LEARNING AUTONOMY AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE FOR INDONESIAN EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

The promotion of autonomy-based approaches to language learning has been increasingly applied in many countries, including Indonesia. This paper presents some recent theoretical studies on promoting English as Foreign Language (EFL) independent learning in several countries including Indonesia through the utilization of means and resources. Using media and technology through the Personal Learning Environment (PLE), computer-based materials, portfolio, and exposure to English Language resources has helped students in Switzerland, the United Kingdom, Spain, Portugal, Taiwan, and Indonesia where learning autonomy in English language learning is promoted. The writer also found out significance in promoting learners' autonomy regarding Indonesian education practices and socio-cultural beliefs and traditions. The need for autonomy suggests several strategies that should be promoted to Indonesian EFL learners so that their autonomy is well enhanced. This paper argues that autonomous learning is a good model for Indonesian EFL learners and should be considered as a premier strategy to enhance their English proficiency.

Keywords: autonomy, EFL, portfolio

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INTRODUCTION

A rapid development of technology in recent decades and its impacts on virtually every aspect of life has made the English language an essential tool for global communication. It has been said that the importance of English lies in building close links between nations. This fact has made English one of the world’s most preferred languages in many countries, including Indonesia. In Indonesia, English is termed a foreign language (EFL) because it is a language which children are most likely taught when they arrive in school and the one most available to adults to whatever reason never learned it or learned it poorly in their early educational years (Crystal, 2003, pp.4-5). EFL in Indonesia is also learned by people who already use at least one other language, and English is not normally used in the community (Hinkel, 2005). There is currently a high demand for learning EFL in Indonesia because English is very common in brochures, advertisements, and online and Internet information, and employment. Two surveys involving students and parents in 8 provinces in 1988 and 27 provinces in 1989 revealed that respondents considered English to be essential for obtaining good jobs in the future (Huda, 1994, cited in Lestari, 2003) and completion of studies (Department of Education and Culture, cited in Lestari, 2003).

With this mind, the achievements of students in EFL learning should be high. However, Lestari (2003) stated that students’ achievement in the surveys revealed an unsatisfactory state of affairs. This was due to the lack of facilities that attracted learners’ interest, a poorly organized syllabus, and unqualified teachers (Lestari, 2003). Traditionally, teaching English in Indonesian schools has been a book and teacher-oriented. For instance, the teacher writes the formulae for tenses and grammatical rules, while students write them down and memorize them. Since the experience of EFL learning in such an environment does not cater for learners’ true needs, more communication-oriented and learner-centered learning strategies are required. This will put learners in a position to have greater responsibility for their learning, which is called autonomy.

The idea that autonomous learning has enhanced students’ proficiency in the English language has challenged researchers from various fields. It is argued that autonomous learning can improve Indonesian students’ EFL learning proficiency. The purpose of this literature review is to discover the evidence in published studies on the degree of successful application of promoting the autonomy. The themes involve some recent theoretical studies on promoting EFL autonomous learning in several countries including Indonesia through the use of media and technology and English language resources. Since autonomy is considered to be a Western idea, it must be contextualized to the Indonesian context. This review will then discuss some significance of promoting learners’ autonomy regarding Indonesian education practices and socio-cultural beliefs and traditions. It also evolves several strategies suggested to be promoted to
Indonesian EFL learners so that their autonomy is enhanced.

**DISCUSSIONS**

1. **Defining Autonomy**

A commonly used definition of learner autonomy is Holec’s concept that learners are responsible for their learning (Cotterall, 2000; Vanijdee, 2003; Sert, 2006; Sanprasert, 2009; Lo, 2010). Similarly, a director of CRAPEL, Centre de Recherches et d’Applications Pedagogiques en Langues defined learner autonomy as people’s ability to take charge of their learning for practical as well as theoretical reasons (Smith, 2008). Regarding practice, CRAPEL offered the opportunity for adults to use its resource centre to learn a foreign language without any direction from a teacher, but still have guidance in areas occasionally determined by the institution, teacher, or textbook-like objectives, content, syllabus, methods and techniques, evaluation, etc (Smith, 2008).

