T.R.
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INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' LEARNER AUTONOMY ATTITUDES AND LIFELONG LEARNING TENDENCIES

Master's Thesis

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SAMSUN
2022

ACCEPTANCE AND APPROVAL OF THE THESIS

The study entitled **"EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' LEARNER AUTONOMY ATTITUDES AND LIFELONG LEARNING TENDENCIES"** prepared by **Ece Firuze BADAK** and supervised by **Assist. Prof. Dr. Müfit ŞENEL,** was found successful and unanimously accepted by committee members as Master thesis, following the examination on the date 11/11/2022.

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ ÖZERK ÖĞRENME TUTUMLARI İLE YAŞAM BOYU ÖĞRENME EĞİLİMLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

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Yaşam boyu dil öğrenimi, "özerk ve yaşam boyu öğrenenlerin" gelişimini gerektirmektedir. Bu nedenle dil eğitimi sınırları olmayan bölgelere taşınmıştır. Dil öğrenenlerin kendi kendine öğrenme aşamasında öğrenen özerkliği ile yaşam boyu öğrenme arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek onlara rehberlik edecektir. Öğretmen adaylarının yaşam boyu öğrenme ve öğrenen özerkliğine sahip olmaları, öğrencilerin yeni çağ toplumuna kazandırılmasında önemli rol oynamaktadır. Bu çalışma, 19 Mayıs Üniversitesi İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının öğrenen özerkliği tutumları ile yaşam boyu öğrenme eğilimleri arasındaki ilişkiyi cinsiyet, sınıf düzeyleri ve mezun oldukları liseler açısından incelemektedir. Ayrıca, çalışma bağımsız öğrenme ve ders çalışma alışkanlıkları gibi öğrenen özerkliğinin alt boyutları ile yaşam boyu öğrenme arasındaki ilişkiyi de irdelemektedir. Araştırmaya toplam 194 İngilizce öğretmen adayı (115 kadın; 79 erkek) katılmıştır. Katılımcılara Macaskill ve Taylor tarafından geliştirilen Özerk Öğrenme Ölçeği ve Kirby, Knapper, Lamon ve Egnatoff (2010) tarafından oluşturulan Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının tutum ve eğilimlerini değerlendirmek için nicel araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır. Veriler SPSS 24.0 kullanılarak yüzde ve frekans analizi ile verilmiştir. Bulgular, öğrenen özerkliği, alt boyutları ve yaşam boyu öğrenme arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğrenen özerkliği tutumları cinsiyete göre değişmezken, yaşam boyu öğrenme ile cinsiyet arasında erkekler lehine anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmuştur. Öğrenen özerkliğinin alt boyutlarından biri olan cinsiyet ile bağımsız öğrenme arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmazken, çalışma alışkanlıkları kadınlarda anlamlı bir farklılık göstermiştir. Öğrenen özerkliği, alt boyutları ve yaşam boyu öğrenme arasında sınıf düzeylerine göre istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Son olarak öğrenen özerkliği, alt boyutları ve yaşam boyu öğrenme lise türlerine göre değişiklik göstermemiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: İngilizce Öğretmen Adayları, Özerk Öğrenme, Yaşamboyu Öğrenme.

ABSTRACT

EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' LEARNER AUTONOMY ATTITUDES AND LIFELONG LEARNING TENDENCIES

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Lifelong language learning entails the development of 'autonomous and lifelong learners'. For this reason, language education has been moved to areas without borders. Examining the relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning during the self-learning phase of language learners will guide them. Prospective teachers' being with lifelong learning and learner autonomy plays an important role in integrating students into new age society. This study examines the relationship between learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies of Ondokuz Mayıs University Prospective English language teachers in terms of gender, grade levels and high schools they graduated from. It also scrutinizes the relationship between the sub-dimensions of learner autonomy, such as independence of learning and study habits, and lifelong learning. A total of 194 prospective English teachers (115 female, 79 male) participated in the study. Autonomous Learning Scale developed by Macaskill and Taylor (2010) and Lifelong Learning Scale created by Kirby, Knapper, Lamon and Egnatoff (2010) were applied to the participants. Quantitative research design was used to evaluate the attitudes and tendencies of prospective teachers. Data were given with percentage and frequency analysis using SPSS 24.0. Findings showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between learner autonomy, its sub-dimensions such as independence of learning and study habits and lifelong learning. Learner autonomy attitudes did not change in terms of gender, but a significant difference was found between lifelong learning and gender in favor of males. While there was no significant difference between independence of learning and gender, study habits showed a significant difference for females. There was a statistically meaningful difference between learner autonomy, autonomy sub-dimensions and lifelong learning by grade levels. Lastly, learner autonomy, its sub-dimensions, and lifelong learning did not differ according to high school types.

Keywords: Learner Autonomy, Lifelong Learning, Prospective English Language Teachers.

To my mother, who is the most autonomous and lifelong learner that I have ever seen in my life.

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Ece Firuze BADAK

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ALS	: Autonomous Learning Scale
BL	: Blended Learning
CALL	: Computer Assisted Language Learning
CEFR	: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CRAPEL	: Center for Research and Applications in Language Teaching
DL	: Distance Learning
EC	: European Commission
EFL	: English as Foreign Language
ELP	: European Language Portfolio
ELT	: English Language Teaching
EU	: European Union
ICT	: Information and Technology
LA	: Learner Autonomy
LL	: Lifelong Learning
LLS	: Lifelong Learning Scale
OECD	: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	: Program for International Student Assessment
TIMSS	: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UIL	: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Education allows societies to adapt to the developing technology and changes in the world. In addition, it also has a fundamental role in acquiring the necessary skills, values, and attitudes for fluxional working conditions. There are two main functions of education; the first is to adapt to innovations without ignoring the culture of the society, and the second is to raise generations that will create these innovations. Every society aims to have generations that lead to differences with their creativity while keeping up with new trends. For this reason, education might be prescribed as an important element all over the world. In the light of versatile changes regarding becoming a knowledge society and the new paradigms brought by globalization, it is required to raise productive individuals who can provide solutions to the problems they encounter, direct their learning, take responsibility for their own learning process, have problem-solving and critical thinking skills, accept the need for continuous learning, and are prone to the use of science and technology. Additionally, in the new education era, individuals need to use a foreign language effectively as well as their mother tongue (Çetin, Kaya & Geban, 2014). Today, it has become a necessity to learn a foreign language to get involved in cultural, political, economic, and technological exchanges with the countries of the world and contribute to one's own personal development. In the increasingly globalizing world, English has become a universal language. In this sense, English, which has become a language of international communication, has a substantive place in our country as well as countries that are OECD members and developing countries. With the role of the English language as a foreign or second language globally today, becoming a user of English means developing four major language skills such as listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Teachers and students play a prominent role in building these basic skills. As in countries where English is taught as a foreign language, target language use is quite limited in our country. Therefore, students generally may not find enough time to use the target language outside of the classroom. For this reason, it is critical to use the target language communicatively since language is not only a set of rules but also a tool that enables learners to convey a message as a means of communication. After all, a successful language education depends on the amount of real-life language usage of learners. As opposed to traditional education methods such as Grammar Translation,

Audiolingual, Direct Method, etc. teacher and learner roles have been redefined thanks to student-based approaches. Within the scope of learner-centered teaching, the teacher should fulfil roles: facilitating learning, presenting options to students, guiding each student put forward their own decisions, solving their own problems, supporting learning responsibility and planning unique tasks (Koç, 2006). On the other hand, learners are supposed to formulate their own learning goals and develop their own learning strategies and methods to prosecute these goals (Wang, 2011). The developments in a digital age demand learners' awareness of their own learning responsibilities, strategies, and skills to complete language tasks properly, the ability to continue their language learning process within and beyond the classroom activities regardless of time and place, and to make the language learning a lifelong process in their lives. On the condition that language learning continues as a lifelong learning process, both individuals and societies might be ready for educational, technological, and societal shifts. As Vasquez (2016) asserted that due to rapid changes and new requirements, the notions of learner autonomy and lifelong learning have been considered as future educational goals in the modern language teaching field. Learner autonomy helps students keep updated on their continuous learning, foster their lifelong learning, increase their multilingual capacities, adapt to constant innovations in the lifelong learning society. At that point, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) emphasizes three basic elements in foreign language teaching. These components are stated as learner autonomy, cultural diversity, and self-evaluation. Based on these three basic elements, the European Language Portfolio (ELP) has been developed. It is aimed to set a standard for language teaching and to put the CEFR into practice in the same way across the world. Within the CEFR, language learners have been grouped into the six reference language levels such as A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 since 2011 in Turkey. Accordingly, the Ministry of National Education has implemented new and student-centered primary education programs. The aim of programs mentioned previously is to develop learner autonomy by making the learner an active participant in all processes of education. Autonomous learners could overcome the barriers between life and learning. They also might access a lifelong learning process when they efficiently complete their planning and assessment skills. In this regard, the development of learner autonomy coexists with lifelong learning. Lifelong learning entails formal learning, informal learning, vocational education, technical education, in-service, and educational training processes that

occur outside of the school. From this perspective, it might be said that lifelong learning can take place at home, at work, at school, or wherever the individual is.

According to Walter (2010), the basic principle of lifelong learning is to continue to learn throughout life consciously and purposefully and accept this behavior as a learning habit. This means that language acquisition requires a lifelong process. Language is a part of life and thus it is impossible to limit language learning in classrooms. To utilize language in real life, learners need to be equipped with some crucial competencies and skills that allow them to employ their own learning opportunities. For instance, individuals with both autonomous learning and lifelong learning skills are like managers who govern their own learning processes in their whole life. However, it is a demanding job for a student to have such skills and learn them on their own. Thereby, students might need a facilitator who encourages and supports them. Teachers' effect is undeniable in supporting them to gain these skills and competencies. For individuals to be able to construct their own learning, to be equipped with the necessary knowledge, competencies, and skills, and to maintain their sustainable development; teachers need to train their students with autonomous and lifelong learning skills in the learning-teaching process (Oates, 2019). It is of significant that teachers should adopt learner autonomy and lifelong learning supportive instruction so that they might practice these skills in their own classrooms.

1.2. Significance of the Study

The essence of a learning society has stood out in the internet and information age, where our world has turned into a global village and we are in an information bombardment. Nowadays, concepts such as selection, active construction, organization and direction of knowledge, creativity, analysis and synthesis are more highlighted in language education. In an age where we benefit greatly from technology, individuals' self-development, learning to access various technological tools and improving their ability to use them competently depend directly on individuals participating in lifelong learning to initiate their own learning. In other words, rather than presenting information directly and teacher-centered education, showing students several ways of accessing information and having them admit learning responsibilities are the starting points of nurturing them with autonomous learning skills such as identifying, executing and regulating their own learning. It is given much more importance to how to nurture cooperative, independent, autonomous,

and lifelong learners in the construction of knowledge. Societies need to adopt this new learning culture. It has become inevitable to understand how individuals acquire self-regulated learning skills which are necessary life skills in 21st century language teaching (Karatas & Arpacı, 2021). In this sense, teachers being at the forefront of the education system and teacher candidates having an essential role for future generations should be ready to develop learner autonomy and lifelong learning mindsets. Given that the individuals who have been trained and will be trained by teachers are a part of society, the influence of teachers on individuals cannot be ignored. Undoubtedly, English teachers must have special field competencies and pedagogical knowledge to boost learners' achievement in language learning. For teachers to gain and foster these qualifications, it is beneficial that they must attend various national and international seminars, conferences, and workshops for foreign language education. Hence, teachers and teacher candidates can transfer these skills to students in the classroom environment. Successful language learning can take place when the concepts of learner autonomy and lifelong learning are fully internalized by individuals (Mackiewicz, 2002). Effective language learning requires that learners must have linguistic skills both in their mother tongue and in the target language. In addition, lifelong learners' being risk takers, having the high motivation to learn, being persistent in learning, and having strong social, multicultural, intercultural, interpersonal and communication skills can enable them to become more proficient in language learning. Moreover, autonomous and lifelong learners are capable of maintaining their curiosity and interest in learning throughout their lives. It could be possible for them to relearn unlearned or missing topics that they have taken from the courses in the classroom through their own learning styles and strategies and work on their own weaknesses (Harmer, 2007). From this point of view, in today's societies and education systems, learner autonomy and lifelong learning skills and qualities are necessary for each other. In other words, it could be acceptable that learner autonomy and lifelong learning skills are two complementary variables. One can continue lifelong learning effectively if one actualizes learner autonomy. The lifelong learning process depends on the capability of the students to keep their curiosity alive and take charge of their own learning. This enables autonomous learners to relish lifelong learning. Especially in recent years, research topics such as lifelong learning, individual learning, and learner autonomy have been discussed together. However, according to the relevant literature in the field of language teaching, studies that combined these two variables on prospective

teachers together almost do not exist. Thus, this current study is designed as quantitative research that differs from other studies as it examines the relationship between prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies in language teaching. It is believed that this research will contribute to the literature in this respect and shed light on forthcoming research on the subject. The results of the study will ferret out if there is a direct relationship between those variables. In addition, this study intends to discover future teachers' own learning potential.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

2023 Education Vision of the Ministry of National Education Document published in 2018 concentrates mainly on teaching English. It highlights field-specific methodological dynamics in English language teaching and determines its goals related to teacher competencies. The 2023 Education Vision Document poses the question ‘How’ in education practices through analytical perspectives. It has been aimed that foreign language education will be handled through a student-centered approach, using methodologies that are suitable for learners' cognitive levels. Namely, the uniform implementation of curricula across the country will be abandoned. It is highlighted that language teachers should choose the methods in which students can learn the language more actively and consider different individual characteristics in the education process. In this sense, for the outside classroom activities, digital environments should be built so that students can follow native speakers of target languages, reach the living language, and complete online writing and discussion activities. The education vision necessities teachers to alter teaching styles in accordance with students' needs, quit their authoritative roles and superior attitudes and explore new teaching ways. English language teachers need to design a communicative atmosphere in their classes by bringing the real-world situation into their classroom settings through authentic teaching materials that keep students’ motivation and increase their interests. Teachers playing a one-sided role in the learning process is like flying with a single wing. Students taking self-responsibility for learning and playing an active role in the education process such as ‘producing’, ‘developing solutions to problems’, and ‘making their dreams come true’ enable them to take part in the second wing. Scenarios that students may encounter in real life or close to real-life should be authentic and suitable for educational purposes and

students' readiness and language proficiency levels. In accordance with these goals, language learners who are aware of the common values and new-age skills will contribute to themselves, their families, and their country. Additionally, learners who have strong willpower, maintain their natural curiosity, and view learning itself as rewarding are among the main goals of the 2023 Education Vision. It is a necessity to expand pupils' awareness of learner autonomy. Thus, they might be competent in self-control, critical and creative thinking skills, effective communication, and adaptability to changes.

The development of learner autonomy facilitates the tendency for lifelong learning. Language education in the 21st century is not limited to school environments or institutions. Individuals can break down the walls of formal language education and develop attitudes where they continuously sustain their language education. The lifelong learning approach enables new perspectives by coming up with innovative suggestions for language education, providing a holistic world view, respecting for diversity, supporting autonomy and self-awareness, and evaluating language teaching practices (Malcolm & Zukas, 2002).

Lifelong learning philosophy encourages foreign language teachers to provide online and face-to-face training and work with native English speakers. As a result of Turkey's 2023 education vision, teachers need to engage the pupils in the sense of ownership over their learning, encourage them to keep learning and rediscover their learning in order to evolve students as autonomous and lifelong learners.

Thereby, future teachers are key role models who can internalize the pedagogies for learner autonomy and lifelong learning, detect in which areas they will develop learner autonomy and lifelong learning skills, to what extent they will allow students to identify their own objectives, which decisions can be made together with the learner about selecting educational situations and learn how to implement these skills and tendencies in a real classroom setting. In this way, they enable to train their future students. Thanks to guiding learners to become innovative, autonomous, and lifelong individuals, the aim is also to prepare learners to become effective communicators of English in the global world. In this sense, this present study mainly attempts to explore if there is a relation between prospective English language teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and learner autonomy attitudes. Furthermore, the study also aims to probe the effect of gender, years of education and graduated high school types of prospective

English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes, learner autonomy sub-dimensions: independence of learning, study habits and lifelong learning.

