

UNDERSTANDING AUTONOMY LEARNERS IN THE 6CS OF ELL

Dr. Elaf Riyadh Khalil

University of Baghdad - College of Education for Human Sciences
(Ibn-Rush) - English Department

ABSTRACT

The present paper is the highlighting themes about learner autonomy in foreign language education and in termed of "the six Cs" — critical thinking, communication, collaboration, cooperation, creativity, and cultural context are increasingly important skills for all students. The current study aims to contribute to a better understanding of the importance autonomy and 6Cs in language learning process. In this regard, the study attempts to answer the following question: Is there any relationship between 6C and learners autonomy in the context? Teaching these skills effectively in the classroom has been a topic of discussion among educators for years. There is focusing mainly on three areas – motivations for a new model of learning, the specific competencies and skills needed to function effectively in the twenty-first century, and the pedagogy required to stimulate those capabilities. While it is generally accepted that formal education must be transformed to enable the new forms of learning needed to tackle the complex global challenges ahead, most of which are absent from current learning processes. Critical and creative thinking skills are growing concern about potential educational process and cultural context are leading many better positive understanding about learners autonomy possess the combination of the 6Cs skills.

Keywords: *Learner autonomy, Critical thinking, Communication, Collaboration and Cooperation, Creativity, and Cultural context.*

INTRODUCTION

Learner autonomy in language education is expressed in different definitions in the literature using various terms, such as 'learner autonomy', 'learner independence', 'self-direction', 'autonomous learning', 'independent learning' and all these items have been used to refer to similar concepts. Learner autonomy flourishes by intrapersonal initiation, interpersonal collaboration, and learner-centered instruction (Thanasoulas, 2000:90). Kohen asserts that autonomy makes the learners be able to cooperate with others. According to Little (1991:50) learner autonomy is a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action. To gain autonomy helps learners maintain the currency of their knowledge and skills.

Critical thinking, communication, collaboration, cooperation, creativity, and cultural context competencies and skills learners are expected to develop and the way in which these skills are taught.

These elements are key to the overall vision of twenty-first century learning (McLoughlin and Lee, 2008; Redecker and Punie, 2013). In addition, personal skills (initiative, resilience, responsibility, risk-taking and creativity), social skills (teamwork, networking, empathy and compassion) and learning skills (managing, organizing, meta-cognitive skills and 'failing forward' or altering perceptions of and response to failure) are vital to peak performance in the twenty-first century workplace.

The Problem of Practice curriculum provides students few opportunities to develop and refine their skills in critical thinking, communication, collaboration, cooperation, creativity, and cultural context (the 6Cs).

Ackerman and Perkins (1989 :80-81) have endorsed 'thinking skills being taught as a "meta-curriculum" interwoven with traditional core subjects'. Conley (2007:77) emphasizes the importance of learners developing 'habits of mind' including

analysis, interpretation, precision and accuracy, problem-solving, and reasoning to support thinking and reflection. McLoughlin and Lee (2008:90) favour building skills in 'expert thinking' and the use of detailed knowledge and metacognition to support decision-making.

Benson (1997:89) distinguishes three broad ways of talking about learner autonomy in language education: 1. a 'technical' perspective, emphasizing skills or strategies for unsupervised learning: specific kinds of activity or process such as the 'metacognitive', 'cognitive', 'social' and other strategies identified by Oxford (1990:90); 2. a 'psychological' perspective, emphasizing broader attitudes and cognitive abilities which enable the learner to take responsibility for his/her own learning; 3. a 'political' perspective, emphasizing empowerment or emancipation of learners by giving them control over the content and processes of their learning. As well as these different views as to what constitutes learner autonomy, there are different interpretations of its scope.

Some of the difficulties: the teachers sometimes had difficulty in managing many groups at the same time. For example, if two or three groups were not on task, the teacher needed to move around the classroom and attend to these groups so that they could get back on track. The teacher's attention often seemed to be consumed in managing these problematic groups and was not focused on academic matters.

Problem-solving has always involved teamwork and cooperation. Successful problem-solving in the twenty-first century requires effective and creative collaboration between learners, who must keep pace with evolving technology and handle vast amounts of often-contradictory information. Discovering solutions to today's complex problems demands a broad range of skills linked to critical thinking, innovation and creativity (Conley, 2007:56). To resolve a problem, it is important to first define it and understand its constituent elements. In addition, it is necessary to identify the resources and strategies needed to solve the problem (e.g. skills related to information literacy, scanning data and extracting relevant information). Learners must also be able to apply the appropriate tools and techniques effectively and efficiently and persist in the face of obstacles.

