female teachers think it is more time-consuming to facilitate learner autonomy than do male teachers. Since teacher cognitions affect the classroom practices (Borg, 2003), are female teachers more likely than men not to facilitate learner autonomy? In this study, this is not the case, and it seems that even though female teachers feel that the facilitation is time-consuming, they nevertheless facilitate it. Perhaps it affects not if they facilitate learner autonomy, but how? Ürün et al. (2014) found a significant difference in terms of genders between ELT high school teachers in Turkey related to the student-centered dimension of facilitating learner autonomy, where female teachers used student-centered practices to facilitate learner autonomy more than males did. Similarly, Evrekli, Şaşmaz Ören, and İnel (2010) studied student teachers' self-efficacy levels for implementing the constructivist approach with respect to gender and found that female student teachers implemented more constructive theories than did males. The finding from Ürün et al. (2014) is interesting and should be further investigated in a Norwegian context.

However, the results also indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between genders in how they facilitate learner autonomy: male teachers are more positive regarding the students' participation in choosing activities and students' inclusion in the assessment process. This suggests that in Norway, male teachers are more student-centered when it comes to the two points mentioned above. The gender inequalities in this paper indicate that the teachers' gender affects how teachers perceive and facilitate learner autonomy in terms of time-consummation and inclusion of students in assessment processes and activities. In sum, both the teachers' gender and the level and program they work at affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy.

4.5.4 The third additional research question

In this section, I answer the research question, "Do teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy?". This question is asked because it is interesting to see if teachers' negative perceptions of their students' abilities affect the facilitation of learner autonomy or the opposite. In the case of the first scenario, teachers' negative beliefs can potentially hinder the facilitation of learner autonomy. Hence, we must identify what factors come into play to eliminate or ease the potential challenges in the process. I first list the most salient findings related to this research question, and followingly, I analyze the findings and discuss the topic. Salient findings related to the third additional research question, "Do teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy?" are listed here:

- Teachers are more likely to facilitate learner autonomy in vg3 general studies than in vg1 vocational studies [$F(1,75) = 4.271$, $p = .042$].
- Teachers perceive students in vg3 general studies as more responsible and mature than students in vg1 vocational studies.
- Teachers prefer to facilitate learner autonomy with mature and responsible students.
- Teachers are hesitant to facilitate learner autonomy if they believe that the learner is irresponsible and immature.
- To facilitate learner autonomy, teachers believe that learners must have the ability to act responsibly.
- Teachers perceive the students' inability to identify their own needs as the most disadvantageous side of the facilitation of learner autonomy.

Based on the discussion in the previous section (Section 4.5.3) concerning how many teachers are more hesitant to facilitate learner autonomy with vg1 vocational students, it is likely to assume that the facilitation of learner autonomy is dependent on the teachers' perceptions of their students' abilities. Why is this the case, if teachers perceive learner autonomy as important (see Table 4.3), and find it to enhance motivation and the skill of learning to learn (see Table 4.11)? Haglund's study (2018, p. 89) also argued that Norwegian EFL teachers think learner autonomy can have a positive effect on EFL learning, and 85,5% of the participants in her study answered that they see aspects of learner autonomy which can

facilitate learning. However, it seems that the challenges of learner autonomy can stand in the way – and one of them is the teachers' beliefs of their learners' abilities. Based on pitfalls encountered by language teachers who wanted to facilitate learner autonomy, Dam (2011) points out that teachers must avoid a lack of confidence in their learners' ability to assume responsibility. Unfortunately, however, it seems that this notion is a prevalent attitude.

One of the findings in this study is that most teachers think that their learners must be able to identify their needs, strengths, weaknesses, progress, and evaluate their own learning before the teacher can facilitate learner autonomy (see Table 4.6). Teachers think it is most important that students are able to identify their needs. In the qualitative descriptions of the teachers' perceptions of the learner's ability to develop autonomy, however, no teacher explicitly mentioned learners' 'needs', but rather, the majority elaborated on the learner's responsibility and maturity. To identify needs can possibly, in this context, be synonymous with identifying what learners need to do to learn. The lack thereof seems to be considered irresponsible.

One respondent touched this topic and claimed that "Many students are too immature to be able to become autonomous" (own translation, #5). This reflects upon the students' ability to be responsible and presupposes that learners must be mature before they can develop autonomy. Another respondent drew on the challenge of irresponsible students and claimed that "Some students see it as an opportunity to ease the demands and workload" (own translation, #26). Perhaps 'it' refers to freedom of choice or a form of independence. If the students get to work independently and see this situation as a chance to ease the workload, the student does not identify his or her need to work in order to learn. Thus, the teacher can associate independent work with a negative outcome, which might affect their choices in how they facilitate learner autonomy. If teachers experience that their students take advantage of situations where the students can be independent, it could result in that teachers become hesitant to give them responsibilities, choices, and organize situations where they can work independently. The common notion seems to be that: if the learner is not mature from the start, he or she is not able to – if complete freedom of choices are given - make good choices for themselves, and will thus not be autonomous, which again means that they will not be able to experience the benefits of learner autonomy. According to Holec (1981) and Dickinson (1994), to develop learner autonomy, the learners must be both willing and capable of taking responsibility. Thus, the teacher brings a relevant and essential argument into the discussion of the benefits of learner autonomy.

Other teachers also commented on this matter, "One of the prerequisites of learner

autonomy should, in my view, be to have a certain degree of self-regulation. The students should be able to plan, have an overview, and organize their own work before they can understand what goals they should set based on their own level. They should have a certain overview of strengths and weaknesses so that they can set realistic goals for themselves. In many cases, it can be smart that the teacher helps the students to initiate this process" (own translation, #33). This supports the notion that learner autonomy presupposes a degree of independence, but this teacher also mentioned the teacher's role in this process. The respondent seems to indicate that teachers should be a guide, which is supported by Little (1999, 2000a, 2000b, as cited in Little, 2003, para.3), who claims that the teacher should "create and maintain a learning environment in which learners can be autonomous in order to become more autonomous". It is thus the teacher's duty to ensure that the learners are given the balance of freedom and guidelines to increase their degree of self-direction. Bruner (1966) also agrees to this and claims that the goal of instruction should be to make the learner more self-sufficient.

The teacher's role is also reflected upon in terms of control and the degree of control, "So far, I have only experienced negative aspects of it [learner autonomy] if the students get too much control. It is important that the pedagogical and didactical is ensured by the teacher through ultimately having some control him- or herself" (own translation, #25). This teacher explained that he or she think learner autonomy is negative if the learners have 'too much' control. This teacher did not mention what he or she implies by 'too much control', but mentioned that it is vital that the teacher also has control, which indicates that it is necessary to maintain a balance where both the learner and the teacher have control. The respondent explained that the teacher should be in control of the pedagogical and didactical but did not explain what he or she means by this. The respondent may see the teacher's role as a scaffolder – to assist the students in reaching a level of knowledge or skill in situations where they are not able to reach this level themselves (Rotella, 2011). Scholars (Dam, 2011; Vygotsky, 1996; Masouleh & Jooneghani, 2012) agree that a balance of control and assistance is important in the work of developing autonomous learners. The respondent thus reflects on an essential side of the facilitation of learner autonomy – responsibility and control must gradually develop in cooperation and within guidelines from the teacher. Dam (2011) however, underlines that it is essential to remember that the development of learner autonomy depends on that the teacher learns to gradually 'let go' of the control.