1.4. Research Questions

The current study attempts to answer the following research questions in line with the research goals:

1. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies?

2. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and gender?

2.1. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' independence of learning and gender?

2.2. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' study habits and gender?

3. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and gender?

4. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and years of education?

4.1. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teacher's independence of learning and years of education?

4.2. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' study habits and years of education?

5. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and years of education?

6. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and graduated high school types?

6.1. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' independence of learning and graduated high school types?

6.2. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' study habits and graduated high school types?

7. Is there a relationship between prospective English language teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and graduated high school types?

1.5. Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions for this study are as follows:

- It has been assumed that all the prospective English language teachers participating in this research would give sincere and objective answers to all the questions in the questionnaire. Furthermore, during the study, the researcher has assumed to obtain the participants' meaningful answers.
- The prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies are not influenced by their demographic characteristics.
- The prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies are influenced by their demographic characteristics.
- The analysis of attitudes and tendencies of prospective English language teachers will be beneficial in the future development of learner autonomy and lifelong learning in the language teaching and learning context.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

This study presents important and meaningful implications. However, this present study is limited to only one state university and only one department, English Language Teaching.

1.7. Definitions of Some Important Concepts

The following definitions are presented to clarify the theoretical framework of the research.

Learner autonomy is "the ability of a learner to take control of their own learning, either in a classroom or independently" (Holec, 1981, p.3).

Lifelong Learning: It refers to "the whole of life-long learning activities to develop flexible, diverse, and usable knowledge, skills and competencies at different times and places from a personal, social, or employment perspective" (European Commission 2001, p. 9).

Attitudes: It refers to “a psychological tendency that is related to human behaviors by assessment a particular entity with some degree of favor and disfavor” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.2).

Lifelong Learning Tendency: It is set of habits and actions to handle with changing conditions, dynamics of life and ongoing learning flexibly (Demirel & Coşkun, 2009).

Consequently, this chapter provided background of the study, significance of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, assumptions of the study, limitations of the study and definitions of some important concepts.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The History of Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy started to gain importance in the scope of language teaching after the 20th century. However, since learning has been a requirement of human beings since the first era, autonomy dates back to ancient times. For example, in the 1500s, Galileo said, "You cannot teach a person anything; you can only help him find it." Based on this quote, students are generally expected to be to perform autonomous learning behaviors. The origin of autonomy is rooted in the cultural background that started during the enlightenment period in Europe. It can even be stated that autonomy is at the center of enlightenment thought (Tok, 2011; Üzüm, 2014). The notion of personal autonomy has been central liberal-democratic and liberal-humanist thought in Europe since the 18th century. Looking at the recent history, according to Gremmo and Riley (1995), there are some factors based on the development of learner autonomy. These factors: minority rights, criticism towards Behaviorism, education for adults, more people attending schools and universities, foreign language learning becoming popular, commercialized, and active language learning. In the 1960s and 1970s, as a consequence of the Humanistic movement, the term individuality came to the fore at the heart of education. Thus, the basis for the development of autonomy was prepared. The reflection of Humanism in language education is learner-centeredness. In this sense, teachers should be supporters and facilitators to help learners unleash their potential. Humanistic Approach expects learners to be aware of their duties, know their self-worth, and evaluate themselves objectively. Thanks to the pioneers of Humanistic Movement such as Carl Rogers (1961), and Maslow (1970) the ideas of Humanism started to flourish in language education. Therefore, it underlines individual differences and learner autonomy. Aside from these philosophers, Dewey argued (1916) that the concept of learner autonomy developed in response to an authoritarian society that forced people to admit common values, practices, and beliefs. In addition to the Humanistic Approach, Constructivism highlights learners' efforts in the process of learning. That is to say; learners need to learn how to construct new knowledge through relating previous information. Constructivists such as Ausubel (1968), Piaget (1970), Bruner (1975), and Vygotsky (1978) advocated that learning is an active process and for meaningful learning, knowledge must be matched with prior knowledge consciously. Learner autonomy,

cooperativity, and active learning can be considered as crucial factors for constructivist scholars. The term autonomy first came into use in the field of language teaching through the establishment of Center for Research and Applications in Language Teaching (CRAPEL) within the European Union Project on Modern Languages in 1970s. The main purpose of the projects at CRAPEL is to bring autonomy to learners. Thus, they have an opportunity to experience autonomous learning through various materials. In 1971, Chalon, the founder of CRAPEL, gave importance to the development and implementation of learner autonomy (cited in Egel, 2009). After his death, Holec (1981) focused on autonomy studies with his book 'Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning'. In the 1980s, learner autonomy has become a central pillar. Transmission from teacher-centered approaches to learner-centered approaches and communicative language teaching has brought about opportunities for the emergence of autonomy in English Language Teaching.

2.1.1. Definitions and Misconceptions of Learner Autonomy

Autonomy is based on the ancient Greek 'autonomia' and means independence, self-governance, or self-government. It was put forward as a concept used in politics at the time of Aristotle. However, in the 20th century, it had a great importance both in the political and philosophical fields. Thornbury (2006) defined learner autonomy as the capability of directing responsibilities and deciding one's own learning. Given the definition, it can be concluded that learner autonomy emphasizes self-management, independence, and self-decision-making skills. For the last two decades, learner autonomy has been a buzzword in teaching and learning foreign languages. There are some different terms and concepts used by scholars to define learner autonomy. Holec (1981), one of the prominent names in the literature, defined learner autonomy as the ability of an individual to take responsibility for his or her own learning process. He also stated that if learners can take responsibility, they can be considered as autonomous learners. Benson and Voller (1997, pp.70-72) explained learner autonomy in some different perspectives:

- One's studying on their own;
- Having a set of skills to apply in autonomous learning;
- An innate capacity which refuses traditional learning;
- One's own responsibility for their own learning.

According to Keegan (1996), learner autonomy refers to having one's own actions and being conscious of these actions through reflective thinking skills. Bonnett and Cuypers (2003) stated that learners' ideas should be considered and they need to be encouraged to create their own learning plans and follow their own ways freely. Paiva and Braga (2008) addressed learner autonomy as a socio-cognitive system. This socio-cognitive structure stresses the control of the learning process, decision-making skills, planning, and evaluation processes. He also identified the elements of the autonomy system as school, student, teacher, social, political, and economic situation, education policy, and technology. These elements are not independent from each other. On the contrary, there is a dynamic relationship between these elements. Dikilitaş and Griffiths (2022) asserted that learner autonomy is the capacity of being independent, forming associations between previous and new information, and governing one's own education journey. From these definitions, learner autonomy helps individuals to take their own learning responsibilities in their learning process and to motivate themselves by evoking that everyone is unique as fingerprints.

Despite the multifarious definitions of the concept of learner autonomy, it might be impossible to say that the term is completely understood (Yıldırım, 2012). For instance, autonomy is not synonym with 'self-access', 'self-instruction', 'self-education', and 'distance learning'. These concepts are related to each other, but autonomy is based on attitudes and abilities in general (Durmuş, 2006). Hence, it differs from other terms. One of the misconceptions of autonomy comes from the perception of being completely independent of the teacher and other students. Autonomous students do not only have to learn on their own. Instead, they play an active role in the learning process and can get assistance from their teachers and peers when it is necessary. It would be wrong to conclude that autonomy is a process of learning alone without the assistance of teachers and knowledgeable peers. Conversely, the individuals work in collaboration with the teacher and other peers. As the third misconception, the role of the teacher in learner autonomy is ignored. The teacher has some roles such as trainer, advisor, resource provider, guider who aims to instil and model 21st century qualifications and skills.

Autonomy is not a fixed concept. It is a lifelong process and can change over time (Noorda, 2013). Lastly, it may not be true to categorize students as fully

autonomous and non-autonomous. While students may be considered autonomous in some ways, they may also have non-autonomous behaviors.

2.1.2. Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

- Nurturing autonomous learners is one of the desired goals in the education process. For this purpose, there has been a focus on providing students with autonomous learning skills. Castle (2004, pp. 4-6) listed the common characteristics of autonomous learners as follows;
- Being organized and disciplined
- Being logical and analytical
- Being reflective (thoughtful) and self-aware,
- Being curious
- Being flexible,
- Being determined and responsible
- Being assertive and creative,
- Having self-confidence and a positive self-image,
- Being an independent and self-directed individual,
- Developing information access skills,
- Having knowledge about the learning process,
- Developing and using evaluation criteria.

Thanasoulas (2012) claimed that autonomous learners take risks to communicate in the target language, their predictive ability is enhanced and they revise and show much tolerance towards the target language. Karababa, Eker and Arık (2010) asserted that independent and responsible learners are aware of which strategies and options fit their needs and priorities in the learning process. Moreover, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) argued that autonomous learners design their own learning by discovering their own needs, interests, and values. In case of encountering some problems, they are more resistant to motivate themselves easily and utilize a range of aids than other students. In short, autonomous learners undertake an active role in every stage of learning. In this learning path, they might be confident in identifying their targets, monitoring their needs and reflecting upon their own learning.

2.2. Development of Learner Autonomy Stages

Learner autonomy begins with the emergence of students' awareness towards learner autonomy. Awareness might develop gradually so that students can take initiatives by practising and improving their capacity. The feelings and thoughts that learners develop on their own responsibilities and roles influence the development of learner autonomy. These factors determine students' attitudes towards learner autonomy. In this sense, attitudes can be defined as ‘’hypothetical construct to clarify individuals’ behaviors and include cognitive, affective and behavioral components’’ (Baker, 1995, p. 76). Dörnyei (2007) stated that attitudes, which are one of the most critical socio-psychological factors of language learning, can be accepted as the indicators of achievement and shaped by some factors including peers, parents and teachers. It is essential to investigate the factors that make language learners have positive and negative attitudes towards autonomy. Afterwards, integrating learner autonomy into various applications and exercises to gain the targeted skills is required. However, this process can go slowly since changing acquired attitudes or acquiring new ones is not an easy task. Over time, the changes in students' attitudes shape their new beliefs and values on their views. In the last stage, these beliefs turn into perceptions with the acquisition of new learning habits. In order for this autonomy development to be successful, the roles of teachers and students are of tremendous important (Tran, 2020).

2.2.1. Several Approaches and Methods to Cultivate Learner Autonomy

Two crucial elements that foster learner autonomy should not be overlooked. The first one is teachers and another factor is learners. Teachers need to relinquish their traditional roles and authoritative attitudes. On the other hand, learners must be ready to take charge of their own learning processes. It is aimed to enable students to use their own cognitive capacities and to have a say in learning activities for learner autonomy. Students who strive to exhibit autonomous learning behaviors may need a mentor, that is a teacher. For individuals to manage their own learning, it is fundamental to create environments in which they are at the center of the selection of learning goals, content, educational situations, and assessment types rather than a traditional teaching environment. In this regard, it is an incomplete idea to expect students to promote learner autonomy by controlling the learning process without support from facilitators and peers. Therefore, prospective teachers should internalize

and apply the effects of learner autonomy on teaching methods and techniques, and what the roles of students and teachers are (Öncü, 2019). Sadaghian and Marandi (2021) believed that educators and teachers need to help learners use language independently and develop their ability to communicate in real situations they encounter in their daily lives. In this sense, besides learner autonomy, teacher autonomy is also an important concept for learners to achieve the determined goals independently. Teacher autonomy refers to the freedom of teachers to decide for themselves and make choices about their education (Ayral, Özdemir, Türedi & Fındık, 2014, pp. 210-211). There are some main principles of teacher autonomy. These are:

- Capacity for one's own professional action: Teachers need to have a strong sense of responsibility for their profession.
- Capacity for one's own professional development: An autonomous teacher can develop awareness for acquiring knowledge and acquiring various pedagogical skills.
- Being independent of control upon other people for professional action and development: Autonomous teachers have the freedom from the desires and constraints by their colleagues.
- The most important factor for the development of teacher autonomy is the provision of a control-free environment.

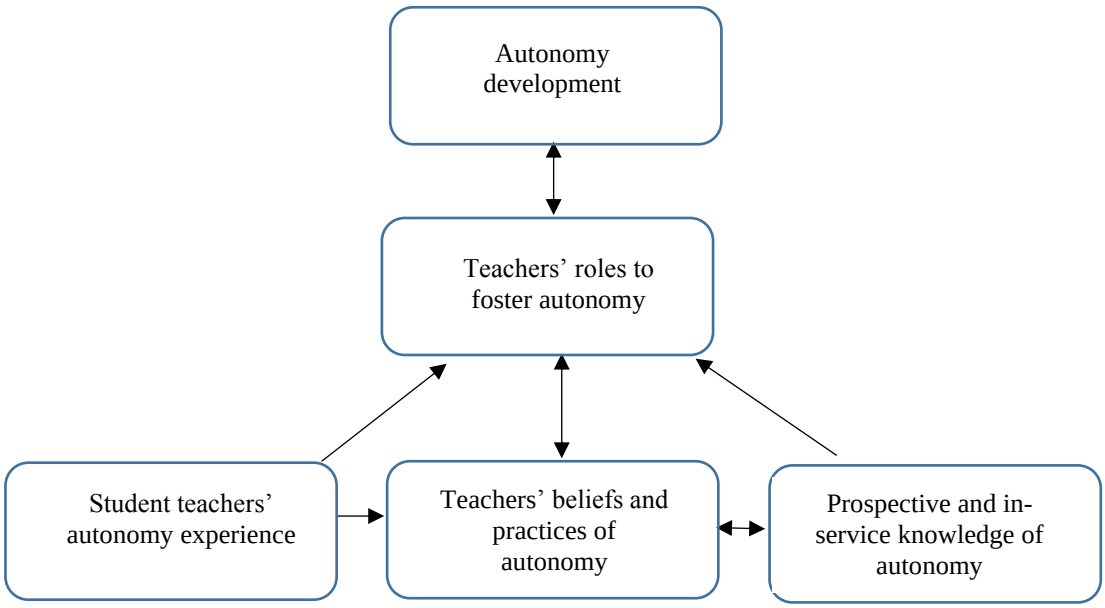


Figure 2.1. Learner autonomy development model (Han, 2020, p.158)

As seen in Figure 2.1, there are some steps for autonomy development. Firstly, student teachers' previous educational background might impact their beliefs and implications to boost learner autonomy. Then, teachers' knowledge of content and pedagogy could influence their autonomy beliefs and practices. Ultimately, these stages might change teachers' roles. For this reason, the importance of teacher training and education is undeniable to facilitate the autonomous learning process.

In today's world, it is vital for foreign language teachers to have a new identity that seeks connections between phenomena, having knowledge and skills in managing learning activities instead of transmitting the information. A learning environment is needed both for teachers to plan what they can do about developing learner autonomy and for students to enjoy working on learning objectives in order to take certain qualities in their own learning process. According to Lamb (2008), this pleasant atmosphere depends on the teacher and student interaction. Students are not dependent on teacher's authority. Namely, they can exploit their social and cognitive resources by their needs and goals. As for Dam's autonomous learning model, teachers are supposed to give their students some responsibilities in the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating these plans, and assist them in fulfilling these duties. In this case, teachers need to create activities that the students can reflect their opinions. The authentic materials based on real life allow students to improve their communication skills (Little, Dam & Legenhausen, 2017). Strengthening the learner's strong internal locus of control and their desire to be responsible in the learning process encompasses all stages of learning. The stages are: determining the objectives and content, choosing the methods and techniques to be used, and evaluating what has been learned (Kutanis & Mesci, 2011).

