

# Volume 32 (2), February 2023, 1-21 EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 THE MOTIVATIONAL EFFECTS FACILITATED BY ESP DIGITAL MATERIALS INTEGRATED WITH AN E-LEARNING SYSTEM

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# **ABSTRACT**

This study examined how vocabulary materials affected ESP learners' motivation and proficiency. The authors compared three groups of ESP learners by providing them with three types of vocabulary materials on veterinary medicine. The authors selected the vocabulary items from an ESP corpus that they compiled from 180 veterinary medical charts. The participants in three groups studied the same set of ESP vocabulary items from the veterinary medical chart corpus based on; (a) paper-based materials; (b) online e-learning materials using *Quizlet*; and (c) e-learning materials integrated with digital video materials. The participants took a motivational scale test after this treatment. Measuring the results of the pre-and post-vocabulary tests and the motivational factors of the three groups revealed that the learning gains and several motivational factors of both the e-learning users and e-learning with digital materials were significantly higher than those with paper-based ESP materials. These findings highlight the potential of e-learning materials and digital materials developed by an ESP corpus focusing on a specific field.

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#### **KEYWORDS**

E-learning, corpus, ESP, digital materials

### INTRODUCTION

While English for Specific Purposes (ESP) students are expected to learn specific vocabulary items effectively, instructors face difficulties in helping them learn specific vocabulary items due to a lack of student engagement and motivation. With the aim of overcoming obstacles students face, language instructors (e.g., Michael, 2019) introduced a recent trend in digital education for language learning and explored new digital tools combined with educational pedagogy. Some case studies are also observed, in which the effectiveness and efficacy of language learning based on digital materials are substantiated. Regarding the necessity of ESP students' acquiring specific vocabulary items, recent studies have shown the effectiveness of involving ESP corpora by initiating the compilation of corpora for educational and research purposes (Maniez, 2012; Crawford, 2007, Katani, Yoshimi, Nanjo & Isohara, 2016). Despite the growing number of original ESP corpora, a universally accurate, effective method for helping students learn specific, corpus-based vocabulary items has not yet been thoroughly investigated. Thus, this study attempted to explore how we could combine digital materials with ESP vocabulary learning and to examine the effectiveness of digital materials by comparing such digital materials and elearning suites that include digital materials, e-learning, and audio-visual aids.

# LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Effectiveness of E-learning Materials

Language learning institutions have adopted various computer-aided learning systems, including e-learning. Adopting e-learning instructional components provides more opportunities for cognitive learning, offering students more flexible access to the materials (Petty, Johnston, & Shafer, 2004). Thus, such a learning style has resulted in students' satisfaction with e-learning based on the positive outcomes of student-centered blended learning with computers (Askov, Johnston, Petty, & Young, 2003; Drennan, Kennedy & Pisarski 2005). The trend of combining gameplay elements with an educational domain is widely expanding and beginning to yield successful learning outcomes due mainly to goal-oriented learning (Squire, 2009; Peterson, 2013, Thomas, 2012; Sykes & Reinhardt, 2012; Sykes, 2017), pointing out the potential of peer learning opportunities as benefits. These examples pedagogically suggest the meaningful incorporation of gameplay, e-learning, and digital media.

Among the reports on the effectiveness and potential of computer-based learning materials, the one by Coryel and Chlup (2008) attracts our attention. Their survey, which qualitatively analyzed

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the effectiveness of e-learning systems, concluded that teachers should carefully consider four elements before they implement additional materials to allow the students to learn voluntarily with teacher cooperation: (a) Preparation, (b) individualized student-centered instruction, (c) support, and (d) collaboration.

# **Compiling ESP Corpora**

Many researchers have compiled a variety of corpora, especially original ones for ESP (Akano, Hori, & Tono, 2014; Boulton, Thomas, & Jolivet, 2012). Some such ESP corpus studies pointed out a lack of integration between corpus research and teaching applications (Aijmer, 2009; Boulton, Thomas, & Jolivet, 2012). This is one of the issues regarding using corpora in EFL settings.

The empirical analyses through original ESP corpora provide actual discourses that include vocabulary items used in the students' retrospective fields. If we could utilize the actual discourses found in the ESP corpora along with their lexical items for teaching, we would be able to fill the gap in integrating the ESP corpus evidence with more productive teaching and, thereby, produce better learning outcomes. Applying corpus-based materials to educate ESP students by integrating them with digital materials would potentially lead to greater autonomy in studying English.

Considering the remarks of Coxhead (2014) that ESP vocabulary is complex and idiosyncratic, special training to acquire vocabulary will be necessary along with classroom English. As for ESP vocabulary learning procedures, few experimental research studies comparing the self-efficacy between learning through paper-based materials and digital means, including e-learning materials, have been conducted regarding the ESP vocabulary learning procedures.

Aiming to explore an efficacious method to improve ESP students' proficiency and motivation, this study attempts to compare three different vocabulary learning environments: a) Paper-based learning, b) e-learning, and c) digital materials integrated with e-learning.

We started by compiling an original corpus to extract specific vocabulary items students should learn. As a pilot ESP vocabulary study, we selected the field of veterinary medicine. The implementation of this study also addresses issues with applying digital materials to learn specific vocabulary items. The following overview outlines the procedures of this study.

(1) Compiling an ESP original corpus annotated with an XML scheme tag set using veterinary nursing documents, such as medical charts.

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(2) Extracting texts using Perl scripts to create an original frequency-based wordlist for vocabulary learning materials.

- (3) Creating an environment by integrating e-learning and digital materials with e-learning software for ESP students to learn the wordlist in (2)
- (4) Measuring the self-efficacy and the effectiveness of the ESP students in the learning environment in (3).

We pose two research questions below. By answering the two research questions (RQs) below, we will see what type of ESP e-learning environment might help students in acquiring ESP vocabulary and what elements, such as those proposed by Coryel and Chlup (2008), ESP teachers should consider when assisting students.

- RQ 1. Which learning method is most effective for helping ESP students learn vocabulary items: a) Paper-based, b) e-learning or c) digital material integrated with e-learning?
- RQ 2. Which of the above three methods can most influence students' motivation?

# METHODOLOGY

# Compiling an ESP Corpus

The authors used the ESP Corpus that Ohashi, Katagiri, and Oka (2018) compiled. This is called "the Veterinary Nursing Medical Chart (VNMC) Corpora" (Ohashi et al. 2018, p. 317). As the name of the corpus identifies itself, the VNMC corpora contain words used in 240 medical charts that veterinarians recorded in animal hospitals and an additional 220 documents that veterinary nurses recorded for the patients' (i.e., animals') treatment. The words from the medical charts and records were annotated in an Extensible Markup Language (XML) for the intended extraction of words depending on research purposes, for example, what symptoms the canine exhibits most often compared to felines.