The teacher's role in supporting the learners' responsibility is also reflected in the regulations for the Education Act for primary and secondary education and training (§ 1-1), which states that students have the right to adapted education and should have a joint

responsibility and the right to participate (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 1998). In addition, it is also emphasized (§ 1-3) that education must adapt to the abilities and aptitudes of the individual learner (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 1998). Udir (2015) points out that it is important that the students are involved in their own learning and development, and that teachers can achieve adapted education through involving the students in decision-making, such as learning material, work forms, organization, progression, and assessment. Udir (2015) explains that this requires the teachers to know their students and to adapt the education based on the students' experiences, prerequisites, and progression. Adapted education can be difficult when there are many students, but Udir (2015) explains that it is essential that the teacher *use* the diversity of their students as a tool and a resource to adapt education. However, even though there are many ideas on how to achieve adapted education, it does not mean that the teachers could face difficulties in this process. After all, there are many different needs, preferences, prerequisites to take into consideration, which can be time-consuming. One respondent contemplated that adapted education in large groups challenges the facilitation of learner autonomy, "The demand for adapted education comes into play. Student groups consist of diversity, some are mature, and others are immature. It is difficult to facilitate student autonomy in large groups. The teacher may soon lose the overview" (own translation, #49). The respondent thus reflects on the challenging aspect of facilitating learner autonomy in large groups because of student diversity, which requires adapted education. Adapted education can indeed be difficult to actualize.

Summarily, I argue that it is a dilemma that teachers are hesitant to give responsibility to learners who act irresponsibly due to lack of motivation when learners need to be responsible to increase motivation. Benson (2011) states that autonomous learners have the capacity to take responsibility. Does this imply that students who act irresponsibly cannot develop learner autonomy? In Haglund's study (2018), teachers reported that it was difficult to facilitate learner autonomy with irresponsible students and the present study finds the same notions. Teachers were less willing to give their learners responsibility if they perceived their learner as irresponsible or immature. The teachers felt that they could not give their irresponsible students responsibility because the students did not take responsibility. Sixty-one teachers identified this problem in Haglund's (2018) study and commented that this was a challenge to their facilitation of learner autonomy. They believed that students must be both capable and willing to take responsibility if the aim is to become more independent. In Haglund's (2018) study, teachers believed that immaturity or irresponsibility is a marker of decreased motivation. Paradoxically, Dam (2011) points out that even a limited choice enhances motivation. Similarly, Ushioda

(2014) claims that students need the opportunity to become more self-directed if they are to increase their motivation. It is thus a problematic paradox that teachers are hesitant to hand on responsibility to students who are irresponsible due to lack of motivation when learners need to be independent and responsible to enhance their motivation.

Concludingly, teacher beliefs about students' abilities do affect how they facilitate learner autonomy. That teacher cognitions affect how teachers facilitate learner autonomy is especially true for vocational studies. Many teachers assume that vocational studies-students are less capable of responsibility than general studies-students. It is interesting that teachers seem to focus on problems with their learners and not their own drawbacks. These attitudes can perhaps be a challenge in the facilitation of learner autonomy.

5. Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

In this last chapter, a summary, conclusion, implications, and suggestions for further research are presented to the reader. This project aimed to find out how Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school. The research was carried out using a mixed-methods research designed survey, where 77 Norwegian EFL teachers in vg1 vocational studies, vg2 general studies, and vg3 general studies participated. The web-based questionnaire contained questions about various aspects of learner autonomy. The respondents were from all over Norway, except Svalbard, Vestfold, and Finnmark. Respondents were both male and female, with various levels of education, and variation in years of teaching experience, from less than five years to more than 30 years. As discussed below, this project can serve as a foundation for further research within the field of learner autonomy.

5.2 Summary and Conclusion

Learner autonomy is a valuable element in language learning and teaching in general as it can increase language proficiency, enhance motivation, and prepare one for lifelong learning (Dafei, 2007; Ushioda, 2014; Cornford, 2002). It is thus, essential to look at how learner autonomy is facilitated. The present study examined this topic in the Norwegian context – how Norwegian EFL high school teachers facilitate learner autonomy. The project does not seek to evaluate what the correct or incorrect facilitation of learner autonomy is, but to present insights that teachers, teacher educators, and school administrations can use to better understand and build upon with regard to learner autonomy facilitation. The project provides valuable findings to the topic, which can be used for further research within the field of learner autonomy. The current section summarizes the key findings of the respondents' answers from the online survey and start with the main research question.

1. "How do Norwegian EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy in high school?"

The findings indicated that many Norwegian EFL teachers perceived learner autonomy as important, similar to the findings in Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019), Haglund (2018), Nakata (2011), and Ürün et al. (2014). The students' enhancement of motivation and the skill of learning to learn were stated as the two most frequent reasons for facilitating learner autonomy.

Teachers thus consider learner autonomy favorable to language learning, and hence, many reported to facilitate learner autonomy. 96% of the teachers in this study answered that they facilitate learner autonomy, while only 4% stated that they do not. Moreover, 57% of the teachers claimed they focus on the facilitation of learner autonomy weekly or more often. Although many teachers in this study focus on developing autonomous learners, how *frequently* they facilitate it influence how secure they feel about promoting it. This study found a statistically significant difference based on if the teachers facilitate learner autonomy and how unsure they are in terms of knowing how to facilitate it. The respondents who facilitate learner autonomy partly, see it as being statistically significantly more time-consuming than do those who facilitate it fully [$p = .021$]. In addition, teachers who facilitate learner autonomy partly are statistically significantly more unsure about how to promote it than those who facilitate it fully [$p = .031$]. Based on these findings, I suggest that the facilitation of learner autonomy is, to some extent, dependent on how comfortable teachers are with it. To make teachers more comfortable with facilitating learner autonomy, school administrations should encourage them to facilitate it more frequently. Training teachers by offering courses on learner autonomy could be an effective way to start. In this way, teachers can learn more about efficient principles and practices, but also pitfalls and challenges. Hopefully, this would make teachers feel more secure about their facilitation and encourage them to focus on developing autonomous learners more frequently. Training teachers on learner autonomy collectively is also an opportunity to make them facilitate learner autonomy more uniformly, which could support for teacher collaboration and ensure that *all* teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently in all subjects.

Furthermore, the most common method for teachers to develop autonomous learners, which is also displayed in similar studies (see Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012b; Dwee & Anthony, 2017; Haglund, 2018), is by giving their students freedom of choice in tasks and work forms. Oppositely, using logbooks was reported the least preferred approach, which mirrors the findings in Haglund's study (2018) in which only two out of 200 teachers claimed using logbooks. For the present study, the few teachers who reported using logbooks stated that they make their students log the work by writing on their computers, but few stated that they use logbooks frequently (i.e. after every lesson). It is most often the teacher and not the student, who reads the logbooks. Based on these findings, I recommend that teacher education programs and school administrations implement some components where the use of logbooks is promoted. If teachers are not acquainted with the benefits of using logbooks, they are likely to feel that it is time-consuming and unnecessary (Dam, 2009; Little, 1991), and hence, logbooks should become more visible as a practice in the facilitation of learner autonomy. In addition,

since including learners in decision making is the most common approach to develop autonomous learners, teacher education programs and school administrations should discuss the impacts of choices. It is important that teachers reflect on the choices they give (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000).

2. "Do teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently?"

