

Chapter One

1.0. Introduction

Sudanese university students face difficulties in speaking English as a foreign language because Sudan is not an English speaking country; therefore, English communicative ability is not easy to be obtained. In this case, language strategies such as memory, cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective and compensation can greatly assist students in Sudan to speak and learn English in more effective and efficient ways.

The changes that the educational programs have undergone in recent times, conditioned a new perspective on the role of a teacher and a learner. The teacher no more presents encyclopedic information, but equip the students with such skills and abilities that make the process of becoming more independent and successful easier.

Oxford (1990) states that language strategies are specific actions or techniques that learners use to assist their progress in developing second or foreign language skills. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) think that strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing second language communicative ability. Research has repeatedly shown that the conscious, tailored use of such strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency among the students.

Oxford et al (1990); Oxford and Leaver (1996); Wenden (1991) see that the importance of helping students become effective and autonomous learners has been recognized by many second language teachers and researchers in recent years. It is also the goal of language learning strategy instruction.

The language strategies are special ways to help students to realize, to learn, and to memorize new knowledge. As an old Chinese saying goes “Teaching a man how to fish is better than giving him a fish.” Teachers cannot always teach him by his side throughout his life, so these strategies play an important role in developing learner autonomy.

Learners can make the best use of these strategies to establish the ability of self-directed learning. If students use these strategies efficiently, they can learn by themselves and self-examine their own progress. Gradually, they can set up their self-confidence. Therefore, having proper learning strategies can improve learners and enhance their abilities of language.

Williams and Burden (1997), for example, have pointed out that language teachers should go far beyond the transmission of knowledge and should empower students by assisting them in acquiring the knowledge, skills, and strategies needed to become autonomous learners who can take responsibility for their own learning.

Brown (2001) & Cohen (1998) demonstrate that one of the most effective strategies in learning is strategy-based instruction which is a learner-focused approach to teaching that emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of language learning strategies in the language classroom, with the goal of creating greater learner autonomy and increased proficiency.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Sudanese university students majoring in English language face difficulties in speaking skills. The researcher's experience in this field as a lecturer put him close to the problem. The main reason of this problem may be that the students lack the appropriate language strategies that they can adopt to fulfill their speaking tasks. The students need to be trained to use language strategies.

1.2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are the following:

- 1- Investigate the impact of strategies based-instruction on speaking English language of Sudanese university students at tertiary level.
- 2- Investigate the relationship between strategies based-instruction and the performance of the students in speaking skills.
- 3- Shed light on some language strategies that learners can use.
- 4- Find out whether explicit strategy based-instruction in English language learning has an effect on students speaking performance.
- 5- Suggest different types of language strategies that the students can use.
- 6- Help the students become autonomous learners.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study is important as the awareness of selecting the appropriate language strategies can be a major factor in contributing to students' success in their language learning. Learners of a language must be able to create or seek out opportunities to learn effectively based on their own learning strategies which can enhance the spoken English. In order to do so, learners of language must be given the prospect and opportunity to understand and identify their own language learning path. The awareness of what works best for them in learning can be reflected in students' capability in speaking and communicating with others easily without anxiety and stress.

Furthermore, this study may give teachers some insights on how their students approach a task or problem. This will act as valuable information for teachers to later plan their teaching process as they can select the best method to prepare for students' strategies towards their language learning process.

As students' strategies differ from one another, the findings of this study may expose to teachers how to handle situations regarding students' language acquisition or level of proficiency as each of them achieves language learning goals differently. This may be in the way teachers can train students to use the correct strategies to manage their own language learning. Generally, some knowledge about students' language learning strategies can be a useful tool for teachers to plan their teaching and learning activities.

1. 4. Questions of the Study

- 1- What is the relationship between strategies-based instruction and the performance of the students in speaking skills?
- 2- What is the effect of explicit strategy training on learners' performance in speaking skills?
- 3- What are the teachers' perspectives on the importance of strategies-based instruction in improving the students' speaking skills?

1.5. Hypotheses

- 1- There is a close relationship between strategies based-instruction and the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.
- 2- Explicit strategy training improve the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.
- 3- According to the teachers views, employing strategies-based instruction can improve the performance of the students' speaking skills.

1. 6. Limits of the Study

Since all the results come from only a sample of the student population, it is not recommendable to largely generalize those results to the whole student population.

This study is limited to three Sudanese university students majoring in English language. The participants are students from Sudan University of Science and Technology, Omdurman Islamic University and University of Gazira, in the academic year 2012-2013.

1.7. Definition of Language Strategies

According to Cohen et al (1998), language strategies are "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of L2 or FL, through the storage, recall and application of information about that language".

Oxford et al (1990) states that language strategies are specific actions or techniques that learners use to assist their progress in developing L2 or FL language skills.

O'Malley & Chamot et al (1990) think that strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing L2 communicative ability.

Weinstein & Mayer (1986) define language strategies broadly as behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning which are intended to influence the learner's encoding process. Later, Mayer (1988) more specifically defined learning strategies as behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information.

According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), language strategies are any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Richards and Platt (1992) argue that language strategies are intentional behaviour and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.

Faerch Claus and Casper (1983) stress that a language strategy is an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language. According to Stern (1992), the concept of language learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques.

All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom.

EFL – English as a Foreign Language. In Richards et al. (1992, pp.123-124), EFL refers to “The role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication (e.g. government, business, industry) within the country.” For example, English is taught in Taiwan as a foreign language.

L1/L2 – According to Oxford (1990) L1 stands for a person’s first language or mother tongue. L2 stands for the person’s second language or the target language someone has learned or wishes to learn.

Learner autonomy – This is also known as self-directed learning, which refers to the learner’s ability to take responsibility for his/her learning. This is one of the expected outcomes when students apply language learning strategies.

SILL – Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, a questionnaire designed by Oxford (1990) to investigate learners' frequency of use of many language learning strategies, clustered into six strategy categories (mentioned above).

Strategy - A detailed plan for achieving success in situations such as war, politics, business, industry or sport,” and, of course, learning. Thus, planfulness or goal-orientation is an essential part of any definition of “strategy.”

Language speaking strategy– Cohen & Weaver (2006) state that language speaking strategy are the strategies for practicing speaking, for engaging in conversation, and for keeping in the conversation going when words or expressions are lacking.

Target language – The language being learned, regardless of whether it is a second or foreign language.

1.9. Summary

In this chapter, the problem of the study and the objectives of the research were introduced. The question of the research and the hypotheses were presented. The limits of the study were stated to show that the results of the study can not be generalized to all students at different countries. Language strategies were defined by many scholars in the field.

Strategies based-instruction are specific language learning behaviors that ESL students consciously use in order to improve their target language. The purpose of this research is to investigate the impact of strategies based-instruction on speaking English language of Sudanese university students at tertiary level.

The findings from this study will be influential to English teaching and learning on the grounds that it can be integrated into the English curriculum.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0. Introduction

This chapter consists of three major sections presenting an overview of theories and empirical studies relevant to this specific study, these are Speaking skills, Teaching language strategies and Learning language strategies.

2.1. Speaking Skills

Language is the tool for expressing human thought and transmitting information. It is significant to exchange international learning techniques. Spoken language is one of the basic forms in language exchange. Ur (2006) sees that of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important. People who know a language are referred to as 'speakers of that language, as if speaking included all other types of skills, and many, if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak.

2.1.1. Definition of speaking

Speaking a language is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. Oxford Dictionary (2012) defines speaking as the action of conveying information or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in spoken language. For Brown (1994); Burns and Joyce (1997), speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are

dependent on the context in which it occurs, including the participants themselves, their collective experiences, the physical environment, and the purposes for speaking.

In Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary (1995: 1141), Speaking "is making use of words in an ordinary voice; uttering words; knowing and being able to use a language; expressing oneself in words; making a speech". Cunningham (1999) debates that speaking requires that learners not only know how to produce specific points of language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary (linguistic competence), but also they understand when, why and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence).

Wilson (1997) claims that speaking is a matter of translation of thoughts and ideas into words. There is a close relationship between speaking skills and the success of the students in the academic subjects. Students who do not develop good listening and speaking skills will have lifelong consequences because of their deficit. Speaking skills do not need to be taught as a separate subject. These skills can easily be integrated into other subject matter. This is because, students learn to talk, clarify thoughts by talking, comprehend better with discussion of reading, write better after talking during writing conferences, develop confidence by speaking in front of peers, and provide a window to their own thinking through their talk.

2.1.2. Teaching Spoken language

According to Nunan (2003), teaching speaking is to teach ESL/EFL learners to (1) produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns, (2) use word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language (i.e., select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter), (3) organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical

sequence, (4) use language as a means of expressing values and judgments, and (5) use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency.

2.1.3. Speaking and Language Learning

Speaking a foreign language represents one of the targets which teachers are willing to achieve with their students at any stage of their studies, using various approaches, techniques and activities to have more successful students and fluent in using English. Learners should be able to express their ideas which can be a highly motivating factor for them in learning foreign languages, in general. A lot of learners learn a foreign language because it is a compulsory subject. It is the teachers' aim to make them aware of foreign languages, English including, represent in today's society certain social status which enables to communicate with people all around the world.

Bygate (2002) sees that speaking in a second language involves the development of a particular type of communication skills. Because of its circumstances of production, oral language tends to differ from written language in its typical grammar, lexical and discourse patterns. In addition, some of the processing skills needed in speaking differ from those involved in reading and writing.

2.1.3.1. Speaking a foreign language fluently

According to the fluency-oriented approach, small grammatical or pronunciation errors are insignificant, especially in the early learning stages. Ebsworth (1998) states that too much emphasis on correcting them is considered harmful rather than helpful, for it may cause excessive monitor in the mind, hindering the natural acquisition of spoken skills. The fluency-oriented approach believes that spoken skills develop

meaningful communication. Naturally, many foreign language teachers support this viewpoint.

When one inquires about someone's level of proficiency, the answer is often that "I can speak the language fluently." Speaking a language fluently is frequently the ultimate goal to be attained in mastering a language. Chambers, (1997) points that despite the fact that the terms "fluency" and "fluently" are regularly used in language pedagogy and language testing as well as in various fields of applied linguistics, there seems to be no consensus concerning what is understood by these concepts. Moreover, Koponen and Riggensbach (2000) think that it is not only the definition of fluency that has been a matter of debate, but its measurement as well.

2.1.3.1.1. Definition of fluency

In one of the first studies investigating fluency, Fillmore (1979) conceptualized fluency in four different ways. First, he defined fluency as the ability to talk at length with few pauses and to be able to fill the time with talk. Second, a fluent speaker is not only capable of talking without hesitations but of expressing his/her message in a coherent, reasoned and "semantically densed" manner. Third, a person is considered to be fluent if he/she knows what to say in a wide of range of contexts. Finally, Fillmore (1979) argued that fluent speakers are creative and imaginative in their language use and a maximally fluent speaker has all of the above mentioned abilities.

One of the first definitions of second language fluency was provided by Pawley and Syder (1983:191)), who regard native-like fluency as "the native speaker's ability to produce fluent stretches of discourse". This definition is of a much narrower scope than that of Fillmore and has served as a basis for several further studies.

Lennon (1990& 2000) pointed out that fluency is usually used in two senses. In the so-called broad sense, fluency seems to mean global oral proficiency, that is, a fluent speaker has a high command of the foreign or second language. The definition proposed by Sajavaara (1987:62) can also be regarded as a broad conceptualization of fluency. He defined fluency as “the communicative acceptability of the speech act, or ‘communicative fit’”. He also points out that expectations concerning what is appropriate in a communicative context vary according to the situation, therefore his definition seems to be very difficult to operationalise. This conceptualization of fluency bears resemblance to the third aspect of fluency described by Fillmore.

2.1.3.1.2. Measures of fluency

Just as defining fluency is rather problematical, the establishment of the components of fluency is not without difficulty, either. Four different approaches to delineating the measures of fluency exist in the investigation of foreign language learner’s speech. The first trend is concerned with the temporal aspects of speech production according to Lennon (1990); Möhle (1984), the second as Riggenbach (1991) thinks, combines the variables with the investigation of interactive features, the third approach explores the phonological aspects of fluency according to Hieke (1984); Wennerstrom (2000) as well. Finally, recent studies by Ejzenberg (2000); Towell et al., (1996) have included the analysis of formulaic speech in studying fluency in second language speech.

A number of studies have been concerned with establishing the appropriate measures of fluency. The empirical studies in this field used three different approaches: they either investigated the development of fluency longitudinally as stated by Freed (1995; 2000); Lennon (1990); Towell et al. (1996), or compared fluent and non-fluent speakers as Ejzenberg (2000); Riggenbach (1991); Tonkyn (2001) see or correlated

fluency scores with temporal variables as Rekart and Dunkel (1992), Fulcher (1996) view. However, the number of participants investigated was very small in most of these research projects, and in many of them no statistical analyses and computer technology for identifying pauses reliably were used. Ejzenberg (2000); Freed (1995, 2000); Lennon (1990); Rigggenbach (1991) Towell et al (1996) concluded that the best predictors of fluency are speech rate, that is, the number of syllables articulated per minute and the mean length of runs, that is, the average number of syllables produced in utterances between pauses of 0.25 seconds and above. As Towell et al (1996); Lennon (1990); van Gelderen (1994) see, Phonation-time ratio was also found to be a good predictor of fluency , that is, the percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample.

2.1.3.2. Speaking a foreign language accurately

One view is that the speech is thought to be successful as long as the learner can make himself/herself understood and no matter how incorrect the language is, while another view insists on correctness in every aspect of language ranging from grammar to pronunciation.

The latter, places more emphasis on accuracy by pursuing mainly grammatical correctness. This view is called the accuracy-oriented approach. Practices that focus on repetition of newly introduced forms or grammatical structures are thought to help the learning. Although once supported by many linguists, nowadays it is seen as rather obsolete. Stern (1991) thinks that the teachers using this approach complained about the lack of effectiveness in the long run and the boredom they endangered among the students. Few foreign language teachers, at least ostensibly, favour this viewpoint.

In reality, accuracy and fluency are closely related, which leads us to the notion that accuracy as well as fluency is necessary for successful communication. As Ebsworth (1998) states,

"A steady stream of speech which is highly inaccurate in vocabulary, syntax, or pronunciation could be so hard to understand as to violate an essential aspect of fluency being comprehensible. On the other hand, it is possible for the speaker to be halting but accurate... Sentence level grammatical accuracy that violates principles of discourse and appropriateness is also possible, but such language would not be truly accurate in following the communicative rules of the target language."

Thus, it may not be too much to say one speaks fluently without accuracy or vice versa.