This paper takes the view that the distinction between Cooperative and Collaborative Learning is a

useful one and that both approaches can play valuable roles in fostering autonomous interaction, or what Murphey and Jacobs (2000:78) refer to as "collaborative autonomy". It argues that while Collaborative Learning formations may be the ultimate goal for teachers wishing to develop learner autonomy, Cooperative Learning is a valuable means for modeling the skills and abilities to help students get effective language learning.

So, the learners should take responsibility to their learning, whereas the teachers asked the learners questions about 80% of the knowledge or comprehension level: 60% of questions were recall questions, and another 20% were procedural in nature. This incorporation of higher-level thinking questions and activities changed little. McLoughlin and Lee (2008:95) Many teachers are aware that some adjustments to questions may need to be made based on the proficiency levels of the students they are working with. In order to incorporate higher-order thinking questions and activities, preplanning is essential. How often were critical thinking and problem-solving skills incorporated into the lessons? What were the linguistic demands of the questions or activities? What scaffolds were needed in order for your English learners to be successful? The 6Cs – communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity, which are to be taught within the context of core subject areas and twenty-first century themes. This framework is based on the assertion that twenty-first century challenges will demand a broad skill set emphasizing core subject skills, social and cross-cultural skills, proficiency in languages other than English, and an understanding of the economic and political forces that affect societies. The following sections discuss these potential competencies and skills in greater detail.

Creativity may serve as a foundation for understanding and applying constructivism to learning and treatment. Nosratinia, M., & Zaker, A. (2015:56) believe that creativity is an integral part of any understanding of human education and psychology. Despite conducting many studies in the field of learner's autonomy, and creativity, few studies have considered the relationship between creativity and autonomy in educational systems, specifically in the educational system. The current study aims to contribute to a better understanding of the importance of autonomy and 6Cs in language learning

process. In this regard, the study attempts to answer the following question: Is there any relationship between 6Cs and autonomy in the context?

AUTONOMY LEARNERS AND CRITICAL THINKING

Critical thinking is considered fundamental to twenty-first century learning identified critical thinking skills or the capacity for active investigative thinking as one of six foundational skill sets vital to success. Critical thinking involves accessing, analyzing and synthesizing information, and can be taught, practiced and mastered (Redecker et al., 2011). Critical thinking also draws on other skills such as communication, information literacy and the ability to examine, analyses, interpret and evaluate evidence.

The skills of critical thinking and problem solving include using knowledge, facts and data to solve problems. When applying critical thinking and problem solving, students must be able to make appropriate decisions and judgments using what they have learned or read, use inductive and deductive reasoning as appropriate to the situation, and analyze complex systems and determine how parts of a whole interact with each other.

A teacher interested in promoting critical thinking in the classroom would first need to commit to allowing students to engage in productive struggle. However, with practice, teachers can learn to push their students to solve complex problems that are beyond students' comfort zones. Beginning this process requires the teacher to provide an environment rich with sufficient supports for student perseverance (Duckworth, 2009:34). Literature indicates that this can best be done by providing instruction that is authentic (and valued by students), and structuring feedback so that it promotes a growth mindset among students (Boss et al., 2013; Dweck et al., 2011; Farrington et al., 2012).

1. Higher-Order Thinking Skills and Lesson Objectives

Building lesson objectives into instruction has become increasingly common over the past several years. In addition to sharing learning objectives related to the content, teachers working with English learners also incorporate communication or language objectives.

Communication objectives include how the students will be practicing and developing academic language skills (Redecker et al., 2011:93). These objectives may include developing students' recognition and use of general academic and domain-specific vocabulary, specific reading and writing skills, clarifying complex grammatical structures, and more. When planning to increase critical thinking and problem solving, these skills can and should be built into the lesson objectives to make students aware of the purpose of the lesson. Two simple sentence frames can be used to write objectives that incorporate critical-thinking skills.

1. Learning Objective template: We will [verb with higher-order thinking skill] [performance objective/standard] by [meaningful activity].