From the qualitative answers, it does not seem as if the teachers facilitate learner autonomy consistently. In fact, it is quite the contrary. 84.42% of the teachers claimed that they facilitate learner autonomy differently in different classes, while only 12.99% reported facilitating learner autonomy consistently in all classes. Few students and a desire to establish routines were reasons for facilitating learner autonomy equally in all classes. However, it was clarified that consistent approaches can have different outcomes in terms of the class' attitudes, habits, and prerequisites. It was also suggested that teachers seem to perceive classes differently, especially in terms of needs. Unfortunately, I was not able to find other similar studies on this particular matter, but based on the present study, it appears that many teachers adjust the facilitation of learner autonomy depending on the different class, the level and program, and the individual student (which will be further discussed in the next paragraph). Based on these findings, teachers seem to take different needs into consideration - adapting the facilitation of learner autonomy to different groups or individuals. While this can have positive impacts with respect to adapting the education, it simultaneously implies that facilitation of learner autonomy is not perceived by the teachers to have a straightforward approach but rather, a complex and dependent process. Such perceptions of learner autonomy should be examined and discussed. If the goal is for teachers to facilitate learner autonomy, perhaps teachers should be acquainted with an unequivocal approach? It is possible that this would be considered less time-consuming.

3. Do the teachers' backgrounds (e.g. age and gender) affect how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy?

Based on the results of this study, the level and program that the teachers work in, and the teachers' gender affects how they perceive and facilitate learner autonomy. The results indicated that teachers in vg1 vocational studies facilitate learner autonomy the least, while teachers in vg3 facilitate learner autonomy the most, and teachers in vg3 are more positive

regarding the facilitation of learner autonomy [F(1,75) = 4.271, p = .042]. These findings are specifically related to the next additional research question, and will hence be further discussed then.

In relation to gender, the results indicated that female teachers think it is more time-consuming to facilitate learner autonomy than male teachers [U = 383.000, p = .027]. However, it appears that even though female teachers experience the facilitation of learner autonomy to be more time-consuming than do males, they do not facilitate it less. The results also indicated that male teachers are more positive when it comes to including the students in choosing activities [U = 778.000, p = .012] and in the assessment process [U= 798.000, p = .005]. As opposed to this, a significant gender difference between ELT high school teachers was found in a similar study in Turkey, where female teachers used student-centered practices more than males in the facilitation of learner autonomy (Ürün et al., 2014). The same gender difference was found in Evrekli, Şaşmaz Ören, and İnel (2010), who investigated student teachers' self-efficacy levels for implementing the constructivist approach with respect to gender. Similarly to the findings in Ürün et al. (2014), female student teachers implemented more constructive theories in the classroom than did males.

4. Do teachers' conceptions of their students' abilities affect if and how they facilitate learner autonomy?

From the findings in this study, it appears that how teachers conceive of their students' abilities is relevant to how they facilitate learner autonomy. There is a statistically significant difference in what level and program teachers facilitate learner autonomy in, where teachers are more likely to facilitate learner autonomy in vg3 general studies than in vg1 vocational studies [F(1,75) = 4.271, p = .042]. This has to do with their perceptions of how mature and independent the students are based on level and program. From the qualitative descriptions, it appears that many teachers see students in vg3 as more mature and capable of responsibility than students in vg1 and vg3. Additionally, many teachers indicated that students in vocational studies are less mature and responsible than students in general studies. Furthermore, teachers explained that a prerequisite to foster autonomous students is that the student is capable and willing to assume responsibility. The same notions were found in Haglund's (2018) study, where 61 teachers perceived irresponsible students to be a challenge in facilitating learner autonomy. Both Haglund (2018) and the study at hand found that teachers were less willing to hand learners responsibility if they perceived them to be irresponsible or immature, which

teachers often called vg1 vocational students to be. The consequence is often, therefore, that teachers focus on developing autonomous learners in vg3 general studies more than in vg1 vocational studies. These attitudes can potentially pose challenges in the facilitation of learner autonomy, as learners are dependent on the teachers to grant them responsibility if the aim is to foster independent students (Dam, 2011). As Dam (2011) points out, fostering learner autonomy is dependent on if the teacher can 'let go' of the control gradually. On account of this, existent attitudes and the consequences that derive from them must be recognized in such a manner that teachers are deliberate in how they facilitate learner autonomy. It is also necessary for teacher education programs and school administrations to bring forward that even a limited choice can have an impact on learners (Ushioda, 2014) and to encourage teachers to 'risk' passing on responsibility.

5.3 Implications

The findings indicated that many teachers are more focused on developing autonomous students in vg3, which has implications for their students. If teachers start facilitating learner autonomy in vg3, it might be ineffective or even too late, as students graduate and will be on their way to universities. Limited experience with responsibility and independence might also affect the students' abilities to perform in university where the responsibility is increasingly higher and independent work forms are dominant. Instead, teachers should start much earlier with promoting autonomous learners, which again requires them to become aware of and changing their attitudes towards vg1 vocational students in particular. School administrations and teacher education programs could assist in this process, but UDIR could also stress learner autonomy more explicitly in the curriculum. With the recent curricular focus on in-depth learning (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019), facilitating learner autonomy should be further emphasized with respect to the implementation since it reinforces in-depth learning.

The present study was conducted to create an understanding of how EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy. The aim was to spread more awareness about learner autonomy and its benefits to language learning. To some teachers in this study, the term learner autonomy was a little or completely unfamiliar. This research can hopefully contribute to a discussion of the practical approaches to facilitate learner autonomy and its challenges. Hopefully, the respondents' answers can lead to an awareness of how one can facilitate learner autonomy in the EFL classroom and how the challenges can be reduced. The aim was to create a platform where teachers can read about ways to facilitate learner autonomy based on experiences from

EFL teachers. In this study, teachers have expressed their challenges in the work of facilitating learner autonomy and many reported that they experience various challenges in the work of facilitating learner autonomy. Hopefully, this can be helpful to other teachers to read because it can create an understanding of the challenges they might meet and perhaps enable them to overcome them. In addition to this, it can be helpful for teacher educators and school owners so that they can generate teachers who are well acquainted with learner autonomy and its principles as well as challenges.

The study can be interesting for all teachers as well as teacher educators and school owners but will perhaps be of particular relevance to EFL teachers and other language teachers. It can serve as a foundation for further research in the field of learner autonomy, particularly how Norwegian EFL teachers perceive and work with learner autonomy in their classrooms. Because there is little research on how learner autonomy is facilitated in the Norwegian context, further research will be needed to be able to spread more awareness of how learner autonomy can be facilitated, and more importantly, to inspire all language teachers to facilitate learner autonomy in their classrooms.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

To be able to elaborate on and more thoroughly understand how Norwegian EFL teachers work to facilitate learner autonomy, it would be beneficial to conduct a similar study such as this present study, where the researcher does classroom observations and interviews with the participants. This enables the researcher to retrieve more valuable information and the opportunity to ask clarifying questions to avoid confusion. The researcher will also have a context and will perhaps be able to extract more detailed information than the present study. By using classroom observations and interviews, it could be possible to identify the correlation between what the teachers *think* they do to facilitate learner autonomy and what they *actually* do to facilitate learner autonomy. This is an interesting factor which this present study did not address.

