https://doi.org/10.36007/5390.2026.550

RECONCEPTUALIZING LEARNER AUTONOMY IN THE EFL CLASSROOM: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR EMPOWERING LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Andrea PUSKÁS [42] – Orsolya Kiss [43]

ABSTRACT

Learner autonomy has become a fundamental concept in contemporary discussions in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages, where promoting independent, self-aware and conscious learners is increasingly important. However, despite its centrality and significance, the concept of learner autonomy often lacks a clear theoretical grounding, which may lead to inconsistent and even misleading interpretations and incorrect applications in everyday classroom practice. Furthermore, since its definitions in the 1980s and 90s by significant scholars such as Holec and Benson, the term has been approached from various perspectives and has been shifted to new twenty-first century educational contexts. The paper explores the theoretical foundations of learner autonomy and proposes an integrated framework that can inform practitioners and educators in teaching EFL. The study synthetizes key theories, perspectives and approaches to learner autonomy and conceptualizes the term as a dynamic and multifaceted process influenced by a variety of factors including cognitive, social or contextual elements. The proposed framework is closely connected with learning strategies, motivation and social interaction. Implications for EFL education concerning teacher's roles, curriculum design and classroom strategies are discussed. The paper contributes to outlining a more coherent and context-sensitive understanding of learner autonomy in foreign language learning.

KEYWORDS

learner autonomy, self-regulated learning, learning and teaching EFL, learner behaviour, theoretical framework

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, learner autonomy has gained central attention and importance in foreign language education. As foreign language learning priorities shift from teacher-centred instruction to learner-centred approaches, the ability of learners to take control of their learning process and take responsibility for their development has become a key objective in curriculum and material design, policy making and classroom practice. Autonomy is widely recognized as a means of fostering lifelong learning, improving motivation and flexibility. However, despite

[42] doc. PaedDr. Andrea Puskás, PhD., J. Selye University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language and Literature, puskasa@ujs.sk

[43] Mgr. Orsolya Kiss, J. Selye University, Faculty of Education, Department of English Language and Literature, 124839@student.ujs.sk

its widespread use in academic and pedagogical discussions, learner autonomy is still a vaguely defined concept (or is defined in various, often controversial ways) and still lacks a coherent and clear theoretical framework.

The aim of this paper is to examine the theoretical foundations of the concept of learner autonomy and to propose a synthetised framework that captures its nature and can inform scholars, educators and practitioners. Rather than offering empirical data, this study focuses on conceptual analysis and theoretical synthesis in order to offer solid theoretical foundations and implications for classroom practices.

The paper was guided by the following questions:

1. What are the major definitions of learner autonomy and the theoretical perspectives that inform the concept of learner autonomy?
2. How do these theories conceptualize learner autonomy within the specific context of teaching EFL?
3. What implications do these theoretical insights have for EFL teaching practices?

By addressing these questions, the paper aims to contribute to a contextually more relevant understanding of learner autonomy.

Conceptualising learner autonomy

During the process of learning English as a foreign language, learners need to engage with the language beyond the classroom, so autonomous learning plays a crucial role in ensuring continued language development. Although learner autonomy is a key concept in language learning and teaching, there is no universally accepted definition of the term. The concept has evolved over the years in response to changing educational theories and new understandings of how people learn. It is crucial to explore the key definitions and interpretations of learner autonomy and highlight how perspectives on the concept have changed from the 1980s, and discuss common misunderstandings associated with it.

The term *learner autonomy* was coined by Henri Holec. He defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 3). According to Holec, a language learner is not only capable but is also responsible for making all the decisions connected to one's language learning processes, from setting goals to assessing acquisition (Holec, 1981). This definition emphasizes learner independence in contrast to relying heavily on teacher instruction and guidance.

David Little built on Holec's work and emphasized the psychological and social dimensions of autonomy. He argued that learner autonomy also includes a social dimension in which learners interact with peers, emphasizing interdependence over independence (Benson 2011, p. 7). Little was among the first researchers to mention teacher autonomy arguing that learner autonomy depends on the dialogue between teachers and learners.

Holec's ideas were expanded by David Benson, one of the most influential scholars in the field. In his book, *Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in Language learning* (2011), Benson offeres a broader interpretation of learner autonomy, seeing it not merely as a set of behaviours. He argues that autonomy is not a set of fixed methods but rather a process that takes "different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times" (Benson, 2011, p. 58). He also believes that autonomy has a dynamic

character since it is an "interplay between self-determined methods and self-determined goals" (Benson, 2011, p. 113).