For example: We will compare and contrast the effectiveness of two pieces of evidence an author uses to justify an argument by filling in a graphic organizer.

2. Communication Objective template: Students will be able to [language function] by using [language form].

For example: Students will be able to compare and contrast the effects of the evidence cited by using the following sentence starters and frames:

Whereas _____,
_____.
Even though _____,
_____.

When students are clear on the objectives of the lesson and the expectation that they will be practicing critical thinking and problem-solving skills, as well as the vocabulary and language structures they will need to be successful during the task, they are more likely to be successful with the task.

2. Asking Higher-Order Thinking Questions

By scaffolding questions and starting with terms that include: point to, sketch, locate and trace, even students with limited language skills can demonstrate critical thinking skills. Teachers can then incorporate yes/no, either/or and open-ended questions that encourage critical thinking.

Mathews et al. (1995:12) when asking higher-order questions, also consider allowing students to discuss the question and topic in their native language. This practice serves the purpose of having students deeply think about a topic without having to consider the words and phrases they will need in a new language. If used before students share with the teacher or write about the topic, this practice can help them solidify ideas before attempting to explain their thoughts orally or in writing in English. This can also aid in listening comprehension, as they have expressed their thoughts and heard the perspective of another who speaks the same native language. While this is not always possible, it can be a useful practice.

Similarly, collaboration is an effective practice in problem solving as students work together to share differing perspectives or ideas. This collaboration may include creative ways to solve problems. In the next installment of the series, we will look more carefully at collaboration and ways to incorporate this skill with English learners.

COLLABORATIVE AUTONOMY: THE ROLES OF COOPERATIVE AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Proactive interaction with others in the target language is an important part of learner autonomy (Little, 1995:47). Yet in many EFL classrooms in Iraqi, it can be very challenging for teachers to create opportunities for meaningful interaction among learners in addition to affective issues such as low motivation and shyness, there are a variety of classroom management challenges that can arise when teachers have students work in groups. Such unstructured group-work activities are not just a classroom-management problem for teachers; they can have a detrimental long-term impact on learning. A tendency exists in unstructured groups for some members to dominate while others passively follow the will of their peers. Students who are hesitant to communicate with others may become stuck in familiar patterns of interaction and miss out on opportunities to develop interpersonal abilities. One option for organizing group work activities is Cooperative Learning (Kagan, 1992:74). However, since student interaction in cooperative classrooms is highly controlled, there is also the potential for learners to become overly-reliant on the teacher's procedural directives when communicating with their peers. Thus,

they may not develop the skills for more spontaneous and autonomous interaction.

Murphey and Jacobs (2000:1) use the term "critical collaborative autonomy" to highlight the central role peer interaction plays in fostering autonomy. Another related approach for carrying out group work is Collaborative Learning. Some have used the terms Cooperative and Collaborative Learning interchangeably.

Mathews et al. (1995:1), discussing Cooperative and Collaborative Learning in L1 contexts, neatly sums up this difference: Cooperative learning tends to be more structured in its approach to small-group instruction, to be more detailed in advice to practitioners, and to advocate more direct training of students to function in groups...[On the other hand,] collaborative learning practitioners are inclined to assume students are responsible participants who already use social skills in undertaking and completing tasks. Another key distinction between these approaches made in (Ibid:40) is an assumption in collaborative learning that students already possess the requisite social skills to perform unstructured tasks. Little (1995:179) points out must also decide on the specific aspects of learner autonomy she wishes to foster, and thus, she needs to assess learners' existing abilities including "whether and to what extent it is possible for the learners to determine their own learning objectives, select their own learning materials and contribute to the assessment of their learning progress".

To sum up, while Cooperative Learning is characterized by considerable teacher intervention in designing and orchestrating interactive activities, Collaborative Learning affords more opportunities for learners to decide how to carry out tasks. When making determinations about learners' preparedness for collaborative tasks, teachers need to consider a variety of contextual factors.

1. Collaboration and Cooperation Skills

There are many skills inherent in collaboration that may go unnoticed or overlooked, especially when not considering the specific needs of English learners. These skills include cultural practices. Below just a few of these skills are listed, although students will need to practice and eventually master many more as they learn to collaborate effectively.