# Selecting ESP Vocabulary Items

The authors selected veterinary vocabulary items for the present study from the VNMC corpora. They selected the items by excluding the lexemes in the General Service List (West, 1953) and the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000).

**Participants.** Approximately 150 first-year students studying veterinary nursing at a university for veterinary medicine participated in this study. They agreed to participate in this research upon filling out consent forms to provide their vocabulary test results and written survey answers.

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**Vocabulary Materials.** This study utilized the three learning vocabulary materials. We extracted 138 vocabulary items (which were not included in GSL or AWL) from the VNMC corpora that were commonly observed in five different categories; they were: "Dermatitis," "ophthalmology," "vaccine," "vomit," and "lameness." We randomly chose 46 words from this wordlist (see Appendix A for the entire wordlist) and assigned it to the three different material types, i.e., paper-based, e-learning, and e-learning with a digital audio-visual element.

**Paper-based materials.** The paper-based materials contain a table of selected veterinary medicine ESP vocabulary items with Japanese translations (Table *1*). We used the materials for ESP English classes for one semester. We encouraged the participants to learn the word list by heart over the course of the semester.

Word type	日本語 [Japanese translation]
NASAL DISCHARGE	鼻汁
CANINE	イヌ科、犬の
THORAX	胸部
RECTUM	直腸(名詞)
ALLERGY	アレルギー
MAMMARY GLAND	乳腺
GENITALIA	生殖器
PULSE	脈
SPECIES	種

 Table I: Samples of the Paper-based Vocabulary Learning Materials

**E-learning materials.** The second material type utilized *Quizlet* (Southerland, 2007), a webbased tool for vocabulary learning. Quizlet allows instructors to create various digital vocabulary learning materials, such as flashcards, closed tests, writing tests, and so on. After downloading Quizlet for free on its website, the students can access the material anytime and anywhere to learn the ESP wordlist from their PCs or mobile devices. Thus, they can use the materials freely and learn the target vocabulary items as long as they have an Internet connection available. Several studies confirm the advantage of Quizlet for intentional vocabulary learning compared with paper-based vocabulary learning tools (Blair & Barr, 2016; Dizon, 2016; Sato, Murase, & Burden, 2015).

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**E-learning integrated with digital materials.** The third type of learning materials aimed at taking advantage of audio-visual information complete with the ESP vocabulary items and their translations. We played video clips taken at an animal hospital in the U.S.A. to the participants. The video clips had subtitles for the veterinary ESP words from the wordlists. Figure *I* is a sample extract from the digital material. The participants watched the clips on a 50-inch monitor in a university cafeteria (where a number of students gather) from 9:00 am to 6:00 pm during the experiment period. We set a timer to turn a monitor on at 9:00 am and off at 6:00 pm. Thus, we expected the participants to watch and learn the ESP vocabulary items while they were in the cafeteria (Figure II).





Figure II: Integrated e-learning materials placed in the university cafeteria



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### **Experimental Study**

The experimental study tested the effectiveness of the three ESP vocabulary materials in the previous section. We sorted the participants into three groups and assigned them to learn the three types of materials; (a) learning the paper-based ESP vocabulary items, (b) e-learning the ESP materials through online software, i.e., Quizlet, and (c) learning the ESP lexemes through audio-visual materials integrated with e-learning software. The participants in three different material groups learned the ESP vocabulary items over three months. The participant took a vocabulary progress test after three months. All the participants took the same vocabulary progress test based on the type of ESP vocabulary materials they used for learning. The test included 46 ESP vocabulary items from the extracted wordlist. Each question asked the participants to translate Japanese words into English (Section 1) and to translate English words into Japanese (Section 2). At the beginning of each week, we gave the participants pretests and post-tests were given three months later. We compared the test scores of the three groups and measured the effectiveness of the three types of ESP vocabulary materials.

**Motivation Questionnaire.** We measured the participants' English learning motivation by utilizing the English learning motivation scale for veterinary nursing students developed by Sekitani, Ohashi and Katagiri (2017). The scale comprised the following four factors: (a) *General knowledge and training* with 12 items (e.g., "I want to understand English better"), (b) *practical use for veterinary medicine* with ten items (e.g., "If I cannot speak English, I will be in trouble when a foreign patient comes"), (c) *life and study overseas* with six items (e.g., "English is necessary to study abroad"), and (d) *passive sense of obligation* with four items (e.g., English classes are required subjects). Participants were asked to answer the question, "Why do you study English?" Responses were selected from a five-point scale ranging from 1 ("not true at all") to 5 ("absolutely true"). After collecting the participants' responses on the motivation scale, we calculated the mean score of each factor. In the questionnaire, participants added their opinions regarding the ESP vocabulary learning methods they used to learn the vocabulary items.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

We conducted statistical tests to examine the efficacy and the effects of e-learning and digital materials on both low and high-proficiency-level students.

# Multivariate Analyses

This section provides the results of a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to examine the relationship between the independent variables, e.g., the type of materials, learners' proficiency levels, and the interaction of these two, and the dependent variables, the vocabulary

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test scores and each motivational factor. Table II illustrates the means of the pre-post vocabulary test score differences and the four motivation factors in each group.

Table II: Means (SDs) of the Pre-Post Vocabulary Test Score Differences of the Vocabulary Test and Motivation

			Type of mate	rials	
	Proficiency level	Paper-based	E-learning	Didigal	Total
	Low	4.50 (5.57)	10.45 (7.77)	6.32 (6.39)	6.73 (6.92)
Vocabulary test	High	-1.69 (9.00)	12.60 (12.33)	11.69 (12.14)	6.63 (12.92)
	Total	1.34 (8.10)	11.65 (10.56)	9.34 (10.33)	6.68 (10.57)
	Low	0.05 (0.66)	0.04 (0.49)	-0.12 (1.04)	0.01 (0.73)
General knowledge and training	High	0.03 (0.37)	0.16 (0.65)	-0.01 (0.62)	0.06 (0.54)
	Total	0.04 (0.53)	0.11 (0.58)	-0.06 (0.83)	0.04 (0.64)
	Low	0.00 (0.67)	0.11 (0.61)	0.15 (1.01)	0.07 (0.75)
Veterinary medicine	High	0.00 (0.53)	0.20 (0.75)	-0.13 (0.66)	0.03 (0.65)
	Total	0.00 (0.60)	0.16 (0.69)	-0.01 (0.84)	0.05 (0.70)
	Low	-0.04 (0.61)	-0.01 (0.54)	-0.39 (0.82)	-0.12 (0.66)
Life and study overseas	High	0.02 (0.54)	0.17 (0.75)	-0.11 (0.52)	0.03 (0.61)
	Total	-0.01 (0.57)	0.09 (0.66)	-0.23 (0.68)	-0.04 (0.64)
	Low	-0.12 (0.53)	0.16 (0.66)	0.17 (1.01)	0.04 (0.72)
Passive sense of obligation	High	-0.06 (0.47)	-0.01 (0.48)	0.10 (0.75)	0.00 (0.56)
	Total	-0.09 (0.49)	0.07 (0.57)	0.13 (0.86)	0.02 (0.64)
	Vocabulary test         General knowledge and training         Veterinary medicine         Life and study overseas         Passive sense of obligation	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	$\begin{array}{ c c c c c } & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &$	$\begin{array}{                                    $