The first wave of interest in learner autonomy was sparked mainly by Holec's work. During this period learner autonomy was seen as the learner's independence and ability to work outside the classroom, often in self-directed ways (Holec, 1981). In the 1990s, researchers started to explore ways of creating learning environments that promote autonomy and foster collaboration between teachers and learners. The teacher was not seen as an authority figure but rather viewed as a guide who helps learners become autonomous (Dam, 1995).

In the twenty-first century, education faces new challenges, such as the rise of digital technologies and Artificial Intelligence, as well as globalization, which affect views of learner autonomy as well. By having easy access to information, autonomy has become an essential skill. Benson (2011) offers new perspectives on how technology influences autonomous learning. The widest and more complex research findings relate to the name of Hayo Reinders, who, among other things, focuses on the connection between learner autonomy and the usage of digital tools.

Despite the wide range of research available on learner autonomy, there are still several misconceptions about the term.

1) The terms learner autonomy and self-regulated learning are often used interchangeably, though there are a few differences between the two. As Lewis and Vialleton (2011) point out, "learner autonomy assumes that learners are capable of conscious reflection and decision making", while it is not obvious "whether the strategies employed by self-regulated learners are applied consciously or automatically" (Lewis & Vialleton, 2010, p. 45). In their study, Lewis and Vialleton compare other key aspects of the two terms, while analysing and reflecting on the writings of Henri Holec, David Little, Phil Benson, Barry Zimmerman and Paul Pintrich.
2) It is often implied that learner autonomy means that learners never rely on teachers, and, as Nielsen (2019) points out, autonomy is often used as a synonym of self-instruction. However, it is Little who highlights that "total independence is not autonomy" (Little, 1995, p. 60). Esch (1997) goes further and argues that new technologies offer freedom in language learning, but they also cause isolation for the learner.
3) Another misconception is that autonomy and collaboration cannot coexist. Benson, however, argues that researchers emphasise that "the development of autonomy necessarily implies collaboration and interdependence" (Benson, 2001, p. 79).

Nielsen (2019) highlights that all the misconceptions that emerged throughout the years originate from 'terminological confusion'. He explains that the phrases such as learner autonomy, self-instruction, individualized learning, self-directed learning or self-regulated learning are used interchangeably without defining the meaning of them, emphasising that these terms should not be considered synonyms.

Dimensions of learner autonomy

Benson points out that three dimensions contribute to the overall development of independent learning, i.e. psychological, social and technical aspects (Benson, 2011). The psychological aspect of autonomy focuses on the internal processes of the learner that enable learners to take control of their own learning. This includes self-awareness, motivation, goal setting, monitoring and reflection. The social dimension highlights the fact that autonomy is also shaped by the learner's interaction with peers, teachers and the learning community. The technical aspect refers to the practical tools and skills that learners need to manage their learning effectively.

Murray emphasises that a key component to learner autonomy is the development and application of metacognitive skills, since these strategies help to regulate one's learning process (Murray, 2014). This means that learners are in charge of planning, monitoring and assessing their learning. As Benson summarizes, individual differences influence the way learners acquire a new language. However, Benson highlights that three psychological aspects can be controlled by language learners. These are motivation, emotions and beliefs (Benson, 2011, p. 82). Benson claims that research has provided evidence that motivation can be enhanced by learners taking control over their learning (Benson, 2011). In his book, Dörnyei (2001) even includes a section on motivational strategies that help promote learner autonomy, offering techniques for promoting learner autonomy. Scovel argues that emotion is "the most influential force in language acquisition" (Scovel, 2001, p. 140). Benson refers to Oxford's arguments that "good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning by using affective strategies such as lowering anxiety, encouraging themselves and taking their emotional temperature" (Benson, 2011, p. 88). He also reflects on two studies (So & Domínguez, 2005; Hurd, 2007) and summarizes that "language learners are aware of the emotional side of language learning and are capable of using strategies to control their emotions" (Benson, 2017, pp. 88-89). Benson points out that there are two kinds of strategies to manage emotions: "strategies to modify emotional responses and strategies to limit the effect of negative emotions" (Benson, 2011, p. 89). Learner beliefs about language and language learning may influence learning attitudes. As Benson (2011) highlights, these beliefs are deeply rooted in the learner, but they may change by experience and dialogue with others, but they also rely on individual reflection, which involves self-control.