A distinction between desirable learning situation or behavior (self-directed leaning) and the capacity for such learning (learner autonomy) suggested by Holec (Benson, 2008) suggests that autonomous learning mostly refers to modes of learning such as Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), self-access, and distance learning. To assist students in the atomization process, CRAPEL also offered a variety of counseling and training strategies as support measures (Smith, 2008). In this context, the teachers’ role in promoting learner autonomy and engaging students’ existing autonomy in classroom practice should be highlighted.

Other researchers adopted Ryan’s concept of ‘relatedness’ (Andrade & Bunker, 2009; Littlewood, 1999; Sanprasert, 2009). Sanprasert (2009) links autonomy to relatedness needs, which specifically are the need for contact, support, and community with others, leading to ‘autonomous interdependence.’ Littlewood (1999) suggested that the ‘relatedness’ idea is a suitable concept for East Asia in his study. This relatedness concept focuses on the need for learners to feel both autonomous and part of a social network (Littlewood, 1999). Similar to this view of interdependence, Andrade and Bunker (2009) focused on the relatedness between teachers and learners. Although Little’s concept of autonomy in above definition focused on the psychological state, he concluded that learner autonomy is ‘the product of interdependence rather than independence’ (Sanprasert, 2009, p. 48).

It is obvious that an understanding of autonomy is characterized by overlap and a variety of states and conditions. Andrade and Bunker (2009) suggested that the central tenet of autonomy is freedom of choice, which is where learners learn to initiate their effectiveness without a reliance on teacher’s input. Cotterall (2000) stated the essential characteristic of instructional programmes fostering autonomy is the way in which they scaffold instruction functioning as learners’ guidance, not their control of the decision-making process.
2. Fostering Autonomy
   a. Using Technology and Media

Utilizing media is suggested as being able to promote autonomy in EFL learning. This is evident in the way many media are currently used inside and outside of the classroom. Benson (2001, cited in Figura & Jarvis, 2007) stated that multimedia provides a rich linguistic and non-linguistic input by offering branching-out options in presenting new language. Using QUIPNet (Queensland Indonesia Project Internet) in a study by Hoven and Crawford (2001), helped to link Indonesian and Queensland’s students in enhancing language proficiency. It represented successful example of EFL learning media being used in promoting autonomy. As networking models implemented in the project included one that could be used on students’ own home computers, it provided students with a more realistic context for EFL learning. At the same time it raised students’ interest and motivation (Hoven & Crawford, 2001). This study did not research students’ autonomy, but with reference to Hoven and Crawford’s (2001) study on modes of learning in autonomy, Holec suggested that QUIPNet has promoted autonomy in Indonesian and Queensland learners.

Another study on media use was done by Liaw (2010). Implementing a cross-cultural e-mail project for a group of EFL students in Taiwan, Liaw wanted them to interact with bilingual/ESL pre-service teachers in the U.S. Through the e-mail correspondence, the Taiwanese students engaged in critical reflection with only minimal intervention from the instructor (Liaw, 2010). Apart from self-reflectivity, they also gained useful cultural information (Liaw, 2010), both of which are essential in EFL learning and promoting autonomy. Similarly, e-learning technologies had also become one of successful tools practiced at the Language Centre at the University of Lausanne, Switzerland, to develop students’ autonomy (Zea & Bovey, 2008). Specifically, the Personal Learning Environment (PLE) was designed and used by more than 1300 learners divided into about 30 groups of students learning English, German, Italian, French and Spanish to support the students in their preparation for autonomy (Zea & Bovey, 2008). As a result, with an initial guidance of the tutors the computer-based PLE model helped students to integrate the development of skills in autonomous learning, including diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses through standardized reference lists and identifying learning objectives and self-evaluating needs and progress (Zea & Bovey, 2008).

