EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY IN THE OUT-OF-CLASS LEARNING CONTEXT: SITUATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

Le Ha To Quyen[1*], Dang Tan Tin [2], and Bui Thi Thuc Quyen[3]
[1]Faculty of Foreign Languages, Saigon University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
[2] Faculty of Foreign Languages, HCMC University of Technology and Education,
Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
[3] Faculty of Foreign Languages, Ho Chi Minh City Open University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

*[*]Corresponding author: Le Ha To Quyen, e-mail: lhtquyen@sgu.edu.vn

Abstract. Learner autonomy has been one of the central aims of education because of its significant role in lifelong learning. With the advancement of technology and the abundance of learning resources, students have many opportunities for learner autonomy development outside the classroom. However, the out-of-class learning context is under-explored in the Vietnamese context, and research about fostering learner autonomy in this context is also minimal. The current study aims to explore EFL tertiary students' learner autonomy in the out-of-class learning context, filling this gap. The results of answers from 709 English majors in different universities in Ho Chi Minh City showed that students had average control in three dimensions of learner autonomy: situational, behavioral, and psychological. Even though students are averagely psychologically ready for independent study, they still lack autonomous learning strategies. Implications are then made for educators to guarantee the possibility of promoting learner autonomy in out-of-class learning.

Keywords: learner autonomy, out-of-class learning, EFL tertiary education.

1. Introduction

Tertiary education is a valuable period for students to be nurtured, supported, and matured in knowledge and generic skills. Even though tertiary students have learned English for many years with the assistance of affluent learning resources, their language learning outcomes are not very promising. Many, including English majors, fail to achieve the required language level to graduate [1]. Graduates also face mounting criticism from employers about their English competence when they join the workforce [2].

Many reforms have been taken to enhance learning outcomes of English teaching and learning at the tertiary level, in which the solutions that target the students' control in learning, leading to improvements in their English, should be the focus [3]. The importance of being independent in learning and getting ready for lifelong learning has given rise to the need to promote learner autonomy for this specific group of students.

Learner autonomy was typically considered a Western construct, which is difficult for Vietnamese students to fully master due to the strong influences of Confucian cultural features [4]. Despite these cultural factors, supporting learner autonomy has received more concerns in

the Vietnam education system in recent years. From the policy level, the regulations require that any training program's learning outcomes clearly define a graduate's degree of autonomy besides the requirements for knowledge, skills, and accountability [5]. Despite these efforts, Vietnamese tertiary students still exhibited low and reactive learner autonomy [6], [7], indicating the need to foster actions. Out-of-class learning is the context suitable for developing learner autonomy because students are supposed to be in charge of their learning. However, this learning context is under research in the Vietnamese context. As a result, the problem that persists is the inadequate discussion and understanding of EFL tertiary students' learner autonomy in out-of-class learning. The current research investigates English majors' level of control when learning outside the classroom, which can provide implications to promote students' learner autonomy in the out-of-class learning context.

2. Content

2.1. Literature review

2.1.1. Definition

Learner autonomy has been one of the foci in educational practices and research for over four decades [8]. Learner autonomy in foreign/ second language learning is widely recognized as a complicated [9], complex and multifaceted construct [10].

Holec, the father of language learner autonomy, defined learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" [11] (p. 3). An autonomous learner can "determine the learning objectives, define the contents and the progressions, select methods and techniques to be used, monitor the procedure of acquisition (rhythm, time, place...), and evaluate what has been acquired" [11] (p. 3). Benson substituted the terms "ability" and "take charge" with "capacity" and "control", respectively, to define learner autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's learning" (p. 47). He suggests that learners will actively self-direct their learning if they have the ability and the desire to control their learning and if learning materials and social and psychological constraints do not hinder them. The term "capacity" compiling "ability, desire, and freedom" has become the overarching concept to depict the individual learner taking control of their learning [12] (p.47).