1. **Starting and ending a conversation:** it is assigning students as A/B partners, and alternating who will start the conversation. Ending a conversation may include making decisions on who will complete each task or portions of tasks.
2. **Responding to prompts:** Sharing with students how to include the question in the response is a helpful tool that teachers often share in regards to writing, but it can also be used in oral responses. Sentence starters and frames can be helpful in this context as well.
3. **Asking for help:** Many students have a difficult time asking for help from others. Hand signals or gestures are a safe way for students to signal that they need help. Offering times outside of class, may also be a helpful support to students.
4. **Asking questions** Students may not know the appropriate time to ask questions and may have difficulty formulating the question. (Kagan,1992:96).
5. **Listening** Teaching listening can be a challenging task for teachers. Cultural practices such as eye contact and responding with nonverbal cues can differ significantly in differing cultures.

Classroom collaboration ideas There are myriad ways to increase collaboration in the classroom. Increasing communication skills. Cooperative learning has long been touted as an effective way to build in collaboration in the classroom. Cooperative learning. He has written extensively about cooperative learning and how to incorporate it into instruction. He devised the acronym PIES to describe the key elements of cooperative learning:

- Positive interdependence: This requires the contribution of each of the group members in order to accomplish a specific goal.
- Individual accountability: Each student is held accountable for his or her contribution.
- Equal participation: Each student must contribute to the task at hand. No one student can do all of the work while the others do little or nothing.
- Simultaneous interaction: The more students talk with each other, the more they will learn.

LEARNING AUTONOMY AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

Culture is an important part for language learning and education because these take place within a culture (or cultures), which influences their form (Coleman, 1996); Like autonomy, „culture“ is a multifaceted and much-debated concept; indeed, it has been rejected entirely by some writers, partly because of its association with national stereotypes (Atkinson, 1999). According to behaviourist views of culture which focus on patterns of observable behaviour, cognitive views which see culture as located in the minds of individuals, symbolic views which see culture as a social system of signs, and ideological views which see culture as shaped by power. Learner Autonomy across Cultures draw on concepts from a corresponding range of disciplines, including linguistics, psychology, anthropology and cultural studies, as well as language teaching and adult education. One preliminary definition of culture is:

“the total shared way of life of a given people, comprising their modes of thinking, acting, and feeling, which are expressed, for instance, in religion, law, language, art, and custom, as well as in material products such as houses, clothes, and tools”. (Kneller, 1965: 4) According to Kneller’s definition of culture, a particular culture of learning would involve the following elements: a community which shares the culture (e.g. a society, or a classroom); learning practices which are recognized in this community (e.g. going to lessons, or practicing language by talking to tourists), with their associated roles (e.g. teachers, learners, learning counselors); institutions within this community which structure learning (e.g. schools, self-access centers or families); and tools and products which play some part in the community’s learning practices (e.g. computers, textbooks or students’ essays). We should recall, too, that culture consists not simply of behaviour, but of values and interpretations (“modes of thinking [...] and feeling”) which underlie behaviour: we need to look beyond observable words and actions to the interpretations and values of the learners and teachers involved.

It seems to be true that none of us can escape entirely from the cultural assumptions and practices that have shaped us, although at the same time we might believe in the existence of human universals. According to Riley (1988: 12-34), on one hand anthropology sets out

to account for the variability of human cultures, to describe and explain human nature; on the other hand ethnography sets out to describe and explain what it means to be a member of a particular culture.

LEARNER AUTONOMY AND COMMUNICATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Communication, essentially, is the transmission of information, including feelings, thoughts, perceptions, expectations, commands, attitudes, knowledge and more. Skills such as explanation and negotiation are vital in the classroom. Refining students' communication abilities requires attention to two critical skills: the ability to effectively communicate one's own perspective and the ability to actively listen and respond appropriately to another individual's perspective (Farrington et al., 2012). These skills are essential in the 21st century workforce because they are the primary means by which humans can set themselves apart from automated production (Achieve, 2015; Baron & Markman, 2000). In order to begin to scaffold students in their communication abilities, teachers must first create a classroom climate where communication is both necessary and valued. This can be accomplished by providing curriculum that is completed in small groups and requires all students to participate, while some students readily embrace the opportunity to communicate, others feel uneasy and need practice in specific non-cognitive skills in order to scaffold their knowledge.