Some methods and techniques that enhance learner autonomy can be implemented in the classroom. One of them is creating a portfolio which is a planned collection of student activities to monitor students' development and success in the learning process. Language portfolio has gained importance since the Council of Europe has implemented the European Language Development File Project in all member countries. In this way, the weaknesses and strengths of the students can be determined. Furthermore, in the ELP, students assess their own language learning to develop their autonomy by using 'can do statements'. They also can observe their learning progress. In addition to portfolios, students may be asked to keep a diary

describing their own learning experiences to assess their learning preferences. Peer-review and self-assessment also provide students reflect on their learning outputs. In peer review, students have a chance to improve critical thinking skills and collaborative learning by considering different perspectives with readers' comments. Moreover, they also can make use of basic communication skills such as speaking, listening, writing and, reading. As Hyland (2004) indicated, peer review helps them become more autonomous L2 English users. Self-assessment allows learners to take charge of their learning, reflect on their roles and increase their ability for judgement. Kristmanson, Lafargue, and Culligan (2013) stated that making students understand the importance of self-evaluation and teaching them how to assess themselves are necessary for the growth of learner autonomy. At the same time, they also clarified that teacher candidates and teachers should concentrate on finding out new digital tools. Another way that supports learner autonomy is to construct self-access learning centers which are available for students. These centers are educational environments that permit students to organize their own learning and access a broad range of resources such as online and printed, according to their needs and wishes. Besides these materials, textbooks might be considered effective toolkits in both fostering autonomy and developing creativity among students. Thereby, the books need to have multimedia support to promote learner autonomy.

Fostering learner autonomy in foreign language learning supports students in being aware of language learning strategies. The strategies most used by language learners are listed: by McCarthy (2000, p.15).

1. **Social Strategies:** Vygotsky underlined that an individual play an active role in the process of making sense of knowledge and constructing information. Therefore, social interaction is required for the development of the individual. When individuals need help in their zone of proximal development, a teacher or a knowledgeable peer enable to supply this assistance. Thus, they could be more likely to act more autonomously in their future learning.
2. **Affective Strategies:** Positive emotions play a decisive role in autonomy development. These are satisfaction, pride, hope and enjoyment. People with positive emotions feel more confident and have better learning performance and lower levels of learning anxiety when compared to learners with high

levels of negative feelings. Considering Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, negative feelings hinder language input. Hence, if a teacher is inclined to accept the negative feelings of individuals in the learning process and remove these psychological barriers through their emotional intelligence, critical thinking skills and problem-solving skills, students can move forward to become more self-confident and autonomous individuals.

3. **Cognitive Strategies:** Learning strategies and styles are effective in the growth of autonomous learning. Learning strategies have some facets such as cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social. Cognitive strategies are; repetition, note-taking, description, translation, transferring, inference, direct physical response, deduction, keyword, searching for the source of the problem, contextualization, detailed observation, sensory description, grouping, and recombination. Brown (2001) states that learning style refers to the choice of one learning situation or condition over another. After understanding their own learning processes, learners are liable to take more responsibility and take control over these processes. In this regard, a student who can think strategically, consciously select a suitable learning strategy for himself and adopt his learning styles according to the situation can be considered as an autonomous learner.
4. **Metacognitive Strategies:** One of the most important characteristics of autonomous students is that they take advantage of metacognitive knowledge and strategies appropriately. Metacognitive knowledge means what ones know about how they learn; what they know about the procedures and strategies (Young & Fry, 2008). On the other hand, metacognitive strategies refer to the tactics and methods used to achieve goals and they require planning, monitoring, and regulation of cognition (Sarıçoban & Behjoo, 2017).

Another important concept in the development of autonomy is self-efficacy. It is stated that self-efficacy influences personal motivation and learner autonomy. Bandura (1977) defines the concept of self-efficacy as "a person's belief about his/her own capacities to do something succeed" (p.193). It can be concluded that learner autonomy is not a process that can occur all at once and develop on its own. Conversely, it is a phenomenon that continues to develop through the teamwork of the teacher and the

student. In order to achieve autonomy-supportive instruction, school administrators and parents must take into account of the implementation of learner autonomy principles. An ideal learning atmosphere should be based on a combination of different perspectives. In this sense, teachers need to adjust their teaching methods and materials regarding the learners and learning content.

2.2.2. Implementation of Learner Autonomy

With the emergence of different practices and education laws, learner autonomy has become an education policy which is planned to be developed by the Ministry of National Education in 2013. Since 2012, it has started to teach four language skills in an integrated way. According to the Ministry of National Education (2013), the new curriculum model focused on the development of communication skills in language education. Hence, individuals with different needs, interests and ideas were allowed to express their feelings and ideas. With the communicative approach and collaborative teaching, it is intended that students establish associations between language and daily life. Current trends in the field of language teaching highlight the importance of experiential learning, that is, 'learning by doing'. In other words, it is underlined that the contribution of students to their own learning will occur through active participation. Especially in the arena of language teaching, learning experiences, communication culture and personal learning processes have become paramount in experiential learning. This type of learning includes a rich variety of interactive applications such as portfolio preparation, reflective personal diaries, role-playing, and drama activities. These learning outcomes are important in preparing learners to behave more autonomously and regulate their own learning since learners are considered as a whole, intellectually and emotionally.

In recent years, Distance Learning, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Blended Learning (BL) have become more popular in ELT (Altaş & Öngün, 2010). Thus, English language teachers could exploit some online learning platforms such as EBA, Sebit V Cloud, Zoom, Moodle, Babble, Duolingo, Memorize, Pimsleur, and Rosetta Stone for different age groups and proficiency levels in recent years (Mısır, 2018). In these programs, students could foster their language skills by studying at their own pace and level. It is unreasonable to say that some of the targets for the successful implementation of learner autonomy have been fully achieved (Han, 2014). Despite some suggested techniques and methods, some studies show that

teacher-centered traditional language teaching approaches are still implemented instead of communicative language teaching activities (Solak & Bayar, 2015). It is also stated that individual differences and needs in schools could frequently be ignored due to the crowded classroom environments and financial inadequacies. Furthermore, the material choices may not totally meet the students' interests and needs. Teachers also might not be fully qualified in terms of theoretical knowledge and teaching practice experiences to enhance learner autonomy culture in a real classroom.

Specifically, in the ELT departments, the course contents are not sufficient to promote the necessity of learner autonomy and teacher autonomy. In this sense, the current study aims to determine prospective English language teachers' attitudes by increasing their awareness towards learner autonomy. Changing attitudes towards learner autonomy is related to adopting some learning skills and qualities that individuals have acquired or are still acquiring throughout their lives. For instance, passive learning or teaching is not an innate quality. On the contrary, it arises from the inability of the individual to be brought up in accordance with the learner autonomy culture. The struggle to become an autonomous learner is a lifelong endeavour. It seems that autonomous learners might be inclined to sustain their learning after a formal education environment, just as lifelong learners could possess an ongoing desire to learn by removing barriers.

2.3. Historical Development of Lifelong Learning

In 1960, a conference on 'Adult Education in a Changing World' was held in Monteral, Canada. In the 1970s, efforts were initiated by UNESCO for the implementation the idea of lifelong learning. At the end of the conference, it was decided that education is an activity that continues throughout life. Hence, it could be inappropriate to limit education to age and buildings, instead, education should be designed as an existential continuum as it is an authentic part of life, and educational activities should be more flexible (Aksoy, 2013). In 1973, the report titled 'Strategy for Lifelong Learning' by UNESCO Institute for Education, underlined that lifelong learning is a must for individual learning and professional mobility in the global economy and competitive environment. (EURYDICE, 2000). In this context, OECD (2003) has developed some tests such as the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) and the International Research on Mathematics and Science Trends (TIMSS), which provide a broad consensus in societies, lead countries to

standardize their education systems with certain exams, and measure students' success on an international scale. In 1995, the European Union (EU) carried out a study called 'Towards a Learning Society'. In the same year, the EU commission report titled 'White Bulletin' in which lifelong learning goals were set. The year 1996 was declared 'European Year of Lifelong Learning'. Later, the program SOCRATES I (1995-1999) was initiated and the implementation was continued with the program SOCRATES II (2000-2006) in accordance with the objectives of the Lisbon strategy. In 2006, on account of growing interest in lifelong learning, the UNESCO Institute of Education was renamed as the UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning (UIL) to reflect the idea of lifelong education at school or outside of the school and to emphasize the importance of lifelong learning. Between 2007 and 2013, the European Union Integrated Action Plan Program was designed and implemented. It has been named as 'Lifelong Learning Integrated Programme' and consists of different programs, including Comenius (School education for primary and high school students), Erasmus (Higher Education), Leonardo Da Vinci (Vocational education), Grundtvig (Developing professional skills for adults). In 2008, the European Qualifications Framework was adopted by the European Parliament and Council of Europe in the scope of lifelong learning. This framework is based on the principles of assisting citizens in their lifelong learning and promoting their mobility between countries. In line with all these purposes, lifelong education strategies that give importance to the innovation-based information society are also included in the Europe 2021 Education Vision.

After these developments in Europe, Turkey also took steps for lifelong learning. In 2011, institutions serving under the name of the General Directorate of Non-formal Education in the 1970s, the General Directorate of Apprenticeship and Non-formal Education in 1992 and the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning were established.

In 2006, an official comprehensive study titled 'The Driving Force for Turkey's Success: Lifelong Learning Policy Document' was prepared. The lifelong learning approach was discussed for the first time under a heading in the 17th National Education Council in 2010, and it was underlined that a national policy should be prepared for this issue. In addition, the 2009-2013 Lifelong Learning Strategy Document was published on equal opportunities in education and the removal of time and space restrictions in lifelong learning (Kılıç & Taşpınar, 2017). Between 2007 and

2013, Lifelong Learning and Youth Programs, which lots of individuals benefit from, were implemented (Erasmus, Comenius, Gruntvig). Thanks to these programs, citizens had the opportunity to improve themselves in the EU member and candidate countries, such as improving the quality of vocational education, training qualified personnel, and internship opportunities abroad. Between 2014-2020, these programs were replaced by the Erasmus+ Program, which includes opportunities for different age groups in the field of education. Through the advantages of these programs, individuals are able to acquire lifelong skills, increase employment opportunities, and strengthen individual development.

Lifelong learning is a part of the 2023 Education Vision and it is planned to promote skill training for 21st century skills such as learning and innovation skills (creativity, critical thinking, communication, and cooperation), information, media, and technology skills (information literacy, media literacy, information, and communication technologies), life and career skills (flexibility, productivity, social and intercultural skills). Due to the Covid 19 outbreak, distance learning and mobile learning have an important place in foreign language education with the popularization of technology. At the same time, spreading non-formal education opportunities for all segments of society and increasing the recognition of certificates by certain standards are among the main targets.

2.3.1. Definitions of Lifelong Learning

As a consequence of knowledge-based perspectives in the world, the need for learning new information and qualifications has arisen. Acclimatizing rapid information exchange, and different and new pursuits in acquiring knowledge is only possible with lifelong learning. Education is a lifelong learning perspective that does not lose its importance when people are amenable to learning in pre-school, during school and after school. According to the traditional understanding of education, learning is limited to formal learning within the boundaries of the school. However, today, recrafting education is a must to remove the learning limitations. New-age learners are involved in the never-ending learning process in order to follow all these developments and update their knowledge constantly. This has brought the concept of lifelong learning to the fore, in other words, ‘unlimited learning’, ‘learning everywhere, and ‘continuous education’ at any age, without putting learning into certain patterns. Along with encompassing teaching and learning within the school

system, lifelong learning suggests that education can occur in every area and every moment of life (Boyacı, 2019). With the improvement of lifelong learning, individuals can make their learning a part of their lives, learn how to learn and ensure their continuous learning. According to Lifelong Learning Strategy Paper for 2009-2013, lifelong learning is all types of learning activities that an individual participates in throughout his or her life in order to enrich and improve his knowledge, skills, interests, and competencies from an individual, social, and employment-related perspective. According to Green (2002), lifelong learning occurs in every phase of life from the cradle to the grave and it takes place in all areas of life from school to work, from street to home. Lambeir (2005) defines lifelong learning as a continuous process that extends learning opportunities throughout life and develops an individual's capacity and competencies throughout his/her life.

There are some common elements in the definitions of lifelong learning. These can be summarized by Laal (2011, p. 476) as follows:

- It includes formal and informal education processes.
- It is a necessity for the information society in future.
- It offers universal learning opportunities to every individual regardless of age, gender and status.
- It recognizes the importance of learning activities that take place outside of educational institutions.
- It helps people develop skills that access information and utilize it independently and actively.
- It is a source of motivation for people to develop their awareness of learner autonomy.
- It provides unlimited learning or lifelong learning.

2.3.2. The Purpose and Importance of Lifelong Learning

According to Toffler (1970, p.80), "the ignorant people of the 21st century is not those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn and learn again". Although lifelong learning is a concept associated with education that is aimed at reorganizing the existing education system by revealing individuals' full potential (Akbaş & Özdemir, 2002). The main purpose of lifelong learning is to encourage every individual in society to achieve the highest level of educational attainment. In the State

Planning Organization ‘Lifelong Education’ or ‘Non-Formal Education Specialization Commission Report’ prepared by European Commission (2002), three main objectives of lifelong education were highlighted. These are: ending encyclopedic information, ending the transfer of information in traditional ways, and democratizing education. The general objectives of lifelong learning in the report prepared by the European Commission (2002, p.163) are:

- To build societies that offer equal opportunities for all people throughout their lives and to provide education and training based on the demands and needs of individuals.
- To enable people to acquire knowledge and skills that change with working methods, workplace organization and changing professional demands, and to identify ways that provide this education.
- To support people to participate in all aspects of modern social life.

Poyraz and Titrek (2013) stated that the goals of lifelong learning are learning for a democratic society, a qualified workforce, and a better life.

2.3.3. Lifelong Learning in Foreign Language Education

Foreign language learning affects the self-improvement of individuals; it encourages them to meet a new culture, increase their flexibility with different lifestyles, respect the similarities and differences between their own culture and others. For individual, social, and global progress to be experienced, foreign language teaching has become a necessity within lifelong learning.

Learning a new language and interacting with a new culture are lifelong activities and have a positive effect on the individual's motivation for new experiences, self-confidence, personal enjoyment and satisfaction and skill enhancement. For example, CEFR has been prepared to create cultural unity and solidarity in Europe, which has various language communities, guides foreign language learners and communicate effectively in a foreign language. It also provides the evaluation of lifelong learning development.

It could be stated that the current education system designs a competitive environment among individuals instead of creating workspaces in a cooperative way. Lifelong learning might be seen as a solution to the rivalry learning vision so that government authorities can regulate education systems by necessary principles and

qualifications to build for the future on individuals with lifelong learning habits. This is because the most important innovation could be related to foreign language education.

2.4. Development of Lifelong Learning

Within the framework of lifelong learning, learning includes not only learning through formal education but also learning through participation in social and cultural activities and volunteer work. The fields of education present some various opportunities in this context. There are six basic ways to implement lifelong learning (Borg & Mayo, 2005, p. 210). The principles are:

- More investment in human resources.
- Innovations in learning and teaching.
- Demonstrating the value of learning
- Rethinking on counselling and guidance.

Boynak (2004, p. 65) suggested some activities to strengthen lifelong learning as shown:

- Managing education
- Self-evaluation
- Identifying weak points
- Doing research
- Solving design problems
- Focusing on learning instead of test scores
- Knowing how to learn.

In this regard, teachers are among the leading actors providing lifelong learning competencies for each student. That's why, they must first possess these skills themselves, carry out activities and practices for their students to acquire them.

There are some essential suggestions for teachers that will enable their pupils to gain these learning skills. These are;

- Encouraging asking questions,
- Making use of imagination, humor, game activities,
- Developing problem-solving skills related to real-life,
- Developing their ability to answer 5W 1H questions,

- Developing the ability to establish cause-effect relationships,
- Developing flexible thinking skills without setting bounds
- Developing an understanding that multiplies the sources of information (Karakuş, 2013, p. 29).