Table III shows the results of the two-way MANOVA. We can see a significant main effect of the type of materials on the dependent variables (Pillai's Trace = 0.274, F = 7.371, p < .000,  $\eta_p^2 = .137$ ) and a significant interaction between the type of materials and English proficiency level (Pillai's Trace = 0.113, F = 2.791, p = .002,  $\eta_p^2 = .057$ ). No significant main effect of English proficiency level was observed (Pillai's Trace = 0.038, F = 1.821, p = .110,  $\eta_p^2 = .038$ ).

Given the significance of the overall multivariate test, we examined the univariate main effects of type of materials and univariate interactions. Table IV displays a significant interaction for the vocabulary test (F(2, 235) = 8.767, p = .000,  $\eta_p^2 = .069$ ). A simple main effect of the type of materials in the high English proficiency group was observed (F(2, 268) = 44.221, p = .000,  $\eta_p^2 = .248$ ). Bonferroni's method for multiple comparisons revealed that in the high English proficiency group, the pre-post score difference of the vocabulary test in the e-learning group was larger than that of the paper-based group (p < .001), and the score difference in the digital group 8

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was larger than that of the paper-based group (p < .001) as shown in Figure III. We also observed simple main effects of English proficiency level in the paper-based and the digital materials groups ( $F(1, 268) = 21.129, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .073; F(1, 268) = 4.778, p = .030, \eta_p^2 = .018$ ).

Table III: Summary of MANOVA Results with Type of Materials, English Proficiency Level and their In	teraction as
Independent Variables, and Pre-Post Score Differences of the Vocabulary Test and Motivation as D	ependent
Variables	

Effect	Value of Pillai's Trace	F Hy	ypothesis df	Error df	р	$\eta_p^2$
Intercept	0.402	31.037	5.000	231.000	.000	.402
Type of Materials	0.274	7.371	10.000	464.000	.000 ***	.137
English Proficiency Level	0.038	1.821	5.000	231.000	.110	.038
Type of Materials*English Proficiency Level	0.113	2.791	10.000	464.000	.002 **	.057
<i>vole</i> . $p < .01$ $p < .001$						

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 Table IV: Between-Subjects Effects of the Two-Way ANOVA Results on the Pre-Post Vocabulary Test Score

 Differences and Motivation Factors

Source		df	SS	MS	F	р	${\eta_p}^2$
	Vocabulary test	1	12273.192	12273.192	143.667	.000	.379
	General	1	0.155	0.155	0.380	.538	.002
Intercept	Veterinary	1	0.697	0.697	1.430	.233	.006
	Overseas	1	0.889	0.889	2.256	.134	.010
	Obligation	1	0.375	0.375	0.928	.336	.004
	Vocabulary test	2	4910.297	2455.148	28.739	.000 ***	.197
	General	2	0.912	0.456	1.117	.329	.009
Type of Materials	Veterinary	2	1.154	0.577	1.185	.308	.010
	Overseas	2	3.916	1.958	4.970	.008 **	.041
	Obligation	2	2.253	1.126	2.787	.064	.023
	Vocabulary test	1	11.133	11.133	0.130	.718	.001
English Profisionay	General	1	0.260	0.260	0.636	.426	.003
Lenglish Proficiency	Veterinary	1	0.192	0.192	0.395	.530	.002
Level	Overseas	1	1.722	1.722	4.371	.038 *	.018
	Obligation	1	0.218	0.218	0.540	.463	.002
	Vocabulary test	2	1497.821	748.910	8.767	.000 ***	.069
Type of	General	2	0.279	0.139	0.341	.711	.003
Materials*English	Veterinary	2	1.292	0.646	1.327	.267	.011
Proficiency Level	Overseas	2	0.478	0.239	0.607	.546	.005
	Obligation	2	0.520	0.260	0.643	.526	.005
	Vocabulary test	235	20075.624	85.428			
	General	235	95.904	0.408			
Error	Veterinary	235	114.429	0.487			
	Overseas	235	92.577	0.394			
	Obligation	235	94.965	0.404			

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Figure III: Pre-post Score Differences of the Vocabulary Test



#### **Motivational factors**

For "life and study overseas," a significant main effect of English proficiency level was obtained  $(F (2, 235) = 4.371, p = .038, \eta_p^2 = .018)$ . Overall, the pre-post score difference was larger in the high English proficiency group. Also, a significant main effect of type of materials was obtained  $(F (2, 235) = 4.970, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .041)$ . Bonferroni's method for multiple comparisons revealed that the pre-post score difference in the e-learning group was larger than that in the digital group (p = .008). Figure IV illustrates the results. No significant main effects or interactions were observed for any of the other dependent variables.

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Figure IV: Pre-post Score Differences of Life and Study Overseas



# Qualitative Analyses

**Engagement in the program.** Statistical results based on the students' entire scores implied that e-learning materials had the largest effects on students' vocabulary learning improvement; on the other hand, qualitative aspects revealed additional perspectives.

The participants' open written answers on the questionnaire distinguished those who failed to watch the digital materials from those who willingly engaged in the program. Thus, we further examined the progress values in vocabulary tests (subtracting the post-test raw score from the pretest raw score) between the students who failed to study through the program more than once and those who engaged in the program more than twice, as instructed, on both low and high proficiency levels.

The results of the two-way ANOVA (Table V) indicated a significant main effect between the students who engaged in the program and those who failed to participate (F(1, 119) = 45.5, p = .000) and a nonsignificant effect for the proficiency level (F(1, 119) = 1.27, p = .262). The relationship between proficiency level and student engagement in the program disclosed no significant interaction term (F(1, 119) = 1.31, p = .255).