Considering that learner autonomy seems to serve an increasingly important role in the curricula (see Section 2.3.2 and 2.3.3), it could be relevant to look at how the teachers understand and interpret the new curricula in terms of facilitating learner autonomy. The idea of the active and responsible student has a firm place in the wording of the renewal of subjects and competences, and it can thus be interesting to look at how the teachers interpret this idea.

To create a consensus of how learner autonomy should be facilitated in the EFL classroom, a comparative study between how Norwegian EFL teachers and how other foreign EFL teachers facilitate learner autonomy. This study could be carried out to see if there are considerable differences and similarities or even perceived outcomes. The findings could be used to indicate what principles and practices that should be improved, or what seems to be most efficient or inefficient. In addition, since learner autonomy is of importance to language learning in general, this comparative study could also be applicable to other language subjects.

The findings in this study indicated that the most challenging aspect in the facilitation of learner autonomy is that some students are unable to identify their needs and that students are immature and irresponsible. It is interesting that the most considerable challenge teachers reported has to do with factors that they cannot control themselves, such as their students. Teachers claim to know how to facilitate learner autonomy and do not find it too time-consuming but often criticize their students for not being capable. Dam (2011) reports that she found the same notion with other teachers. It is challenging to the facilitation of learner autonomy that teachers tend to think this way and it would be interesting to further investigate this matter to understand *why* many teachers postulate the students as the problem. Do teachers criticize their students to deflect from themselves?

More specifically, it would be valuable to investigate why there is a difference between promoting learner autonomy in vg1 vocational studies compared to vg3 general studies. This could also be investigated to a greater extent, for example by comparing middle school teachers with high school teachers in terms of how they facilitate learner autonomy.

In addition, the gender-based differences found in the present study should be addressed. It appears that relatively little research has been conducted in terms of gender and learner autonomy, especially when it relates to teachers and not students. The present study only touched the surface and it would thus be fascinating to dig deeper. For instance, the findings from Ürün et al. (2014) indicated that female teachers used student-centered practices to facilitate learner autonomy more than males did. A similar study should be carried out in a Norwegian context. One could further investigate if there are several gender-based differences and study the reasons behind these differences. In addition, one could also look at how students experience gender differences among teachers with respect to learner autonomy.

Finally, it would be interesting to look at how school owners and teacher educators view learner autonomy, in addition to if and how they spread awareness about learner autonomy to their teachers. Ultimately, school owners and teacher educators could have a large impact on classroom practices, and it is thus interesting to investigate their approach to learner autonomy.

5.5 Concluding Remarks

This project examined what teachers' practices are in the facilitation of learner autonomy and shared some interesting findings that hopefully could be of value to the field of learner autonomy. However, such practices are phenomenological, which makes it impossible to study them or to describe them in their entirety. Learning and teaching are continuous, developing, and erratic processes that, therefore, can never be investigated in all respects. The findings cannot be generalized as factual evidence that accounts for all teachers and learners because reports may be momentary. Learning and teaching build and develop from new encounters, new experiences, and new situations. Additionally, reports from teachers cannot thoroughly describe what their practices are because first, it is challenging to describe *all* one's practices adequately, and second, it requires the researcher to ask all the right questions that present these practices in every respect. Hence, teachers' practices cannot be minimized into a project of about 100 pages. Extensive research is needed to suggest habits and patterns, and this project aimed to make a small contribution to the field of learner autonomy. The hope was that this project sparks interest in further investigation of the facilitation of learner autonomy.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Hei!

Mitt navn er Marlene Vestvik, og jeg studerer lektor med fordypning i engelsk. Jeg kontakter deg fordi jeg skriver masteroppgaven min i engelsk didaktikk, og vil i den forbindelse sende ut en spørreundersøkelse for å samle inn nødvendig informasjon til oppgaven min. Formålet med spørreundersøkelsen er å få en oversikt over hvordan norske engelsklærere i den videregående skole jobber med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi. Lærerne jeg ønsker å ha med i undersøkelsen er henholdsvis lærere som underviser i engelsk på vg1 yrkesfag, samt vg2 og vg3 studieforberedende.

Det ville vært svært hjelpsomt dersom du kunne gi meg e-post adressene til lærerne som jobber på de ovennevnte trinnene/programmene på din skole. Jeg vil deretter sende de aktuelle lærerne en e-post med informasjon om prosjektet, samtykkeinformasjon, samt link til spørreundersøkelsen.

Jeg setter stor pris på hjelpen. På forhånd, tusen hjertelig takk for at du tok deg tiden!

Beste hilsen,
Marlene Vestvik

Appendix II

Kjære engelsklærer i den norske videregående skole!

Jeg heter Marlene Vestvik, og studerer lektor med fordypning i engelsk ved Universitetet i Bergen. For tiden skriver jeg masteroppgaven min i didaktikk, og i den forbindelse vil jeg sende ut en spørreundersøkelse for å samle inn nødvendig informasjon til oppgaven min. Formålet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er å få et innblikk i hvordan engelsklærere i Norge jobber med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi. Derfor hadde jeg hadde satt utrolig stor pris på din deltakelse! Undersøkelsen vil ta rundt 10-15 minutter.

Vedlagt i denne eposten kan du finne et skriv med mer informasjon om prosjektet og informasjon om samtykke. Selve samtykket skjer elektronisk inne i spørreundersøkelsen. Om du kan tenke deg å svare på undersøkelsen, klikker du deg inn på linken under og fullfører skjemaet ved å trykke på «avslutt».

LINK: https://svar.uib.no/LinkCollector?key=3E9RV2JJJN91

Dersom noe er uklart må du gjerne kontakte meg på tlf. 40722205 (SMS) eller e-post mve009@uib.student.no.

På forhånd, tusen takk for at du tok deg tid!

Beste hilsen,
Marlene Vestvik.

Appendix III

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet
”Tilrettelegging for elevautonomi i engelsk-klasserommet”?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å få et innblikk i hvordan engelsklærere i Norge jobber med å fremme elevautonomi. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål
Formålet er å få et innblikk i hvordan engelsklærere i Norge jobber med å fremme elevautonomi.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?
Marlene Vestvik og Universitetet i Bergen er ansvarlig for prosjektet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?
Hvis du ikke har sendt meg epost adressen din selv, er det den administrative avdelingen ved skolen din som har sendt den til meg. Du får spørsmål om å delta fordi du jobber på en norsk videregående skole, og fordi du enten jobber eller har jobbet på vg1 yrkesfag, og/eller vg2 og vg3 studieforberedende. Dataen til prosjektet samles inn gjennom en nasjonal undersøkelse, som innebærer at jeg henter svar fra respondenter over hele landet. For å avgrense, har jeg valgt å fokusere på lærere som jobber på (eller tidligere har jobbet på) vg1 yrkesfag, samt vg2 og vg3 studieforberedende.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?
Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du fyller ut et spørreskjema. Det vil ta deg ca. 10-15 minutter. Spørreskjemaet inneholder spørsmål om din bakgrunn (disse vil ikke kunne spores tilbake til deg), og videre vil den ta for seg spørsmål om dine holdninger og ditt arbeid med elevautonomi. Dine svar fra spørreskjemaet blir registrert elektronisk på SurveyXact.