It is quite important that teacher candidates are skilled at lifelong learning in higher education institutions in which teachers have the chance to improve their teaching practices and conceptual understandings of daily classroom teaching. Prospective teachers' graduating as lifelong learners will enable them to become lifelong learners in their own professional lives. In this way, they will be competent in guiding their colleagues and students to cultivate lifelong learning qualities. In that context, integrating the courses which engage in lifelong learning into prospective teachers' training education program should be emphasized (Köksal & Çöğmen, 2013).

2.4.1. Lifelong Learning Competencies and Tendencies

Eight basic dimensions of lifelong learning competencies were determined by the European Union (2006, p.189).

1. **Communication in the Mother Tongue:** It is the ability to express thoughts in spoken or written language, interpret (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and interact in a linguistically appropriate manner.
2. **Communication in a foreign language:** It is the ability to express and interpret feelings and thoughts that require spoken and written language through intercultural skills.
3. **Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology:** It is the ability of an individual to perform mental and written addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division operations in order to solve various problems encountered in daily life.
4. **Digital competence:** It is the ability to produce, store, present information, and participate in collaborative networks through the Internet.
5. **Learning to learn:** It is the ability to overcome barriers, identify current opportunities and learn successfully in one's learning process. Learning to learn includes some terms such as interacting both individually and socially, designing one's own learning, using one's own time and knowledge

efficiently, taking actions to overcome difficulties, and applying the existing information in a new context.

6. **Interpersonal, intercultural, and social competences:** It is the ability of individuals to participate effectively and constructively in social and working life.
7. **Social Responsibility:** It is the individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects for the goals.
8. **Cultural expression:** It is the ability to express emotions and creative ideas in the field of visual arts such as music, painting, theatre, and literature.

Apart from the key competences mentioned above, Dong (2004) stated that lifelong learners should also possess certain lifelong learning skills such as 'self-regulated learning', 'learning how to learn', 'communication skills', 'project management skills', 'evaluative skills', and 'collaborative team working skills'.

It has been observed that there are eight basic competences prepared by the Ministry of National Education in 2017. These competencies contain critical thinking skills, creative thinking skills, communication skills, research-inquiry skills, problem-solving skills, the ability to use the mother tongue effectively, digital literacy skills, and entrepreneurship skills. Lifelong learners are inclined to learn continuously and extend the range of information. There are some tendencies: motivation, risk-taking, persistence, self-regulation of learning, and curiosity (Yagan, 2020, p.192).

1. **Motivation:** It means that an individual finds his/her learning activities valuable and takes advantage of them. There are internal and external factors that affect motivation. Intrinsic factors are related to our emotional, social, and physical states, such as our attitudes towards learning, our interests, attention levels, and personality traits. Extrinsic factors, on the other hand, include the effect of external stimuli such as reward, punishment, and pressure.
2. **Persistence:** It refers to the level of being able to stick with a job and being determined to learn.
3. **Curiosity:** Another element that fosters lifelong learning is curiosity. Human beings are designed to think, question, criticize and argue, they are curious

about learning and knowing everything. Curiosity is one of the basic elements that manage the learning process (Demirel & Coşkun, 2009).

4. **Self-Regulation of Learning**: It can be described as a cyclic and active process where learners are ready to improve their intrinsic motivation, manage their own learning, determine their objectives, and they are also aware of learning limitations. (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008).
5. **Risk Taking:** It is an important characteristic of good language learners. They enable us to tolerate ambiguity. In other words, risk-takers are comfortable with uncertain situations and ambiguous stimuli. They also are more likely to focus on what they are taught without fear of failure.

2.4.2. Characteristics of Lifelong Learners

There are some features defining a lifelong learner. For instance, lifelong learners are active technology users who can direct the information acquisition process themselves and utilize digital tools for their learning. They are also motivated to learn how to learn, understand the dynamic of learning, and determine various learning methods for every possible learning situation by collecting information in different areas in the learning process (Akkoyunlu, 2008).

To make lifelong learning part of one's life, university education should not only prepare students for their future carrier but also encourage them to seek what they will need throughout their lives. Mastering lifelong learning skills are required to accomplish this goal. In fact, these skills are divided into three categories:

1. Basic skills: speaking, listening, reading, writing and mathematics,
2. Individual qualities: effective communication, taking responsibility, cognitive awareness, self-assessment, self-management,
3. Thinking skills: creative thinking, scientific thinking, reflective thinking, critical thinking, and problem-solving (Erdamar, 2015, p.80).

Demirel (2011) argues that the development of society can be achieved by improved knowledge society and sustainable economic, educational, and technological advancements. Thus, learning societies need individuals who have the ability to drive their own learning and utilize the information that they have learned analytically, take all decisions for their lifelong learning and think critically and creatively.

2.5. Learner Autonomy and Lifelong Learning

In Turkey, the Ministry of National Education and the Higher Education Council aim to teach foreign languages fluently and accurately at all levels of education with the regulations they have published. For this purpose, foreign language education has gained importance. The English teacher training process was restructured at the beginning of the 20th century. In addition, increasing teachers' abilities, pedagogical content knowledge and technological-based knowledge have been the focus in education. Teachers will be role-model for their students in every sense and provide education for learners' successful professional life for the 21st century requirements. For this reason, it is of utmost necessity for teachers to become autonomous and lifelong learners. Acquiring autonomous and lifelong skills is essential for qualified language education in the globalizing world. It might be accurate to state that there is a relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning. Learner autonomy has been used especially in the scope of lifelong learning due to the fact that for individuals to carry out their lifelong learning goals depends on their autonomous learning.

Knapper and Cropley (2000) stated that during the lifelong learning process, learners are qualified in some features such as enlarging their learning repertoire, detecting their motivational indicators, modifying their learning outcomes through self-awareness and metacognition, and discovering new ways to refocus on learning. Likewise, it is expected from autonomous learners to become their own learning organizers and construct their own independence of learning and lifelong learning habits with the use of learning strategies and motivational factors effectively. Thereby, both autonomous learners and lifelong learners aim to ensure the renewal in their learning life constantly and willingly. Furthermore, these learners are open to taking advantage of collaborative learning and redesigning their existing knowledge through new learning outcomes.

Learner autonomy might be a key support for lifelong language education so that it is required for learners 'to learn how to learn', and be dedicated to lifelong learning. One of the most important contributions of learner autonomy and lifelong learning to language teaching is to help individuals expand their effective social skills, vocabulary knowledge, problem-solving, analyzing skills and inquiring perspective. Moreover, as Selvi (2011) stated, learner autonomy and lifelong learning also promote

multilingualism and multiculturalism, enabling individuals to be susceptible to learning different languages as well as their native language.

Based on the thought that new-age students require modern teachers and the latest learning methods. Teacher education has been accepted as a phase to gain these targeted and desired goals and qualities for the students. Hence, it is intended for prospective teachers to become lifelong learners by following opportunities for working on ongoing self-improvement, being open to novel teaching methods, enjoying their learning and teaching, relating the knowledge that they have learned to their daily life, being creative, self-confident, taking charge of learning drawbacks and responsibilities for their learning journey. Thus, by promoting autonomous and lifelong learning mindsets of the students, teachers can reintegrate learners who have developed technology literacy skills, know their own learning needs, are aware of their own learning and study habits, prepare their own learning plans, and are more likely to concentrate on learning a language everywhere and every time. Last but not least, they also will be able to nurture their students in an environment of autonomous and lifelong learning.

2.5.1. Studies on Learner Autonomy

There is a vast number of research conducted both abroad and in Turkey. Learner autonomy is a major concept attaching importance in the realm of English Language Teaching (Benson, 2011; Cotterall, 2000; Dinçer, Yeşilyurt & Takkaç , 2012; Doğan & Mirici, 2017; Joshi, 2011; Lamb, 2008; Karakış, 2020; Okumuş, 2015). Most of the studies concentrated on examining learner autonomy from different perspectives such as the relationship between learner autonomy and learning, the differences between the beliefs of learners and their teachers, strategies for cultivating autonomy, the relationship between learner autonomy and the other variables, gender, years of education, graduated high school types, study skills, proficiency levels, and the relationship between learner autonomy and other concepts such as self-efficacy, metacognition, e-learning, language learning achievement, motivation, and teaching experience.

Tok (2012) examined the correlation between learner autonomy activities and participants' gender, motivation, and proficiency levels. It was concluded that most of the time, teachers were eager to foster learner autonomy. Nevertheless, there was no

significant difference between females and males in behalf of learner autonomy. In contrast, students' motivation and proficiency levels influenced their performance on learner autonomy activities. Additionally, Ürün, Demir and Akar (2014) aimed to determine the implementations of ELT high school teachers to promote learner autonomy. It was concluded that both male and female teachers were eager and ready to implement learner autonomy through activity-based and student-based practices. Javid (2018) examined 60 English language teachers' positive attitudes towards the implementation of learner autonomy regarding gender differences. The findings indicated that both female and male teachers were motivated to be facilitators and communicators to prepare an autonomous learning atmosphere. They also believed that they were willing to utilize authentic teaching materials and appropriate technological devices to foster learner autonomy among their learners. Another study conducted by Gönen (2020) examined learner autonomy perceptions of EFL students in the tertiary level voluntary intensive English program in terms of gender effect. The data analysis indicated that there was not a significant correlation between participants' autonomous way of learning and gender. Doğan and Mirici (2017) also identified 96 English instructors' perceptions of learner autonomy. The study indicated that the instructors held highly positive views on the implementation of learner autonomy. Tran (2020) also investigated EFL learners' learner autonomy attitudes toward vocabulary learning. According to the results of the study, students generally had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy. However, they were not effectively and behaviorally aware of the importance of learner autonomy in English vocabulary learning. In contrast, Altunay (2013) argued that most of the time, students did not demonstrate autonomous language learning behaviors because they possessed insufficient knowledge and essential skills in their previous education years. Yunus and Arshad (2015) addressed 35 English teachers in Malaysian public secondary schools. Their study concentrated on teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and their learner autonomy practices inside the classroom. The study revealed that teachers were able to implement learner autonomy despite multicultural classrooms where students shared different educational backgrounds and perceptions in relation to learner autonomy. In parallel to the findings, Nakata (2011) conducted a study with 80 Japanese high school English teachers. The research investigated teachers' readiness for fostering learner autonomy. In her study, moreover, she examined teachers' perceptions about learner autonomy, what strategies they used to foster

learner and teacher autonomy. The findings revealed that EFL teachers were aware of the importance of autonomy. However, according to a study conducted by Dwee and Anthony (2017), language teachers were not sufficiently ready to promote it in the learning environment. The study argued that there were some factors that prevented the growth of learner autonomy such as students' attitudes, the misunderstanding of what learner autonomy was, and teachers' not being ready to promote learner autonomy.

In addition, the findings indicated that English language teachers' perceptions and their practices about learner autonomy were not in harmony with each other. In a similar vein, Razeq (2014) explored 140 freshman EFL students' readiness for learner autonomy with respect to gender. He discovered that students considered their teachers as responsible for language learning. A reason might be that learners with spoon-feeding teaching style are not accustomed to taking control of their learning and learning how to learn. Additionally, it was stated that the readiness of learner autonomy differed according to gender. Females were more eager to determine their strengths and weaknesses, observe their progression in the learning environment and intrinsically motivate themselves toward learning English when compared to males. Gür (2018) stated that EFL students at a state university in Turkey were not ready to learn autonomously yet. To this end, they need learner autonomy training to be prepared for it. As Merç (2015) stated that learner autonomy training was effective in EFL teacher candidates' study habits. The findings of the study revealed that through this 12-week autonomy training, there was a significant change in students' study skills and habits. On the other hand, in Nasöz 's study (2015), 250 EFL students' readiness for learner autonomy was investigated. According to the quantitative data analysis, learners were motivated to manage their own learning. Additionally, Uysal (2021) addressed the differences or similarities between EFL instructors' and learners' perceptions about learner autonomy in higher education. The study attempted to examine whether participants' views changed according to gender, school types, departments, and teaching experience. She argued that both students and teachers had a strong desire to promote learner autonomy in the learning environment. According to the results, learner autonomy did not show a difference considering gender and school types. However, there was a relationship between learner autonomy and the teaching experience of instructors. As opposed to the findings, Nasri, Dastjerdi,

Rasekh and Amirian (2017) examined EFL teachers' practices for the development of learner autonomy with gender and teaching experience. They found no significant difference between inexperienced and experienced English language teachers' learner autonomy practices. Nevertheless, female teachers were better in using some strategies than male colleagues. Er (2014) also questioned the views of prospective English teachers on learner autonomy, considering gender and learning types. The research figured out that most of the prospective teachers were prone to enhance learner autonomy. Moreover, they demanded to discover their own learning, determine their learning goals and course content, and evaluate themselves. It was also indicated that females are better at checking their own progress in their own learning processes than males. Similarly, Orawiwatnakul and Wichadee (2017) focused on undergraduate students who enrol in English courses. Based on the results, it was found that learners had a high level of belief about learner autonomy. However, their language learning behaviors outside the class were at a moderate level. There was a meaningful relationship between learner autonomy beliefs and some factors such as attitudes towards studying English, language proficiency level, gender, and language learning behaviors. For instance, females had more positive beliefs about autonomous language learning than male learners. Another relationship suggested that when learners were more proficient in English, they had a high level of autonomous learning beliefs. Büyükyavuz's research (2014) also concentrated on investigating the EFL instructors' learner autonomy conceptualizations in terms of gender, teaching experience, and type of institutions. 109 instructors who came from state or private universities were included in this study. She discovered that females were more willing to encourage students to choose their own studying resources than male instructors. Additionally, instructors working in state schools were more positive than their counterparts working in private schools about allowing students to take responsibility for selecting their own learning materials and evaluating their learning process. In contrast, Koşar (2019) composed data from 82 English teachers who work in state and private schools. The results showed that the teachers, in general, had positive views for autonomy development. In contrast, private school teachers showed more positive attitudes. Fırat (2016) explored e-learning autonomy for distance education students. The participants were 3293 learners from 42 different programs. The study demonstrated that there was a meaningful relationship between learner autonomy and online learning environments and their Information and Communication Technology (ICT) level. In line with the

study, Güneş and Alagözlü (2020) aimed to identify the correlation between learner autonomy, motivation, and achievement of the student in Distance Learning (DL) and Blended Learning (BL) for English. The study demonstrated that there was a positive correlation between learners' motivation and success in the context of Blended Learning. In addition, it was revealed that both BL and DL students' autonomy and motivation had a significant relationship. Koç and Koç (2016) studied whether metacognitive, cognitive, and social learning strategies utilized in computer-based learning would enhance learner autonomy. The findings suggested that social strategies were less common than metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Furthermore, it could be deduced from the study the more metacognitive awareness students had, the more autonomous learning skills they could possess. Another important element related to learner autonomy is self-efficacy beliefs. Ponton, Schuette, and Confessore (2010) explored if there was a positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and learner autonomy. In this sense, the age factor was highlighted in autonomous learning because it was believed that older learners had more self-efficacy beliefs and perceived learner autonomy support than younger. Similarly, Bozkurt and Arslan (2018) dealt with the perceptions of Syrian EFL teachers and learners about learner autonomy and their readiness for autonomous learning culture in terms of gender and grade. The participants included 8 prospective EFL teachers and 214 (6^{th}, 7^{th}, and 8^{th}) learners. It was found that their grades influenced their autonomy readiness. For instance, 8^{th} graders considered themselves to be ready for more autonomous learning. Tuo and Xia (2017) asserted that the length of education had an effect on the level of learner autonomy. Experienced students showed a higher level of learner autonomy. However, Naeeini, Riazi, and Salehi (2012) aimed to find the impact of age on learner autonomy. It was emphasized that students' learner autonomy readiness did not differ regarding age factors. There was also a significant difference between learner autonomy and gender. Additionally, in Ünal's research (2015), both teachers and students agreed that although adults were more aware of their own learning and learner autonomy, young learners could enhance their learner autonomy through their interests and needs. It could be conducted that age did not affect learner autonomy. Similarly, Zorkaya (2019) completed a study with 72 EFL instructors to find out their thoughts on learner autonomy. The results of the data analysis showed that teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy. In addition, she argued that the age factor did not affect learner autonomy. On the other hand, the experience influenced the opinions on learner

autonomy. Correspondingly, Genç (2015) intended to explore EFL preservice teachers' learner autonomy capacity in terms of gender, age, graduated high school types and years of education. The research figured out that teacher candidates were accepted as autonomous learners to some extent. It also stressed that gender and year at the faculty did not influence their learner autonomy capacity. It could be noted that learner autonomy may not develop during their education years as students get older. The results also showed that learners who come from Anatolian High Schools were motivated to learn a foreign language compared to Regular and Vocational High School students. In a similar vein, Alkan and Arslan (2019) determined the predictors such as motivation and self-efficacy beliefs of autonomous learning among prospective English teachers. Moreover, student-teachers' autonomous learning differed according to their graduated high school types and gender. The participants' scores form teacher training schools were different from general high schools and vocational-technical high schools. As for gender, female learners had higher learner autonomy scores than males.