As it was stated before, David Little was among the first scholars to emphasize the social dimension of learner autonomy. However, as Benson (2011) highlights, many researchers experimented with developing autonomy within the classroom. He refers to Leni Dam's study, when she and her colleagues carried out an experiment in Danish secondary schools. They allowed students to negotiate the curriculum and classroom tasks, which resulted in autonomy and emphasized the need for teacher autonomy as well (Dam 1995). However, it was Rebecca Oxford who provided an extensive overview on social strategies. She describes social strategies as "actions taken by the learner to control aspects of the learning situation related to other and to self" (Oxford quoted in Benson, 2011, p. 98).

Oxford organizes social strategies into three direct strategies:

- asking questions: asking for correction and clarification
- cooperating with others: cooperating with peers and proficient uses of the new language
- empathising with others: developing cultural understanding, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. (Oxford, 1990, p. 21)

The technical aspect of learner autonomy refers to the practical tools and skills learners need to manage their learning process. As it was mentioned earlier, Henri Holec's definition of

learner autonomy is the most cited one, since he was among to first scholars to examine the topic. However, he only described autonomous learning in technical terms: "being autonomous means being capable of one's learning methods and techniques" (Holec 1981, p. 15). He states that an autonomous learner will define the methods and techniques used during the learning process, but the decision will be made at the beginning of the studies continued by an evaluation process. Holec also claims that by evaluating the effectiveness of the chosen techniques, learners can choose the ones most appropriate to their own case (Holec, 1981).

In her book, Rebecca Oxford describes technical aspects as metacognitive strategies and organizes them into three direct strategies:

- "centering learning: overviewing already known material, paying attention
- arranging and planning learning: organizing, setting goals and objective, planning, seeking practice opportunities
- evaluating learning: self-monitoring and self-evaluating" (Oxford, 1990, p. 20).

Digital technologies have also influenced language learning and teaching and have gained the attention of many researchers. According to Lai (2017), the development of technology offers new opportunities to promote learner autonomy both inside and outside the language classroom. In his book, *Autonomous Language Learning with Technology*, he introduces a framework that guides teachers to use strategies that help develop learner autonomy outside the classroom. He also highlights the fact that teachers should be trained to be able to create online learning conditions that allow students to work independently. This direction and trend develop the concept of learner autonomy and shifts it into a different, very challenging and promising context.

Theoretical foundations of learner autonomy

Learner autonomy is not a teaching or learning strategy, it is not a pedagogical technique alone but a theoretically grounded concept shaped by several educational and psychological principles and paradigms. Understanding the theoretical background of learner autonomy is essential so that teachers can develop an auotomy-supportive environment in the EFL classroom and can foster their learners' autonomy beyond that classroom as well.

Benson and Reinders point out the fact that an increased interest in examining out-of-class learning environments is based on the shift in second language acquisition research among many researchers who no longer understand language acquisition as a merely cognitive process but rather as participation in various social contexts and communities (Benson & Reinders, 2011, p. 5). This kind of sociocultural approach is deeply rooted in Constructivist theory based on the works of Vygotsky (1978) and his concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). ZPD refers to the difference between what the learner already knows and can do independently and what the learner can do with the help of someone else. In other words, it is the difference between what a child (or a novice) can achieve independently and what a child can achieve with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner (Vygotsky, 1978). Effective learning takes place in this zone and when control is gradually shifted to the learner. This theory is foundational to the development of learner autonomy.

Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) provides an important foundation for understanding learner autonomy, in close connection with learner motivation and optimal learning conditions. STD identifies three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence

and relatedness, which are essential for the individual to be engaged and immersed in the learning process. Fulfilling these needs are relevant for intrinsic motivation and effective learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In the EFL context, this theory implies that learners are more likely to take responsibility of their learning process when they are offered the freedom to choose tasks, topics, techniques, and when external pressure is minimised, for example avoiding the over-emphasis of grades or exams.

Metacognitive theories contributed to the development of the concept of learner autonomy to a large extent. These theories emphasise that it is important that learners are aware of their own learning process and can control it. Most of these scholars argue that autonomy involves metacognitive knowledge (i.e. knowledge about learners' own identity, their own most effective learning strategies and learning preferences) and metacognitive regulation (i.e. effective planning, monitoring and evaluation) (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). This means that in addition to language skills, learners also must be taught how to manage their own learning, how to choose learning strategies that fit their own preferences. They must learn how to monitor their own learning process, choose strategies, reflect on progress, they must be trained in self-assessment and critical thinking.