Det er frivillig å delta
Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykke tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle opplysninger om deg vil da bli anonymisert. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg. Det vil heller ikke påvirke ditt forhold til arbeidsplassen/arbeidsgiver.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger
Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket. De som får tilgang til prosjektet er kun prosjektansvarlig, Marlene Vestvik; veileder, Raees Calafato, og behandlingsansvarlig institusjon, Universitetet i Bergen. I dette prosjektet brukes SurveyXact. Denne databehandleren vil ikke registrere din IP-adresse eller annen relevant informasjon som kan spores tilbake til deg. Du vil ikke kunne gjenkjennes i publikasjon.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?
Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes 15.05.2020. Opplysningene vil da slettes.

Dine rettigheter
Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:
- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,

- få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet)
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?
Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra Universitetet i Bergen har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?
Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Universitetet i Bergen ved Marlene Vestvik, tlf. 40722205 (SMS) eller epost Mve009@uib.student.no. Veileder kan kontaktes på epost Raees.Calafato@uib.no.
- Vårt personvernombud: Janecke Helene Veim, personvernombud@uib.no.
- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS, på epost personverntjenester@nsd.no eller telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen,
Prosjektansvarlig
Marlene Vestvik

11.09.2019

Appendix IV

MELDESKJEMA FOR BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

NSD sin vurdering

Prosjekttittel
Masteroppgave i engelskdidaktikk

Referansenummer
265126

Registrert
30.08.2019 av Marlene Vestvik - Marlene.Vestvik@student.uib.no

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
Universitetet i Bergen / Det humanistiske fakultet / Institutt for fremmedspråk

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)
Raees Calafato, Raees.Calafato@uib.no, tlf: 55582602

Type prosjekt
Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student
Marlene Vestvik, mve009@uib.no, tlf: 40722205

Prosjektperiode
19.08.2019 - 15.05.2020

Status
11.09.2019 - Vurdert med vilkår

Vurdering (2)

11.09.2019 - Vurdert med vilkår
NSD bekrefter å ha mottatt et revidert informasjonsskriv/endret dokument. Vi gjør oppmerksom på at vi ikke foretar en vurdering av skrivet/dokumentet, og vi forutsetter at du har foretatt de endringene vi ba om. Dokumentasjonen legges ut i Meldingsarkivet og er tilgjengelig for din institusjon sammen med øvrig prosjektdokumentasjon. Vurderingen med vilkår gjelder fortsatt.

03.09.2019 - Vurdert med vilkår
NSD har vurdert at personvernulempen i denne studien er lav. Du har derfor fått en forenklet vurdering med vilkår.

HVA MÅ DU GJØRE VIDERE?
Du har et selvstendig ansvar for å følge vilkårene under og sette deg inn i veiledningen i denne vurderingen. Når du har gjort dette kan du gå i gang med datainnsamlingen din.

HVORFOR LAV PERSONVERNULEMPE?
NSD vurderer at studien har lav personvernulempe fordi det ikke behandles særlige (sensitive) kategorier eller personopplysninger om straffedommer og lovovertredelser, eller inkluderer sårbare grupper. Prosjektet har rimelig varighet og er basert på samtykke. Dette har vi vurdert basert på de opplysningene du har gitt i meldeskjemaet og i dokumentene vedlagt meldeskjemaet.

VILKÅR
Vår vurdering forutsetter:
1. At du gjennomfører datainnsamlingen i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet
2. At du følger kravene til informert samtykke (se mer om dette under)
3. At du laster opp oppdatert(e) informasjonsskriv i meldeskjemaet og sender inn meldeskjemaet på nytt.
4. At du ikke innhenter særlige kategorier eller personopplysninger om straffedommer og lovovertredelser
5. At du følger retningslinjene for informasjonssikkerhet ved den institusjonen du studerer/forsker ved (behandlingsansvarlig institusjon)
6. Om deler av utvalget vil kunne gjenkjennes direkte eller indirekte i publikasjon må du innhente eksplisitte samtykker. Vi anbefaler at utvalget gis anledning til å lese igjennom egne opplysninger og godkjenne disse før publisering.

KRAV TIL INFORMERT SAMTYKKE

De registrerte (utvalget ditt) skal få informasjon om behandlingen og samtykke til deltakelse. Informasjonen du gir må minst inneholde:
- Studiens formål (din problemstilling) og hva opplysningene skal brukes til
- Hvilken institusjon som er behandlingsansvarlig
- Hvilke opplysninger som innhentes og hvordan opplysningene innhentes
- At det er frivillig å delta og at man kan trekke seg så lenge studien pågår uten at man må oppgi grunn
- Når behandlingen av personopplysninger skal avsluttes og hva som skal skje med personopplysningene da: sletting, anonymisering eller videre lagring
- At du behandler opplysninger om den registrerte (utvalget ditt) basert på deres samtykke / At du behandler opplysningene om dine deltagere basert på deres samtykke
- At utvalget ditt har rett til innsyn, retting, sletting, begrensning og dataportabilitet (kopi)
- At utvalget ditt har rett til å klage til Datatilsynet
- Kontaktopplysninger til prosjektleder (evt. student og veileder)
- Kontaktopplysninger til institusjonens personvernombud

Ta gjerne en titt på våre nettsider og vår mal for informasjonsskriv for hjelp til formuleringer:
http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvernombud/hjelp/informasjon_samtykke/informere_om.html

Når du har oppdatert informasjonsskrivet med alle punktene over laster du det opp i meldeskjemaet og trykker på «Bekreft innsending» på siden «Send inn» i meldeskjemaet.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 15.05.2020.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).
Dersom du benytter en databehandler i prosjektet, må behandlingen oppfylle kravene til bruk av databehandler, jf. art 28 og 29.

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

NSD SIN VURDERING

NSDs vurdering av lovlig grunnlag, personvernprinsipper og de registrertes rettigheter følger under, men forutsetter at vilkårene nevnt over følges.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Forutsatt at vilkårene følges, er det NSD sin vurdering at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

Forutsatt at vilkårene følges, vurderer NSD at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:
- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19) og dataportabilitet (art. 20).

Forutsatt at informasjonen oppfyller kravene i vilkårene nevnt over, vurderer NSD at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER
Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19) og dataportabilitet (art. 20).

Forutsatt at informasjonen oppfyller kravene i vilkårene nevnt over, vurderer NSD at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

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MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER
Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

https://nsd.no/personvernombud/meld_prosjekt/meld_endringer.html

Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Elizabeth Blomstervik
Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

Appendix V

Web-based questionnaire on: https://svar.uib.no/LinkCollector?key=3E9RV2JJJN91

Spørreundersøkelse: Tilrettelegging for elevautonomi i engelsk-klasserommet

Kjære engelsklærer i den norske videregående skole!

Formålet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er å få et innblikk i hvordan engelsklærere i Norge jobber med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi. Undersøkelsen har både åpne og lukkede spørsmål. I spørsmålene der du kan svare åpent er det ønskelig at du forsøker å svare utfyllende, basert på dine egne erfaringer og tanker som lærer på vg1 yrkesfag, og/eller vg2 og vg3 studieforberedende. Fordi svarene dine skal være personlige, vil jeg be deg om å vennligst ikke søke informasjon fra andre steder. Du kan derimot når som helst kontakte meg dersom noe skulle være uklart.

På forhånd, tusen takk for at du tok deg tid. Ditt bidrag er verdifullt, og jeg setter stor pris på din deltakelse!

Beste hilsen,
Marlene Vestvik.

Samtykke: Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet "tilrettelegging for elevautonomi i engelsk-klasserommet", og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til å delta i denne spørreundersøkelsen. Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. 15.05.2020.