Subsequently, there is a myriad of studies on learner autonomy in the EFL context. According to Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012), learner autonomy enhances the quality of language learning, fosters democratic societies, prepares learners for lifelong learning, and allows learners to make the best use of learning opportunities in and out of the classroom. In addition, provided that language education intends to fertilize lifelong learning in the modern age of informatics, it should also put into practice learner autonomy principles in language learning. In this sense, lifelong learning, another variable that is thought to be related to learner autonomy, was examined in this current study.

2.5.2. Studies on Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning brought a breath of fresh air to language education. It has been a focus of attention in various educational contexts. The research carried out by Deyrich and Majhanovich (2017) showed that lifelong learning played an important role in language education so that lifelong language learners were able to create intercultural interaction and showed tolerance towards other cultures. Mackiewicz (2002) asserted that foreign language learning should entail lifelong learning skills. In this regard, teachers must find opportunities to permit learners to understand the importance of learning foreign languages and motivate them to sustain learning

languages. Selvi (2011) also found out that the most important competence area of English teachers was lifelong learning competencies because teachers' competencies supported the progress of students. Likewise, Can (2011) highlighted the usage of strategies in English course books in the context of lifelong learning. It was hypothesized that through effective strategies, students were able to make use of them during language education. Thus, they could boost their lifelong learning competencies to adapt themselves to the criteria of being 21st century citizens. He clarified that the use of metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-emotional strategies in course books allowed learners to become lifelong learners. In that sense, teacher candidates and in-service EFL teachers must be trained to use these strategies. Al Asmari (2016) dealt with the concept of lifelong learning had become a focal point for the professional development of 121 English teachers. In addition, Hunde and Tacconi (2014) conducted a study with 12 faculty members and 14 novice teachers at Jimma University on lifelong learning skills by qualitative research methods. As a result of the study, four main topics were indicated. These were; planning students, creating an interactive learning environment, knowing, and understanding teacher learning. It was deduced from the research; lifelong learning skills could be improved with training and practice.

Savuran (2014) carried out research titled “Lifelong Learning Competencies of Prospective English Language Teachers in Comparison with Their Mentors". The study aimed to identify the lifelong learning competencies of English teachers, teacher candidates and their mentors. 83 English teachers, 15 mentors and 30 English teachers involved in the study. It was found that the competency level of English teacher candidates was higher in the department. The mentors had higher scores than students and teachers. Additionally, there were differences in demographic variables of age and graduated departments while their gender and the experience of teachers did not change lifelong learning competency level. For instance, a young participant was relatively more competent in lifelong learning competencies. Aslıtürk (2019) examined secondary school students' lifelong learning tendencies and their attitudes towards the English course regarding gender, grade level, and school types. It was observed that there was a significant difference between the scores of females’ and males’ lifelong learning tendencies and English course attitudes. This difference was in favour of females on both scales. Furthermore, 5th grade students had high scores

than other students. Finally, when it was examined if their attitudes towards English differ according to high school types, Imam Hatip Secondary School students got higher scores. In the same vein, Kahraman (2019) aimed to explore the relevance between 475 prospective teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and attitudes towards English courses. The results revealed that teacher candidates' lifelong learning tendencies and English course attitudes were above average level. There was a significant difference in favor of females. When it was analyzed the variable of high school types of graduation, there was a significant difference between teachers from Anatolian High School and lifelong learning tendencies. In contrast, Singh, and Singh (2014) focused on graduate students' lifelong learning attitudes at Manipur University. The findings showed that graduate students had positive attitudes towards lifelong learning, but gender and their department variables program did not create a significant difference in students' lifelong attitudes. Similarly, according to the study, both Turkish students and students from the United Arab Emirates had lifelong learning tendencies at a moderate level. It was also asserted that Turkish students' lifelong learning scores were higher than Arabic students. In addition, no significant difference was found in students' lifelong learning tendencies with regard to gender variable. In parallel with the studies, Özcan (2011) examined English language teachers' lifelong learning competencies. The study indicated that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers when examining the education levels of the teachers. Yahşi, Atagül and Enser (2016) found out the effect of learners' lifelong learning tendencies for learning Turkish as a foreign language. The data were gathered by achievement language learning tests and Lifelong Learning Tendency Scale throughout the summer school. The findings stated that there was a significant difference between before and after school. With the help of a high level of lifelong learning tendencies, Turkish language learning was taken place effectively. İlin's study (2015) was executed with 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th year university students who take English courses. The results showed the students' own perceptions on the reasons of belief in the inability to learn English, the interaction among learned helplessness, problem-solving skills and lifelong learning disposition, and university education had a positive effect on their problem-solving and lifelong learning inclination for some students. Öz and Şen (2021) explored the relevance between English teachers' lifelong learning tendencies and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for technology integration. It was observed that through teachers' particular qualities, English teachers' self-efficacy

to integrate technology was a predictor of teachers' lifelong learning tendencies. Moreover, female participants had higher lifelong learning tendencies than males. When the arithmetic averages of the 20-30 age group were examined, lifelong learning tendencies scores were higher than other age groups. The lifelong learning tendencies score of the participants with professional seniority was different from other groups. Teachers with professional seniority of 16-20 years had the lowest lifelong learning disposition scores. Additionally, teachers with postgraduate education had higher lifelong learning tendencies scores than teachers at the undergraduate level. As for school types, teachers working in state schools got a high level of lifelong learning scores compared to their counterparts working in private schools. In a similar vein, English teachers working in secondary schools had higher lifelong learning tendencies than those working in other institutions. The scores of participants with a weekly course load of 0-15 hours were higher than teachers with 31 hours weekly course load. On the other hand, Yıldız Durak and Tekin (2020) clarified that female teachers' lifelong learning competencies were higher than males, and the lifelong learning competencies of teachers aged 51 and over had lower scores than other age groups. Additionally, Ayaz (2016) concluded that the LLL tendencies of the English teachers were higher than the teachers from other departments. Thus, it is particularly crucial for teacher trainees to own a sense of autonomy and embrace lifelong learning culture to support them in their new roles and their continuous personal and linguistic improvement so that they can model it to their future students at different levels. In the arena of language teaching, the most valuable gift that preservice and in-service teachers could give is to educate learners who are purposeful and responsible for their own learning actions, have intellectual and practical skills, have a high level of motivation and desire to learn, and perceive language teaching as life itself, not as a preparation for life. Learner autonomy is a way of shaping individuals into lifelong learners. On the other hand, lifelong learning enables to train learners in a way that they gain the ability to learn by themselves. According to this belief, learner autonomy is both the meaning and the outcome of lifelong learning (Lüfteneger, Schoot, Wagner & Spiel, 2012).

In light of previous studies, researchers investigated learner autonomy from different perspectives through several aspects of foreign language teaching, it is required to find out what prospective teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong

learning tendencies are. In contrast, the lifelong learning concept has not been studied adequately in terms of language teaching compared to education sciences. It can be observed that there are lots of studies on learner autonomy and lifelong learning separately. Yet, there seems to be an important gap considering studies on both learner autonomy and lifelong learning skills in related literature. Yurdakul (2016) drew attention to this gap in the literature by examining whether there is a relationship between autonomous learning and lifelong learning, two concepts related to the learning styles of secondary school students. In a similar vein, Vasquez (2016) asserted that in order to boost a learning society and prepare youngsters for their future careers, and make learning permanent, and handle with challenges in the modern age, both learner autonomy and lifelong learning have become a requirement in education. Despite the increasing importance of the concepts of autonomous learning and lifelong learning, there are almost no similar studies focusing on the relationship between these two concepts in the field of language teaching and learning. Thereby, the major purpose of this study is to unveil the ignored importance of the relationship between the two notions; learner autonomy and lifelong learning in the EFL context. In short, the current study may encourage building an ideal language learning environment. It can be a new path to individual professional development.

Unlike other studies, the current research not only examines the relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning in language education but also aims to contribute to the guidance of educators and experts to turn new generations into autonomous and lifelong language learners. The study aims to instil learner autonomy and lifelong learning in language teaching and to help prospective language teachers, in-service language teachers, instructors, and educators gain some skills and qualifications by offering various suggestions. In addition, this study aspires to gain prospective teachers' understanding of the notions of learner autonomy and lifelong learning to improve their own learner autonomy and lifelong learning knowledge and skills.

The study highlights the common characteristics of both autonomous and lifelong learners, and the effects of autonomous and lifelong learning on each other. Apart from previous studies, this study taps into prospective teachers' attitudes and tendencies, their engagement in gaining learner autonomy and lifelong learning perspectives and habits and their roles for autonomous and lifelong language learners.

In addition, this study enriches the literature by examining the relationship between these two concepts, which have not come to light before in the scope of language teaching.

To sum up, this chapter provided the relevant literature on learner autonomy and lifelong learning in the language education field in a detailed way. In the first part, the history of learner autonomy, definitions of autonomy, misunderstandings related to learner autonomy, characteristics of autonomous learners, different approaches, methods and techniques for autonomy development, implementations of learner autonomy in the EFL context were examined. After the review of learner autonomy, lifelong learning definitions, the importance of lifelong learning, lifelong learning in foreign language education, its competencies, skills and tendencies, characteristics of lifelong learners, development of lifelong learning and teacher roles were studied. Lastly, the relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning and the studies on learner autonomy and lifelong learning were presented.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

This study includes a quantitative research design. The chief intention of the study is to bring to light whether there is a meaningful relationship between learner autonomy attitudes and the lifelong learning tendencies of ELT students. Besides, ELT students' attitudes towards learner autonomy and lifelong learning tendencies are attempted to statistically compared with their gender, grades, and graduated high school types.

Considering the purpose, the quantitative side of the study presents descriptive statistics. Sousa, Driessnack, Amelia and Mendes (2007) posited that the quantitative method aims to determine the relationship between or among variables, the independent and the dependent variables. It is interpreted as amount, intensity, and frequency and includes experimental and non-experimental. (Creswell, 2009).

Descriptive studies are one of the most popular quantitative research designs since they aim to provide common-sensual and functional descriptions on the concept (Kothari, 2004). Therefore, the techniques of descriptive statistics are implemented to determine numerically how a particular feature is distributed among participants. For example, statistics such as frequencies, percentages, averages, standard deviations, and sometimes variability and correlations are seen. Additionally, descriptive research shows the current circumstances and helps to cope with problems and situations. (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012).

Exploratory surveys and questionnaires are mostly applied in non-experimental designs. As Mackey and Gass (2005) clarified, a survey, which is one of the quantitative research methods, is generally conducted when the purpose of the study is to probe the attitudes or tendencies of a group of individuals. In the present study, descriptive statistics and frequency analysis were employed to analyse the quantitative data. The whole data were collected through two instruments: Autonomous Learning Scale and Lifelong Learning Scale.

3.2. Setting and Participants

The present study necessitated the researcher to see the current circumstances in the higher education environment. Accordingly, a total of 194 Turkish ELT undergraduate students from the first, second, third, and fourth grades from the English Language Teaching (ELT) department at Ondokuz Mayıs University constituted the sample of the study. Among these 194 EFL students, 115 of the participants were females, while 79 of them were males. They took part in this study voluntarily and randomly. The participants varied in their years of education. The number of students in each grade was 45(1^{st}), 48 (2^{nd}), 45(3^{rd}), and 56(4^{th}). As for high school types, participants were categorized into two different groups. Out of 194 students, 161 of them were Anatolian High School graduates; 33 of them were Imam Hatip Anatolian High School graduates.

3.3. Data Collection Tools and Procedure

There are three main sections in this study. In the first section of the data collection process, five questions based on the participants' demographic information were asked. The questions include the participants' gender, years of education and their graduated high school types.

In the second stage, the Autonomous Learning Scale (ALS) designed by Macaskill and Taylor (2010) to investigate learner autonomy attitudes of prospective English language teachers were utilized in this study. In the third phase, the researcher conducted Lifelong Learning Scale (LLS) developed by Kirby, Knapper, Lamon and Egnatoff, (2010) to determine their lifelong learning tendencies.

Autonomous Learning Scale comprises 12 items measure including two sub-dimensions: 'independence of learning' and 'study habits.' The purpose of the first part is to measure the learner autonomy attitudes of participants by regarding some elements such as responsibility for their own learning, motivation, and self-confidence. The second part focuses on more specific information related to participants' study practices through time management, procrastination, and self-study components. The scale is a five-point Likert scale ranging keys from 5 (very like me) to 1 (very unlike me). Henri, Morrel, and Scott (2018) suggested that ALS is highly practical for a large-scale study surveying a different study group. Likewise, the questions directly evaluate

student autonomy. Cronbach Alpha was found as .81. Hence, the ALS was preferred as data collection instrument in this research (see Appendix A).

The lifelong Learning Scale composes of 14 items which include different aspects of lifelong learning such as goal setting, application of knowledge and skills, self-direction, and evaluation, locating information and adaptable learning strategies. The scale is created through a five-point Likert scale from (1) 'strongly agree' to (5) 'strongly disagree'. The 14 items that formed the scale are collected in one dimension and represent a general lifelong learning score. Cronbach alpha was measured as 0.71. Kirby et al. (2010) asserted that LLS could provide quick, reliable, and practical data for further studies on lifelong learning. The questionnaire could be beneficial in some tasks as evaluating the effectiveness of educational interventions or helping individual students identify their learning profile of strong and weak sides (see Appendix B).

The questionnaires were administered to ELT students at Ondokuz Mayıs University in the fall term of the 2021- 2022 academic year by Google Forms. The participants were informed about the scope of the study, and the researcher explained that the obtained data would only be used to investigate their learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies. Moreover, it will never be shared by anyone. Before applying the instruments, permission was obtained from the designers of the questionnaires via mail.

3.4. Data Analysis

During every stage of data analyses, SPSS 24.00 statistical package programme was used. Later, the researcher turned the data into MS Excel format. The data were analyzed by descriptively (mean, scores, frequencies, standard deviations, and percentages). Normality test was performed to determine whether the data were normally distributed. Finally, it was determined that the data were normally distributed and parametric tests were applied. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results were given in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.1. Normality test for ALS sum

ALS Sum		
N		194
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	38.5876
	Std. Deviation	11.06481
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.204

Table 3.1. (continued)

Test Statistic	Positive	.204
	Negative	-.188
		.204
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000c

1. Test distribution is normal.
2. Calculated from data.
3. Lilliefors significance correction.

Table 3.2. Normality test for LLS sum

LLS Sum		
N		194
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	41.8814
	Std. Deviation	2.46874
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.272
Test Statistic	Positive	.228
	Negative	-.272
		.272
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000c

1. Test distribution is Normal.
2. Calculated from data.
3. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In short, this chapter presented the research design, settings and participants of the study, the instruments of the study, data collection and analysis procedures. Quantitative research was conducted to explore learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies. Normality tests were adopted for each scale to detect the distribution of obtained data.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

This chapter represents participants' learner autonomy attitudes and dispositions for lifelong learning were gauged by Ann and Macaskill's (2010) Autonomous Learning Scale and Lifelong Learning Scale developed by Kirby et al. (2010). The aim of the current chapter is to provide frequencies and percentages descriptively in the tables below.