In the context of this study, Benson's definition of learner autonomy, highlighting learner autonomy as the capacity of learners to take control of their learning, is aptly chosen [13]. This conceptualization resonates with the out-of-class learning context where learners exhibit their ability and are mentally ready to learn independently. Furthermore, learners manage their learning processes effectively, underscoring how they navigate their freedom outside the classroom.

2.1.2. Dimensions of learner autonomy

Benson's framework of three dimensions of control – situational, behavioral, and psychological – can depict students' learning, especially in the context of out-of-class learning when the learners need to control not only their learning behaviors but also the learning situations and psychology of learning [13]. It is the reason for the selection of this model in this research.

2.1.2.1. Situational dimension

Benson states that "the learners should freely determine the content of learning" and that autonomous learners should "have the freedom to determine their own goals and purposes if the learning is to be genuinely self-directed" (p. 49), considering the learning context where certain constraints (such as curriculum) usually exist. The control of the situational dimension, therefore, indicates the empowerment or emancipation of learners by giving them control over the learning content. Murase defines the control of the situational dimension as political-philosophical autonomy, which is described as group/ individual autonomy and positive/ negative freedom. In the current research, the control of situational dimension is depicted based on [14]'s political-

philosophical autonomy, dividing it into group influence and freedom. Group autonomy expresses learners' view/ awareness of teachers as an authority and other authorities, namely their institution's regulations, parents' expectations, friends' suggestions, and social norms [13]. Freedom is the learners' view of making decisions on the learning goals, materials, and ways of learning outside the classroom [13].

2.1.2.2. Behavioural dimension

The behavioral dimension emphasizes learners' capacity to control the skills or strategies for unsupervised learning, such as the metacognitive, cognitive, and social strategies [12]. The control of these learning strategies manifests through learners' specific behaviors in various stages of the learning process. Before learning, learners identify their strengths and weaknesses, decide the most suitable learning ways, identify the learning goals, and plan the learning steps [14]. While-learning stage is when learners carry out and monitor the learning plan [14]. Post-learning refers to how learners self-evaluate and transcend the new learning situation [15]. Therefore, the control of the behavioral dimension is depicted through learners' behaviors in five stages: Getting ready, Carrying out the plan, Monitoring, Self-evaluating, and Transcending [13].

2.1.2.3. Psychological dimension

The capacity to control the psychological dimension focuses on the control of attitudes and cognitive abilities, which enable the learner to be mentally ready to take responsibility for his/her learning and sustain positive feelings throughout the learning process [12]. Bei & et al define mental readiness as the learners' sense of responsibility, active involvement, self-awareness, and insistence on dealing with challenges in learning. Learners are considered mentally ready when they can be the main factor in being responsible for their learning, facing difficulties, managing them, seeking solutions, and adapting their learning when difficulties occur. The control of emotion or affective factors in learning is the capacity to use meta-affective strategies, focusing on how the learners deal with their feelings when learning [17]. The control of psychological dimensions; therefore, includes mental readiness and the control of affective factors when learning [13].
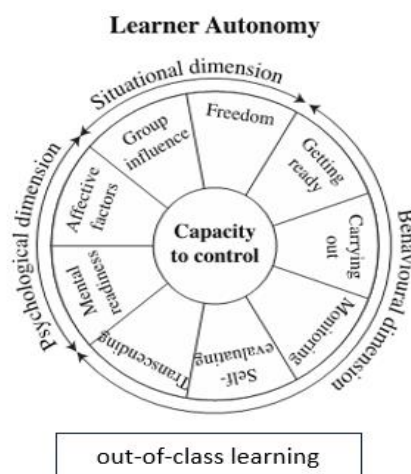

Figure 1. The definition of learner autonomy *(Adapted from [12])*

2.2. Research design

2.2.1. Research question

The research objective is to identify EFL students' learner autonomy in the out-of-class learning context, and the research has one main research question:

How do EFL students perceive their control of the situational, behavioral, and psychological dimensions of out-of-class learning?