Spørsmål 1: Hvor gammel er du?

Spørsmål 2: Vennligst oppgi kjønn (Mann, Kvinne)

Spørsmål 3: Hvilket fylke jobber du i? (Liste over alle fylker + Svalbard)

Spørsmål 4: Hvilket trinn og hvilket program underviser du på/i? Her kan du huke av flere svaralternativer. (vg1 yrkesfag, vg2 studieforberedende, vg3 studieforberedende)

Spørsmål 5: Hvor lang erfaring har du som engelsklærer? (Mindre enn 5 år, 6-10 år, 11-15 år, 16-20 år, 21-25 år, 26-30 år, over 30 år.)

Spørsmål 6: Hvilken utdannelse har du?

Spørsmål 7: Er du kjent med begrepet "elevautonomi"? (Ja, Nei, Litt)

Hvis respondenten trykket nei/litt, fikk de opp dette:
Elevautonomi er definert slik: "Elevautonomi er evnen til å ta kontroll over egen læring." (Holec, 1981) *egen oversettelse fra engelsk.

Det innebærer blant annet å bestemme egne mål, definere eget innhold og progresjon, velge metoder og teknikker som skal brukes, ha evnen til å overvåke og evaluere læringsprosessen" (Holec, 1981). *egen oversettelse fra engelsk.

Spørsmål 8: Hvordan vil du definere elevautonomi?

Spørsmål 9: Hvor viktig synes du det er å fremme elevautonomi? (Svært uviktig, Uviktig, Delvis uviktig, Delvis viktig, Viktig, Svært viktig)

Spørsmål 10: Kryss av for hvorvidt du synes disse er fordelene med elevautonomi (Helt uenig, Uenig, Delvis uenig, Delvis enig, Enig, Helt enig):
Motivasjon
Selvregulering
Metakognisjon
Innsats
Selvrealisering
Selvtillit
Lære å lære

> **Hjelpetekst til respondentene:**
> **Selvregulering** innebærer "å utøve kontroll over handling, tenkning og emosjoner i tråd med langsiktige mål". Kilde: *Store Norske Leksikon*
>
> **Metakognisjon** er "en form for høyere ordens kognisjon (tenkning). Mens kognisjon generelt viser til bevissthet og forståelse, viser metakognisjon til en overordnet bevissthet om dette". Kilde: *Store Norske Leksikon*

Legg til en kommentar om fordelene med elevautonomi (valgfritt)

Spørsmål 11: Kryss av for hvorvidt du synes disse er ulempene med elevautonomi (Helt uenig, Uenig, Delvis uenig, Delvis enig, Enig, Helt enig):

Det er tidkrevende å tilrettelegge for det
Jeg er usikker på hvordan jeg kan tilrettelegge for det
Noen elever klarer ikke å identifisere sine behov
Noen elever klarer ikke å identifisere sine styrker
Noen elever klarer ikke å identifisere sine svakheter
Noen elever klarer ikke å overvåke egen fremgang
Noen elever klarer ikke å evaluere egen læring

Legg til en kommentar om ulempene med elevautonomi (valgfritt)

Spørsmål 12: Jeg mener at for å kunne tilrettelegge for elevautonomi, må elevene først ha evnen til å (Helt uenig, Uenig, Delvis uenig, Delvis enig, Enig, Helt enig):

Identifisere sine behov
Identifisere sine styrker
Identifisere sine svakheter
Overvåke egen fremgang
Evaluere egen læring

Spørsmål 13: Hva mener du er viktig i arbeidet med elevautonomi? (Svært uviktig, Uviktig, Delvis uviktig, Delvis viktig, Viktig, Svært viktig)

Å inkludere elevene i planleggingsprosessen
Å inkludere elevene i evalueringsprosessen
Å gi elevene valg
Å la elevene bestemme undervisningsform (individuelt, gruppearbeid, par...)
Å la elevene bestemme innhold
Å gjøre elevene kjent med læringsmålene
Å lære elevene å finne informasjon selv
Å lære elevene å lære på egenhånd
Å gi elevene kunnskap om egen læring
Å gi elevene ansvar for egen læring

Legg til en kommentar (valgfritt)

Spørsmål 14: Tilrettelegger du for elevautonomi? (Ja, Nei, Litt)

Spørsmål 15: Hvor ofte jobber du med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi? (I alle mine engelsktimer, Daglig, Ukentlig, Månedlig, Sjeldnere, Aldri)

Spørsmål 16: Hvorfor velger du å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi?

Spørsmål 17: Forklar hvordan du jobber med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi

Spørsmål 18: Hva stemmer om ditt arbeid med å tilrettelegge for elevautonomi? (Helt uenig, Uenig, Delvis uenig, Delvis enig, Enig, Helt enig)

Elevene får valgfrihet i oppgaver
Elevene får valgfrihet i aktiviteter
Elevene får valgfrihet i arbeidsform (individuelt, par, grupper)
Elevene får valgfrihet i vurderingsform (f.eks. skriftlig, muntlig, digitalt, osv.)
Elevene evaluerer arbeidet sitt (f.eks. innsats i timene, presentasjoner, prøver, osv.)
Elevene loggfører arbeidet sitt
Elevene blir inkludert i vurderingsprosessen
Elevene blir inkludert i planleggingsprosessen
Elevene blir inkludert i evalueringsprosessen (evaluering av f.eks. undervisningen, arbeid som er utført, aktiviteter, oppgaver, osv.)
Elevene får være med å bestemme innholdet i undervisningen
Elevene oppsøker mye informasjon selv

Legg til en kommentar (valgfritt)

Spørsmål 19: Dersom du får dine elever til å loggføre arbeidet sitt, svar på:

A) Gjelder det alle elevene dine?
B) Hvor/hvordan loggføres det?
C) Hvor ofte?

D) Hvilket arbeid?
E) Ser dere på loggen i ettertid?

Spørsmål 20: Jobber du likt eller ulikt med elevautonomi i dine klasser? Forklar.

Spørsmål 21: Hvordan organiserer du vanligvis undervisningen din? Velg den varianten du bruker oftest.

Variant 1: Lærer snakker -> elevene jobber -> felles oppsummering til slutt
Variant 2: Lærer snakker hele timen
Variant 3: Elevene arbeider hele timen

> **Hjelpetekst til respondentene**
> **MERK:** Det tas forbehold om at man noen ganger organiserer undervisningen annerledes enn ovennevnte. Her må du velge den varianten som stemmer mest med din organisering, selv om dette kanskje ikke stemmer for alle dine timer. I variant 1 tas det også et forbehold om at de tre aktivitetene kan skje vekselvis.

Du kan nå trykke avslutt. Takk for din deltakelse!

Appendix VI

Web-based questionnaire on: https://svar.uib.no/LinkCollector?key=3E9RV2JJJN91

This Appendix provides a translated version of the original survey (illustrated in Appendix V) from Norwegian to English.

Survey: Facilitating learner autonomy in the English classroom

Dear English teacher in the Norwegian high school!

The purpose of this survey is to gain insight into how English teachers in Norway work to facilitate learner autonomy. The survey has both open and closed questions. In the questions where you can answer openly, it is desirable that you try to answer as detailed as possible, based on your own experiences and thoughts as a teacher of vg1 vocational studies, and / or vg2 and vg3 general studies. Because your answers should be personal, please do not seek information from anywhere else. However, you can contact me at any time should anything be unclear.