4.1.1. Findings about Autonomous Learning Scale (ALS)

In this section, the findings of the analysis of the data gathered by ALS were discussed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics for ALS

Items	Not all like me		Quite unlike me		Neither like or unlike me		Quite like me		Very like me	
	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)
1. I enjoy finding information about new topics on my own.	40	20.6	42	21.6	10	5.2	47	24.2	55	28.4
2. I frequently find excuses for not getting down to study.	52	26.8	47	24.2	8	4.1	48	24.7	39	20.1
3. I am good at meeting deadlines.	22	11.3	66	34.0	6	3.1	48	24.7	52	26.8
4. My time management is good.	36	18.6	51	26.3	7	3.6	43	22.2	57	29.4
5. I am happy studying on my own.	28	14.4	61	31.4	5	2.6	39	20.1	61	31.4
6. Even when tasks are difficult, I try to stick with them.	40	20.6	46	23.7	6	3.1	47	24.2	55	28.4
7. I am open to new ways of doing familiar things.	26	13.4	49	25.3	20	10.3	49	25.3	50	25.8
8. I enjoy being set a challenge.	35	18.0	45	23.2	11	5.7	45	23.2	58	28.9
9. I plan my time for study effectively.	24	12.4	63	32.5	5	2.6	45	23.3	57	29.4
10. I tend to be motivated to work by assessment deadlines.	47	24.2	53	27.3	8	4.1	52	26.8	34	17.5
11. I take responsibility for my learning experiences.	17	8.8	28	14.4		-	46	23.7	103	53.1
12. I enjoy new learning experiences.	29	14.9	61	31.4	2	1.0	49	25.3	53	27.3

The scale consists of 12 items measure with two sub-dimensions. The first one evaluates participants' independence of learning. The second dimension determines their study habits. In this regard, the items were analyzed by two sub-scales.

Items 1, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, and 12 examined all the basic features of autonomous learners such as the ability to take responsibility for learning, openness to experience, intrinsic motivation, and self-confidence in dealing with new activities. More than half of the respondents (52.6 %) agreed to enjoy finding information about new topics on their own which indicates that they seem to be motivated to learn. They could also gain enjoyment from their learning. On the other hand, 42.2 % of the participants showed disagreement with this notion. There were 10 prospective English teachers who remained undecided.

Besides the enjoyment in learning new topics, the number of the teacher candidates (52.6 %) expressed to stick with tasks even when they are hard. Whereas, 44.3 % of them did not incline to continue with these tasks. The purpose of this question is for students to show perseverance when facing a difficult situation. According to the obtained results, no high-value difference was found between agreement and disagreement. This inferred that participants seemed to avoid taking risks as activities became more difficult and uncertainties arose. Cases of uncertainty could bother and confuse them. Additionally, 51.1 % of the respondents were open to new ways of doing familiar things. However, 38.7 % of them disagreed with this concept. 10.3 % of the respondents also had unclear ideas about the issue. It could be concluded that prospective English teachers may tend to take advantage of different ways and methods which are crucial for them to update themselves in their professional life. They also might be open-minded to learn new alternatives.

Furthermore, more than half of the prospective English teachers (52.1%) favored being set as a challenge. Yet, 41.2 % of them disagreed to enjoy being challenged. When compared this mean score with item 6, it is possible to encounter similar results. The reason behind this situation may be the negative attitudes of the prospective English teachers towards the challenges and struggles in their previous academic life. In addition, their avoidance of difficulties may be related to their fear of failure.

Regarding item 10, most of the respondents (51.5 %) did not prefer to be motivated to work by assessment deadlines which may indicate that those prospective teachers were motivated intrinsically to fulfil tasks. However, 44.3 % of them showed disagreement with this issue. In a similar vein, nearly 80% of the prospective English teachers supported taking responsibility for their learning experiences. Yet, 23 % of

them did not agree with this statement. Therefore, it was safe to state that almost all participants were aware of taking over control for their own learning.

When it comes to item 12, more than half of the respondents (52.6 %) preferred new learning experiences, whereas 46.3 % of them put forth opposite remarks. It could be thought that the reason why the results are close to each other might be related to the teacher candidates' avoidance of taking risks and uncertainty since new learning experiences can pose some risks for them.

The second dimension, including items 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9, describes participants' learner autonomy attitudes from the perspective of time management, meeting deadlines, studying practices such as procrastination, and self-study attitudes. 44.8 % of them supported finding excuses for not getting down to study which hints that their learning curiosity and interest may not be sufficient to study. On the other hand, more than half of them (51 %) did not agree with this notion which shows that respondents appear to be motivated to study. 4.1 % of them stayed unclear about it.

Regarding item 3, more than half of the participants (51.5 %) viewed themselves as able to meet deadlines. It could be concluded that they might be aware of their responsibilities. Their self-discipline may be improved to study effectively. On the other hand, 45.3 % claimed not to feel good at meeting deadlines. This inferred that they might not give importance to planning their studies and responsibilities effectively. In a similar manner, a few respondents (51.6 %) supported that their time management is good which reflects that they might tend to organize their studies, plan their duties and set their goals. However, about half of them (44.9 %) held the belief that their time management is not good. It might be stated that they seem to be inclined to procrastinate on their duties and responsibilities. They also may not be able to plan their work effectively. In the view of self-study, more than half of the participants (51.5 %) enjoyed studying on their own which signals that they might have higher intrinsic motivation, interests, and positive attitudes towards learning. Yet, 45.8 % of them did not support this statement. Hence, those candidates might be previously accustomed to traditional teacher roles and therefore, they need a counsellor who can guide them in the learning process. Likewise, more than half of the respondents (52.6 %) argued about planning their time for study effectively, while 44.9 % of them did not think about planning their time for study effectively. As is seen in items 2, 3, 4 and

5, while more than half of the prospective English teachers enjoyed studying on their own, less than half of them may not have developed these study habits sufficiently yet.

In sum, participants' educational background, study habits, studying methods, learning attitudes, socio-economic status, and their years of education may affect the scores of the items.

4.1.2. Findings about Lifelong Learning Scale (LLS)

This part presents the findings of the analysis of the data gathered by the Lifelong learning scale.

Table 4.2. Descriptive statistics for LLS

Items	Not at all like me		Quite unlike me		Neither like or unlike me		Quite like me		Very like me	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
1. I prefer to have others plan my learning.	55	28.4	46	23.7	20	10.3	41	21.1	32	16.5
2. I prefer problems for which there is only one solution.	27	13.9	43	22.2	18	9.3	51	26.3	55	28.4
3. I can deal with the unexpected and solve problems as they arise	29	14.9	36	18.6	15	7.7	55	28.4	59	30.4
4. I feel uncomfortable under conditions of uncertainty.	50	25.8	51	26.3	10	5.2	43	22.2	40	20.6
5. I am able to impose meaning upon what others see as disorder.	37	19.1	8	4.1	3	1.5	49	25.3	97	50.0
6. I seldom think about my own learning and how to improve it.	48	24.7	54	27.8	11	5.7	48	24.7	33	17.0
7. I feel I am a self-directed learner.	27	13.9	45	23.2	18	9.3	51	26.3	53	27.3
8. I feel others are in a better position than I am to evaluate my success as a student.	60	30.9	41	21.1	2	1.0	48	24.7	43	22.2
9. I love learning for its own sake.	38	19.6	50	25.8	10	5.2	44	22.7	52	26.8
10. I try to relate academic learning to practical issues.	53	27.3	48	24.7	6	3.1	44	22.7	43	22.2
11. I often find it difficult to locate information when I need it.	58	29.9	40	20.6	4	2.1	48	24.7	44	22.7
12. When I approach new material, I try to relate it to what I already know.	44	22.7	39	20.1	9	4.6	42	21.6	60	30.9
13. It is my responsibility to make sense of what I learn at school.	46	23.7	36	18.6	6	3.1	53	27.3	53	27.3
14. When I learn something new, I try to focus on the details rather than on the ‘big picture’	114	58.8	63	32.5	14	7.2	2	1.0	1	0.5

This scale was administered to test the lifelong learning tendency of prospective English language teachers. In this sense, relevant features were examined to obtain concise conclusions.

Item 1 determined the lifelong learning tendencies of the participants in terms of setting goals. More than half of the participants (52.1 %) were not eager to possess others' learning plans for their own learning. It could be true that they might tend to prepare their own learning plans. 20 students did not have clear ideas about this item. Yet, 37.6 % of them supported others' learning plans for their own learning. When it comes to item 2, more than half of the participants (54.7 %) did not prefer problems which have only one solution. However, 36.1% of them were inclined to solve the problem with one solution. Hence, it remarked that they were able to produce alternative solutions by using their creative thinking skills instead of sticking to a single solution. Moreover, one more solution for a problem might not bother and confuse them. As to the ability handling with unexpected problems, 58.8 % of them were able to deal with unpredicted situations and solve them. Nevertheless, 33.5 % of them were not confident in tackling with unanticipated conditions. It could be concluded that participants seem to be good at decision-making and quick-thinking skills to solve unpredicted issues. Similarly, although a number of participants (52.1%) claimed to feel comfortable with uncertainty, 42.8 % of the participants displayed agreement with unknown conditions. There were 5.2 % of them who asserted undecided responses. This item score manifested a higher number of disagreements than in items 2 and 3. From this point, prospective English teachers could not be glad about these uncertainties and taking risks.

Item 5 demonstrates that a vast majority of them (75.3 %) were able to impose meaning to what others see as a disorder, whereas less than a quarter of them (23.2 %) put forth opposite remarks. The responses showed their self-confidence in learning motivational attitudes towards learning. According to item 6, 52.5 % of the participants did not agree with rare reflection on their own learning. For that reason, prospective English teachers seemed to spend enough time improving their own learning. Nonetheless, 41.7 % of them dedicated less time to think about their learning. Item 7 presents that there were 104 prospective English teachers who regard themselves as self-directed learners. This inferred that they were ready to learn at their own pace and pick up knowledge. On the other hand, a number of participants (37.2 %) displayed

disagreement with this notion which showed that they could be less motivated or ambitious to take ownership of their own learning process.

Item 8 illustrates that more than half of the participants (52 %) did not agree that others could evaluate their own success better. This illustrated that they were good at their evaluative skills. Yet, a number of them (46.9 %) accepted others were in a better position that they were to evaluate their success as a student which reveals prospective teachers' dependence on the teacher's authority and evaluation in the classroom. Thus, teacher dependency could reduce their self-esteem in self-reflection. Based on the item 9 score, while almost 50 % of the participants enjoyed learning for its own sake, 37.1% of them claimed opposite remarks. From this perspective, it could be stated that prospective English teachers could be intrinsically motivated and develop positive attitudes towards learning. As regards the association of theory with practice, more than half of the respondents (52 %) were able to put their academic knowledge into practice, whereas almost half of them (44.9 %) disagreed with this notion. This situation could be related to the course content of language teaching departments in different years of education. For instance, senior prospective teachers could apply what they have learned by taking the school experience course, whereas first-year prospective teachers were responsible for basic skill courses such as writing, reading and communication skills. Item 11 provides a descriptive presentation about participants' locating information. Half of the participants held the belief that they were capable of locating the information when it was necessary. On the other hand, 47.4% of them disagreed with this statement. Since the score of these items is close to each other, it could be difficult to obtain certainty from this item. This situation could indicate that their research skills were not sufficient to search for information efficiently. When approaching new material, 52.5 % of the participants claimed that they tried to relate the new material to what they already knew when they approached it. On the other hand, 42.8 % of them disagreed with being able to associate prior knowledge with new information.

With regard to taking responsibility, more than half of the prospective English teachers (54.6 %) agreed that it was their responsibility to make sense of what they learnt at school. Thus, it could be stated that most of the participants might be inclined to take responsibility for their own learning. They might also raise awareness on their own responsibilities during the learning process. Only six respondents stayed unclear

about this statement. Nonetheless, 42.3 % of them did not approve such kind of responsibility. It seemed that they might not have a strong motivation to organize their learning. Lastly, nearly all of the respondents (91.3 %) focused on details instead of the big picture when they learnt something new while only three prospective English teachers might sway to big-picture thinking. Thus, it could be thought that they may give much more importance to a specific aspect of learning rather than prioritizing the overall learning. The reason for this situation could be that prospective English teachers have not yet been able to give up their detailed thinking habits that they developed in their previous academic life. Moreover, some standardized tests, job interviews, a sense of perfectionism and focusing on short-term goals might trigger detailed-oriented thinking skills.

4.2. Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

The aim of the current study was to find out prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies in terms of different variables such as gender, years of education and graduated high school types at a tertiary level at a foundation (state) university in Samsun. The findings of each research question of the research were discussed meticulously.

4.2.1. Discussion of the RQ1: Is There a Relationship between Learner Autonomy Attitudes and Lifelong Learning Tendencies?

In order to address the first research question, independent sample t-tests were utilized to identify if there is a relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning by total scores of the scales. Table 4.3, Table 4.4., Table 4.5. illustrated the findings about the relationship between learner autonomy, sub-dimensions of learner autonomy and lifelong learning.

Table 4.3. The total scores of the relationship between lifelong learning and learner autonomy

Scores	N	$\bar{x}$	df	t-test t	Sd	p
Lifelong Learning	194	41.88	192	4.196	10.933	.000
Learner Autonomy	194	38.58				

A general comparison of the two scales was made according to the total scale scores and sub-dimensions. As given in Table 4.3, a statistically significant difference was determined in favor of the lifelong learning scale (M=41.88, Sd=10.933, t(192) =

4.196, p=.000; p<.05). In line with previous studies conducted by Lüftengger et al. 2012; Yurdakul, 2016, there is a significant relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning. Learner autonomy paves the way for lifelong learning. Lifelong learning regards individuals as autonomous agents (Taranto & Buchanan, 2020).

This study also aimed to observe the relationship between autonomy sub-dimensions, independence of learning and study habits and lifelong learning.

Table 4.4. The total scores of sub-dimension 1 of learner autonomy: Independence of learning

Scores	N	x̄	df	t-test		
				t	Sd	p
Sub-dimension 1: Independence of Learning	194	22.85	192	46.18	6.891	.000

According to the results from Table 4.4, there was a statistically significant difference (M=22.85, Sd=6.891, t (192) =46.18, p=.000; p<.05).

Table 4.5. The total scores of sub-dimension 2 of learner autonomy: Study habits

Scores	N	x̄	df	t-test		
				t	Sd	p
Sub-dimension 2: Study Habits	194	15.73	192	49.83	4.398	.000

Table 4.5 demonstrated that a statistically difference was observed (M=15.73, Sd=4.398, t (192) =49.83, p=.000; p<.05).

4.2.2. Discussion of the RQ2: Is There a Relationship between Learner Autonomy Attitudes and Gender?

To examine gender effect on learner autonomy and autonomy sub-dimensions (independence of learning and study habits), independent t-tests were carried out. The results of these tests are shown in Table 4.6, Table 4.7, and Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.6. The relationship between learner autonomy and gender

Scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Learner Autonomy	female	115	39.63	192	1.597	11.208	.112
	male	79	37.06				

Table 4.6 indicates the mean scores and standard deviations of prospective English teachers' learner autonomy levels in terms of gender. The test scores for

females were depicted as m=39.63, Sd.=11.20, t (192) =1.597, p=.112; p>.05. On the other hand, males' test scores were found as m=37.06, Sd.=11.20, t(192)=1.597, p=.112; p>.05 Hence, there was not a statistically significant difference between females and males (p>.05). The finding of this current study is also consistent with the previous research (Fauizi, 2020; Javid, 2018; Kırmızı & Kıraç, 2018; Ürün, Demir & Akar, 2014; Tok, 2012)

Within the aim of the study, learner autonomy sub-dimensions: independence of learning and study habits were also analyzed by gender role.