One of the most current educational theories that hugely contributed to the development of the concept of learner autonomy is Connectivism, associated with the names of George Siemens and Stephen Downes. Connectivism is a theory for the digital age, which understands learning as network-building, where knowledge is distributed across people, technology and databases (Downes, 2022). It means that knowing how to find, connect to and evaluate information is more critical than possessing knowledge and information. Connectivism addresses the challenges of the twenty-first century, especially the realities of the post-Covid digital era with its online learning environments. Connectivism is closely connected with Adaptive Learning and AI-driven or AI-based learning theories, where learner autonomy becomes a key concept and the key of learning success.

Proposed framework for learner autonomy

By examining the theoretical foundations of learner autonomy, it became evident that the term is a multilayered construct that draws from various educational theories.

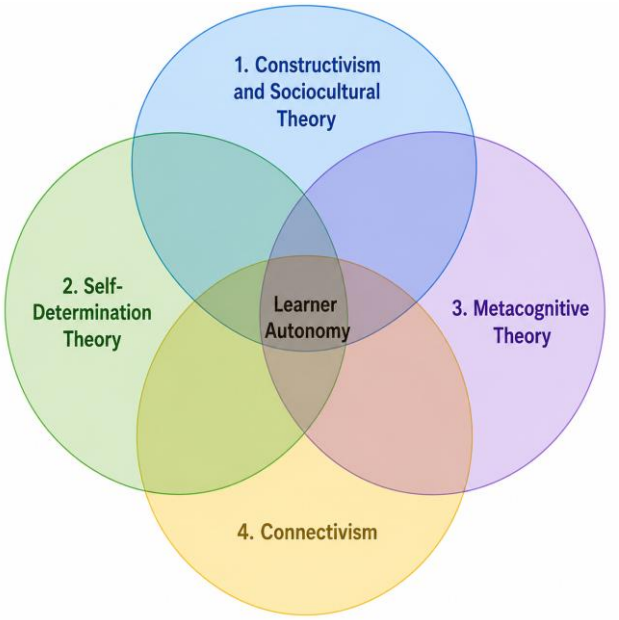


Fig. 1: Visual model of the integrated theoretical framework of learner autonomy

While each theory emphasises different aspects (e.g. motivation, social interaction, self-regulation), they are not mutually exclusive, on the contrary, they offer important elements, bricks that build learner aunomony and make it a colourful consturct. Table 1 summarises the most important concepts of the selected theories (listed and interpreted in the previous section) and their influence on the definition and understanding of learner autonomy.

Table 1: Summary of theoretical contributions and their implications for learner autonomy

Theory	Key concept	Contribution to learner autonomy
Constructivism and Sociocultural Theory	Knowledge construction, social interaction	Autonomy as self-directed learning, autonomy as co-constructed and collaborative, making choices
Self-Determination Theory	Intrinsic motivation, autonomy support, relatedness	Autonomy as a psychological need
Metacognitive Theory	Self-regulation, strategies, planning, evaluation	Autonomy as strategic and reflective learning

Connectivism	Network-building, technology, databases, critical evaluation	Autonomy as technological and digital, a shift towards critical thinking

The synthesis of the selected four theories and their impact on learner autonomy highlights that autonomy is not a static concept but a dynamic one shaped by internal factors and resources, social interactions, educational structures and learning environments. Based on the synthesis above, we propose an integrated theoretical framework for learner autonomy in the EFL classroom, a model that includes the following four interrelated domains:

1. Cognitive domain (based on Constructivism and Metacognitive Theory) – learners build knowledge through experience, reflection, self-evaluation, conscious goal-setting, deliberate choice of learning strategies, self-awareness;
2. Affective domain (based on Self-Determination Theory) – emotional involvement, motivation and control are crucial elements, learners must build confidence and engagement;
3. Social Domain (based on Sociocultural Theory) – autonomy is developed through interaction and social learning, important elements are peer collaboration, critical reflection, interaction;
4. Connectivity Domain (based on Connectivism) – autonomy is developed at various platforms involving digital and technological tools, alternative learning environments and realities, where the role of critical thinking is intensified.