These results signify that digital materials helped students improve their vocabulary regardless of their proficiency level, as long as they accurately engaged in the program as instructed.

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**Language proficiency levels.** Following these results, we also examined the vocabulary test progress values between the low and high-proficiency level students in the e-learning group to examine whether statistical results show differences between low and high levels, which were not observed in the digital group. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that there is no statistical difference between low and high proficiency levels. The test was significant, t (131) = -2.55, p = .01, d = 0.3, and the results were counter to the hypothesis. The effects on high-proficiency level students (M = 18.8, SD = 13) were higher than those of low-proficiency level students (M = 12.7, SD = 13.2).

The above results imply that a single e-learning program had larger effects on high-proficiency level students while the e-learning program integrated with digital materials was more effective for both low and high-proficiency level students.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	р	$\eta_p^2$
proficiency	70.473	1	70.473	1.273	.262	.011
engagement	2517.287	1	2517.287	45.459	.000	.276
proficiency*engagement	72.588	1	72.588	1.311	.255	.011
error	6589.620	119	55.375			
sum	9195.041	122				

Table V: Summary of Two-way ANOVA Results with Engagement, English Proficiency Level, and Their Interaction

# DISCUSSION

# Answers to the Research Questions

RQ 1. Which learning method is most effective for helping ESP students learn vocabulary items: a) Paper-based, b) e-learning or c) digital material integrated with e-learning?

We confirmed the pedagogical benefit of the corpus-based ESP ICT materials, because our finding indicated that vocabulary growth after learning through both e-learning and digital material, integrated with e-learning, was more significant than the growth provided by learning through paper-based materials.

Regarding the students' learning motivation and vocabulary proficiency, the results of the MANOVA (Table III) conveyed a more significant effect on the higher proficiency level students

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of the e-learning group than in the other two groups (the paper-based material group and their digital materials integrated with the e-learning group). Although the e-learning group saw significant vocabulary growth, the differences in students' vocabulary progress between e-learning and digital groups were insignificant, implying that both learning materials have the same statistical effects. On the one hand, having students learn through e-learning materials seems to have resulted in the most effective learning gains. On the other hand, the second statistical analysis implied that, if learned accurately as instructed, the digital materials integrated with the e-learning software yielded the most favorable effect.

We should also mention the participants' language proficiency levels. The difference in vocabulary growth between low and high proficiency levels in the digital group was not significant, however, the growth in higher proficiency levels in the e-learning group was statistically larger than the growth in the lower level. These results can shed light on the effectiveness of the digital materials integrated with e-learning on ESP students with varying language proficiency levels.

RQ 2. Which of the above three methods can most influence students' motivation?

Qualitatively, the motivation factor, "veterinary medicine," attracted slightly higher value in the digital group than the other two groups (Table II). This result implies that digital programs possibly facilitate beginner-level students' willingness to utilize what they have learned. The low-proficiency participants benefitted from the visual aids because they willingly engaged themselves in output activity. This provides further support for providing the ESP vocabulary items by using visual aids.

# Findings

**Benefits of the digital ESP materials.** Overall, both e-learning and digital materials integrated with e-learning had favorable effects on the participants in learning specific ESP vocabulary items. Judging from the students' vocabulary scores, students who willingly studied watching digital materials significantly advanced more than those who failed to accurately watch the digital (audio-visual) materials. These findings imply that failure to engage participants in learning the ESP vocabulary items with digital materials provoked little effect on the participants' learning even though the digital materials were programmed correctly for the students, which we confirmed in the participants' comments in the questionnaires as well.

The findings of this study corroborate the statement of Sykes and Reinhardt (2012) and Micheal (2019) that pointed out the importance of combining theory-based pedagogy, such as the task-based method, with digital materials. Without accurate instructions based on a theory, some

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students might learn the materials successfully, although some might fail to study. In this sense, this study unveiled some challenges, such as how we should construct an e-learning system that utilizes digital materials.

**Participants' comments on e-learning.** The written answers in the questionnaire also revealed that some participants were plagued by the complicated procedures required to start the computer-oriented tasks. The teachers needed to provide participants with accurate instructions before and during their learning. We should also consider students' computer literacy. Concerning a lack of "support and collaboration" that Coryel and Chlup (2008) considered necessary in students-centered, computer-based learning, this issue implies that the teachers' systematic support will help students appropriately conduct their learning. A whole program should be student-centered; however, students also want their teachers' support and feedback.

Students' written comments in the questionnaire also revealed further challenges. Some participants found the settings of the digital learning programs uncomfortable, complaining, "when there were many students in the students' lounge, we did not feel like learning vocabulary by watching the digital materials, although we knew the video was quite interesting." Creating a comfortable learning environment is one of the challenges that must be addressed before introducing digital materials in educational facilities.

Participants preferred a self-learning environment to one where they must share the digital ESP materials with other participants. Elaborating on e-learning programs covering digital materials might provide a better learning environment because the students could watch digital materials without being disturbed by other students. For example, adding a picture related to each vocabulary item in Quizlet might help (see the example Quizlet on iPhone in Figure V).

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Figure V: A screenshot of a vocabulary item in Ouizlet on an iPhone

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We conclude the paper by listing the findings below:

a) Using ICT materials in ESP education promotes more effective learning of specific vocabulary items than paper-based materials.

- b) Unless students accurately carry out the ESP digital program as instructed by teachers, the ESP digital program integrated with the e-learning system, they might miss out on favorable effects.
- c) E-learning programs are more effective for highly proficient leveled students than those with low proficiency.
- d) Digital programs are likely to help develop students' vocabulary, regardless of their proficiency.
- e) Visual aid can increase students' willingness to output their learning, especially among low-proficiency students.

# CONCLUSIONS

We need to construct an ESP digital learning system that meets the following requirements: a) Establishes a student-centered but collaborative learning system

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b) Provides occasional teachers support for students in need of help, including face-to-face talks

c) Engages students stepwise in the learning system without fail

e) Facilitates students' willingness to learn and monitor their learning process

This study revealed the effectiveness of adopting e-learning programs to help students learn specific vocabulary items in the veterinary medical ESP field. Visual aids through ESP digital materials resulted in positive outcomes for the students, who willingly engaged in the learning system. We may need to modify the system for future implementation. A failure to conduct a delayed post-test could be considered a limitation. Delayed post-test results enable the further analysis to examine whether visual aids help students remember things longer. As long as the learning system is student-centered and the students "see" or actually engage in the digital learning program, we expect a lasting effect on the student's learning.