Table 4.7. The relationship between independence of learning and gender

scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Sub-dimension 1: Independence of Learning	female	115	23.25	192	.979	7.153	.329
	male	79	22.26				

As illustrated in Table. 4.7, there was no difference between prospective female [m= (23.25), Sd=(7.153), t(192)=.979, p=.329; p>.05] and male [m=22.26, Sd.=7.153, t(192)=.979, p=.329; p>.05] teachers' independence of learning.

Another sub-dimension of the scale, study habits were investigated. The results related to the gender effect on study habits are demonstrated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. The relationship between study habits and gender

scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Sub-dimension 2: Study Habits	female	115	16.38	192	2.500	4.250	.013
	male	79	14.79				

The results from Table 4.8 revealed that there was a statistically significant unv. This difference was in favor of females which might indicate that prospective female and male teachers do not show an equal distribution in the English teaching department, and the number of prospective female teachers is more than males. Another reason might be that Turkish society gives more responsibilities to females. Therefore, they may have better study habits than males.

4.2.3. Discussion of the RQ3: Is There a Relationship between Lifelong Tendencies and Gender?

The aim of the third research question in this thesis was to explore if there is any significant relationship between gender factors and their lifelong learning tendency. In Table 4.9, independent sample t-test results were delineated.

Table 4.9. The relationship between lifelong learning and gender

Scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Lifelong Learning	female	115	41.59	192	-1.990	2.420	.048
	male	79	42.38	192			

According to the results in Table 4.9, the scores of the male respondents [m=42.38, Sd=2.42, t(192)=-1.190, p=.048; p<.05] were higher than females [m=41.59, Sd=2.42, t(192)=-1.190, p=.048; p<.05]. In this sense, there was a significant difference in favor of prospective male teachers in terms of lifelong learning tendency. This might mean that the males seemed to have better lifelong learning habits and skills than the females. The current study results are in harmony with similar studies examining the gender effect on lifelong learning (Kahraman, 2019; Özen & Öztürk, 2016; Şen & Durak, 2022; Uzunboylu & Hürsen, 2013).

4.2.4. Discussion of the RQ4: Is There a Relationship between Learner Autonomy Attitudes and Years of Education?

The fourth research question aimed to probe whether there exists a significant difference between the scores of learner autonomy attitudes of prospective English teachers and years of education. To this end, One-way ANOVA tests were performed. Table 4.10, 4.11, 4.12. uncovered related findings for research questions.

Table 4.10. The relationship between learner autonomy and years of education

F, x̄ and ss values									
Groups	**N**	x̄	**Sd**		**Sq**	**df**	**Msq**	**F**	**p**
1st grade	45	25.44	3.474	Within groups	22119	3	7373	928.2	.000
2nd grade	48	29.79	2.093	Between groups	1509	190	7944		
3rd grade	45	46.24	2.739						
4th grade	56	50.53	2.834						
Total						193			

As shown in Table 4.10, considering One-way analysis of variance ANOVA, the difference between group means was found to be statistically significant (F=928.2,

p=.000, p<.05). The study results are in harmony with the studies conducted by Bozkurt and Arslan, 2018; León, Garrido and Ortega, 2018; Naeeni, Riazi and Salehi, 2012. In a similar vein, Göçmez (2014) examined the English level of readiness for learner autonomy of university students who were attending the Foreign Language I class in terms of age variable. Based on the results, their autonomous readiness level made a significant difference by age. Yiğit (2017) also analyzed the perceptions of 139 female and 73 male ELT students related to learner autonomy in language learning. The results were analyzed according to the year of the study (from 1st year to 4th year) and gender. According to the findings, there was a significant difference between the learner autonomy attitudes of prospective English teachers regarding and years of education. For this reason, post-hoc analysis (Tukey test) was also made to reinforce the source of the differences. The results of the analysis are given in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. The differences between learner autonomy and years of education

Groups(I)	Groups(j)	$\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j$	$Sh_{\bar{x}}$	p
1st grade	2nd grade	-4.347	.584	.000
	3rd grade	-20.800	.594	.000
	4th grade	-25.091	.564	.000
2nd grade	1st grade	4.347	.584	.000
	3rd grade	-16.452	.584	.000
	4th grade	-20.744	.554	.000
3rd grade	1st grade	20.800	.594	.000
	2nd grade	16.452	.584	.000
	4th grade	-4.291	.584	.000
4th grade	1st grade	25.091	.564	.000
	2nd grade	20.744	.554	.000
	3rd grade	4.291	.564	.000

Based on the Tukey test results from 4.11, each class group showed a statistically significant difference (p=.000, p<.05) within each other. Additionally, moving on to the first sub-dimension of learner autonomy, prospective English teachers' independence of learning was examined according to years of education. Table 4.12 displays the findings of the analysis.

Table 4.12. The relationship between independence of learning and years of education

		F, x̄ and ss values							
Groups	**N**	**x̄**	**Sd**		**Sq**	**Df**	**Msq**	**F**	**p**
1st grade	45	14.02	2.189	Within groups	8475	3	2825	776.3	.000
2nd grade	48	18.29	1.649	Between groups	691	190	3639		
3rd grade	45	27.33	2.099						
4th grade	56	30.25	1.697						
Total						193			

As given in Table 4.12, One-way ANOVA analysis presented that there was a statistically meaningful difference between independence of learning and their years of education (F=776.3, p=.000, p<.05). To examine which reason is the cause for the differences between different grade levels, post-hoc analysis (Tukey test) was applied. Findings related to the test are depicted in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. The differences between independence of learning and years of education

Groups(i)	Groups(j)	$\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j$	$Sh_{\bar{x}}$	p
1st grade	2nd grade	-4.269	.395	.000
	3rd grade	-13.311	.402	.000
	4th grade	-16.227	.381	.000
2nd grade	1st grade	4.269	.395	.000
	3rd grade	-9.041	.395	.000
	4th grade	-11.958	.375	.000
3rd grade	1st grade	13.311	.402	.000
	2nd grade	9.041	.395	.000
	4th grade	-2.916	.381	.000
4th grade	1st grade	16.227	.381	.000
	2nd grade	11.958	.375	.000
	3rd grade	2.916	.381	.000

The findings displayed that there was a statistical difference between each class group within each other (p=.000, p<.05). To continue with another sub-dimension of the autonomous learning scale, the results of One-way ANOVA analysis are indicated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. The relationship between study habits and years of education

F, x̄ and ss values									
Groups	**N**	**x̄**	**Sd**		**Sq**	**Df**	**Msq**	**F**	**p**
1st grade	45	11.42	1.876	Within groups	3311	3	1103	496.3	.000
2nd grade	48	11.50	1.304	Between groups	422	190	2221		
3rd grade	45	18.91	1.345						
4th grade	56	20.28	1.397						
Total						193			

Table 4.14 above manifested that there was a statistically significant relationship between their study habits and years of education (F=496.3, p=.000, p<.05). In order to investigate the source of the differences between 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th grade levels, post-hoc analysis (Tukey test) was conducted. The test results are demonstrated in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. The differences between study habits and years of education

Groups(i)	Groups(j)	$\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j$	$Sh_{\bar{x}}$	p
1st grade	2nd grade	-.077	.309	.994
	3rd grade	-7.488	.314	.000
	4th grade	-8.863	.298	.000
2nd grade	1st grade	.777	.309	.994
	3rd grade	-7.411	.309	.000
	4th grade	-8.785	.293	.000
3rd grade	1st grade	7.488	.314	.000
	2nd grade	7.411	.309	.000
	4th grade	-1.374	.298	.000
4th grade	1st grade	8.863	.298	.000
	2nd grade	8.785	.293	.000
	3rd grade	1.374	.298	.000

Table 4.15 displayed that there was a statistically difference (p=.994, p<.05) at the 1st grade level compared to the 2nd grade. Additionally, a statistical difference was determined at 2nd grade level compared to the 1st grade level (p=.994, p<.05).

4.2.5. Discussion of the RQ5: Is There a Relationship between Lifelong Learning Tendencies and Years of Education?

As regard to the relationship between prospective English teachers' lifelong learning and years of education, In Table 4.16, One-way ANOVA results are presented.

Table 4.16. The relationship between lifelong learning and years of education

F, x̄ and ss values									
Groups	**N**	x̄	**Sd**		**Sq**	**df**	**Msq**	**F**	**p**
1st grade	45	40.28	3.870	Within groups	165.9	3	55.30	10.400	.000
2nd grade	48	42.85	2.021	Between groups	1010	190	5.318		
3rd grade	45	42.17	1.570						
4th grade	56	42.08	.958						
Total						193			

According to the One-way ANOVA analysis, the mean scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to grades, the difference between group means was found to be statistically significant (F=10.400, p=.000, p<.05). In this sense, in order to identify the differences clearly, post-hoc analysis (Tukey test) was also carried out. Table 4.17 below describes the findings of the analysis.

Table 4.17. The differences between lifelong learning and years of education

Groups(i)	Groups(j)	$\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j$	$Sh_{\bar{x}}$	p
1st grade	2nd grade	-2.565	.478	.000
	3rd grade	-1.88	.486	.001
	4th grade	-1.800	.461	.001
2nd grade	1st grade	2.565	.478	.492
	3rd grade	.676	.478	.334
	4th grade	.764	.453	.001
3rd grade	1st grade	1.888	.594	.001
	2nd grade	.676	.584	.492
	4th grade	-.088	.584	.997
4th grade	1st grade	1.800	.564	.001
	2nd grade	.764	.554	.334
	3rd grade	-.088	.564	.997

The results delineated those significant differences were discovered statistically at the level of ($p<.05$) in favor of 2nd grade, 1st grade, and 3rd grade groups, statistically at the level of ($p<.05$) in favor of 3rd grade, 2nd grade, and 4th grade groups, at the level of ($p<.05$) in favor of 4th grade, 2nd grade, and 3rd grade groups. The results of the study are consistent with the study results of Aslıtürk and Ekşioğlu, 2020; Elaldı, 2015; Öz and Şen, 2021.

4.2.6. Discussion of the RQ6: Is There a Relationship between Learner Autonomy and Graduated High School Types?

Ultimately, the present study intended to find out if there is any significant relation between graduated high school types of prospective teachers and their learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies. To explore this relationship among prospective teachers who graduated from different high schools, independent sample t-tests were utilized according to the total score scales of the schools. The related findings are manifested in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. The relationship between learner autonomy and graduated high school types

Scores	**Groups**	**N**	**x̄**	**df**	**t-test**		
					t	**Sd**	**p**
Learner Autonomy	Anatolian High School	161	38.34	192	-.666	11.281	.506
	Imam Hatip Anatolian High School	33	39.75			10.018	

Based on the Independent sample t-test results, there was not significant difference between both graduated Anatolian High School types [m = 38.34, Sd= 11.281, t (192) = -.666, p=.506, p>05] and graduated Imam Hatip Anatolian High

School types [m = 39.75, Sd= 10.018, t(192)=-.666), p=.506, p>05] in terms of learner autonomy scores. This might indicate that the foreign language education received from Anatolian High School and Imam Hatip Anatolian High School do not differ from each other since language learning requires self-study, out-of-class activities, interest, motivation, and curiosity. In parallel to the findings, Karakış (2020) investigated learner autonomy perceptions and English language course achievement mediated by foreign language learning anxiety regarding graduated high school types and gender. According to this study, there was not a meaningful relation between students' learner autonomy perceptions and the high school types which they graduated. Likewise, Cirocki, Anam and Retnaningdyah (2019) explored Indonesian EFL students' and teachers' learner autonomy readiness from different schools. The results demonstrated that no statistically significant differences were found in relation to their school types. It is thought that the reason for this is that the enhancement of learner autonomy may not only be rewarded in the school. Individuals' learner autonomy attitudes could be increased by both inside and outside class practices. In addition, regardless of high school types, highly active learners might take their own responsibilities, explore every opportunity to learn better, overcome problems during the learning process.

When it comes to the analysis of autonomy sub-dimensions (independence of learning and study habits), Independent Sample t-test analyses are depicted in Table 4.19 and Table 4.20.

Table 4.19. The relationship between independence of learning and graduated high school types

Scores	**Groups**	**N**	**x̄**	**df**	**t-test**		
					t	**Sd**	**p**
Sub-dimension 1: Independence of Learning	Anatolian High School	161	22.64	192	-.913	7.066	.363
	Imam Hatip Anatolian High School	33	23.84			5.964	

Table 4.19. provided these results to investigate whether the participants' independence of learning showed a significant difference in relation to graduated high school types. There was no statistically significant relationship between Anatolian High School graduates [m=22.64, Sd.=7.066, t (192) =-.913, p=.363; p>05] and Imam Hatip Anatolian High School graduates [m=23.84, Sd.=5.964, t (192) =-.913, p=.363; p >05] in terms of independence of learning.

The findings related to another sub-dimension of learner autonomy, study habits on graduated high school types are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. The relationship between study habits and graduated high school types

Scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Study Habits	Anatolian High School	161	15.70	192	-.246	4.385	.806
	Imam Hatip Anatolian High School	33	15.90			4.523	

From the findings in Table 4.20., participants' study habits did not show a statistically significant difference between Anatolian High School graduates [m=15.70, Sd.=4.385, t (192) =-.246, p=.806; p>05] and Imam Hatip Anatolian High School graduates [m=15.90, Sd.=4.3523, t (192) =-.246, p=.806; p>05] in terms of study habits. Prospective English teachers graduating from Anatolian and Imam Hatip High School could be thought to acquire study habits since it is necessary to study regularly for being successful in the university entrance exam.

4.2.7. Discussion of the RQ7: Is There a Relationship between Lifelong Learning and Graduated High School Types?

Another research question examined whether there is any significant relationship between graduated high school types of prospective teachers and their lifelong learning. In Table 4.21., Independent sample t-test results are uncovered.

Table 4.21. The relationship between lifelong learning and graduated high school types

Scores	Groups	N	x̄	df	t-test		
					t	Sd	p
Lifelong Learning	Anatolian High School	161	41.83	192	-.534	2.580	.594
	Imam Hatip Anatolian High School	33	42.09	192		1.843	

As pointed in Table 4.21, high school types that participants have graduated did not make a statistically significant difference in lifelong learning tendency (p=.594, p>05). The results of this study coincide with the studies conducted by Aslıtürk and Ekşioğlu, 2020; Kılıç and Taşpınar, 2017. It was stated that the lifelong learning tendencies of prospective teachers do not differ by their school types. It could be stated

that students from Imam Hatip Anatolian High School take Arabic as a foreign language. Thus, their awareness of a foreign language could also be reflected in their lifelong learning skills.

In sum, this chapter gives the findings of the study for each research question in separate tables. Descriptive statistics, independent sample t-tests, and One-way ANOVA analysis were performed to respond to the answers of the research questions. Independent t-tests were applied for each separate variable to examine the relationship between learner autonomy, its sub-dimensions: independence of learning, study habits, lifelong learning, and gender. Then, One-way ANOVA tests were applied to investigate the connection between the grade level variable and learner autonomy, its sub-dimensions, and lifelong learning concepts. Finally, the relationship between learner autonomy, its sub-dimensions, lifelong learning and high school types was examined through independent sample t-tests since there are two graduated high schools such as Anatolian High School and Imam Hatip Anatolian High School.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The current study dwells upon examining the relationship between the participating prospective English language teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies in terms of gender, years of education, and graduated high school types. Furthermore, it aims to identify prospective teachers' attitudes and tendencies related to these two notions.

To this end, descriptive statistics and frequency analysis were used in the analysis of the quantitative data obtained from 194 prospective teachers, and the data were entered into Excel and then processed into SPSS 24.00. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between autonomous learning and lifelong learning. In addition, a significant difference was found in favor of lifelong learning. It was concluded that independence of learning and study habits, which are learner autonomy sub-dimensions, have a significant relationship with lifelong learning.

In view of these findings, it can be stated that learner autonomy and lifelong learning are reciprocally interconnected components that complement each other. Hence, accomplishing autonomy in language learning can make a contribution to have lifelong learning tendencies. Likewise, the achievement of autonomy might depend on digesting that learning is a lifelong endeavour.