A teacher interested in developing his or her students' abilities in communication should initially establish the need for effective communication. This can be accomplished through a game or other activity that illustrates the importance of effective speaking and listening skills. Several social skills promote the development of communication. These include waiting until someone finishes a thought before speaking, asking questions when you are uncertain of meaning, and looking individuals in the eye when engaging in conversation (Malecki & Elliott, 2002). Providing direct instruction in these skills, followed by learning strategies that refine communication abilities will give students the tools they need to communicate effectively. In addition to instruction, students should be provided with time to practice conversing and encouraged to reflect on the effects the social skills and specific learning strategies

have had on the conversation. In order for the climate of the classroom to positively influence students' progress, the teacher must also employ both autonomy skills and learning strategies provided to students.

1. Communication Environment

Activating students with the autonomy skills and learning strategies allows the students to mastery of academic behaviors that support communication. Autonomy skills often act as fundamental for academic behaviors, which improve academic outcomes Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning. In order to enhance these academic behaviors beyond the initial stage created by the proficiency in learning strategies, teachers should be explicit in their instruction, monitor students understanding of learning strategies, and provide timely and specific actionable feedback to students (Lee & Shute, 2010; Marzano, Pickering, & Pollack, 2001). There are some considerations of communication both teachers and learners :

a. Teacher Communication

Effective teacher communication in the classroom is vital. To impart information, give directions, ask questions, listen to student responses, assess student work and more. All of these skills require effective communication techniques. In order to maximize effectiveness and learning, there are several considerations must take into account, especially when we consider the needs of English learners. (Malecki & Elliott, 2002).

a. Comprehensible input

Krashen (2003:15) emphasizes the importance of comprehensible input. Effective communication in the classroom means, in part, being sure that students understand what you are saying and what they are reading.

b. Increase use of academic vocabulary

Students should be exposed to high levels of academic language with added support and scaffolding. For example, teachers can use high-level academic vocabulary by adding in a contextual definition. These short phrases explain the meaning of a word that the students might not otherwise understand.

Showing students, a picture or diagram can also help them to understand a word used.

c. Actively listening to students

Students come to teachers' multiple times a day to ask questions, share an idea, explain their actions, etc. At times, we have multiple students vying for our attention at any given moment. It is important, to focus on what students are saying, and what they are not saying. When listening to English learners, they may not have the precise language they need or want in order to most effectively state their message. (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollack, 2001:89).

b. Student communication

There are a few simple steps and techniques that can be used with little preparation to increase student communication in any classroom. Some of these steps take no additional preparation, only remembering to include the opportunities for communication. Others take a bit of thought on the part of the teacher but get easier with time.

Step 1: The 10/2 Rule

The 10/2 Rule states that for every 10 minutes of input (lecture, video, reading, etc.) there should be about two minutes of processing time. Some have called this "chunk and chew" - chunk information logically, then let students process or chew on the information in some way.

Step 2: Provide a specific prompt and use structured interaction techniques

There may be a number of reasons students are hesitant to talk with one another during interaction times. It may be that they are unclear as to what to talk about, they are unsure about what to say, or that they do not know who should start and are resistant to going first. To combat these issues, consider first when to provide students a prompt for discussion or writing and what that prompt will be. The more specific you are with the prompt you provide, the better. Structure the interaction opportunities in your classroom so that it is clear who will go first. There are numerous ways to do this, including having students partner up in an A/B format.

Give a prompt as to who will be begin by saying something like: "Turn to your A/B partner and make a prediction as to what would have happened if this battle had not been won. Partner B will begin, then Partner A will respond and share their prediction. You have three minutes. Begin. Classroom geography can be another method, having the student sitting closest to the window or door, or the student on the North/South/East/West side of the room begins. Physical features such as the person with the longer or shorter hair, or the older or younger student of the pair are also effective. (Lee & Shute, 2010:97).

English learners will be given opportunities to share their thoughts other students' other students who could benefit from additional structure and academic language practice.

Step 3: Hold students accountable

Once students have shared with a partner and/or written something down, have a few students share with the whole group. Rather than starting with volunteers, as many teachers do, use this three-step selection process: Begin with students you select to share. choose students that have made an interesting point or discussed something you would like to emphasize. Second, call on a few students randomly.. Call on a group of students and ask one of the numbers to share. Lastly, call on volunteers who may have a great need to share or who have a point that has not yet been discussed. This gives an opportunity for more students to share their ideas (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollack, 2001:80).