2.1.3.2.1 Definition of accuracy

kouichi (1998) sees that, though the criteria for defining accuracy in most standardized tests include factors such as grammar, pronunciation, sociolinguistic competence or pragmatic competence , grammatical errors were the main factors in deciding the level of accuracy as general. Considering the fact that grammatical instruction has been the mainstream in English education in Sudan. The word usage and sentence structure were considered as grammatical understanding, but pronunciation was excluded because it is quite difficult to make out correct pronunciation due to the variety of accents.

Skehan (1996) sees that accuracy refers to how well the target language is produced according to its rule system.

2.1.3.2.2. Measures of accuracy

Pica (1988) views that an analysis of target-like use can measure accuracy, considering both the contexts and uses of the structure in question. Accuracy; complexity and fluency are three important parts of

oral speaking. Every teacher should keep balance of the three parts. Accuracy is identified various types by researchers. Omaggio (1986) says that accuracy includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, semantic, rhetorical accuracy and some surface features just like spelling, punctuation and pronunciation.

Table no.(2.1.) Index Employed in the Measurement of Accuracy

Indexes employed	Dates	Researchers
The percentage of error-free clauses to all clauses (EFC/C)	1996	Forster , Skehan
The error- free T-unit per T-unit (EFT/T)	2002	Zhang
error- free clauses and correct verb forms	2003	Yuan and Ellis
The proportion of T-unit	2006	Larsen-Freeman
Verb tense, third person singular, prepositions, articles use and ratio of error- free T-units	2008	Iwashita et al.
The ratio of error- free clauses(EFC/C)	2008	Tavakoli ,Forster

Many accuracy indexes have been employed to measure oral language for different purposes. ``Correct As-unit refers to As-unit without any errors. "Sub-unit" consists minimally of a finite or non-finite verb element plus at least one other clause element (Subject, Object, Complement and Adverbial) or it is amount to compound sentence in other term. "Incorrect sub-unit" includes sub-unit with any errors. "Total words" means all words except repair, repetition, hesitation, etc. "Total errors" consists of all errors of lexical, morphological, syntactical or textural. "Self-repair" refers to self -correction in speaking when the speakers are aware of the error and correct it by themselves. —Ratio of error free As-units|| is an index to measure accuracy of As-unit. REFAS=error free As-units/ all the As-units. The higher, the more accurate the language is. —Number of errors per 100 words|| is an index

to measure accuracy of total words. $REW = \text{total errors} * 100 / \text{total words}$. The fewer the number, the more accurate the speech is. —Ratio of error sub-units|| is an index to measure accuracy, but it can show the relationship between accuracy and complexity. $RESUB = \text{Incorrect Sub-unit} / \text{all Sub-units}$. The higher it is, the less accurate the Sub-unit is and so on.

2.1.3.3. Complexity

Ellis (2003: 340) defines complexity as the "extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied". To measure structural complexity, Crookes (1989) believes that the amount of subordination has been commonly used, as it reflects the degree of structuring of speech. The number of clauses per unit (e.g. T-unit, C-unit or AS-unit) has been the most common unit of measure. The formula used to calculate structural complexity was total number of clauses divided by total number of AS-units.

2.1.3.3.1. Measures of complexity

Traditionally, a general measure for lexical complexity has been the type-token ratio or TTR (the number of different words in a monologic text divided by the total number of words). However, it is sensitive to the length of the text according to MacWhinney (2000)&Vermeer (2000). The number of tokens increases if a text is long, giving low TTR values. Therefore, TTR lacks reliability as any single value depends on the length of the sample used. Gilabert (2004) introduces Guiraud's index of lexical richness (the number of types of words divided by the square root of the total number of words) or other mathematical transformations of the TTR by Kuiken and Vedder (2007) are also prone to the same effect.

2.1.4. Theories of speaking

Almost entire libraries have been written on speaking, however space provided here does not allow to cover all the theories and notes in this work. Speaking, together with writing, belongs among productive skills. Harmer (2001) and Gower (1995) note that from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different aspects including two major categories – accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practice through controlled and guided activities; and, fluency, considered to be ‘the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously’.

The following section presents speaking theories by Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Teaching* (2001), and, more importantly, Martin Bygate, *Speaking* (1987).

2.1.4.1. Bygate’s theory

According to Bygate (1987) in order to achieve a communicative goal through speaking, there are two aspects to be considered: knowledge of the language, and skill in using this knowledge. It is not enough to possess a certain amount of knowledge, but a speaker of the language should be able to use this knowledge in different situations.

We do not merely know how to assemble sentences in the abstract: we have to produce them and adapt to the circumstances. This means making decisions rapidly, implementing them smoothly, and adjusting our conversation as unexpected problems appear in our path.
(Bygate, 1987: 3).

Being able to decide what to say on the spot, saying it clearly and being flexible during a conversation as different situations come out is the ability to use the knowledge ‘in action’, which creates the second aspect of speaking skill . Bygate views the skill as comprising two components: production skills and interaction skills, both of which can be affected by two conditions: firstly, processing conditions, taking into consideration

the fact that ‘a speech takes place under the pressure of time’; secondly, reciprocity conditions connected with a mutual relationship between the interlocutors.

2.1.4.1.1. Production skills

The processing conditions (time pressure) in certain ways to limit or modify the oral production; it means the use of production skills. For that reason, Bygate (1987) believes that speakers are forced to use devices which help them make the oral production possible or easier through ‘facilitation’, or enable them to change the words they use in order to avoid or replace the difficult ones by means of ‘compensation’

There are four elementary ways of facilitating that Bygate distinguishes: simplifying structures, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, and using fillers and hesitation devices. On the other hand, when a speaker needs to alter, correct or change what he or she has said, they will need to make use of compensation devices. These include tools such as substitution, rephrasing, reformulating, self-correction, false starts, and repetition and hesitation. Bygate concludes that the incorporation of these features, facilitation and compensation, in the teaching-learning process is of a considerate importance, in order to help students’ oral production and compensate for the problems they may face:

All these features [facilitation, compensation] may in fact help learners speak, and hence help them learn to speak . . . In addition to helping learners learn to speak, these features may also help learners sound normal in their use of the foreign language. (Bygate 1987: 20).

Facilitation and compensation, both devices which help students make the oral production possible or easier, or help them change, avoid or replace the difficult expressions, besides these elementary functions also help students sound more natural as speakers of a foreign language.

2.1.4.1.2. Interaction skills

To begin with, routines are the typical patterns in which speakers organize what they have to communicate. There are two kinds of routines: information routines, and interaction routines. The information routines include frequently recurring types of information structures involved in, for example, stories, descriptions, comparisons, or instructions. Bygate further divides information routines according to their function into evaluative routines (explanations, predictions, justifications, preferences, decisions), and expository routines (narration, descriptions, instructions).

According to Bygate (1987) both speakers and listeners, besides being good at processing spoken words should be ‘good communicators’, which means good at saying what they want to say in a way which the listener finds understandable. This means being able to possess interaction skills. Communication of meaning then depends on two kinds of skill: routines, and negotiation skills.

The interaction routines, on the other hand, present the characteristic ways, in which interactions are organized dealing with the logical organization and order of the parts of the conversation. Interaction routines can typically be observed in, for example, telephone conversations, interviews, or conversations at the party. Bygate (1987) thinks that while routines present the typical patterns of conversation, negotiation skills, on the other hand, solve communication problems and enable the speaker and the listener to make themselves clearly understood. In fact, according to Bygate, negotiation skills get routines through by the management of interaction and negotiation of meaning.

The first aspect of negotiation skills is management of interaction, Bygate notes, refers to the business of agreeing who is going to speak

next, and what he or she is going to talk about. These are two aspects of management of interaction that Bygate distinguishes: agenda of management and turn-taking. On one hand, the participants' choice of the topic, how it is developed, its length, the beginning or the end is controlled by the agenda of management.