As Sykes (2017) pointed out, blended learning allows learners to expand further target language exploration without a time commitment from teachers. However, teachers should give the students occasional feedback that would support them psychologically and, thus, pedagogically. Further detailed research will effectively assist teachers in supporting student-centered digital or e-learning programs. Possible engagement by teachers includes giving learners regular tests with feedback based on their test results and providing learners with mental support to help students pursue their individual goals.

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Appendix: A Sample list of vocabulary items used for this study and the frequency of occurrence 1= Vomit, 2= Vaccine, 3= Ophthalmology, 4= Lameness, 5= Dermatitis

							<u>&gt;</u>
	Total Frequency	1	2	3	4	5	日本語
NASAL DISCHARGE	317	26	39	110	44	98	<b>島</b> 汁
CANINE	297	15	41	31	76	134	イヌ科一大の
THORAX	210	20	32	48	30	80	胸部
RECTUM	208	21	32	48	30	77	直眼(久罰)
ALLERGY	205	16	11	34	22	122	ビルボー
MAMMARY GLAND	203	20	31	49	30	74	到 腹
GENITALIA	204	20	32	49	30	73	4U/冰 开
PULSE	182	16	17	35	32	82	11.2月1日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日日
SPECIES	170	10	1	37	27	95	<u>所</u> 種
VACCINATION	140	13	22	30	21	52	性ロカチンは毎
DESCRIPTION	149	13	20	30	12	71	シシンな性
I RESCRIPTION	140	12	20	30	15	54	処万戔
NELAMMATION	131	10	16	12	20	56	ノインリノ
ADDOMEN	131	12	10	12	35	50	灾症 16-52
ABDOMEN	120	15	17	20	15	22	腹部
	120	49	33	8	21	23	嘔吐する
CALCULUS	118	9	12	32	21	44	結石
RABIES	118	10	28	15	21	44	<u>壮</u> 大病
DOSE	11/	12	38	25	12	30	投与重·服用重
LESIONS	116	10	10	29	17	44	病愛・損傷
LAMENESS	115	8	16	20	35	36	跛行·步行困難
	115	10	16	26	19	44	心雅音
RESPIRATORY	115	9	2	28	15	61	呼吸の
	111	9		24	15	62	尿の
	110	10	15	15	15	55 56	バー
OUTPATIENT NEUPOLOGICAL	110	10	5	24	15	56	外来患者
NEUROLOGICAL	109	9	1	26	15	58 20	神経学の
ALEKI	105	10	15	25	16	39	警告・警戒
ABNORMALITIES	104	10	16	23	18	37	異常 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)
GLAND	104	10	15	24	16	38	腺·分泌腺
CYSIS	103	10	16	24	15	38	囊胞
WITHERS	103	10	16	25	15	37	(犬や馬などの)き甲
LOCOMOTION	102	10	17	24	15	36	運動
VITAL SIGNS	102	10	15	25	17	35	バイタルサイン
GAIT	101	10	16	26	13	36	歩行・足取り
SYNCHRONOUS	101	10	16	24	15	36	同時に起こる
CAVITY	100	10	16	22	15	37	虫歯
ORGANOMEGALY	100	10	15	24	15	36	臓器肥大症
PALPABLE	100	10	15	24	15	36	触診可能な
NON-PAINFUL	99	10	15	24	14	36	無痛の
EUPNEA	98	10	14	24	15	35	正常呼吸
AMBULATORY ABILITY	97	10	15	24	11	37	歩行能力
TABLET	95	14	7	9	32	33	錠剤
CHRONOLOGICAL	91	3	32	16	27	13	年代順の・時系列の
VITALS	90	7	18	18	24	23	器官
ODOR	86	8	14	17	8	39	匂い、香り

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DVM (doctor of veterinary medicine)	85	7	15	23	13	27	獣医
MEDICATION	85	5	28	19	4	29	莱物·莱剤
VETERINARIAN	79	6	32	11	7	23	獣医
DRUG	76	6	17	15	7	31	薬
THERAPY	76	8	19	14	6	29	治療
ADMINISTER	74	5	21	14	18	16	投与する
DISPOSITION	69	7	7	21	11	23	傾向·性質
RECTAL	69	4	19	13	16	17	直腸の(形容詞)
HEIGHT	64	7	14	13	7	23	体高·肩高
SNAP	64	3	9	14	15	23	(パクリ)と噛む
DIARRHEA	58	17	13	5	5	18	下痢
DEWORMING	56	6	11	8	7	24	駆虫
APPETITE	48	8	9	14	5	12	食欲
VACCINES	48	3	16	10	5	14	ワクチン
ITCHING	42	1	3	1	4	33	痒み
TICK	40	4	3	7	9	17	ダニ
VET	39	2	1	10	8	18	獣医
FACIAL INJURIES	38	2	16	5	7	8	顔面の負傷
QUARANTINE	38	2	3	1	21	11	隔離・隔離する
HYPOALLERGENIC	37	4	2	6	2	23	低刺激性の・低アレルゲンの
INTRANASAL	37	1	10	6	6	14	鼻腔内の
SPAYED	37	4	2	11	1	19	(雌が)避妊手術を受けた
NEUTERED	33	5	4	3	8	13	(雄が)去勢した
TRIM	33	2	5	5	9	12	(犬・猫の毛を)手入れする
SNEEZING	32	1	2	18	4	7	くしゃみ
ADVERSE	30	2	16	4	1	7	逆の・反作用の
ANTIGEN	28	1	8	1	7	11	抗原
CHEWABLE	26	1	2	3	15	5	噛み砕ける・チュアブルタイプの
CLINIC	26	2	2	9	4	9	病院
VACCINATED	25	2	-11	4	1	7	予防接種を受けている
PRESCRIBED DIET	22	2	7	3	2	8	既定食·処方食
MICROCHIP	21	3	3	5	1	9	マイクロチップ
BOOSTER INOCULATION	17	1	4	4	1	7	追加接種
INTACT	16	1	2	4	4	5	無傷の・去勢(避妊されていない)
OVERWEIGHT	16	1	1	7	3	4	太りすぎの
COMPLY WITH	14	1	7	1	1	4	~を遵守する
MINIATURE	14	1	2	1	2	8	小型の
PRESCRIBE A COMPLETE REST	14	1	7	1	1	4	絶対安静を命じる
DEWORM	13	2	1	3	1	6	駆虫する
IMPLANT	12	2	1	3	1	5	移植する・着床する

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# Volume 32 (4), April 2023; 1-11MOTIO SIMO Epiphanie & MBA GabrielEISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245www.ijllalw.orgAUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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# ABSTRACT