Thank you for taking the time. Your contribution is valuable, and I really appreciate your participation!

Best regards,
Marlene Vestvik.

Consent: I have received and understood information about the project "facilitating learner autonomy in the English classroom" and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I agree to participate in this survey. I agree that my information will be processed until the project is completed, approx. 05/15/2020.

Question 1: How old are you?

Question 2: Please state your gender (Male, Female)

Question 3: What county do you work in? (List of all counties + Svalbard)

Question 4: In what level and program do you teach? You can tick several answers from the options. (vg1 vocational subject, vg2 study preparation, vg3 study preparation)

Question 5: For how long have you been working as an English teacher? (Less than 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, 21-25 years, 26-30 years, over 30 years.)

Question 6: What education do you have?

Question 7: Are you familiar with the term learner autonomy? (Yes, No, A little)

If the respondent pressed no / a little, this text came up:
Learner autonomy is defined as: "… the ability to take charge of one's own learning." (Holec, 1981).
This includes “determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly, evaluating what has been acquired” (Holec, 1981).

Question 8: How would you define learner autonomy?

Question 9: How important do you think it is to facilitate learner autonomy? (Very unimportant, Unimportant, Partially unimportant, Partially important, Important, Very important)

Question 10: Tick off the boxes on how much you think these are the benefits of learner autonomy (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Partially Disagree, Partially Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree):
Motivation
Self-regulation
Metacognition
Effort
Self-realization
Self-confidence
Learning to learn

> Text to help the respondents:
> **Self-regulation** involves "taking control over your actions, thoughts and emotions in coherence with your long-term goals". Source: *Store Norske Leksikon* (my own translation from Norwegian).
>
> **Metacognition** is "a form of higher order cognition (thinking). While cognition generally refers to consciousness and understanding, metacognition refers to a superior awareness of this." Source: *Store Norske Leksikon* (my own translation from Norwegian).

Add a comment on the benefits of learner autonomy (optional)

Question 11: Tick off the boxes on how much you think these are the disadvantages of learner autonomy (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Partially Disagree, Partially Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree):

It is time-consuming to facilitate it
I am not sure how I can facilitate it
Some students are unable to identify their needs
Some students are unable to identify their strengths
Some students are unable to identify their weaknesses
Some students are unable to monitor their own progress
Some students are unable to evaluate their own learning

Add a comment on the disadvantages of student autonomy (optional)

Question 12: I believe that in order to facilitate learner autonomy, students must first have the ability to (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Partially Disagree, Partially Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree):

Identify their needs
Identify their strengths
Identify their weaknesses
Monitor their own progress
Evaluate their own learning

Question 13: What do you think is important in the facilitation of learner autonomy? (Very unimportant, Unimportant, Partially unimportant, Partially important, Important, Very important)

To include the learners in the planning process
To include the learners in the evaluation process
Giving the learners choices
Allowing the learners to decide the type of work form (individual, group work, pairs ...)
Allowing the learners to determine the content
To familiarize the learners with the learning objectives
To teach the learners how to find information on their own
To teach the learners how to learn on their own
To give the learners knowledge about their own learning
To give the learners responsibility for their own learning

Add a comment (optional)

Question 14: Do you facilitate learner autonomy? (Yes, No, Little)

Question 15: How often do you facilitate learner autonomy? (In all my English lessons, Daily, Weekly, Monthly, Rarer, Never)

Question 16: Why do you choose to facilitate learner autonomy?

Question 17: Explain how you work on facilitating learner autonomy

Question 18: What is true about your work on facilitating learner autonomy? (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Partially Disagree, Partially Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree):

Students are given freedom of choice in tasks
Students are given freedom of choice in activities
Students are given freedom of choice in work form (individually, pairs, groups)
Students are given freedom of choice in the assessment form (e.g., written, oral, digital, etc.)
Students evaluate their work (e.g., effort in lessons, presentations, tests, etc.)
Students log their work
Students are included in the assessment process
Students are included in the planning process
Students are included in the evaluation process (evaluation of e.g., teaching, work done, activities, tasks, etc.)
Students are allowed to determine the content

Students seek much information themselves

Add a comment (optional)

Question 19: If you get your students to log their work, answer:

A) Does it apply to all your students?
B) Where / how is it logged?
C) How often?
D) What type of work is logged?
E) Do you look at the log in hindsight?

Question 20: Do you work equally or differently with learner autonomy in your classes? Explain.

Question 21: How do you usually organize your teaching? Choose the version you use the most often.

Version 1: Teacher talks -> students work -> summary together at the end of the session
Version 2: Teacher talks the entire session
Version 3: Students work the entire session

> **Help text for respondents**
> **NOTE:** Please note that it is taken into consideration that your teaching could sometimes be organized differently than the versions offered above. Here, you have to choose the version that best matches your organization, although this may not be the case for all your sessions. In version 1, it is also taken into consideration that the three activities may take place alternately.

You can now press exit. Thank you for your participation!

Appendix VII

Color-coded labels:

Responsibility/control of own learning

Choice (tasks, evaluation, assessment forms, learning material, content, planning, etc.)

Methods/strategies

Learning objectives

Metacognition

Evaluation

Scaffolding

Active learners

Independent learners

Adapted education

Other

"Hvordan vil du definere elevautonomi?"

1.	Eleven får meir ansvar og medverknad i undervisningsprosessen
2.	Elevene skal oppmuntres, bevisstgjøres og få muligheten til å delta aktivt i deres egen læring.
3.	Nesten det samme som det går under språklæring i læreplan ålene for engelsk etter vg1.
4.	Elevene har ansvar for egen læring. Lærer legger tilrette for at elevene utvikler metakognisjon rundt egen læring. Lærer fungerer som støtte og motivator.
5.	Elevens selvstendige læringsprosess
6.	Ansvar for egen læring
7.	Tilrettelegging fra lærer for "ansvar for egen læring"
8.	Elevens evne til å planlegge og organisere eget arbeid og progresjon i faget.
9.	At eleven på mange måtar er sjølvstendig i læringsarbeidet og elles, og at han ho kan og får lov til å påverke læringsprosessen, aktiv deltakar i styringa av læringsarbeidet i fellesskap med lærar /under rettleiing av lærar.
10.	Det at eleven får ta avgjerdsler for arbeidsmåtar og oppgåvetypar, ut i frå sitt nivå og måtar ein lærer best på. Ved å gi eleven visse reiskapar for å orientere seg i faget, finne opplysningar og "komme seg