LEARNER AUTONOMY AND CREATIVITY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Learner autonomy flourishes by intrapersonal initiation, interpersonal collaboration, and learner-centered instruction. It is very essential for learners to use and learn language creatively. This facilitates their progress beyond the rudimentary levels (Hadley, 2003). According to Mishan, (2005:87) defines creativity as a conscious process, which is primarily employed to understand or assess information and experiences with a set of insightful attitudes and capabilities that guide considerate actions and beliefs. Additionally, he defines creativity as an inherent aspect of all pedagogical tasks According to Ferrari et al. (2009), creativity encompasses the capability of

listening and communicating and the ability to inspire and interest.

Teachers can to develop creativity among their students should start by providing opportunities for students to think about problems from multiple perspectives or elaborate on solutions that other students provide to problems (Boss et al., 2013; Saavedra & Opfer,2012). These processes will serve as a scaffold for students and allow them to begin to be more confident in their creative abilities.

In this study, one of the key elements for developing reluctant students' creativity was the ability of those students to persevere when faced with a creative task. Creativity and innovation also include techniques such as brainstorming, convergent and divergent thinking skills, and evaluating ideas to then elaborate upon or refine to maximize creative efforts. Students should be able to frame and reframe problems, and look for solutions to those problems, connect and combine ideas, and challenge assumptions. These skills require imagination, knowledge, a positive attitude and drive (Boss et al., 2013:97).

Teachers can help students throughout this process by demonstrating the steps and providing guidance and feedback on what the step looks like, as well as sharing rubrics, protocols and other tools to facilitate the process. Scaffolding for English learners should also include language structures for asking questions, providing and receiving feedback, language used in the evaluation process, and formal language that will be used in the presentation of the idea or product.

LEARNER'S ROLE AND TEACHER'S ROLE

The learner's role in a classroom should not be that of a passive learner. Autonomous learners are those who understand why they are learning specific topics, accept responsibility for their learning, take the initiative in planning and executing learning activities and are willing to assess their own learning (Little, 2002:46). Learners' active participation in and responsibility for their own learning process are essential in the field of foreign language learning. The learner needs to be willing to "act independently and in co- operation with others, as a socially responsible person" (Dam, 1995 :18).

An important element to learner autonomy is self-assessment. Learners need to build up their own

personal criteria for the quality of their work and develop independence from the teacher as the sole judge of their weaknesses and strengths. This helps the learners make informed decisions about their next steps in the learning process and removes the dependence on the teacher. the goal is for learners to increase their knowledge and level of competence.

The teacher's role in an autonomous learning classroom is to provide the learners with the skills and ability to practice what they have learned no matter if we talk about a language classroom or any other course. "Let me first of all mention the fact that learners do not necessarily learn what we believe ourselves to be teaching. What we can do is give our learners an awareness of how they think and how they learn – an awareness which hopefully will help them come to an understanding of themselves and thus increase their self-esteem" (Dam, 2000 :18).

In an autonomous classroom, teachers do not play the role of imparters of information or sources of facts. Their role is more that of a facilitator. The teacher's position is to manage the activities in the classroom and help learners plan their learning both for long and short term. The teacher has to be able to establish a close collaboration with the learners and make sure that all learners know what is expected of them at all times (Lowes & Target, 1999).

Teachers have the role of counselors. They need to inform learners and make them capable of choosing the best learning strategies. Learners have to be able to make informed choices. This means knowing the rationale behind the strategies and having time to experiment to find which suits best for each occasion. Teachers must; however, be careful not to guide the learners implicitly to the strategies they themselves prefer (Nunan, 2003).

A learner autonomous classroom is a place where learners and teachers have constructive interaction with each other and learn from each other. The teacher is responsible for helping learners become aware of alternative strategies and learning styles (Camilleri, 1999). The teacher gives praise and feedback but this is also supplied by the other learners when group work and product is jointly assessed after projects are finished. Learners then get more personal feedback and guidance from the teacher through the logbooks which serve as a medium of communication as well as a tool of organization and reflection. A teacher that intends to

foster his learners' autonomy should not only introduce various learning strategies but also give his learners ample opportunity to try them out in different circumstances. It is necessary to build up an atmosphere in the classroom that invites such experiments and lets learners feel comfortable sharing their findings with their teacher and their classmates. Interaction in the classroom directly influences the learners' learning processes.