This article highlights learner autonomy in language learning. Indeed, the learner is only autonomous if he is first competent. For this, Linguistic skills cover all the skills to express oneself in one's mother tongue or in a foreign language. They are grouped according to the major verbal functions reading, writing, speaking, listening. It is these four capacities that enable an individual to understand, produce and use language in effective communication. They are most often acquired in the order of listening first, then speaking, then eventually reading and writing. The mastery of these capacities confers on the learner the autonomy of learning which makes him capable of taking charge of his own learning. However, in formal language learning, the scope of learner autonomy is always limited. To overcome this limitation, the teacher should, among other things, involve his learners in a non-stop quest for good learning activities, which are shared, discussed, analyzed and evaluated with the whole class in the target language, help his learners to define their own learning objectives and to choose their own learning activities, subjecting them to discussion, analysis and evaluation again in the target language; and lead its learners to identify individual goals while pursuing them through collaborative work in small groups.

KEYWORDS: Autonomy, competence, learning, languages.

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# Volume 32 (4), April 2023; 1-11 MOTIO SIMO Epiphanie & MBA Gabriel EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 www.ijllalw.org INTRODUCTION

Autonomy is the possibility of governing oneself, by one's own laws and, by extension, recognizing this right of others. According to the glossary-teaching-learning-of-languages, autonomy translates to educate. It is to make autonomous, that is to say, to bring the student to do without the teacher. In a foreign language, we do not really make autonomous, we make more and more autonomous. In the field of expression, becoming autonomous means reducing the gap between wanting to say and being able to say. According to Coq and Gruca (1994: 118) in the dictionary of didactics, the term autonomy refers to the learner's ability to take charge of his learning. In a second meaning, the term autonomy is sometimes used in reference to learning. Furthermore, in the phrases linguistic autonomy, linguistic autonomy, communicative autonomy, the term autonomy refers to the ability to cope, in real time and in a satisfactory manner, with the language obligations that one is confronted with in communication situations. Thus, according to Arenilla et al. (1996: 6) in Dictionnaire de pédagogie, the term autonomy designates the ability to regulate one's behavior by oneself according to laws. The conquest of autonomy would therefore be the awareness of the laws and the integration of these laws in a personal future, dialectical between freedom and constraint.

Intellectual autonomy is defined as the ability to read, write, use the documents or the current instruments of the work required. In addition, Holec (1997) defines autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's own learning. According to him, taking charge of one's learning means taking responsibility for various decisions concerning all aspects of learning: the determination of objectives, the definition of content, the selection of methods of achievement and evaluation. The same applies to the definition of autonomy given by Germain and Netten (2004: 69), which makes the learner responsible for learning. Thus, the autonomous learner understands the purpose of his learning program, explicitly accepts responsibility for his learning, participates in the development of his learning goals, takes the initiative to plan and carry out learning activities. learning, and regularly reviews their learning and evaluates its effects. This definition is similar to that of Dickinson (1987: 17) who translates the notion of autonomy as being the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerning his learning and for the execution of the decisions. In language teaching, the notion of autonomy as taken up by the CEFR falls within the field of language learning and learning in itself is a skill. Thus, autonomy means placing the learner at the center of his learning. In the specific context of learning a language, autonomy is therefore a set of skills for the learner to take charge of his own learning. But since these skills are not innate, the teacher, who now plays the role of adviser, will have to help the learner to learn how to learn. Hence the need for the teacher to help the learner to determine the objectives of his learning (specific, global, etc.), to identify the content of said learning (phonetic, phonological, morphophonological, lexicological, morphological, syntactic,

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stylistic, etc.), to determine the methods of learning, the modalities of learning and to retain the instruments for evaluating one's learning. It would be important to refer to school autonomy as defined by Raab (2016), in his article: Autonomous learning and obstacle avoidance strategies. According to Raab (2016: 23), school autonomy is the ability of a student, a group of students or a class to carry out a productive activity (the task) in the service of a constructive activity (the learning) outside the direct presence of the teacher. The autonomy of pupils is studied within the framework of so-called "autonomous" devices or activities, carried out in the space-time of a heterogeneous and large class: the pupil must act outside the direct presence of the teacher, in within the framework of work prescribed by the teacher or chosen from among the possible activities permitted by the framework or the device.

This definition of school autonomy comes here to reframe learning autonomy in its more restricted sense but by emphasizing the task that corresponds to what the learner has to do in the presence or not of the teacher. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR, 2001) is the culmination of a long process carried out at the initiative of the Council of Europe in order to establish a reference document (CEFR), as its name suggests, to set objectives, skill descriptors and tasks at each language proficiency level on which the user can base himself to learn, implement learning strategies, and evaluate the level of language learners. This work of the CEFR (2001: 15) is placed in an action perspective in the sense that it considers above all the user and the learner of a language as social actors having to accomplish tasks (which are not only linguistic) in given circumstances and environment, within a particular field of action. In the CEFR, the notion of autonomy is considered under two aspects: the autonomous level and the categorization of the notion of autonomy.

The rest of the article is structured as follows: The second section presents the level of language learning. The third section presents the categories of autonomy in learning, the fourth section presents the importance of autonomy in language learning and the fifth section is devoted to the conclusion.

# Level of language learning autonomy

The autonomous level seems to be characterized by access to a wide range of speech that allows easy and spontaneous communication. The adjective autonomous derives from the noun autonomy, thus the CEFR has a two-sided conception of the notion of autonomy: learner autonomy in the use of language and learner autonomy in language use. language learning.

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# Volume 32 (4), April 2023; 1-11 EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 Learner autonomy in language use

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The European Council (2001: 24) defines six reference levels: (i) the Introductory or Breakthrough Level corresponds to what Wilkins called formula competence in his 1978 proposal and Trim introductory competence in the same publication; (ii) The Intermediate or Survival Level (Waystage) reflects the content specification currently in force within the Council of Europe; (iii) the Threshold Level reflects the content specification currently in force within the Council of Europe; (iv) the Advanced (Vantage) or Independent User Level, above the Threshold Level, has been presented as a limited operational skill by Wilkins and by Trim as an appropriate response in common situations; (v) the Level of Autonomous or Effective Operational Proficiency, which has been presented by Trim as an effective skill and as an adequate operational skill by Wilkins, corresponds to an advanced level of proficiency suitable for carrying out more comprehensive tasks or studies; (vi) Mastery (Trim: global mastery; Wilkins: global operational competence) corresponds to the highest examination in the ALTE scale. This could include the even higher level of intercultural competence achieved by many language professionals. It is about the autonomy of the learner in his relationship with the language he is studying (language of learning) within the framework of the didactic triangle. The didactic triangle is a schematic representation of the didactic system. The didactic system, which appears in any mediation of knowledge between a teacher and a learner, is made up of the interrelations produced between the following three actors: knowledge (in this case school), the teacher and the learner.