	vidare", legg vi rette for den autonome eleven. For eksempel vil det å kunne å bruke ei ordbok, ein grammatikk, eller å finne pålitelege kjelder på nett, vere ein måte å vere autonom på.
11.	at elever er med i å bestemme hvordan de lærer, til en vis grad hva de lærer (med hensynn til læreplann) og hvordan de blir vurderte. Det går også på relasjon mellom elever og lærer, at elever er hørte og har reel deltakelse i klassen
12.	Elevens evne til å lede seg selv og å være selvstendig. Ha sine egne mål og å kunne gjennomføre disse.
13.	Elevens selvstendighet, samt muligheten læreren gir elevene til å påvirke undervisning og arbeid med faget
14.	At eleven er sjølvstendig. I det legg eg at eleven er sjølvdrivande, klarar å ta ansvar for eiga læring, setja seg eige mål og arbeida mot desse.
15.	eleven som tar ansvar for sin egen læring, setter sin egen mål. Eleven er engasjert til en høy grad og utforsker muligheter for sin læring utenom klasserommet.
16.	En elevs medbestemmelse i undervisning.
17.	At elevene er bevisst sin egen læringsprosess, og at de kan være med å påvirke undervisningsmetoder. At elevene får tid til å jobbe på måter som gagner deres læring.
18.	At eleven skal kunne lære selvstendig, eller ta initiativ til egen læring i forskjellige situasjoner.
19.	eleven i samværet med læreren kan vurdere læring og bestemme hvilket behov han trenger for å fremme bedre læring
20.	Elevenes mulighet til å påvirke egen læring
21.	Elevene får delta aktivt i beslutninger om fokusområder og vurderinger.
22.	Jeg er enig i den definisjonen som er gitt
23.	Elevstyrt
24.	At elevene tar kontroll over og ansvar for egen læring.
25.	elevens selvstendighet i arbeid, grad av selvstyrt progresjon, evne til å være offensiv i oppgaveløsning
26.	At elevene får rom til å ta beslutningner ang læringsmateriell og arbeidsmetoder, samt hva som skal vektlegges ved vurderinger.
27.	At eleven sjølv er med på å bestemme si eiga læring
28.	elevers selvstendighet/ansvar/innsikt i egen læring
29.	Bevisstgjøring og kontroll av egen læring og eget arbeid
30.	Rett og evne til sjølv å setje seg faglege mål og velje arbeidsmåtar
31.	Elevene skal ha mulighet til å ta styring over egen læring, de skal ta aktivt del i utforming av egen undervisning.

32.	at eleven får ta selvstendige avgjørelser, bestemme selv over ting, ta ansvar
33.	det å medverka på undervisning og læringsformer når det gjeld val av arbeidsformer og metoder. Det å ta ansvar for eiga læring
34.	At eleven er til en viss grad selvdrevet og kan jobbe selvstendig. De kan utforske på egenhånd, trekke ut relevant informasjon, behandler den kritisk, og inkorporer den i eget arbeid på en reflektert måte.
35.	At elev selv er med på å utforme undervisning og vurdering
36.	Utvikle elevenes innsikt i egen læring. Gi dem kunnskaper om læringsprosser og læringsstiler. Fokus på elevenes individuelle læringsstrategier.
37.	At elevene har mulighet til å påvirke hva som studeres og hvordan og at undervisning er tilrettelagt etter elevens behøv
38.	Elevens evne og villighet til å ta grep og ansvar om eget læringsarbeid, herunder involvering i avgjørelser om metodebruk og lærestoff når det åpnes for det.
39.	Det handler om at læreren skal fremme elevenes individuelle læring, at de skal bruke individuelle læringsstiler og at de har et eget ansvar for sin læring.
40.	Elevens evne til å ta ansvar for hva hen ønsker å lære og på hvilken måte. Velge gode strategier basert på erfaring. Ta ansvar for valg av arbeidsoppgaver, framdrift og mål.
41.	Elevautonomi innebærer at elevene er lite styrt av læreren i læringsprosessen og velger selv hvordan de går fram for å oppnå læringsmålene.
42.	Elevens evne til å finne og anvende metoder for å lære seg ting
43.	At elevene har medbestemmelse i undervisningen. Metoder, tema, osv.
44.	da elevene tar i større grad kontroll over egenlærings
45.	Modningsprosess
46.	At eleven selv reflekterer rundt hvordan han/hun på best måte kan utvikle sin egen språklæring, gjennom å velge ut mål, fagstoff, metoder og strategier som fungerer og optimaliserer deres språklæring
47.	Evnen til å ta kontroll over egen læring.
48.	at elevene selv er med på å planlegge, gjennomføre og evaluere opplæringen
49.	At elevene har selvinnsikt og rom for deltagelse i egen læring
50.	Elevenes rett til medbestemmelse i klasserommet og skolehverdagen
51.	Det innebærer bl.a. at elevene selv setter seg inn i hvilke kompetansemål som er relevant for oppgaven og hvilke vurderingskriterier man må ha. Selvstendighet er også viktig.
52.	At eleven har en formening om at de ønsker å få noe ut av undervisningen
53.	At eleven er selvstendig i sin egen læringsprosess (kortfattet definisjon).

54.	Muligheter eleven har til å komme med innspill i undervisningprosess, sammen med selvstendighet i eget arbeid (finne kilder og tilleggsinformasjon).
55.	En tilstand hvor elever kan jobbe faglig med oppgaver uten å ha hjelp av andre medelever eller lærere. Å jobbe autonomt er å jobbe selvstendig.
56.	Å gi elever innflytelse i egen studiehverdag. Det kan være alt fra å være med på planlegging av undervisning, til å velge vurderingsformer og hvor ofte de skal ha større vurderinger.
57.	Jeg vil definere elevautonomi som relativt selvstendige elever som forstår viktigheten av å lære og som selv tar ansvar for deler av denne læringen
58.	Elever tar initiativ/ansvar til alle steg av egen læring
59.	At eleven jobber selvstendig med faget, og er oppmerksom på sin egen læring.
60.	At eleven har mulighet til å ha kontroll over sin egen læringsprosess, eller at eleven er en selvstendig aktør i sin egen læringsprosess. Jeg forstår ikke elevautonomi som synonymt med "ansvar for egen læring".
61.	At eleven er selvstendig / selvstyrt i sin læringsprosess, dvs. at hun vet hvordan hun lærer best / kan vurdere egen læringsprosess og læringsutbytte. Hva skal hun lære, hvordan lærer hun g hvorfor blir resultatet slik det blir - hva kan man gjøre for å endre resultatet neste gang etc.
62.	selvbestemmelse for elever. At de selv kan bestemme over sin egen skolehverdag til en viss grad eller i en viss periode, eller i det minste påvirke beslutningene som tas omkring deres skolehverdag.
63.	Enig i definisjonen. Har ikke lagt mye vekt på det som begrep. Ser heller på arbeidsevne, konsentrasjon, læreglede. Det inngår kanskje i elevautonomibegrepet?
64.	Elevens kontroll over egen læring i form av metoder, strategier og mål
65.	Elevens deltakelse i planlegging, gjennomføring og evaulering av opplæring. Vurdering av eget arbeid
66.	At eleven skal klare å ta ansvar for egen læring og alt dette innebærer for både eleven selv og læreren. Eleven er i sentrum.
67.	Selvstyre - elevens rett til å bestemme over seg selv og ta egne valg.
68.	At elevane sjølv tek føringa i sitt eiget arbeid.
69.	At eleven har evne til å ta styring over egen læring
70.	At eleven tar styring og ansvar for læring
71.	Kontroll på egen læringsprosess
72.	elevens mulighet for å selv velge metode og tema i undervisningen, innenfor gitte rammer.
73.	ha fokus på hver elev. Så tilpasset opplegg som mulig. Elevene skal/bør forstå at de har ansvar for læringen, jeg skal "bare" undervise. De er sjøl ansvarlig for egne læringsresultater. Alle kan ha framgang om de vil.
74.	At elevene har mye ansvar selv i sin utvikling av kunnskap

75. Elevens selvråderett, mulighet til å velge innhold, arbeidsformer og -metoder i opplæringen.
76. Elevens evne til å utnyte læringssituasjon og finne læring i ulike situasjoner.
77. Bevisst og aktiv deltakelse i egen læring