2.2.2. Research setting

The study's target population was Vietnamese tertiary undergraduate English majors in Ho Chi Minh City. The choice of undergraduate English majors for the study was made based on several considerations: (1) higher education gives more freedom for teachers and students in the teaching and learning process, and promoting learner autonomy to prepare students for lifelong learning is considered the primary outcome of training at this level; (2) students at the tertiary level are mature enough to give decisions about their learning, to describe their learning process in detail, and to evaluate their learning's effectiveness; and (3) full-time students of English have English as their primary concern. As a result, the data collected from this group of students could give a rich picture of a dynamic construct of learner autonomy.

2.2.3. Population and sampling procedures

To collect big data, the researcher aimed to have samples at different institutions in Ho Chi Minh City. The names of twenty institutions that have English major programs in Ho Chi Minh City were written separately on small pieces of paper, folded into four, and then put together into a box. The researcher randomly picked three pieces of folded paper (more than 10%), and these institutions were chosen to participate in the research. Acadia, Big Valley, and Columbia pseudonyms were given to the three institutions participating in the study.

Specifically, Acadia is part of the public sector and is managed by the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MoET). Its Department of Foreign Languages offers two undergraduate programs in English language teaching and English Linguistics (Commerce-Tourism) for more than 1700 students. Big Valley is one of the first private universities in Vietnam under the administration of MoET. With more than 2500 undergraduates, the Faculty of Foreign Languages has two majors for the undergraduate level: Chinese Language and English Language. Students can choose one of five orientations: Business English, Teaching English, Translation-Interpretation, and Tourism English. Columbia is a public higher education institution that is also managed by MoET. The Faculty of Foreign Languages (FFL) is also one of the university's strong faculties. It offers undergraduate curricula in English, Chinese, and Japanese. English Majors include English Language Teaching and Methodology, Business English, and Translation-Interpretation. FFL accepts more than 400 students each year to pursue a major in English; the total number of English majors in the four school years is more than 1800.

Even though one private and two public institutions were selected to participate in the study, they are all under the control of MoET. The training programs and outcomes in these institutions strictly follow the standard programs regulated by MoET. Hence, the research participants have many commonalities in students' out-of-class learning context, guaranteeing the integrity of the research sample.

Once the institutions have been chosen randomly, the researcher randomly chose two classes of each school year on the class list with an interval of one out of five to deliver the questionnaire. This way of sampling guaranteed the target number of participants in the shortest time, even though it made sampling not randomly selected.

2.2.4. Research instruments

The questionnaire has 49 items in total. It consists of two parts: the demographic information (4 items regarding the participants' institution, gender, school year, and study results) and the student's learner autonomy in the out-of-class learning context (45 items, regarding the participants' control in the situational, behavioral, and psychological dimensions) (Le et al, 2023).

For the situational dimension, ten items were selected from the Group Autonomy and Freedom of Political-Philosophical part [14]. Group Autonomy is renamed to Group Influence and includes five items to describe students' awareness of teachers, the institution, peers, parents, and social trends as authorities in the learning situation. Freedom includes five items about their

view on the freedom to choose and make decisions about the content, goals, and ways of learning when learning English outside the classroom.

The capacity to control learning behaviors in the behavioral dimension is described in five learning stages: getting ready, carrying out the plan, monitoring, self-evaluating, and transcending with 25 items, five items for each step. The items were adapted from [14] and [15].

Last, ten items describe students' capacity to control the psychological dimension of out-of-class learning, expressing their mental readiness and capacity to control affective factors. The items were adapted from [16] and [17].

For each item, the response choices ranged from Strongly disagree (one point), Disagree (two points), Neutral (three points), Agree (four points), and Strongly agree (five points). The items were translated into Vietnamese to save the time and effort of the participants.