Using computer-based materials, the students in the UK were also able to identify their weaknesses and organized their learning accordingly (Figura & Jarvis, 2007). The students’ autonomy in Figura’s and Jarvis’ (2007) study was also indicated in their use of various metacognitive, cognitive, and social strategies during EFL learning. The study also revealed that participants made independent choices in their learning materials and learning strategies (Figura & Jarvis, 2007). The participants in Figura and Jarvis’ (2007) research had sufficient access to facilities and
pedagogic input, and it is assumed that it contribute to their success in utilizing materials for autonomy. In other words, students in both Zea and Bovey’s (2008) and Figura and Jarvis’ (2007) studies fostered autonomy through their access to technological facilities and pedagogic input from their teachers.

Distance learning, one of the modes of learning in fostering autonomy suggested by Holec, is a type of learning that uses multimedia extensively. It represents a valuable solution should there be lack of opportunity for interaction in EFL face-to-face learning in the classroom; it promotes a different type of learning autonomy. According to Andrade and Bunker (2009), distance language learning leads to autonomy through the application of self-regulated learning strategies. This is supported by a study applying M@xLearn technology to distance learning specifically in Thailand involving university students. The study reported that the students were able to contribute to course materials, set learning goals for themselves, and monitor and evaluate their learning progress (Sanprasert, 2009). In his comparative data analysis, Sanprasert (2009) used quantitative data as basic information on the participants’ level of autonomy. Having compared with qualitative data after the intervention, he found that through using technology, learners became more independent and confident (Sanprasert, 2009). This indicates that students’ quality of autonomy develops during their learning process. Vanijdee (2003) associated this with students’ personality such as willingness to accept responsibility for their own learning, awareness of the learning process, and using strategies effectively (Vanijdee, 2003). His study of Thai university students, also found some other specific behaviour emerged from the distance learning including self-reliance, self management, and self-monitoring. Problem solving also emerged as an autonomy interaction that is built into distance learning (Vanijdee, 2003). Both findings from Thailand have proved that distance learning does promote learning autonomy significantly.

Besides using technology in distance learning, many studies have also shown the use of the portfolio as self-assessment media for students in promoting autonomous learning. The portfolio can include students’ achievement and serve as a record of their learning process and reflection on what has been done (Nunes, 2004). Similarly, in order to document and monitor students’ progress in PLE learning model application as described by Zea and Bovey (2008) above, students and tutors worked with a European Language Portfolio’s Learning Journal, which became compulsory (Zea & Bovey, 2008). Gonzalez (2008) also implemented a portfolio strategy in promoting student autonomy in Spain. Examining their ability to self-assess their competence based on the portfolio standard, students were able to understand where their language learning skills were at and from there plan ahead (Gonzalez, 2008). This study, however, involved students who had been using portfolios for four years at the time of study and so were more or already aware of
their autonomy. However, a study introducing the portfolio strategy was challenged by Nunes (2004) who analyzed a group of Portuguese students. The research revealed that the portfolio helped foster students’ reflection and self-monitor their learning, and become more autonomous (Nunes, 2004).

A study of Taiwanese students and their portfolios was challenged by Yang (2003), who also showed that there were positive impacts on students’ autonomous learning. It helped them raise their awareness about learning strategies, facilitate the learning process, and enhance self-direction (Yang, 2003). These studies on portfolio strategies show that portfolios can be implemented to both initiate autonomy and develop higher students’ autonomy. In contrast, Lo’s (2010) study in Taiwan involved implementing portfolios as a form of reflective media. The participants had no experience in producing a portfolio and had little knowledge of autonomous learning. Having explained the required skills, participants were able to produce reflective portfolios that helped them enhance their EFL learning and practice autonomous learning skills (Lo, 2010).

b. Utilizing English Resources

To foster autonomy, students should be exposed to English language resources, which can range from a variety of physical or virtual entities and benefit students. Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) argued that all students’ engagement inside and outside class activities are regarded as possible manifestations of behavior that are autonomous in language learning. In terms of inside-class activities, this depends on teachers’ methods of adopting as much learning activities as possible to cater for students’ needs (Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002). However, not all activities adopted by teachers were successful. Therefore, it is important for teachers to select techniques that are conducive to their students. The finding of a Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan’s (2002) study in Hong Kong revealed that choosing activities successfully is more possible in activities that students already engage in and do not require changing their behavior (Spratt, et al., 2002). Similarly, Chan (2003) suggested that teachers are more likely to be successful in choosing activities for the students if they recognize their preferences. This agrees with the finding of Allen and Valette in 1977 that to promote awareness of the target culture in EFL classrooms the teacher should focus on student-oriented activities. The students will learn more from activities that they themselves have developed (Allen & Valette, 1977).