# Learner autonomy in language learning

From this point of view, the CEFR gives a certain number of advices as to the need to develop in the learner an awareness of his learning of the language, and to encourage his ability to learn independently, considering that most learners learn reactively, that is, without planning, structuring and executing their own learning operations as the few learners who would learn proactively do. According to the CEFR, this therefore presupposes training in autonomy. If autonomy is determined by the ability to take charge of one's learning by being oneself an actor in one's own initiatives or even to see the usefulness of what is to be done and to do the task well is requested. Thus talking about autonomy for the youngest, more specifically from SIL to CEI, must be a concern for the teacher to bring his learners to think and act in a thoughtful way first in class, at school, in the family and later in society. In language didactics, we distinguish three types of autonomy which deserve to be elucidated, namely general, language and learning autonomy.

#### Categorization of the concept of autonomy

The notion of autonomy implies the concept of independence in its primary sense. In this chapter, it is above all a question of school autonomy, which is considered here as the capacity of the

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learner, of a group of learners or of a classroom to accomplish a task with the aim of increasing the lessons given by a teacher. The heterogeneity of the classroom is the place par excellence of expression in language autonomy. Autonomy is perceived from several angles: general autonomy, the notion of empowerment, the concept of learning to learn, the relationship between autonomy and metacognition.

#### General autonomy

The notion of general autonomy is a globalizing concept that takes into account the different elements that constitute autonomy by considering the social environment in which this autonomy takes place and the relationships with other types of autonomy. If we go into language didactics, we can generally observe autonomy in the learner which breaks down into seven (07) categories which are: language autonomy, learning autonomy, material autonomy, spatial autonomy, temporal autonomy, affective autonomy and socio-cultural autonomy.

#### Language autonomy

The study of language autonomy is found in a very specific context, namely: the context of language teaching/learning. To better illustrate our understanding of this concept, we drew inspiration from the article by Germain and Netten (2004) entitled Factors for the development of language autonomy in FLE/FLS. According to Germain and Netten (2004: 69), language autonomy is defined as the learner's ability to take language initiatives and to use new utterances spontaneously in an authentic situation of communication in the second language. This situation is in the context of learning a second language, considering that we already have a better command of the first language. However, the notion of linguistic autonomy can also be studied in a context of learning mother tongues for linguistic and cultural continuity in a school context because it is possible today to ensure literacy for any language if and only if it is codified and standardized. Indeed, the teaching/learning of knowledge rooted in local tradition and transmitted to learners orally and in writing expresses the durability of the linguistic and cultural heritage of a people.

#### Learning autonomy or learner autonomy

Learning autonomy is a concept specific to an educational environment. Talking about this notion amounts to taking into account the thought of Dahmen (1997) who suggests that: autonomy is the ability to take charge of oneself and, in the context of teaching, to take charge of one's learning. This assertion is reiterated by Holec (1997) in these terms: the ability to lead, actively and independently, language learning. These two thoughts highlight the contribution of learning autonomy in the development of the learner. The latter is in a learning context where he himself takes charge of his learning from the lessons received. Indeed, the teacher most often puts himself in a situation in order to promote the learning of the learner by facilitating the construction of his

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knowledge. Thus, the learner receives the teachings, restructures them according to his own knowledge already integrated previously. Learners are thus encouraged to think and explain their reasoning. With regard to evaluation, learners are evaluated on their learning, in order to see the quality of their learning and primarily what they have retained. This experience lets us know that it is by building that we remember and learn. Indeed, with regard to learning autonomy, there are four aspects: physical learning autonomy; cognitive autonomy of learning; linguistic autonomy and social autonomy which can be listed in order to elucidate the notion of learning autonomy. Learning refers to a school context that consists of a teacher and learners, all of whom are in a given space. Teachers are guides and they guide learners in the appropriation of knowledge. Thus, physical autonomy refers to learners who dispense with the lessons of the master in favor of new information technologies (videos, CD-Room, tutorial, internet, etc.). These different elements play a major role because a learner can access a language course alone. Cognitive autonomy in learning is similar to intellectual autonomy that takes into account the knowledge held by the learner with a view to self-management. Thus, the learner has the ability to learn alone but having at his disposal all the information and all the techniques necessary for selflearning.

If we return to our study context, we find that in the learning of mother tongues, especially in rural areas, learners have a certain linguistic knowledge that takes into account intergenerational transmission, which is an important factor in the acquisition of learners' first language. Thus, the pre-acquired which are knowledge acquired previously help learners in a personal management of learning. However, these learners need the teacher for writing and reading the language they already master orally. The quality of mastery of one's mother tongue presupposes linguistic autonomy in learning. Thus, the different language skills or language activities that contribute to the autonomy of the language learner put the latter in the forefront of the linguistic objectives that he has set according to his communicational needs. If we make a comparison between learners in rural areas and those in urban areas, we find that the language level in the mother tongue of learners in small schools in rural areas exceeds that of learners in large schools in urban areas. This discrepancy is due to the rural environment which still seems conducive to the promotion of mother tongues despite the coexistence of other languages which require borrowings from both sides. The social autonomy of learning could be akin to self-affirmation in the eyes of others. This self-determination of language learners in a specific environment demonstrates the ability of each other to express their needs, their desires with ease and above all by showing politeness. In his book entitled Teaching and researching autonomy, Benson (2001) explains that the sociocultural implications of autonomy inspired by the work of Vygotsky (1929) deserve to be taken into account. The research they present in his book clearly shows a predominance of classroom approaches that target a certain level of learner autonomy.

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#### Material autonomy

Material autonomy in learning is the fact of knowing how to take care of one's school supplies on one's own and of trying not to forget one's didactic material at home. Always put everything in your school bag the night before before going to bed. It is important to think about his class outfit which falls under the heading of material autonomy. The learner must be able to put on their class uniform, socks and shoes on their own or undress themselves once at home.

#### Spatial autonomy

Spatial autonomy is part of the physical autonomy of learning and refers to the learning space. This space is undoubtedly the classroom where the lessons take place, the playground or the club in which the learner is registered. Thus, the learner must be able to successfully do the spatial identification alone and without the help of the teacher.