There are various principles that emerge from the above integrated framework. Firstly, it suggests that autonomy is teachable and can and should be developed. Secondly, learner autonomy means both independence and interdependence. Autonomous learners can work alone but also in collaboration with others (other students, teachers, language users, technological tools). Then, the teacher's role is significant whan it comes to creating supportive learning environments, where learners feel safe and encouraged to experiment with new content, tools and even learning platforms. Finally, autonomy is both a goal and a process. It is something that teachers must pay attention to and develop, but it requires continuous practice and reflection.

Implications for teaching EFL

The growing emphasis on learner autonomy in EFL education has significantly influenced pedagogical approaches worldwide. The integration of learner autonomy into EFL settings changes how teachers operate, how the curriculum is structured, and how classroom work and management function. It is important to outline strategies that promote learner autonomy specifically in the EFL classroom.

Promoting learner autonomy in EFL settings changes the teacher's role. Teachers are not viewed as authoritative figures or the sources of knowledge, but rather as facilitators or mentors. David Little points out that the teacher's first task is to involve students in their own learning, i.e. to set the learning agenda, selecting activities, managing classroom interaction as well as evaluating the leaning outcomes (Little, 2007). He emphasises that a teacher's responsibility is to intervene when learners' choices are misleading, thus helping them to

overcome failures and "cultivating a classroom dynamic that constantly lifts them to new levels" (Little, 2007, p. 24) Another role of teachers is to encourage responsibility and independence through activities that develop planning, monitoring and evaluation skills (Benson, 2011). A teacher's role is to create a supportive learning environment where students are encouraged to participate in making decisions and that fosters student involvement. Leni Dam's book, *From Theory to Classroom Practice*, offers practical solutions and ideas on how teachers can achieve these goals (Dam, 1995).

Fostering learner autonomy in EFL settings cannot occur without reforming the curriculum. Traditional EFL curricula are often test-driven and textbook-centred. It was David Nunan, who pointed out that "it is impossible to teach learners everything they need to know in class. […] What little class time there is must therefore be used as effectively as possible to teach those aspects of the language which the learners themselves deem to be most urgently required" (Nunan, 1988, p. 3) In his book, he promotes the idea of involving learners in the learning processes, through approaches like negotiating syllabi, learner-selected content and alternative forms of assessment. The strategies he offers align with the strategies of learner autonomy, as they increase learner motivation by making the learning experience more relevant and personalized.

In addition to curriculum reform, it is also important to use alternative and formative assessment tools. Formative assessment provides immediate feedback and supports learners to reflect on their work (Puskás, 2018, p. 112). Alternative assessment tools and forms include portfolios, projects or peer and self-assessment. These tools are often used in a student-centred classroom, and help involve students in their own learning processes, thus developing self-reflection (Puskás, 2018).

To support autonomy, teachers can apply a range of practical learner-centred techniques. In *Fostering Autonomy in Language Learning*, edited by David Gardner, authors offer practical tools to promote learner autonomy in an EFL classroom (Gardner, 2011). Dam (2011) promotes learner autonomy in an institutional context. She offers ideas on how learner autonomy can be implemented in schools, while also recommending practical tips, i.e. changing the teacher's role, reorganising the classroom, using logbooks, portfolios and posters, as well as involving parents. Dam claims that useful activities that promote language production can be:

- "small talk with a partner
- preparing a play or radio programme
- giving a talk
- reading books
- using word cards with words that learners want to learn
- using different games, such as board games or quiz games" (Dam, 2011, p. 47) When reporting on their study conducted in Japan, Fine and Collins highlight that there is little research on the impact of drama on learner autonomy (Fine & Collins, 2011, p. 53). Their study involved high-, mid-, and low-structured activities, completing it with ongoing reflection and shifting teachers' roles to facilitators. Fine's and Collins' paper emphasises the importance and benefits of using drama techniques in the EFL context. They proved to improve students' language proficiency, while promoting creativity and autonomy (Fine & Collins, 2011).

Learner autonomy relates to a variety of language skills and fields. Dion, for example, presents ideas on how journaling enhances L2 writing, while improving autonomy (Dion, 2011).

Promoting learner autonomy brings important changes to EFL classrooms. Teachers should be viewed as facilitators who support and encourage students. Curricula should be modified, allowing flexibility to include students' preferred topics. Classrooms should become active and supportive spaces where students can work together, make choices, and reflect on their learning. Building learner autonomy takes time and effort, but it helps students become independent and life-long language learners.

CONCLUSION

Learner autonomy has become a cornerstone of contemporary foreign language education. However, if teachers wish to meaningfully understand and effectively implement autonomy, it must be grounded in a coherent theoretical framework.