Not only inside-class activities, encouragement in outside-class activities are also needed. English corner initiated by groups of students in China is one successful activity in which the students by their own initiatives are exposed to English resources. It adopts English corners and English clubs as examples of learners’ creative language learning (Gao, 2008). Gao (2008) argues that club activities encourage students to become more involved in experiencing personal learning and involvement, and obtain support through the provision of assistance and resources, learning to make choices, and ultimately obtaining a
sense of freedom. Although Gao’s study did not focus on students’ autonomy, their experiences in making choices and feeling free from particular controls indicate the signals of autonomy as suggested by Andrade and Bunker (2009) in the definition above.

In Indonesia, exposure to English resources reported in Lamb’s (2004) study on autonomous language learning revealed that Indonesian students exposed to English books and magazines, listened to English language music, watched English movies and other English TV programmes, as well as doing an English course. The course’s usefulness was considered to be the most promising English learning initiative that students could use apart from their formal learning at schools. It was reported by the teachers in Lamb’s (2004) study that students cannot succeed in English unless they take a course in English. The level of autonomy of students in Lamb’s (2004) study has been shown by students’ ability to plan their actions by taking courses, monitoring their own learning by reflecting on how they benefit from the activities in it, and evaluating progress by considering aspects of how their skill in English has developed. This suggests that the experience of taking courses is indicative of autonomy. Accordingly, realizing learning autonomy or not Indonesian EFL learners are interested in English resources, and even institutions having financial problems are moving towards course delivery models of autonomous learning (Hurd, 1998, cited in Andrade & Bunker, 2009). This could signify Indonesian students’ autonomy has been initiated by their exposure to English resources.

c. Indonesian Educational Practices and Socio-Cultural Values

Learning English is challenging for Indonesian EFL learners. Autonomy is something that Indonesian language learners may be unfamiliar with. This is because capacity for autonomy in Indonesian EFL students is rarely emphasized or promoted in the pedagogical process. In turn, while some teachers want to promote autonomous learning in English language classrooms, they are often constrained by both education practices including curriculum, textbooks, and socio-cultural values.

Since Indonesian independence in 1945 to the present day, the curriculum in Indonesia has been revised about eight times. However, these revisions still do not satisfy skills qualifications as stipulated by the government and community (Bradford, 2007). Although the changes have provided opportunities for a variety of teaching methods and different goals, English teaching in Indonesia has been a failure (Bradford, 2007). Other obstacles range from focusing on learning results, large classes, and traditional obedience to educators. Indonesian EFL teaching and the learning process abounds with passive learners, is teacher-centred, and classrooms emphasize punishments rather than rewards (Exley, 2001). In addition, Indonesian learners are silent and class time is mostly spent copying notes from the blackboard and translating texts or vocabularies (Exley, 2001). As a result, initiating autonomy is difficult to do in a

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culture that is inflexible, hierarchical and where teaching and the learning environment are ineffective.

Text books are essential elements of education and teaching. They are increasingly important in autonomous learning. A study on teachers’ beliefs in regard to materials used in teaching in Indonesia reveals that internationally-published materials were more preferable than locally-produced materials (Zacharias, 2005). Among the reasons mentioned by the respondents are a better quality, natural, authentic, original, accurate and correct exposure to English, and easy availability of internationally-published materials (Zacharias, 2005). Some teachers found internationally-published materials are not problem-free, in that they may consist of cultural assumptions and language that too difficult to be understood (Zacharias, 2005). This fact indicates that if teachers may find textbooks are too difficult for them to understand, then students will find them confusing when they are trying to learn autonomously. Another potential risk is when some teachers are not aware of the cultural mismatch that could be found in such materials. Students suffer here when teachers are unable to explain subtle difference in meaning. When Indonesian learners are confronted with developing bicultural identity that is global and local, this will confuse them and ultimately discourage them for learning English (Lamb, 2003).