The questionnaire was discussed by two experts on learner autonomy to reach face and content validity. The modified version was then translated into Vietnamese by a group of four colleagues of the researchers and then translated back into English for accuracy checking. The Vietnamese version was then piloted first with a group of 16 students and then a class of 48 students for piloting.

2.2.5. Data collection procedure and analysis

The researcher went to the selected classes, briefly introduced the research to the teachers in charge, and showed them the agreement to support from the Dean of the Department. The teachers introduced the researcher to the class and encouraged the students to participate. The researcher quickly briefed the project and explained what the students needed to do with the form. For ethical issues, the researcher made clear that their participation was entirely voluntary, their information would be kept confidential, and the students could choose to withdraw from the project at any time. They could also choose not to join by clicking the "*No, I do not agree to participate*" option in the survey's introduction or stop doing the questionnaire at any time. The researcher went around the class to encourage them to finish the survey.

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS 26. Data manipulation involved transferring the participant responses and coding their answers to numerical scores on the Excel data sheet and then exporting it to SPSS. Once the data had been transferred into the SPSS sheet, each column represented one questionnaire item and the corresponding participant responses.

2.3. Findings

2.3.1. Internal consistency reliability measure of the scale

Cronbach's alpha values for the constructs were from .709 to .864. Each item was then examined using the if item deleted method, and the results indicated that these items produced the highest possible alphas for their respective factors.

2.3.2. Demographic information

From 709 valid responses, the descriptive statistics showed more females than males in the sample, with 71.8% and 26.8%, respectively, reflecting female dominance in the EFL context in Vietnam. The students in Acadia, Big Valley, and Columbia were approximately the same, at 38.6%, 35.5%, and 25.8%, respectively. The number of students in their third and last year at the university was slightly less than that in their first and second years, reflecting the tendency for the bigger class size of the junior students. Most participants had good learning results, at 50.1%. Although the imbalanced gender distribution in the sample was not ideal, it reflected the contemporary realities of EFL training.

2.3.3. Statistics of learner autonomy

2.3.3.1. Situational dimension

Regarding the group influence, the participants were highly aware of the influence of teachers and the institutions' regulations (Mean (M) = 4.09 and 4.00, respectively). At the same time, their

parents' wishes played a minor role (M = 2.80). Friends' influence and the expectations of society had a similar average influence on students' learning (M = 3.29 and 3.23). Overall, the participants average (M=3.48) considered others' influence when they conducted their learning outside the classroom. The standard deviations among the scores were from .671 to 1.090. With slightly more than one standard deviation, the participants had different ideas about society's expectations and parents' wishes.

Table 1. Students' level of control over the situational dimension

Areas of control	Min	Max	SD	Mean
Group influence	1.00	5.00	.671	3.48
Freedom	1.00	5.00	.772	4.12

Concerning freedom, the participants agreed they could make decisions about their learning outside the classroom (M= 4.23). The freedom to choose what they wanted to learn outside the classroom had the second highest score, slightly more than the freedom to choose the learning ways for learning outside the classroom (M=4.15 and 4.11). The freedom to choose the learning materials and decide their own goals in learning outside the classroom was also elevated (M=4.06 and 4.01). The cluster's overall high mean score (M=4.12) indicated that the participants had the freedom to make decisions in their learning. The standard deviations were from .772 to 1.068. The participants had slightly different ideas about the freedom of their learning materials, learning ways, and goals when studying outside the classroom.

2.3.3.2. Behavioural dimension

In the getting ready stage, the students were most confident in identifying their strengths (M=3.78). They could identify their weaknesses and learning goals and know which learning ways best suited them (M=3.73, 3.63, and 3.64). The ability to plan the learning steps was lower, only at a moderate level, with M=3.23. The overall control of the participants in the getting ready stage was high, with M=3.61. The standard deviations were from .704 to 1.055. With standard deviations slightly more than 1, the participants had quite different ideas about their capacity to identify learning goals and plan the learning steps.