The paper explored the colourful aspects of learner autonomy from the perspective of teaching EFL. Several definitions were outlined and the term was investigated through the lenses of Constructivism, Sociocultural Theory, Self-Determination theory, Metacognitive Theory and Connectivism. Each perspective contributes to valuable insights into the cognitive, affective, social and cognitive dimensions of autonomy, revealing it to be a dynamic and multilayered construct. Drawing from these insights, an integrated theoretical framework was proposed, offering educators and scholars a comprehensible model based on which four specific domains of autonomy were outlined. The implications of this framework are far-fetching. It calls for a redefinition of teacher roles, updating curricula, a more flexible adoption of classroom practices and strategies, supporting reflection, critical thinking and collaboration. Of course, the promotion of learner autonomy in the EFL classroom has limitations because of institutional constraints and expectations or resource limitations, however, it is already an essential component of the foreign language classroom that learners are already engaged in (e.g. being exposed to digital environments, learning environments beyond the classroom). By implementing autonomy-oriented classroom practices, teachers can develop not only more effective language learners but also learners who are more engaged, self-aware, motivated, critical and responsible.

REFERENCES

Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and Researching: Autonomy*. London: Routledge, Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Benson, P. – Reinders, H. (Eds.). (2011), *Beyond the Language Classroom*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dam, L. (1995). *Learner Autonomy 3: From Theory to Classroom Practice*. Dublin: Authentik.

Dam, L. (2011). *Developing Learner Autonomy with School Kids: Principles, practices, results*. In D. Gardner (Ed.). Fostering Autonomy in Language Learning. Gaziantep: Zirve University. pp. 40-51. Retrieved from: https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/e-elp/Fostering%20Autonomy%20in%20language%20learning.pdf Accessed: 30 September 2025

Dion, Ch. M. (2011). *Tools to Enhance Second Language Writing Autonomy: Can we do things better?* In D. Gardner (ed.). Fostering Autonomy in Language Learning. Gaziantep: Zirve University. pp. 64-74. Retrieved from: https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/eelp/Fostering%20Autonomy%20in%20language%20learning.pdf Accessed: 30 September 2025

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Downes, S. (2022). Connectivism. *Asian Journal of Distance Education 17*(1): 58-87.

Esch, E. (1997). *Learner training for autonomous language learning*. In P. Benson and Fine, G. S. – Collins, P. J. (2011). E*FL Learner Autonomy as it Emerges in Drama Projects*. In D. Gardner (Ed.). Fostering Autonomy in Language Learning. Gaziantep: Zirve University. pp. 52-63. Retrieved from: https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/eelp/Fostering%20Autonomy%20in%20language%20learning.pdf Accessed: 30 September 2025

Gardner, D. (Ed.). (2011). Fostering Autonomy in Language Learning. Gaziantep: Zirve University. Retrieved from http://ilac2010.zirve.edu.tr Accessed: 30 September 2025

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon. (First published 1979, Strasbourg: Council of Europe).

Lai, Ch. (2017). *Autonomous Language Learning with Technology: Beyond the Classroom*. New York: Bloomsbury.

Lewis, T. – Vialleton, E. (2011). The notions of control and consciousness in learner autonomy and self-regulated learning: a comparison and critique. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching 5*(2): 205-219.

Little, D. (1995). Learning as dialogue: The dependence of learner autonomy of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System, 23*(2): 175-182.

Little, D. (2007). Language Learner Autonomy: Some Fundamental Considerations Revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching 1*(1): 14-29.

Murray, G. (2014). The social dimensions of learner autonomy and self-regulated learning. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal 5*(4), 320-341.

Nielsen, B.M. (2019). *Fostering Learner Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning: Justifications, Misconceptions, and Interrelated Components for Its realization*. Retrieved from: http://hokuga.hgu.jp/dspace/bitstream/123456789/3700/1/8-3.pdf Accessed: 30 September 2025

Nunan, D. (1988). *The Learner-Centred Curriculum.* Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What every Teacher Should Know*. Rowley, MA.: Newbury House.

Puskás, A. (2018). *Teaching Young Learners: A textbook for EFL teacher trainees*. Žihárec: Bymoon.

Scovel, T. (2001). Learning New Languages: A Guide to Second Language Instruction. Teacher Autonomy. *System, 23*(2): 175–82.

Voller, P. (Ed). *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Longman, pp. 164–76.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harvard University Press.

Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy*. Prentice Hall.