Besides the inflexible educational practices, socio-cultural customs also have greater impact on promoting autonomy in Indonesia. Borrowing a sociologist, Hofstede’s view, Novera (2004) restated that Indonesian culture is collectivist in character. Novera’s (2004) study on Indonesian academic, social, and cultural experiences found that Indonesian teachers and students are circumscribed by their respective social positions and traditional beliefs about learning. For example, the teacher is seen to be a moral authority and viewed as a fountain of knowledge (Lewis, 1997, cited in Novera, 2004). While reading and studying may play the most important part in learning English, Indonesian EFL learners are much less interested in both activities (Lamb, 2004). This will have negative long-term implications for students’ critical thinking or their ability to formulate questions when they are at university. Ultimately, students will be constrained in their recognition of leaning autonomy. Accordingly, to adopt the idea of autonomous learning some scholars suggested that it be examined in the context that the applications of autonomy are not culture-free (Jones, 1995; Pennycook, 1997; Schmenk, 2005; cited in Lo, 2010).

The autonomization process itself learners to understand how to develop and work more effectively as self-directed people (Smith, 2008). While self-directedness in learning is also a reflection of the socio-cultural norms (Kasworm & Bing, 1992, cited in Sert, 2006). There are many factors which may influence Indonesian students’ self-directedness in their study. A country’s economy as suggested by Bradford (2007) will influence students’ study orientation and pattern. For example, the
important, but Indonesian learners only use it as a fun activity. Also, Japanese people consider travel overseas is considered as a great opportunity in which to learn English, but Indonesia’s poorer society has conditioned many of its people to think hard about travel in the first place (Bradford, 2007).

The culture of a classroom also gives another impact on autonomy. An example found by Lengkanawati (2004) concerned Australian IFL (Indonesian as a foreign language) learners using cognitive, compensation, and social strategies in learning. Indonesian EFL learners use memory, metacognition, and affective strategies. Sanprasert (2009) revealed the same for Thai learners in whose culture, memorization, attention to detail, linear and logical analysis without critical thought are prized. This difference may indicate how Australian, Thai, or Indonesian language learners see themselves in the autonomous learning environment. Another fact is that the successful application of media and technology in Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, and Taiwan, as described above, the heavy use of English media outside the classroom is not rated as very important as a learning goal for learning by Indonesian students (Bradford, 2007). Similarly, Lamb’s (2004) study revealed that using computers in Indonesia is still restricted mainly to older teenagers. This indicates that utilizing media and technology in promoting autonomy for Indonesian learners would face another challenge. Briefly then, although learners are empowered and have the right to learn for themselves, their trainings and how to become an ideal autonomous learner will depend on how well the Western concept is adapted for non-Western students (Smith, 2008). In other words an autonomous learning strategy has to be relevant to Indonesia.

d. Strategy for Indonesian EFL learners to foster autonomy

The worldwide trend towards autonomous EFL learning, including Indonesia, indicates that the daily use of English is currently high and rising. Strategies have been successfully implemented to foster autonomy in other contexts and this need to be examined by Indonesian EFL learners. Regarding many educational practices and socio-cultural barriers that Indonesian EFL practitioners have to overcome, it is firstly essential to gauge their readiness before planning autonomy. This is because some barriers are often attached to particular behaviors and beliefs that students or teachers have, their readiness for autonomy and preparedness to change behaviors and beliefs. Cotterall (1995) investigated students’ readiness for autonomy by including six factors: the role of the teacher, role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approach to studying (Cotterall, 1995, p. 196). Cotterall (1995) believed that these factors can serve as the basis for promoting autonomy to learners. Through the analysis of students’ beliefs regarding each factor, Cotterall (1995) suggested that to promote autonomy, both teachers and learners should develop an
understanding of the process of learning and the role they play.