When conducting their learning, the participants got the highest mean score on creating the best conditions to study (M=4.20). They also tried different learning materials and strategies and arranged as much time as possible to study (M=3.95, 3.76, and 3.70). They found initiating learning the most challenging in this stage (M=3.46). On average, with an overall mean score of 3.40, the study's participants demonstrated moderate control of this learning stage. The standard deviations were from .725 to .986.

Table 2. Students' level of control over the behavioral dimension

Areas of control	Min	Max	SD	Mean
Getting ready	1.00	5.00	.671	3.48
Carrying out the plan	1.00	5.00	.772	4.12
Monitoring	1.00	5.00	.725	3.34
Self-evaluating	1.00	5.00	.729	3.53
Transcending	1.00	5.00	.702	3.82

In the monitoring stage, the highest score was seeking help when needed (M=3.93) and adjusting their learning to the help they received (M=3.79); these scores were at a moderate level. They also averagely adjusted their learning process to reach their learning goals (M=3.74). They had more difficulty monitoring if their studies followed their plans and reflecting on whether the selected learning routine was effective (M = 3.46 and 3.27). Overall, the participants' control over the monitoring stage of learning was high (M=3.53). The standard deviations were from .729 to 1.028. Only the capacity to reflect on the selected learning

routines' effectiveness had standard deviations of more than 1, suggesting that the participants had quite different ideas about this capacity.

In the self-evaluation stage, they could evaluate whether they had achieved the goal (M=3.74). They moderately evaluated if their planning was realistic (M = 3.49) and whether their learning was effective (M= 3.71). They needed to be more confident in their abilities to draw a conclusion on the level of their learning success and select criteria to evaluate their learning outcomes (M=3.46, and 3.36). In general, the participants averagely controlled the self-evaluating stage (M=3.38) when conducting their learning outside the classroom. The overall mean score of the self-evaluating stage was the lowest compared to other learning stages. The standard deviations were from .760 to 1.097. With slightly more than 1 standard deviation, the participants had quite different ideas on their capacity to select criteria to evaluate learning outcomes and draw conclusions on the practicality of their planning and its success.

When transcending to the next learning activity, students were confident using the acquired skills in similar contexts (M= 3.85). The ability to find opportunities for new learning activities and ensure the retention of the newly acquired skills was prominent (M=3.81 for both). They needed to be more confident in integrating their newly acquired knowledge into their knowledge and ensuring the retention of the newly acquired knowledge (M=3.72 and 3.64). The overall mean score of the transcending stage was high (M=3.82), the highest mean score in the behavioral dimension. The standard deviations were from .702 to .975.

2.3.3.3. Psychological dimension

The participants agreed they could seek alternative solutions when a problem emerged and adapt to the demanding situations (M=3.96 and 3.81). They also believed they would manage problems in their studies (M=3.81). They were positive towards learning difficulties (M=3.62) but were less confident about relying only on themselves in learning (M=3.35). Overall, the participants were mentally ready to learn independently outside the classroom (M=3.83). The standard deviations were from .568 to 1.024. With standard deviations slightly more than 1, the participants had quite different ideas on the capacity to take full responsibility for their studies and manage any problems that may arise in learning.

Table 3. Students' level of control over the psychological dimension

Areas of control	Min	Max	SD	Mean
Mental readiness	1.00	5.00	.568	3.83
Affective factors	1.00	5.00	.713	3.70

Moving to the capacity to control their emotions when learning, the participants highly agreed that they tried to relax when they had negative feelings about their learning (M=4.10). They also paid attention to their feelings when studying and rewarded themselves or treated them when they did well (M=4.02 and 3.95). They were moderately confident that they encouraged themselves when learning and could organize their learning, so they always enjoyed doing it (M= 3.41). The participants' overall control of the affective factors was high (M=3.70). The standard deviations in this group were also the highest, from .935 to 1.191. The participants had different ideas on encouraging themselves to learn and rewarding or treating when doing well.