On the other hand, effective turn-taking requires five abilities: how to signal that one wants to speak, recognizing the right moment to get a turn, how to use appropriate turn structure in order to one's turn properly and not to lose it before finishing what one has to say, recognizing other people's signals of their desire to speak, and, finally, knowing how to let someone else have a turn.

The second aspect of negotiation skills is the skill of communicating ideas clearly and signaling understanding or misunderstanding during a conversation is referred to as negotiation of meaning. There are two factors that ensure understanding during oral communications, according to Bygate; they are: the level of explicitness and procedures of negotiation. The level of explicitness refers to the choice of expressions with regard to interlocutors' knowledge. As regards the procedures of negotiation, i.e. how specific speakers are in what they say, Bygate (1987) sees that this aspect of negotiation of meaning involves the use of paraphrases, metaphors, on the use of vocabulary varying the degree of precisions with which we communicate.

2.1.4.2. Harmer's theory

Harmer (2001) when discussing the elements of speaking that are necessary for fluent oral production, distinguishes between two aspects: knowledge of 'language features', and the ability to process information on the spot, it means 'mental/social processing'.

The first aspect, language features, necessary for spoken production involves according to Harmer (2001) connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. For a clearer view of what the individual features include, here is a brief overview:

- *connected speech – conveying fluent connected speech including assimilation, elision, linking ‘r’, contractions and stress patterning and weakened sounds);*
- *expressive devices – pitch, stress, speed, volume, physical – non-verbal means for conveying meanings (supersegmental features);*
- *lexis and grammar – supplying common lexical phrases for different Functions (agreeing, disagreeing, expressing shock, surprise, approval, etc.);*
- *negotiation language – in order to seek clarification and to show the structure of what we are saying. (Harmer 2001: 269-270).*

In order to wage a successful language interaction, Harmer (2001) thinks that it is necessary to realize the use of the language features through mental/social processing with the help of ‘the rapid processing skills’. ‘Mental/social processing’ includes three features – language processing, interacting with others, and on-the-spot information processing. To give a clearer view of what these features include, here is a brief summary:

- *language processing – processing the language in the head and putting it into coherent order, which requires the need for comprehensibility and convey of meaning (retrieval of words and phrases from memory, assembling them into syntactically and proportionally appropriate sequences);*
- *interacting with others – including listening, understanding of how the other participants are feeling, a knowledge of how linguistically to take turns or allow others to do so;*
- *on-the-spot information processing – i.e. processing the information the listener is told the moment he/she gets it. (Harmer 2001: 271).*

From Harmer’s point of view, the ability to wage oral communication, it is necessary that the participant possesses knowledge of language features, and the ability to process information and language on the spot. Language features involve four areas – connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language.

Supposing that the speaker possesses these language features, processing skills, ‘mental/social processing’, will help him or her achieve successful communication goals.

2.1.5. Strategies for improving learners’ spoken language

Teachers should make more efforts in teaching speaking strategies as a part of the teaching process in order to help their students become strategic and independent. Generally, teachers are not only language instructors but also diagnosticians, learner trainers, cooperators, researchers, and so on. To help students grow into an independent, responsible, strategic learner, teachers should first reinforce the student's awareness of strategy use.

2.1.5.1. Discover learners’ learning styles

Learning styles are an important factor influencing language learning. Keefe (1979) cited in Ellis (1994) defined learning styles as “the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment... Learning style is consistent way of functioning, that reflects underlying causes of behavior” (p. 499).

Several researchers already noticed the relationship between learning styles and English learning. Brown (2002) states that successful language learners usually understand their own learning styles and preferences, know which styles help them and use those styles, and know which styles might hurt them and change or avoid those styles.

2.1.5.2. Increase learners’ language input

Krashen (1985) stated that teachers should provide true input to the second language acquisition. Most second language researchers also stated that acquisition of a second language depended not just on exposure to the language but also on access to L2 input that was modified

in various ways to make it comprehensible. Schachter (1983) sees that comprehensible input is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition. According to Cummins (1988), four characteristics of optimal input for comprehension are summarized as follows: (1) optimal input is comprehensible; that is, the message is understandable to the learner regardless of his or her level of L2 proficiency; (2) optimal input is interesting and/or relevant; (3) optimal input is not grammatically sequenced; and (4) optimal input must be sufficient in quantity, although it is difficult to specify just how much is enough.

2.1.5.3. Promote learners' speaking in the classroom

According to Yue (2005), teachers should take measures to promote students to speak in the language classroom. He lists the following six ways: (1) choose meaningful topics involving information gap; (2) give clear understandable instruction; (3) monitor pair/group work in a sensitive way; (4) encourage students to speak with consideration of introversion and extroversion; (5) lower anxiety, create a relaxed atmosphere; (6) train students to use communicative strategies.

2.1.5.4. Overcoming learners' affective shock

For Krashen (1985) and his affective filter hypothesis, successful second language acquisition depends on the learner's feelings. Negative attitudes (including a lack of motivation or self-confidence and anxiety) are said to act as a filter, preventing the learner from making use of input, and thus hindering success in language learning. Weiping Wen (1998) points that one of the important things that teachers must do is to eliminate the learners' affective shock. Zhao (2005) stresses that a lot of ESL/EFL students are afraid of speaking English. They worry about a lot of things such as losing face when they make mistakes, being laughed at by others and so on. The more they worry, the more language input

filtration they have, and the worse they can speak. In order to improve the English level of ESL/EFL students, the teachers should reform their teaching models, instruments and evaluating systems to help students relieve their affective shock.

2.1.6. Activities to promote speaking

ESL teachers should create a classroom environment where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language. This can occur when students collaborate in groups to achieve a goal or to complete a task.

2.1.6.1. Role Play

One other way of getting students to speak is role-playing. Students pretend they are in various social contexts and have a variety of social roles. Harmer (1984) in role-play activities, the teacher gives information to the learners such as who they are and what they think or feel. Thus, the teacher can tell the student that "You are David, you go to the doctor and tell him what happened last night, and so and so.

2.1.6.2. Simulations

Simulations are very similar to role-plays but what makes simulations different than role plays is that they are more elaborate. In simulations, students can bring items to the class to create a realistic environment. For instance, if a student is acting as a singer, she brings a microphone to sing and so on. Role plays and simulations have many advantages. First, since they are entertaining, they motivate the students. Second, as Harmer (1984) suggests, they increase the self-confidence of hesitant students, because in role play and simulation activities, they will have a different role and do not have to speak for themselves, which means they do not have to take the same responsibility.

2.1.6.3. Information Gap

In this activity, students are supposed to be working in pairs. One student will have the information that other partner does not have and the partners will share their information. Harmer (1984) affirms that information gap activities serve many purposes such as solving a problem or collecting information. Also, each partner plays an important role because the task cannot be completed if the partners do not provide the information the others need. These activities are effective because everybody has the opportunity to talk extensively in the target language.

2.1.6.4. Brainstorming

On a given topic, students can produce ideas in a limited time. Depending on the context, either individual or group brainstorming is effective and learners generate ideas quickly and freely. Baruah (1991) argues that the good characteristic of brainstorming is that the students are not criticized for their ideas, so students will be open to sharing new ideas.