Cotterall’s (1995) study indicated that students’ autonomy is not innate. This view was challenged by Gordon (2005) who conducted research in the UK on the predisposition of learners towards autonomy. It revealed an overwhelming negative predisposition of students to many of the elements of autonomy (Gordon, 2005). Gordon’s (2005) study also suggested the need to re-examine autonomy from the respect of its types and level before implementing it. This can be the second strategy. However, Gordon’s (2005) conclusion did not completely indicate the impossibility of initiating autonomy because there were indications that students did foster autonomy. It was particularly shown when teachers and the students collaborated (Gordon, 2005). This is a crucial part of Gordon’s (2005) study that among other negative aspects of autonomy, all respondents (100%) responded positively to a question indicating the best way to introduce autonomy to these students is through their collaboration with teachers. This however leads to a new challenge for the teachers in that autonomous learning inside the classrooms also requires initiatives by teachers. This is another strategy to foster autonomy. Chan’s (2003) study showed that teachers had a much less positive attitude to their students’ being autonomous learners. This resulted from the teachers’ perception that they retained the major responsibility for most language-related decisions and they were reluctant to hand this over to their students (Chan, 2003).

These studies (Cotterall, 1995; Chan, 2003; Ade ojo, 2005) imply that although definition of autonomy refers to the ability of learners to take control of their own learning, it is essential to create an intervention in classroom practices. Citing Little’s concept of autonomy, Sanprasert (2009) added that the responsibility for learning cannot be automatically accepted uncritically into the learning or will not be easily reflected on by learners. Here the teachers’ role in creating conditions to support the development of autonomy plays a major part. It stems from students’ autonomy ultimately deriving from their teacher’s initiative (Sanprasert, 2009). However, Sanprasert (2009) recognized that learners’ autonomy cannot develop simply according to every teacher’ order unless the initiatives taken by teachers are attractive to them and help create a flexible teaching culture.

Littlewood’s (1999) has suggested that his preference for an ‘optimal relatedness’ concept suits East Asian students. This should be considered for implementation by Indonesian educators. For example, when the authority of a teacher in the classroom inhibits students’ freedom of choice, the teacher can exercise proactive autonomy as a transitional process to develop students’ skills and confidence (Littlewood, 1999). Another strategy that teachers can use is to integrate portfolios into the EFL context. When introducing the concepts of autonomous learning, Yang (2003) suggested that teachers
develop mini-lessons and guidelines, portfolio sharing and checking, adequate classroom time for assembling the portfolio, encourage students to include more than one type of material in their portfolio, and consider other media instead of paper. The Indonesian curriculum system is results-oriented, and this influences students’ motivation to simply fulfill the requirements of learning. Directing students to orient themselves to a broader concept of EFL learning is important. Vanijdee (2003) stated that the students should be directed to be oriented to the extent of using English for their future jobs. Authors of the education curriculum can also contribute by designing materials that promote skills and awareness of the language learning process (Vanijdee, 2003). This indicates that institutions offering English education or courses be aware of the significance of autonomy, decide on policy and plan more learning contexts, and provide more dynamic learning resources to attract the students so that they are motivated. Asian students traditionally view learning as an end product, which is contrasted to the concept of autonomy where the process is emphasized (Lo, 2010). Therefore, both end product and the process of how to get that product must be included in EFL learning evaluation to promote autonomy.

Motivation is critical to the concept of autonomy. Spratt et al.’s (2002) study found that motivation comes before autonomy. However, their study suggested that the relationship between motivation and autonomy could also be dynamic depending on types of motivation taking part (Spratt et al., 2002). Parents, for example, can play an important role in motivating their children’s autonomous learning. Gao’s (2006) study showed that Chinese parents have a profound influence on their children’s EFL learning attitudes. Parents built positive attitudes to the English language, and this generated a positive discourse in learners’ minds concerning English.