2.4. Discussion and implications

The findings from the current study highlighted that EFL tertiary students still faced many challenges when they controlled the situational, behavioral, and psychological dimensions of their learning outside the classroom.

2.4.1. Situational dimension

Regarding the control of students in the situational dimension, students acknowledged the influence of other factors when they controlled the out-of-class learning situation, in which

teachers, the institution they were going to, and friends played the most critical roles. This influence could be explained by the bond to Confucianism, which stressed the hierarchy in the Vietnamese classroom and the growing importance of peers in one's learning when students enter higher education.

The five factors, namely teachers, institutions, peers, society, and parents, have been reported to influence learner autonomy development in previous research. The teacher is believed to be vital in helping students develop learner autonomy inside and outside the classroom [18]. Tran & Vo stressed the importance of teachers when they reported that English-majored students reckoned that teacher-related factors had a significant role in boosting students' learner autonomy development [19]. Aoki pointed out that learner autonomy can stem from the institutional environment surrounding real learning. This confirms that institutions could support students becoming more autonomous from institutional settings and policy levels. Peers are also a crucial factor that can enhance learners' sense of autonomy by decreasing their dependence on their teachers [21]. Swatevacharkul & et al stated that students preferred collaborative learning to the teacher as an authority, which means that peers were more critical in their autonomous learning than teachers. Society and family are grouped into the general culture, which is considered to influence students' learner autonomy. Social characteristics can influence learners' readiness [23] for autonomy, and learner autonomy can be intentionally promoted or hindered under different community constraints [24]. Parents had the slightest influence on tertiary students' control of the learning situation in the current study but strongly impacted Vietnamese high school students' learner autonomy [25].

Despite this influence, EFL tertiary students expressed the freedom to make learning decisions outside the classroom. These findings reflect the move towards better control of learning situations outside the classroom of students in the research context. The participants reported being free to decide about their learning outside the classroom. They could choose what they wanted to learn and how they conducted their learning. They needed to be more confident about choosing the learning materials and their learning goals. This freedom aligned with previous research in the Vietnamese context, stating that students were more active with learning outside the classroom than their performance in the classroom [8]. However, these findings contradicted the situation of students in the Mekong Delta, who did not make their own decisions on their learning, could not choose what they should learn to serve their study, and just learned or found out information according to their teachers' instructions [7]. Another research in the Japanese context stated that students spent time studying outside the classroom to complete the work assigned by teachers [26].

2.4.2. Behavioural dimension

The participant's capacity to control the behavioral dimension of learner autonomy in out-of-class learning was moderate. They were not confident in taking significant actions in autonomous learning, such as initiating learning, setting up learning plans, reflecting, and selecting the criteria for self-evaluation. Le pointed out that students were highly willing to be responsible for their learning but were only moderately confident about their abilities [7]. This tendency is also found in some other research in the Asian context, which has found that EFL learners are more willing to take charge of their learning but not entirely confident about what they can do [27].

The control of the behavioral dimension is closely related to language learning strategies, and planning, monitoring, and regulating belong to the metacognitive capabilities. Difficulties with learning behaviors and strategies can confound students' capacity for learning control and their learner autonomy development [3]. Even though metacognitive strategies were reported to be the most utilized strategies for Vietnamese EFL high school students [28], they had many difficulties with them when entering university, such as they could not effectively set up specific

learning goals and learning plans and could not effectively implement those plans [7]. Therefore, the current research's findings aligned with previous research and indicated a need for more scaffolding actions to support students' better control of the behavioral dimension.

2.4.3. Psychological dimension

Regarding the mental readiness for self-learning outside the classroom, the participants were moderately ready to be responsible for their learning outside the classroom. The results showed that students were mentally ready for learning outside the classroom, but they needed to be more confident to be the only ones in charge of their learning and accept the challenges in learning. This tendency echoes previous research stating that students understood that learner autonomy was significantly substantial during university life [7]. However, they needed more time to be ready to take responsibility for their learning [29].