2.1.6.5. Storytelling

McDonough and Shaw (2003) suggest that students can briefly summarize a tale or story they heard from somebody beforehand, or they may create their own stories to tell their classmates. Story telling fosters creative thinking. It also helps students express ideas in the format of beginning, development, and ending, including the characters and setting a story has to have. Students also can tell riddles or jokes. For instance, at the very beginning of each class session, the teacher may call a few students to tell short riddles or jokes as an opening. In this way, not only will the teacher address students' speaking ability, but also get the attention of the class.

2.1.6.6. Interviews

Chaney and Burk (1998) see that students can conduct interviews on selected topics with various people. It is a good idea that the teacher provides a rubric to students so that they know what type of questions they can ask or what path to follow, but students should prepare their own interview questions. Conducting interviews with people gives students a chance to practice their speaking ability not only in class but also outside and helps them becoming socialized. After interviews, each student can present his or her study to the class. Moreover, students can interview each other and "introduce" his or her partner to the class.

2.1.6.7. Picture Describing

Staab (1992) views that another way to make use of pictures in a speaking activity is to give students just one picture and having them describe what it is in the picture. For this activity students can form groups and each group is given a different picture. Students discuss the picture with their groups, then a spokesperson for each group describes the picture to the whole class. This activity fosters the creativity and imagination of the learners as well as their public speaking skills.

2.1.6.8. Discussions and debates

According to Brown & Yule (1983) after a content-based lesson, a discussion can be held for various reasons. The students may aim to arrive at a conclusion, share ideas about an event, or find solutions in their discussion groups. Before the discussion, it is essential that the purpose of the discussion activity is set by the teacher. In this way, the discussion points are relevant to this purpose, so that students do not spend their time chatting with each other about irrelevant things. For example, students can become involved in agree/disagree discussions. In this type of discussions, the teacher can form groups of students,

preferably 4 or 5 in each group, and provide controversial sentences like “people learn best when they read vs. people learn best when they travel”. Then each group works on their topic for a given time period, and presents their opinions to the class. It is essential that the speaking should be equally divided among group members. At the end, the class decides on the winning group who defended the idea in the best way. This activity fosters critical thinking and quick decision making, and students learn how to express and justify themselves in polite ways while disagreeing with the others.

For efficient group discussions, it is always better not to form large groups, because quiet students may avoid contributing in large groups. The group members can be either assigned by the teacher or the students may determine it by themselves, but groups should be rearranged in every discussion activity so that students can work with various people and learn to be open to different ideas. Lastly, in class or group discussions, whatever the aim is, the students should always be encouraged to ask questions, paraphrase ideas, express support, check for clarification, and so on.

2.2. Teaching Language Strategies

Some language learners are more successful than others in second or foreign language learning, and some learners have individual learning behaviours that others do not. These inconsistencies have created an attractive topic for researchers to pursue in the areas of second and foreign language learning. Foreign or second language learning strategies are specific language learning behaviours that ESL students consciously use in order to improve their target language. The purpose of this research is to investigate the impact of strategies based-instruction on speaking foreign language of Sudanese university students at Sudan University of Science and Technology, Ahfad University for Women and University of Gazira at tertiary level.

2.2.1. Strategies based-instruction

There has been a prominent shift within the field of language learning and teaching with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. In parallel to this new shift of interest, how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information has been the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of foreign language learning.

In a helpful survey article, Weinstein & Mayer (1986) define language strategies broadly as behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning which are intended to influence the learner's encoding process. Later, Mayer (1988) more specifically defined learning strategies as behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information.

The term language learning strategy has been defined by many researchers. According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), learning strategies

are any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Richards and Platt (1992) state that learning strategies are intentional behaviour and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.

Claus and Casper (1983) stress that learning a strategy is an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language. According to Stern (1992), the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques. All language learners use language learning strategies either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom.

Cohen et al (1998) see that strategies based instruction are those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or FL, through the storage, recall and application of information about that language.

Oxford et al (1990) illustrate that language learning strategies are specific actions or techniques that learners use to assist their progress in developing second or foreign language skills.

For O'Malley & Chamot et al (1990) strategies are the tools for active, self-directed involvement needed for developing L2 communicative ability.

Since language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks

given by their instructors, learners' attempts to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using language learning strategies is inescapable.

2.2.2. Teaching and Learning language strategies

Now, it is widely accepted that language teaching should be learner-centered. The focus of teaching is making available better learning for learners. It is believed that and according to Oxford (1990), training students with strategies can be an efficient way of heightening learners' awareness to use language learning strategies and it enables learners to what, how, when, where and why strategies can be used so that learners can become better learners and be prepared for lifelong learning as autonomous and self-directed learners. Identification of the strategies that learners already use, however, is a perquisite procedure for implementing the training successfully.

Dickinson (1987) argues that the only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives the basis security.

Meanwhile, there is a noteworthy fact that a learner is an individual with his or her unique differences such as age, sex, learning needs, abilities, feeling, styles, strategies, etc. Learning on the other hand, takes place in various contexts. Apparently, all these factors would have considerable effect on language learning as well as language learning strategies. Oxford also thinks that depending upon the humanistic view of education, before training the learners to use strategies one must take into account all the factors that affect the use of language learning strategies if learners are put into the first place in teaching. Then training will be useful and language learning strategies will make learning easier, faster,

more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations.

Cohen (1998) sees that strategies are the purposeful actions and thoughts that we engage in when we want to understand, store and remember new information and skills. Benson (2001) points that strategy instruction is mainly concerned with helping learners become better language learners by inducing behavioural and psychological changes that will enable learners to take greater control over their learning. In this sense, Graham (1997) believes that the major advantage of strategy instruction is essentially self-examination and insight into control over one's own learning.

2.2.2.1. Teaching language strategies

One of the most important and at the same time controversial issues over the past few decades has been teachability of communication strategies. Most experienced teachers believe that a prevalent problem that a lot of language teachers and learners face is learners' reluctance to participate in conversations and other speech events. Hence, they would rather shift to their native language to get their messages across or try to be silent which leads to a communication break. Although this disinclination can be attributed to such affective factors as lack of motivation or self-confidence and embarrassment or to such external factors like impractical language teaching methods and materials, Wenden (1986) debates that it can mostly be the result of lack of communicative strategies necessary for ESL learners when faced with communication problems.

Teachers who experimented and integrated learning strategies in their teaching are convinced that strategies can be taught through direct instruction and over time students will maintain and transfer them to new tasks when necessary.

The intent of language learning strategies instruction is to help all the students become better language learners. Rubin (1975) affirms that when the students begin to understand their own learning process and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self-knowledge and skill in regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of good learners, including good language learners .

Good language learners are more strategic than less effective language learners. Paris (1988) sees that unsuccessful language learners, on the other hand, while not necessarily unaware of strategies, having difficulties in choosing the best strategy for a specific task. According to Zimmerman (1990), students who are more strategic learners are more motivated to learn and have a higher sense of self-efficacy, or confidence on their own learning ability.

The goal of this kind of instruction is to help foreign language students become more aware of the ways in which they learn most effectively, ways in which they can enhance their own comprehension and production of the target language, and ways in which they can continue to learn on their own and communicate in the target language after they leave the language classroom. So, strategies-based instruction aims to assist learners in becoming more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the target language. It also aims to assist them in becoming more effective learners by allowing them to individualize the language learning experience.