CONCLUSION

The relationship between the learner's autonomy and 6Cs has positive consideration, the teachers must shift their roles into learners –center so it can be created a positive learning atmosphere. Moving the focus from teaching to learning clearly doesn't mean that the teacher becomes obsolete or a total boredom. It means a change of pace from where lessons are organized around textbook material and the ground a teacher needs to cover. Lessons can be organized in cooperation teachers with learners got motivated for both material and methods. "The concept of learner autonomy. emphasizes the role of the learner rather than the role of the teacher. It focuses on the process rather than the product and encourages learners to develop their own purposes for learning and to see learning as a lifelong process in critical thinking, communication, collaboration, cooperation, creativity, and cultural context - are increasingly important skills for all students .By having students engage in, and choose project that naturally foster creativity. Teachers know the importance of fostering a classroom climate that is conducive to learning, the culture and climate of the classroom should be one that promotes creativity and innovation. The learners are encouraged to use divergent thinking, ask questions, take risks and try new ideas. Learners' autonomy incorporates scaffolding into the teaching of creativity and innovation. There are often steps that people take in the innovation process, such as determining the purpose and audience for the project, generating ideas, evaluating and choosing ideas to develop further, testing and refining those ideas based on feedback, and developing and presenting the final product or solution.

REFERENCES

Ackerman, D. and Perkins, D.N. (1989). Integrating thinking and learning skills across the curriculum. H.

Jacobs (ed.), *Interdisciplinary Curriculum: Design and Implementation*. Alexandria, VA, Association for *Supervision and Curriculum Development*. www.ascd.org/publications/books/61189156 .

Achieve. (2015). Closing the expectations gap: 2014 annual report on the alignment of state K-12 policies and practice with the demands of college and careers. Retrieved from <http://www.achieve.org/publications/>

Atkinson, J. W. (1957). Motivational determinants of risk-taking behavior. *Psychological Review*, Vol.64, No. (6): pp 359.

Baron, R. A., & Markman, G. D. (2000). Beyond social capital: How social skills can enhance entrepreneurs' success. *The Academy of Management Executive*. 14 No. (1): pp. 106-116.

Benson, P. (1997). *The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy*, In P. Benson and P. Voller (eds), *Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning*. London: Longman, 1997.

Boss, S., Larmer, J., & Mergendoller, J. R. (2013). *PBL for 21st century success: Teaching critical thinking, collaboration, communication, and creativity*. Novato, CA: Buck Institute for Education.

Camilleri, G. (Ed.). (1999). *Learner autonomy - The teachers' views*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing.

Coleman, H. (ed.) (1996). *Society and the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Conley, D.T. (2007). *Toward a More Comprehensive Conception of College Readiness*. Eugene, OR: Educational Policy Improvement Center.

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

Dam, L. (2000). Why focus on learning rather than teaching? From theory to practice In D. Little, L. Dam, & J. Timmer (Eds.), *Papers from the IATEFL conference on Learner independence*, Kraków, 14-16 May 1998 (pp. 18-37). Dublin: CLCS, Trinity College Dublin.

Dickinson, L. (1979). Self-instruction in commonly taught languages. *System*, Vol.4, No. 7, pp:181-186.