Concerning how they paid attention to their emotions when learning, the participants moderately paid attention to their feelings, tried to relax when having negative ones, and gave themselves a reward or a treat when they did well. However, they needed to be more confident to make learning enjoyable. Attention should be given to raising students' understanding of separate ways to deal with feelings. Affective factors such as motivation and anxiety bothered learners with low English levels more than learners with high English levels, and there were countermeasures against students' affective problems [30]. In the Vietnamese context, students' anxiety levels were significantly negatively correlated with English competence [31]. However, affective factors control strategies were reported to be used the least compared to other language learning strategies in the Vietnamese context [28]. Therefore, there should be more attention to affective factors to ensure students pay enough attention to their feelings when learning.

Although the participants had a moderate capacity to control three dimensions of learner autonomy in the out-of-class context, they demonstrated specific difficulties in taking charge of their learning. Learner autonomy support activities should target giving students more opportunities to enact their freedom in learning and equipping them with learning strategies. Students need to have a reflection on the learning strategies they are using and update themselves on new learning techniques. Dealing with specific learning behaviors such as setting learning goals, making learning plans, reflecting on learning, and sustaining learning motivation, they need more opportunities to strengthen their indirect strategies, especially metacognitive and affective strategies. Despite the influence of Confucianism in learning, students should mentally accept that they will be responsible for their learning and face the learning challenges with a positive attitude because they need to rely on themselves for their lifelong learning. Moreover, in-class and out-of-class learning should be intertwined to promote students' capacity to control the situational, behavioral, and psychological dimensions of their learning.

3. Conclusion

The study has depicted the situation of EFL students' learner autonomy in the out-of-class context. Learners controlled averagely their learning outside the classroom. However, they still needed assistance in making learning-related decisions, receiving autonomous strategy training, and managing psychological aspects that influence the learning process. Despite many participants, the study has only focused quantitatively on learners' perspectives of learner autonomy. Moreover, it is the scope of the study that did not discuss other internal and external factors such as motivation, personal characteristics, or family background that can have an impact on students' learner autonomy. The influence of these factors on learner autonomy may also shed more light on the complexity of learner autonomy. Further research can also collect qualitative data on the participants' experience of controlling their learning outside the classroom or focus on the perspectives of other stakeholders on students' learner autonomy in the out-of-class learning context.

REFERENCES

[1] Nguyen T, (2017). Vietnam's National Foreign Language 2020 Project after 9 years: A difficult stage. In *The Asian Conference on Education and International Development*. www.iafor.org.

[2] Tran LT & Marginson S, (2018). Internationalization of Vietnamese higher education: An overview. In L.T. Tran & S. Marginson (Eds.), *Internationalisation in Vietnamese Higher Education (*pp. 1–16). Springer.

[3] Lin L & Reinders H, (2019). Students' and teachers' readiness for autonomy: Beliefs and practices in developing autonomy in the Chinese context. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *20*, 69–89.

[4] Bui N (2018). Learner autonomy in tertiary English classes in Vietnam. In J. Albright (Ed.), *English tertiary education in Vietnam* (pp. 158–171). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315212098–12

[5] Ministry of Education and Training (MoET). (2021). *Circular No. 17/2021/TT – BGDDT 'Regulations on standards and formulation, appraisal and promulgation training programmes of higher education'.* Hanoi: MoET. Retrieved from https://thuvienphapluat.vn/van-ban/EN/Giao-duc/Circular-17-2021-TT-BGDDT-standards-and-formulation-training-programmes-of-higher-education/480403/tieng- anh.aspx

[6] Dang TT, (2012). *Learner autonomy perception and performance: A study on Vietnamese students in online and offline learning environments* [Doctoral dissertation, La Trobe University].