2.2.2.2. The importance of strategy instruction for ESL learners

Strategy instruction can help learners:

- Explore different ways so that they can learn the target language effectively and improve language learning performance, Wenden & Rubin (1987); Chamot et al (1990); O'Malley & Chamot (1990); Oxford (1990); Cohen (1998).
- Become more self-directed, autonomous via the improved use of strategies, Wenden (1991); Oxford & Leaver (1996); Graham (1997); Cohen (1998); Ellis. (1999).
- Become more aware of their own learning processes and in turn increase the willingness and ability to manage their own learning, Chamot et al (1993); Chamot et al (1996); Nyiokos (1996).
- Extend effective strategies to other subject areas, Oxford (1990); Wenden (1991); Chamot et al (1990); Chamot et al (1993); Cohen (1998); Chamot et al (1999).
- Enhance motivation, Chamot et al (1990); Wenden (1991,1998); Chamot et al (1996).
- Remove anxiety, reduce uncertainty and foster self-confidence, Nyikos (1996).

Explicit teaching of the strategies provides an alternative to blind instruction (a method where students are taught what to do, but the instruction usually ends). Explicit instruction, however, attempts not only to show students what to do, but also why, how, and when. So, instruction helps students develop independent strategies for coping with the kinds of comprehension problems they are asked to solve in their lives in schools. As a result, learners become successful ones in their everyday lives.

2.2.2.3. Considerations before applying language strategies in classroom

Before applying language strategies in the classroom, Oxford (1992) views that the teachers have to study their teaching context then applying language strategies in their classroom. They have to reflect and encourage their students' reflection on the teaching/learning context. Teachers are to take into account students' cultural context, as there is a relationship between strategy preferences and learners' cultural background, which can have an impact on strategy choice and training. The teacher is recommended to use several different strategy assessment methods to best collect data for students' development use in language learning strategies.

2.2.2.3.1. Investigate the teaching-learning situation

Oxford (1992) points that teachers have to take into account:

- (1) Their students' aptitudes, attitudes, needs, and interests; also they should consider learners' motivations and attitudes concerning the leaning of new language and the improvement of existing ones.
- (2) Their teaching methods and how to enhance their students' language learning strategies, the choice of strategies for training "based on the following criteria: related to needs of the learners; more than one kind of strategy; useful and transferable strategies; different degrees of difficulty (e.g. not all complex strategies at once)"
- (3) The syllabus and how to integrate language learning strategies in the teaching learning context. The teacher has to: "Prepare materials and activities for training strategies. Learners can also contribute to the materials collections or development. Make sure that materials and activities are interesting and varied.

2.2.2.3.2. How language strategies should be trained?

Green and Oxford (1995) see that teachers can succeed in training learners to use language learning strategies through combining explicit and implicit means. Accordingly, language strategies should be trained using a coherent, step-by-step model. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that strategy training or learner training must deal with issues like degree of motivation (high or low), kind of motivation (instrumental, integrative, etc., related to purpose for language learning), and attitudes (toward self, teacher, peers, target language, and target culture).

2.2.2.3.3. Reflect on the teaching learning context

Huang and Van Naerssen (1987); Ellis and Sinclair (1989) see that teachers should create a learning environment where learners feel they can experiment with their language learning. Before they ask their students to reflect on their learning, teachers have to reflect on their teaching-learning context. Nunan (1989: 36) suggests that the teachers can ask themselves questions such as “Is there a conflict between classroom activities I favour and those my learners prefer? Do my best learners share certain strategy preferences that distinguish them from less efficient learners?”. Training in metacognitive strategies should include both awareness raising or reflection on the nature of learning and training in the strategies/skills necessary to plan, monitor and evaluate learning activities. Teachers can ask students to reflect on how the strategies facilitate their learning process and encourage self-evaluation and reflection by asking students to assess the effectiveness of strategies used.

2.2.2.3.4. General procedures for teaching language strategies

Oxford (1992) ;Cohen (2003); Winograd and Hare (1988) as researchers in language learning strategies, propose the following

classroom strategy training that the teacher can apply within the context of language tasks .

1. Explain to students that you will show them specific techniques that they can use on their own to improve their English. Inform them that many of these techniques were suggested by successful language learners, and that if they use them, they too will be successful language learners.
2. Tell students why they are learning about the strategy. Explaining the purpose of the lesson and its potential benefits seems to be a necessary step for moving from teacher control to student self-control of learning.
3. Describe, model and give examples of potentially useful strategies.
4. Teach the strategy in conjunction with a typical class activity, such as listening comprehension, pronunciation drills, grammar practice, or reading and writing lessons.
5. Elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences.
6. Delineate appropriate circumstances under which the strategy may be employed. Teachers may describe inappropriate instances for using the strategy.
7. Lead small-group and whole-class discussion about strategies.
8. After the strategy has been practiced in class, ask students to practice it on their own outside of class. Suggest specific situations in which they could practice the strategy, and ask for their own suggestions for additional situations.
9. Encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.
10. Integrate strategies into everyday class material, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice.
11. Have students report on their use of the strategy outside of class.

12. Remind students about using a learning strategy when you introduce new material and make assignments.

13. Check with students after exercise or assignment to find out if they remembered to use a learning strategy. Show students how to evaluate their successful/unsuccessful use of the strategy, including suggestions for fix-up strategies to resolve remaining problems.

2.2.2.3.5. Strategy assessment procedures

There are different assessment tools available for teachers that cover the strategies used by foreign/second language students. These tools include observations, interviews, surveys, self-reports, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures. Each one of these assessment tools has their advantages and disadvantages, as analyzed by Oxford (1990) ; Cohen and Scott (1996).

Some strategy assessment tools are:

2.2.2.3.5.1. Think-aloud

Hosenfeld (1976) introduces the ‘think aloud’ introspective process to determine what strategies learners use while performing language tasks. Sarig (1987) classifies the data from the think-aloud reports into four general types of behaviours or responses: (1) technical aid, (2) clarification and simplification, (3) coherence detection, and (4) monitoring moves.

2.2.2.3.5.2 Strategy checklists

Cohen and Weaver (1998) see that checklists can be designed to elicit data on self-reported frequency of strategy use at three points in time: before, during and after the task.

2.2.2.3.5.3. Diaries

Oxford (1992) believes that diaries can be structured or unstructured, can be written for self or for sharing, can focus on affective side as well as on strategies, can be directed by the teacher or not.

2.2.2.3.5.4. Comparison of strategy assessment types

Oxford (1996) compares a number of strategy assessment methods, as in table (1) below:

Table (2.2) Comparison of strategy assessment types (Oxford, 1996)

Type of assessment	Appropriate uses	Limitations of use
Strategy questionnaires	Identify 'typical' strategies used by an individual; can be aggregated into group results; wide array of strategies can be measured by questionnaires.	Not useful for identifying specific strategies on a given language task at a given time.
Observations	Identify strategies that are readily observable for specific tasks.	Not useful for unobservable strategies (e.g. reasoning, analysing, mental self-talk) or for identifying 'typical' strategies.
Interviews	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period or more 'typically' used strategies;	Usually less useful for identifying 'typical' strategies because of how interviews are conducted,

	usually more oriented toward task-specific rather than 'typical' strategies of an individual; depends on how interview questions are asked.	but could be used for either task-specific or 'typical' strategies.
Dialogue journals, diaries	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period.	Less useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.
Recollective narratives (language learning histories)	Identify 'typical' strategies used in specific settings in the past.	Not intended for current strategies; depends on memory of learner.
Think-aloud protocols	Identify in-depth the strategies used in a given, ongoing task.	Not useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.
Strategy checklists	Identify strategies used on a just-completed task.	Not useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.

2.2.2.4. Strategy training

The aim of strategy training is to empower learners by allowing them to take control of the language learning process. Strategy training does not just leave learners to randomly use whatever strategies they have developed on their own, but it aids them to become consciously aware of what strategies might be useful in a given learning situation.