#### Temporal autonomy

The learning time rhymes with the timetable that the establishment draws up for the smooth running of the appropriation sessions. The time taken to complete a task given by the teacher to the learners should be taken into consideration, as well as the remediation time. This autonomy not only involves the timetable but also takes into account the internal regulations of the establishment, the annual educational project, the educational breakdown by sequence, by quarter and annually. This temporal distribution foresees what the learner is supposed to know and achieve according to his skills. Thus, the learner must become aware of the time he has to carry out his task in order to feel autonomous and responsible in the face of the notion of time.

#### Affective autonomy

In the context of learning mother tongues in primary school, affective autonomy makes us think of those learners who find it difficult to get rid of their parents for school. Parental dependence decreases as the learner agrees to socialize with other learners. Thus, the school becomes a place of fulfillment so that the learner who does not live far from the school goes there by himself and those who are accompanied by parents take care to get up early and urge parents to drive them to school. After affective learning autonomy, it remains to review socio-cultural autonomy.

#### Socio-cultural autonomy

The concept of socio-cultural autonomy is introduced here with the aim of highlighting an aspect of teaching/learning, namely the learning of national languages, which is one of the key elements of our research. Autonomy here is linked to the learner's relationship with his socio-cultural environment. The environment plays a crucial role in the cultural identity of a people. When it comes to learning a language, the learner needs an environment conducive to learning. If learners are permanently in contact with their environment, their attitudes and language activities will

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contribute to developing the socio-cultural autonomy of learners. In order to consolidate the socio-cultural autonomy of the learners, emphasis must be placed on the school environment and the favorable conditions such as good teacher training, the availability of teaching materials in relation to the socio-cultural environment of the learners and the development of programs consistent with learner needs. In short, we believe that the African or even Cameroonian learner needs favorable conditions for the practice of the mother tongue he is learning. Thus, socio-cultural belonging is a considerable factor in the development of the socio-cultural autonomy of the learner, the absence of which can lead the learner to the inability to reflect the contribution of education in language and culture. national. In this logic, the development of the language autonomy of the learner passes by a centering of the teachings on the learner. In fact, learning a knowledge that originates in the depths of one's culture (tradition, oral literature, habits and customs) through one's mother tongue can only be commendable, especially in these times when the phenomenon of deculturation or even the loss of one's culture in favor of a Western culture that one does not control is topical.

#### The notion of empowerment

Empowerment is a process that integrates the autonomous learning activity of the learner and his gradual entry into a process of school empowerment. What prevents it and what promotes it. For Vygotski (1929), the child learns in a quasi-social way: autonomization results from a movement that goes from the interpsychic (interactions with adults and peers) to the intrapsychic (internalization of processes learned during social interaction). On the other hand, Little (1997) in the process of empowerment, insists on the role of the teacher which is to create an environment in which the learners take charge of their learning. In view of the above, empowerment is a process by which the learner goes beyond intuition and achieves reflection. In other words the learner goes beyond intuitive thinking to analytical thinking.

#### The concept of learning to learn or intellectual autonomy

The concept of learning to learn is a mode of learning whose condition is to first be autonomous and take charge of one's learning. It has its own specificities and specific means. Thus, the process by which the learner reflects on his own progress in knowledge, skills, processes and behavior, allows him to become aware of himself as a learner. Through these two particularities of the notion of learning to learn, we perceive a statutory condition that is not linked to another: it is the notion of independence and responsibility. This concept aims to increase an ability that can make a learner a person who knows how to learn. Learning to learn or intellectual autonomy is part of the general autonomy that learners need to take responsibility for their own learning.

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#### The relationship between autonomy and metacognition

Metacognition is the representation that the learner has of the knowledge that he possesses and of the way in which he can build and use it, thus, materializes the learner's ability to reflect on his knowledge and to understand the reasoning that he has. engages to use and build new knowledge. According to Flavell (1976: 171), metacognition refers to the knowledge that one has of one's own cognitive processes, their products and everything that concerns, for example, the properties relevant for the learning of information and of data... Metacognition relates, among other things, to the active evaluation, regulation and organization of these processes according to the cognitive objectives or the data on which they relate, usually to serve a concrete goal or objective. Through this assertion, we note that metacognition is the knowledge of what the learner knows and can evaluate its quality, estimate the degree of certainty in the organization of a cognitive activity in a language task. Cognition occurs when the learner engages his thoughts on himself. Moreover, this reflective thought is capable of producing knowledge about his own knowledge (metaknowledge) through a more or less important awareness and allows the learner to control the regulation of his activities. Indeed, if metacognition is inseparable from self-knowledge and selfconfidence, talking about the relationship between metacognition and autonomy goes without saying because autonomy is also linked to self-esteem and self-image.

We will not be able to speak only of the notion of autonomy without mentioning the term motivation because to achieve any autonomy, it would be necessary to have given skills and above all to be motivated.

#### Importance of independent learning

Independent learning is a basic human need. This autonomy stems from our inner will (intrinsic motivation) and our proactive interest in the world around us. This explains how learner autonomy solves the problem of learner motivation: autonomous learners rely on their intrinsic motivation to take responsibility for their own learning and commit to developing skills in learning. learning. Success in learning reinforces their intrinsic motivation. Precisely because autonomous learners are motivated and reflective learners, their learning is efficient and effective.

The efficiency and effectiveness of the independent learner means that knowledge and skills learned in the classroom can be applied to situations that occur outside of the classroom.

#### CONCLUSION

This article aimed to assess the contribution of autonomy in language learning. Thus, this study has shown that autonomy helps to improve the level of language use, it helps to strengthen empowerment capacities as well as intellectual capacities in language learning. In formal

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educational contexts, specifically in schools, learner autonomy requires reflective involvement in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of learning. But note that learning a language crucially depends on how it is used. We can indeed only learn to understand by listening, to speak only by speaking, to dialogue only by conversing, or even to read only by reading. However, in formal language learning, the scope of learner autonomy is always limited by what the learner can do in the target language. The teacher should: (i) use the target language as the preferred means of communication in class and ask the same of his learners; (ii) involve its learners in a non-stop quest for good learning activities, which are shared, discussed, analyzed and evaluated with the whole class in the target language; (iii) help its learners to define their own learning objectives and to choose their own learning activities, subjecting them to discussion, analysis and evaluation again in the target language; (iv) lead its learners to identify individual objectives while pursuing them through collaborative work in small groups; (v) encourage its learners to keep a written record of their learning; (vi) plan lessons and projects, lists of useful vocabulary, whatever texts they produce themselves; (vii) involve its learners in regular assessment of their progress as a learner in the target language.

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