[7] Le ANT, (2019). *EFL teachers' and students' perceptions and practices regarding learner autonomy: An exploratory study at a Vietnamese university in the Mekong delta* [Doctoral dissertation, Hue University, Vietnam].

[8] Nguyen V & Stracke E, (2021). Learning experiences in and outside class by successful Vietnamese tertiary students studying English as a foreign language. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 15*(4), 321–333.

[9] Little D, (2003). Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. In CIEL Language Support network (Eds.), *Guide to Good Practice for Learning and Teaching in Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies [electronic].*

[10] Smith R & Ushioda E. (2009). Autonomy: Under whose control. In R. Pemberton, S. Toogood & A. Barfield (Eds.), *Maintaining control: Autonomy and language learning* (pp. 241–254). Hongkong University Press.

[11] Holec H, (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Strasbourg.

[12] Benson P, (2011). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833767

[13] Le QHT, Dang TT & Bui QTT, (2023). Tertiary EFL students' learner autonomy: The roles of teachers in the classroom. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *13*(8), 1880-1887.

[14] Murase F, (2015). Measuring language learner autonomy: Problems and possibilities. In *Assessment and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 35–63). Palgrave Macmillan.

[15] Ruelens E, (2019). Measuring language learner autonomy in higher education: The self-efficacy questionnaire of language learning strategies. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, *9*(2), 371–393.

[16] Bei E, Mavroidis I & Giossos Y, (2019). Development of a scale for measuring the learner autonomy of distance education students. *European Journal of Open, Distance and E-Learning*, *22*(2), 133–144. https://doi.org/10.2478/eurodl-2019-0015.

[17] Habók A & Magyar A, (2018). Validation of a self-regulated foreign language learning strategy questionnaire through multidimensional modelling. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*(AUG), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01388

[18] Reinders, H. (2021). A framework for learning beyond the classroom. In M. J. Raya & F. Vieira (Eds.), *Autonomy in language education: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 63–73). Routledge.

[19] Tran TQ & Vo DQ, (2020). English-majored students' perspectives on the factors boosting learner autonomy development. *HNUE Journal of Science*, *12*, 37–45.

[20] Aoki N, (2001). The institutional and psychological context of learner autonomy. *Aila Review*, *15*, 72–90.

[21] Shen B, Bai B & Xue W, (2020). The effects of peer assessment on learner autonomy: An empirical study in a Chinese college English writing class. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 64*, 100821.

[22] Swatevacharkul R & Boonma N, (2021). Learner autonomy assessment of English language teaching students in an international program in Thailand. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 10*(3), 749–759. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v10i3.31764

[23] Ahmad BE, & Majid FA, (2010). Self-directed learning and culture: A study on Malay adult learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *7*, 254–263.

[24] Dang TT, (2010). Learner autonomy in EFL studies in Vietnam: A discussion from a sociocultural perspective. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(2), 3–9.

[25] Ho NB, Dang TT & Nguyen CT, (2023). Parents' contributions to Vietnamese English as a foreign language students' perceptions of learner autonomy. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 22(2), 54–75.

[26] Kimura H, (2014). Establishing Group Autonomy through Self-Access Center Learning Experiences. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, *5*, 82–97. https://doi.org/10.37237/050202

[27] Sönmez G, (2016). How ready are your students for autonomous language learning? *Turkish Online Journal of English Language Teaching, 1*(3), 126–134.

[28] Ngo LC, (2019). Language learning strategies among Vietnamese EFL high school students. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching, 14*(1), 55–70.

[29] Ahmadi R, (2013). Iranian ESP learners' perceptions of autonomy in language learning. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 2*(1), 28–34.

[30] Qian W, (2022). The influence of affective factors on autonomous learning in English among non-English majors in independent university. *International Journal of Education and Humanities*, *5*(3), 106–116.

[31] Le HTT, (2023). The impacts of foreign language anxiety on students in English–medium instruction classes in the central region universities, Vietnam. *Vietnam Journal of Education, 7*(2), 103–113.