Oxford & Leaver (1996) summarize the whole issues involved in strategy training. The goal of strategy training is to help students become more self directed, autonomous, and effective learners through the improved use of language learning strategies. Strategy instruction teaches students how to be better learners in several specific ways: (1) identifying and improving strategies that are currently used by the individuals; (2) identifying strategies that the individual might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, and then teaching those strategies; (3) helping students learn to transfer strategies across language tasks and even across subject fields; (4) aiding students in evaluating the success of their use of particular strategies with specific tasks; and (5) assisting subjects in gaining learning style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instinctively used by students with other learning styles.

2.2.2.4.1. Goals of Strategy Training

According to Cohen (1998), the most important goals of strategy training are:

- Self-diagnose of strengths and weaknesses in language learning
- Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently
- Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills
- Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies
- Make decisions about how to approach a language task
- Monitor and self-evaluate their performance
- Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts

Strategies can be categorized as either language learning or language use strategies. Language learning strategies are conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language. They

include cognitive strategies for memorizing and manipulating target language structures, metacognitive strategies for managing and supervising strategy use, affective strategies for emotional reactions to learning and for lowering anxieties, and social strategies for enhancing learning, such as cooperating with other learners and seeking to interact with native speakers.

Language use strategies come into play once the language material is already accessible, even in some preliminary form. Their focus is to help students utilize the language they have already learned. Language use strategies include strategies for retrieving information about the language already stored in memory, rehearsing target language structures, and communicating in the language despite gaps in target language knowledge.

2.2.2.4.2. Strategy training models

In an overview of strategy training studies, Cohen (1998) discusses three main instructional frameworks developed respectively by Pearson and Dole (1987), Chamot and O'Malley (1994) and Oxford et al (1990). All these three frameworks are designed to make students aware of the rationale behind strategy use and to give them opportunities to practice strategies and discuss their value. The frameworks' approach differ, however, in terms of the amount of prior strategic knowledge students are expected to have, and the degree of self-direction they can apply when carrying out a training activity.

In Pearson and Dole's(1987) approach, isolated strategies are first modeled by the teacher, then their value is explained and finally students practice them in activities. In this approach, learners do not need to be acquainted with strategy use and they are guided by the teacher's directions during the whole process. The teacher's role is that of

controller and manager. In contrast, Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) and Oxford et al.'s (1990) frameworks place priority on the learners' own experience and the teacher's role is that of a facilitator helping learners become more aware of and responsible for their learning. Where these two approaches differ is in the degree of familiarity learners already have with language learning strategies.

Chamot and O'Malley's framework (1994) is applicable to students who have already had some practice in strategy use and development and requires learners to engage in strategy planning from the very beginning of an activity. Oxford et al.'s (1990) approach, on the other hand, starts from learners' language experience and can be undertaken with students who are not familiar with strategic learning. In this approach, the sequence of strategy training is as follows: students first conduct an activity and discuss how they did it; then, under the teacher's guidance, they reflect on the usefulness of strategies selected and consider how they can improve their own use of current strategies or employ new ones.

Oxford et al.'s (1990) approach to strategy training provided the framework for the development of the language learning strategies training model as it requires students' active involvement in the training process, but it is also suitable to learners unfamiliar with strategic learning. Moreover its learner-centred focus also seems to be in agreement with what Gaudiani (1981) considers to be the basic principles of a participatory language classroom, where great importance is placed on students' involvement in their learning progress; and a supportive classroom is created in which responsibilities are shared. According to Cohen (1998); Oxford (1990); Wenden (1991), a learner-centred strategy training approach is considered to encourage more effective student participation in learning, where students first discover about themselves as learners and then reflect on how to better manage

their learning. It also promotes a teacher-student rapport that is based on a dialogue, where teachers assume the role of change agents and help their students become more independent in a supportive and challenging way.

In addition to the above considerations, the development of the training model was informed by two observations particularly relevant to the teaching context in first-year Italian at Griffith University. Firstly, given that training in language learning strategies should lead students to self-direct their learning, their involvement at the very start of the training process can facilitate the transition from guided practice to self-directed strategy use. And secondly, as Cohen (1990) and Allwright (1999) see, if the aim is to promote life-long learning in the classroom, then participants should be involved in deciding what they need to focus on in their learning.

2.2.2.4.3. The teacher's role in strategy training

Lessard-Clouston (1997) believes that the language teacher aiming at training his students in using language learning strategies should learn about the students, their interests, motivations, and learning styles. The teacher can learn what language learning strategies students already appear to be using, observing their behaviour in class. Do they ask for clarification, verification or correction? Do they cooperate with their peers or seem to have much contact outside of class with proficient foreign language users? Besides observing their behaviour in class, the teacher can prepare a short questionnaire so that students can fill in at the beginning of a course to describe themselves and their language learning. Thus, the teacher can learn their favourite / least favourite kinds of class activities, and the reason why they learn a language. The teacher can have an adequate knowledge about the students, their goals, motivations, language learning strategies, and their understanding of the course to be taught.

It is a fact that each learner within the same classroom may have different learning styles and varied awareness of the use of strategies. The teacher cannot attribute importance to only one group and support the analytical approach or only give input by using the auditory mode. Hall (1997) views that the language teacher should, therefore, provide a wide range of learning strategies in order to meet the needs and expectations of his students possessing different learning styles, motivations, strategy preferences, etc. Therefore, it can be stated that the most important teacher's role in foreign language teaching is the provision of a range of tasks to match varied learning styles.

In addition to the students, the language teacher should also analyze his textbook to see whether the textbook already includes language learning strategies or language learning strategies training. The language teacher should look for new texts or other teaching materials if language learning strategies are not already included within his materials.

The language teacher should also study his own teaching method and overall classroom style. Analyzing his lesson plans, the teacher can determine whether his lesson plans give learners chance to use a variety of learning styles and strategies or not. Lessard-Clouston (1997) thinks that the teacher can also see whether his teaching allows learners to approach the task at hand in different ways or not. The language teacher should be aware of whether his strategy training is implicit, explicit, or both. It should be emphasized that questioning himself about what he plans to do before each lesson and evaluating his lesson plan after the lesson in terms of strategy training, the teacher can become better prepared to focus on language learning strategies and strategy training during the process of his teaching.

2.2.2.5. Options for providing strategy-based instruction

Cohen (1999) believes that strategy-based instruction is seen as perhaps the most effective means of getting the message about strategies out to the consumers - the language learners. Other means may have some impact, but they lack the element of continued focus over time.

Strategy-based instruction is a learner-centered approach which integrates strategy training with embedded strategy practice in the foreign language classroom with the ultimate goal of helping students become more effective and efficient foreign language learners. It tries to include explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content. According to Cohen (1999) strategy-based instruction has two major components:

1. Students are explicitly taught how, when and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning.
2. Strategies are integrated in everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded in the language tasks.

Thus, learners experience the advantages of systematically applying strategies to the learning and the use of the language they are studying. Furthermore, they have opportunities to share their own preferred strategies with the other students in the class and to increase their strategy repertoire within the context of the typical language tasks that they are asked to perform.

Cohen (1998) points out that in a typical strategy based instruction situation, the teachers:

- I. Describe, model and give examples of potentially useful strategies.
2. Elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experience.

3. Lead small- group/whole-class discussions about strategies (e. g. reflecting on the rationale behind strategy use, planning the approach to a specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies).
4. Encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.
5. Integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly or implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice.