- Duckworth, A. (2009). True grit: Can perseverance be taught [Video file]. Retrieved from <http://tedxtalks.ted.com/video/TEDxBlue-Angela-Lee-Duckworth-P>
- Dweck, C., Walton, G. M., & Cohen, G. L. (2011). *Academic tenacity: Mindsets and skills that promote long-term learning*. Seattle, WA: Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.
- Farrington, C., Roderick, M., Allensworth, E., Nagaoka, J., Keyes, T., Johnson, D. & Beechum, N. (2012). *Teaching adolescents to become learners: The role of noncognitive factors in shaping school performance: A critical literature review*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Consortium on Chicago School Research.
- Ferrari, A., Cachia, R., & Punie, Y. (2009). Innovation and creativity in education and training in the EU member states: Fostering creative learning and supporting innovative teaching. Retrieved November 10, 2016, from <http://ipts.jrc.ec.europa.eu/> H. Holec, *Autonomy and foreign language learning*, Oxford: Pergamon.
- Hadley, A. O. (2003). *Teaching language in context*. (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. Inc.
- Kagan, S. (1992). *Cooperative learning*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Cooperative Learning.
- Kato, S. & Mynard, J. (2015). *Reflective dialogue: Advising in language learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Kohn, A. (1991). Group grade grubbing versus cooperative learning. *Educational Leadership*, Vol.5, No.2, pp:83-87.
- Kneller, G. F. (1965). *Educational Anthropology: An Introduction*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Krashen, S. (2003) *Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use: The Taipei Lectures*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Lee, J., & Shute, V. J. (2010). Personal and social-contextual factors in K–12 academic performance: An integrative perspective on student learning. *Educational Psychologist*. Vol.,45 No. (3), pp:185-202.
- Little, D. (1995). Learning as dialogue: the dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System*. 23 No. (2), pp: 175-181.
- Little, D. (2000). Why focus on learning rather than teaching? In D. Little, L. Dam, & J. Timmer (Eds.), *Focus on learning rather than teaching: Why and how? Papers from the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language*. 6, No.7, pp:45-49
- Lowes, R., & Target, F. (1999). *Helping students to learn - A guide to learner autonomy*. (P. Seligson, Ed.) London: Richmond Publishing.
- Malecki, C. K., & Elliot, S. N. (2002). Children's social behaviors as predictors of academic achievement: A longitudinal analysis. *School Psychology Quarterly*. Vol. 17 No. (1), pp:1-18
- Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Mathews, R.S., Cooper, J.L., Davidson, N., & Hawkes, P. (1995). Building bridges between cooperative and collaborative learning. *Change*, Vol.27 No. (4), pp:34-40.
- McLoughlin, C. and Lee, M.J.W. 2008. The three p's of pedagogy for the networked society: personalization, participation, and productivity. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*. Vol. 20, No. 1, pp: 10-27.
- Mishan, F. (2005). *Designing authenticity into language learning materials*. Bristol, UK: Intellect Books.
- Murphey, T., & Jacobs, G.M. (2000). Encouraging critical collaborative Autonomy. *JALT Journal*, Vol.7, No. 22, pp:220-244.
- Lowes, R., & Target, F. (1999). *Helping students to learn - A guide to learner autonomy*. (P. Seligson, Ed.) London: Richmond Publishing.
- Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English language teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nosratinia, M., & Zaker, A. (2015). Boosting autonomous foreign language learning: Scrutinizing the role of creativity, critical thinking, and vocabulary

learning strategies. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, Vol. 4 No. (4), pp:86-97.

Nunan, D. (2003). *Practical English language teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oxford, R.L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.

Plucker, J. A., Beghetto, R. A., & Dow, G. T. (2004). Why isn't creativity more important to educational psychologists? Potentials, pitfalls, and future directions in creativity research. *Educational psychologist*. Vol. 39, No. (2), pp:83-96.

Riley, P. (1988). The Ethnography of Autonomy. In A. Brookes and P. Grundy (eds.) *Individualization and Autonomy in Language Learning. ELT Documents*. Vol. 1, No.31, pp:12-34.

Redecker, C. and Punie, Y. 2013. The future of learning 2025: developing a vision for change. *Future Learning*, Vol. 1, No.5, pp. 3-17.

Redecker, C., Ala-Mutka, K., Leis, M., Leendertse, M., Punie, Y., Gijsbers, G., Kirschner, P., Stoyanov, S. and Hoogveld, B. 2011. *The Future of Learning: Preparing for Change*. Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union. <http://ftp.jrc.es/EURdoc/JRC66836>.

Roberts, B. W., & Del Vecchio, W. F. (2000). The rank-order consistency of personality traits from childhood to Old age: a quantitative review of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin*. Vol.126 No. (1), pp:3-15.

Saavedra, A. R., & Opfer, V. D. (2012). Learning 21st-century skills requires 21st-century teaching. *Phi Delta Kappan*. Vol. 94, No. (2), pp:8-13.

Thanasoulas, D. (2000). What is learner autonomy and how can it be fostered? *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol,6, No. (11), pp: 37-48.

Viney, L. L. (1996). A personal construct model of crisis intervention counseling for adult clients. *Journal of Constructivist Psychology*. Vol. 9, No. (2), pp:109-126.