When students gauge their motivation, they may expose themselves to English language resources. Chinese students reported by Gao (2008) had been able to foster autonomy through their joining English clubs. The stages where they experienced a growing level of autonomy were as follows:

1. Spending time caring for and encouraging other participants
2. Giving emotional support by seeing English as a medium of self-assertion and part of people’s self-identity
3. Acknowledging others' capacity by developing their community or social group
4. Starting to see themselves in charge of their learning or leadership of their subgroups.

Promoting autonomy can also be initiated through an intensive course. Cotterall (2000) found it helped to develop students’ self-monitoring and greater autonomy because reflection leads to the ability to assess past learning and plan future action according to five principles designed by Cotterall (2000). These five principles used by Cotterall (2000) for intensive English language course in New Zealand were:
1. The course reflects learners’ goals regarding language, tasks, and strategies
2. Course tasks are explicitly linked to a simplified model of the language learning process
3. Course tasks either replicate real-world communicative tasks or provide a rehearsal for such tasks
4. The course incorporates discussion and practice with strategies known to facilitate task performance
5. The course promotes reflection on learning.

Above all, the students’ autonomy in EFL was suggested as depending on the students themselves (Lamb, 2004) where in Indonesia the autonomy exhibited by students was shaped by local context. Specifically, the state’s limited provision of English language education demands that students be motivated to find learning resources for themselves. In short, promoting autonomy among Indonesian secondary schools cannot be isolated from students’ and teachers’ readiness and motivation. Directing students to be oriented to autonomous learning is paramount. Introducing a portfolio makes it possible for students to monitor and reflect on their performance, modify their learning behavior accordingly, and set personal goals. A collaboration of teachers and schools can also be built through an intensive course. In short, in fostering autonomous students, it is necessary they are taught about initiative and motivation and how teachers and other educational practitioners can contribute positively to this.

CONCLUSION

This literature review has shown that there are many ways in which to foster learning autonomy. Using Media and Technology, autonomy can be promoted through the Personal Learning Environment (PLE), computer-based materials, and portfolio. It has helped students in Switzerland, the United Kingdom, Spain, Portugal, Taiwan, and Indonesia where learning autonomy in English language learning is promoted. Through exposure to English resources, autonomy can be initiated both inside and outside classrooms. Promoting autonomy inside the classrooms requires teachers’ using their initiative to select activities that are familiar to students. Regarding English resources outside the classroom, English clubs, English courses, and English items such as English movies, magazines, books, and songs can be utilized.

The promotion of autonomous learning in Indonesia, however, is confronted by the local history of inflexible and hierarchical education practices and socio-cultural traditions. Indonesia’s curriculum, learning objectives, and school textbooks abound in education practices and assumptions that are contradictory to the whole concept of learning autonomy. The unquestioned authority of teachers and students’ disinclination to read or use multimedia as learning tools are important socio-cultural conditions that hinder the initiation or promotion of students’ learning autonomy.

In respect to the barriers that emerged in this paper, some strategies can be used to
promote autonomy itself. The readiness of both students and teachers should be firstly examined. Secondly, as previous studies have shown in a variety of contexts where autonomy was promoted, learning autonomy has to initially suit the Indonesian context. The third strategy emphasizes teachers’ encouragement which can be built through teachers’ positive attitudes regarding autonomy, their ability to develop transitional process skills and having confidence in their students, and integrating portfolio. Students also need to have an actual orientation toward learning EFL and understanding its context. It includes designing materials that promote students’ awareness of the language learning process and knowing how to be motivated and how to initiate autonomy. Motivation to learn is something that is influenced by parents or the students themselves. Finally, intensive courses can also be used to promote students’ self-monitoring and autonomy.

All the above findings might not completely describe how autonomy can be fostered and what can be promoted to Indonesian EFL learners. The education practices and socio-cultural barriers revealed in this literature review cannot also be generalized to all, because there is so much variation in what is a large and culturally diverse country. An important consideration is that only a few studies have been done in Indonesia regarding learning autonomy. For this reason, further research into this area is required.
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