This current study examines learner autonomy, independence of learning, study habits, and lifelong learning dimensions. Thereby, it is closely related to CEFR principles and new English language teaching curriculum of the Ministry of Education following these principles. CEFR suggests a common basis for language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks. It allows learners to create their learning plans, monitor their own learning process, evaluate their learning outcomes, review learning goals, learn how to learn and develop the learners' ability to assess their own learning competence on a lifelong basis through can do statements and European Language Portfolios. It encourages students to be autonomous and lifelong learners by supporting self-managing, self-assessment, intercultural learning, plurilingualism, re-learning, reflective cultural and linguistic diversity. The direct relationship of this study with the CEFR contributes significantly to the field of foreign language and its teachers, and this relationship increases the importance of the study.

While it was seen in the study that learner autonomy attitudes did not show a significant difference by gender variable, it was determined that prospective male teachers were at a higher level than females according to lifelong learning scale scores. A significant relationship was found between learner autonomy and grade level variable. Each class group showed a statistically significant difference within each others. In addition, the independence of learning and study habits of prospective teachers differed significantly according to grade level. As for the relationship between independence of learning and the years of education, it was observed that there was a statistical difference between each class group within each other. Moreover, when it comes to the study habits of prospective teachers, a statistical difference was determined at 2nd grade level compared to the 1st grade level. Finally, there is a statically significant difference those significant differences were discovered statistically in favor of 2nd grade, 1st grade, and 3rd grade groups, statistically in favor of 3rd grade, 2nd grade, and 4th grade groups, and in favor of 4th grade, 2nd grade, and 3rd grade groups. As for the last variable, both learner autonomy and its sub-dimensions and lifelong learning did not change by high school types that prospective teachers graduated.

In conclusion, the research findings largely support the literature in the field of learner autonomy and lifelong learning. At the same time, this study has unique results in terms of the research group and topics.

This study brings an innovative approach to the field of language teaching by highlighting the relationship between these two concepts. In this respect, the current study gives some vital implications to students, teacher candidates, in-service teachers, educators, curriculum and coursebook designers. For instance, the study will enable all experts and educators working in the field of language teaching to be familiar that foreign language teaching and learner autonomy and lifelong learning are interrelated concepts and the characteristics of autonomous and lifelong learners. It will be able to encourage prospective teachers and teachers to realize that language learning is not limited to a specific place, time, and age, but individuals can be open to continue language learning throughout their lives.

At the end of the study, prospective teachers, in-service teachers, educators, instructors will be able to expand their knowledge, skills and attitudes towards learner autonomy and lifelong learning and will make significant contributions to them in

terms of planning and implementation in learner autonomy and lifelong learning programs and studies. In this context, students, teacher candidates, teachers and academicians will be able to acquire detailed information about the concepts of autonomous and lifelong learning and internalize them. They will also be able to learn how the concepts of learner autonomy and lifelong learning should be applied inside and outside the classroom. Thanks to this study, they will be able to take advantage of some activities and tips on how these concepts should be developed. It will be able to positively change the perspectives of prospective teachers, teachers, lecturers, educators on learner autonomy and lifelong learning and will guide them by offering some practices. Moreover, the research will enable them to adopt lifelong learning and learner autonomy as a lifestyle and to increase their qualifications and skills related to learner autonomy and lifelong learning. Thus, in the direction of these competencies, educators will lead the way in reaching individuals who can reach the appropriate information on their own and easily, utilize the time and knowledge effectively in their own learning process, communicate effectively, and use technology efficiently. Through this study, program designers will become aware of the necessity of language education models such as 'to learn how to learn' and 'lifelong language learning' in training students to become autonomous and lifelong language learners. At the end of the study, book designers will be able to utilize some clues about which activities and practices should be included in the textbooks in order to enable learners to take part in the learning process actively. Similarly, prospective teachers, teachers, and academicians will be familiar with several approaches, strategies, methods, techniques and materials to build an ideal learner autonomy and lifelong learning culture during language learning teaching and to respond to students' interests and needs appropriately. School principals will be able to raise awareness about what tools are needed in the school environment for learner autonomy and a lifelong learning atmosphere. They will be acquainted with the importance of seminars and in-service training that should be done for teachers to equip with some skills and qualifications. Since for teachers to perform their duties effectively and to provide their students with autonomous and lifelong learning skills, they must first have a positive attitude towards learner autonomy and lifelong learning and be individuals who actively participate in such learning activities. Furthermore, the study will improve the attitudes of school principals and educators towards student-based language teaching. The study will enable prospective teachers to recognize the changing roles of teachers in student-

based teaching for better and more successful language learning so that they can encourage students to be aware of their own ways by giving them skills, learning styles and strategies. Lastly, the study will be able to encourage new-generation researchers to conduct innovative and trendy studies within English Language Teaching to increase the number of students having independent learning and positive attitudes towards study habits.

According to the findings of the study, it is vital to make efforts to maintain teacher candidates' awareness, attitudes, tendencies and it is also necessary to cultivate these acquired qualities. Therefore, this study offers valuable suggestions. In order to have autonomous and lifelong next generations, the curriculum of English language teaching department courses should be arranged by curriculum designers in a way that promotes learner autonomy and lifelong learning. The availability of technological equipment, access to information, and continuing education centers, which can be considered important advantages for the concepts of autonomous lifelong learning, may affect the perceptions of teacher candidates about lifelong learning. Thus, library facilities, technology-based learning opportunities, learning support centers and support services should be able to provide full service in universities. Autonomous and lifelong learning are among the most important competencies that both teachers and students should have. Autonomous and lifelong learning skills should be included in prospective teacher training programs, in-service training seminars and workshops. Accordingly, conferences and project studies can be carried out in education faculties.

Learner autonomy levels and lifelong learning tendencies and competencies of learners, teacher training education, prospective teachers, educators, and instructors might become focal points of various studies. It is advisable to organize additional activities regarding these attitudes and qualities. Learner autonomy and lifelong learning are qualities that learners must enhance throughout their lives. For this reason, it is required to start gaining autonomous and lifelong learning habits from pre-school ages. With the purpose of gaining autonomous and lifelong learning competencies in pre-school and primary school institutions before universities, curriculum designers and government authorities should prepare the content of language teaching programs in such a way that learners have a greater say in the learning process. Those contents should allow students to be active in the learning process and take more responsibilities before, during and after the courses by adopting the continuing education model.

Authentic materials, real-life contexts, and negotiated curriculum should be utilized during English lessons, in which learners might express their own ideas and create discussion environments to cultivate learner autonomy and lifelong learning. In addition, students should be provided opportunities to learn at their own pace and evaluate their own learning outcomes, both inside and outside the classroom. Thus, they can be a part of their learning and have a chance to control, plan and monitor this process rather than being passive learners. Finally, in order to achieve all these goals, government authorities, education specialists, program developers, school principals, teachers and instructors need to work collaboratively to create a new education policy. In this process, appropriations given by the government and charitable support by other voluntary foundations provide funding for progressive studies and innovations within the scope of language education.

Various suggestions for future research are also presented in this study. For further studies, the data could be gathered from other state and private universities from different cities in Turkey. In the future, it might be more meaningful to include more students from different departments and different state and private universities to reach a more comprehensible conclusion. Thus, this study might be replicated to see whether the results would be the same with larger sample studies. Apart from the English Language Teaching department, researchers are able to conduct a similar study by including other foreign language teaching departments. In this way, they can compare foreign language departments with each other to identify similarities and differences. This study particularly focused on if a significant relationship exists between learner autonomy and lifelong learning regarding prospective teachers' gender, years of education and graduated high school types. This study was conducted at a state university in Samsun. For further studies, other variables such as participant's background information, academic success and the social environment might be taken into consideration.

Ultimately, further studies utilizing qualitative research design could be beneficial to gain a broader perspective of teachers' learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies. In this study, the researcher was not able to conduct any interviews with the students due to Covid 19 online process. For this purpose, more comprehensive studies might be conducted using interviews or observations. Experimental and longitudinal studies on learner autonomy and lifelong learning could

be conducted by researchers at various levels of schools. In those studies, data can be collected through methods such as need analysis, student diaries, and portfolio use so that more extensive information could be obtained about participants' attitudes, tendencies, and competencies. All in all, this thesis study will set a good example for future studies by revealing the relationship between learner autonomy and lifelong learning, which are innovative learning cultures through the lens of prospective English language teachers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-1. Autonomous Learning Scale by Macaskill and Taylor (2010)

Which of the following best describes you?	Not at all like me	Quite unlike me	Neither like or unlike me	Quite like me	Very like me
1. I enjoy finding information about new topics on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I frequently find excuses for not getting down to work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am good at meeting deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
4.My time management is good.	1	2	3	4	5
5.I am happy working on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
6.Even when tasks are difficult, I try to stick with them.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am open to new ways of doing familiar things.	1	2	3	4	5
8.I enjoy being set a challenge.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I plan my time for study effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I take responsibility for my learning.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I tend to be motivated to work by assessment deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I enjoy new learning experiences.	1	2	3	4	5

Sub-dimension 1 = Independence of learning, questions sum the scores to 1, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12.
Sub-dimension 2 = Study habits sum the scores to 2, 3, 4, 5, 9.

Appendix-2. Lifelong Learning Scale created by Kirby, Knapper, Lamon and Egnatoff, (2010)

Which of the following best describes you?	Not at all like me	Quite unlike me	Neither like or unlike me	Quite like me	Very like me
1.I prefer to have others plan my learning.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I prefer problems for which there is only one solution.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can deal with the unexpected and solve problems as they arise.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel uncomfortable under conditions of uncertainty.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am able to impose meaning upon what others see as disorder.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I seldom think about my own learning and how to improve it.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel I am a self-directed learner.	1	2	3	4	5
8.I feel others are in a better position than I am to evaluate my success as a student.	1	2	3	4	5
9 I love learning for its own sake.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I try to relate academic learning to practical issues.	1	2	3	4	5

11. I often find it difficult to locate information when I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
12. When I approach new material, I try to relate it to what I already know.	1	2	3	4	5
13. It is my responsibility to make sense of what I learn at school.	1	2	3	4	5
14. When I learn something new, I try to focus on the details rather than the big picture.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix-3. Approval of Board of Ethics for the Implementation of the Study

ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURUL KARARLARI

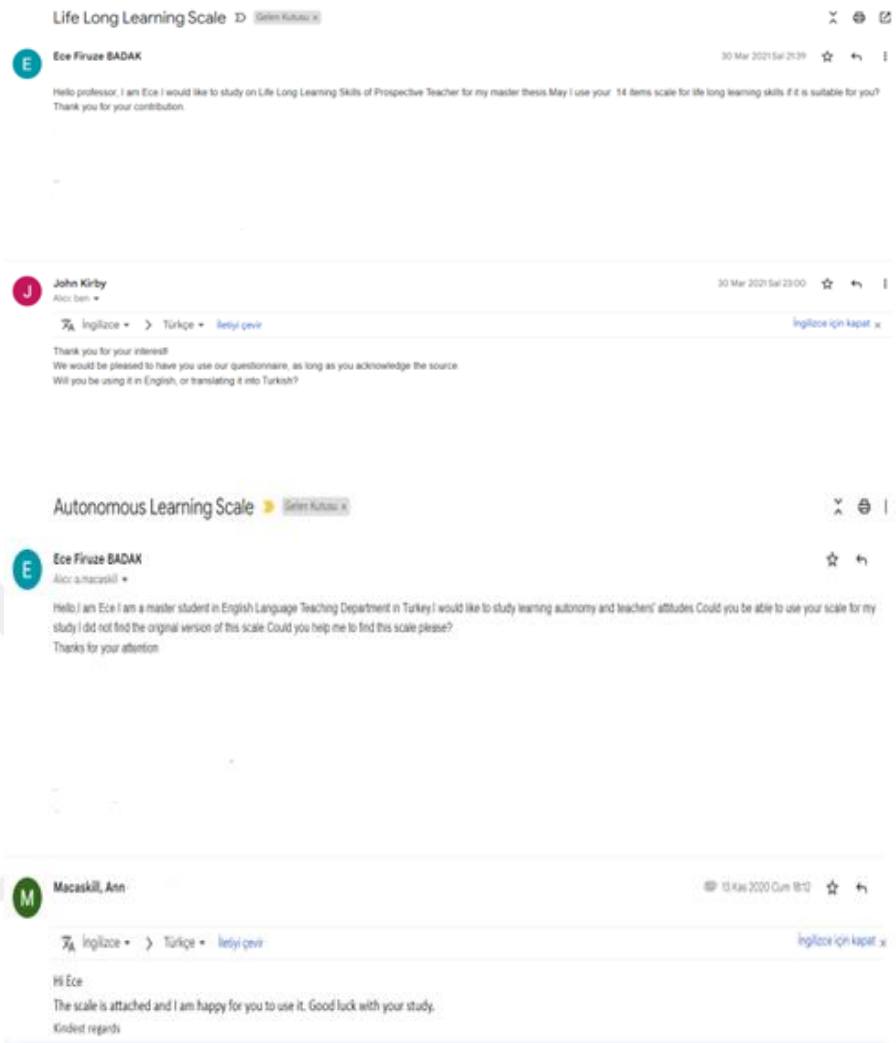
KARAR TARİHİ	TOPLANTI SAYISI	KARAR SAYISI
25.06.2021	06	2021/534

KARAR NO: 2021-534

Üniversitemiz Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü öğrencisi Ece Firuze BADAK' ın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müfit ŞENEL danışmanlığında " İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Özerk Öğrenme Tutumları ile Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme Eğilimleri Arasındaki İlişkinin Araştırılması" isimli yüksek lisans tezine ilişkin ölçek, mülakat, bilgisayar ortamında anket/test, veri kaynak taraması ve ses kaydı analizi çalışmalarını içeren 16691 sayılı dilekçesi okunarak görüşüldü.

Üniversitemiz Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü öğrencisi Ece Firuze BADAK' ın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müfit ŞENEL danışmanlığında " İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Özerk Öğrenme Tutumları ile Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme Eğilimleri Arasındaki İlişkinin Araştırılması" isimli yüksek lisans tezine ilişkin ölçek, mülakat, bilgisayar ortamında anket/test, veri kaynak taraması ve ses kaydı analizi çalışmalarının kabulüne oy birliği ile karar verildi.

Appendix-4. Scales Permission



Life Long Learning Scale

Ece Firuze BADAK

Hello professor, I am Ece I would like to study on Life Long Learning Skills of Prospective Teacher for my master thesis May I use your 14 items scale for life long learning skills if it is suitable for you? Thank you for your contribution

John Kirby

Thank you for your interest!
We would be pleased to have you use our questionnaire, as long as you acknowledge the source.
Will you be using it in English, or translating it into Turkish?

Autonomous Learning Scale

Ece Firuze BADAK

Hello,I am Ece I am a master student in English Language Teaching Department in Turkey.I would like to study learning autonomy and teachers' attitudes.Could you be able to use your scale for my study.I did not find the original version of this scale.Could you help me to find this scale please?
Thanks for your attention

Macaskill, Ann

Hi Ece
The scale is attached and I am happy for you to use it. Good luck with your study.
Kindest regards

CURRICULUM VITEA

Ece Firuze Badak graduated from Hacettepe University with a bachelor degree at English Language Teaching in 2020. She studied English Language Teaching undergraduate programme in Poland through Erasmus programme. She was accepted to master's degree program of English Language Teaching as a special student at Hacettepe University. Then, she started her master's degree in English Language Teaching at Ondokuz Mayıs University. Her research interests are Methodology, Teaching English to young and adult learners, Gamification, Second Language Acquisition, Metacognitive Awareness, Self-efficacy, Learner Autonomy, Lifelong Learning, and Teacher Cognition.

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Publications

1. Badak, F. E. & Şenel M. (2022). The relationship between learner autonomy attitudes and lifelong learning tendencies of prospective English language teachers. *Gazi Üniversitesi Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *1.Uluslararası Yabancı Dil Eğitimi Sempozyumu (YABDİLSEM) Özel Sayısı*, 287-310. Retrieved from https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/1902344