2.2.2.6. Other ways of providing strategy instruction

A number of different instructional models for foreign language learning strategy programs have already been developed and put into practice in various educational settings. The following options bring strategy instruction directly to the students and range from general study skills development separate from the language course to strategy training integrated into foreign language classes.

2.2.2.6.1. Awareness training by lectures

Also known as consciousness raising or familiarization training. Oxford (1990) describes awareness training as a program in which participants become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language task. Dickinson (1992) emphasizes two kinds of learner awareness necessary for effective foreign language learning strategy instruction: language awareness (knowledge that makes it possible to talk about and describe language) and language learning strategy (knowledge about some of the factors that influence the learning process). According to Cohen (1992) when one talks about strategy awareness, one is referring to the learners' understanding of his or her

own strategy application – how he or she takes in new language material, encodes it, and transform it to make it usable for actual communication.

2.2.2.6.2. General study skills

Ellis & Sinclair (1989) points that they are programs that help students develop general study skills, clarify their educational goals and values and diagnose individual learning preferences. These programs are intended for students who are on academic probation, but they can also target successful students who want to improve their study habits.

Many of these general academic skills, such as using flash cards, overcoming anxiety, and developing good note-taking skills, can be transferred to the process of learning a foreign language. Weaver and Susan J (1994) view that these courses are sometimes designed to include language learning as a specific topic of focus in order to highlight how learning a foreign language may differ from other types of a academic course work. Foreign language students can be encouraged to participate in these courses to develop general learning strategies.

According to Cohen (1990), these kinds of programmes are really helpful for more motivated students, who have experienced transferring learning skills across subjects, and can also assist learners in the development of a general awareness of the learning process. Participating students may become more efficient language learners even though the training is not provided within a contextualized learning setting. However, general study skills courses may not be sufficient training for the tasks demands of learning a foreign language, though may be the answers for universities without the funding necessary to provide specialized learning strategies instruction for students enrolled in foreign language classes”.

2.2.2.6.3. The workshops strategy

Willing (1988); Hajer & Meestringa, Young, & Oxford (1996) agree that short workshop can be devoted to increase overall learners awareness of learning strategies through various consciousness-raising and strategy assessment activities. They can be organized as a series of events to address the improvement of specific language skills (e. g. speaking, reading, etc....) or for learning a specific foreign language. These courses can be offered as noncredit classes for anyone interested in language learning, or can be required as a part of a language or academic skills course. Often these workshops offer a combination of lecture, hands-on practice with specific strategies for various language task, and discussion about general effectiveness of systematic strategy use, in addition to awareness training.

An example of this method is the “Workshop Series in Language Learner Training” offered in consultation with the Learning and Academic Skills Centre at the University of Minnesota. All the university students were invited to attend one or more of the sessions, each of which focused on distinct aspects of the language learning process. The series include topics such as “Speaking to communicate” and “Reading to Comprehension”. These workshops provide students with theoretical and empirical bases for learning strategy use, hands-on activities using general and specific strategies and a bibliography of resources for further self study. The participants also had opportunities for extensive small group discussions concerning problems that students often face in university-level language classrooms, ways to improve overall strategy use, the transfer of strategies to other language tasks, and goal-setting suggestions. Response to these workshops was overwhelmingly positive, and the students themselves have requested that more workshops provided on a regular basis. The students were able to work with specific

language skills, practice the strategies with direct feedback from the workshop leader, and ask for advice about improving strategy use.

The main advantage of this option is that each workshop can be devoted to a specific topic or skill and offered on an ongoing basis. Although a single workshop may be the only available option, a series of workshops may best meet the needs of a particular institution. If these workshops are provided over a period of time, they can reinforce the strategy training by serving to remind the students on an ongoing basis of the importance of strategy applications. In addition, students may want to attend only those sessions related to the language they are studying or those that address their immediate language needs. As with general awareness training, these workshops can be offered to address general strategy applications, and thus be useful across language programs, although they can be tailored to the needs of a particular language program.

2.2.2.6.4. Peer tutoring

According to Holec (1988), peer tutoring is a direct language exchange program in which pairs of students of different native language backgrounds work together for mutual tutoring sessions where students have regular meetings, that they alternate the roles of both learner and teacher, and that the two languages be practiced separately and in equal amount. Holec reports that feedback from participating students has been very positive, noting that the majority found the meeting to be less stressful than regular class sessions.

Another way to structure peer tutoring sessions is to encourage students who are studying the same language to organize regular target-language study groups. Students who have already completed the language course may also be invited to attend the sessions to maintain their fluency in the language. The less proficient students can benefit from the

language skills of the more advanced students and ask for the kind of strategy they could use. The advanced students will benefit from the extra language practice and can become more aware of how they apply strategies to their language learning.

2.2.2.6.5. Videotaped mini-courses

Rubin (1975) developed an interactive videodisk program and accompanying instructional design for adults (high school and above) to use before beginning an introductory-level foreign language course. The one-hour language learning disc was design to raise students' awareness of learning strategies and of learning process in general, to show students how to transfer strategies to new task and to help students take charge of their own progress while learning a language. Using authentic language situations, the instructional program includes twenty foreign languages, and the students can select the topic, and level of difficulty they wish to focus on. The important thing is that the materials are structure to expose language students to various strategies in many different context, and the videodisk is divided into three main sections: the introduction, general language learning strategies and strategies related to reading, active listening and conversation practice.

Although the benefits of this highly interactive program are considerable, several problems are associated with the videodisk. Unfortunately, it has had very limited circulation and thus has not been widely available to university-level foreign language programs. In addition, it requires very specialized technical equipment to operate. However, students can use multimedia package to explore several different aspects of the language learning process to prepare them for the study of foreign language.

2.2.2.6.6. Research-oriented training

This kind of training is usually associated with empirical research. Researchers at several major universities are developing projects designed to assess the result of strategy instruction on students' performance. Generally, Weinstein and Underwood (1985); Chamot and O'Malley(1994) think that an experimental group of foreign language students receives some kind of treatment (i.e., strategy instruction) and is compared with one or more control groups. Often, it is the researcher, and not the regular classroom teacher with the necessary instructional materials to carry out the training program.

While the experimental groups often show marked improvement in language performance, Oxford (1990) reports that the results have been mixed because there are several problems associated with strategy training for research purposes. First not all the students get to participate, and thus only a limited number of students benefit from the strategies instruction. Second, the strategy training is not always contextualized, so students often do not learn how to transfer the new strategies to other learning context.

Because the transferability is an important aspect of any training program, students will not fully benefit from the strategies instruction until they are able to use the strategies effectively across language tasks. In this case the more aware student will benefit most from the instruction. Third, researchers often choose to focus only on certain strategies for specific language skills, rather than conduct extensive training across both tasks and language skills. According to Derry and Murphy (1986), this doesn't provide the learners with sufficient strategy training, although some students may be able to develop new strategy applications of their own.

Despite the problems, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) believe that research-oriented training provides university foreign language program administrators and strategy researchers with empirical data related to the effectiveness of strategy training in authentic language classrooms.

2.2.2.6.7. Strategies in language textbooks

Many foreign language textbooks have begun to embed strategies into their curricula. However, unless the strategies are explained, modeled, or reinforced by the classroom teacher, students may not be aware that they are using strategies at all. A few language textbooks provide strategy-embedded activities and explicit explanations of the benefits and applications of the strategies they address. Because the focus of the activities is contextualized language learning, learners can develop their learning strategy repertoires while learning the target language. Cohen (1998) views that one advantage of using textbooks with explicit strategy training is that students do not need extra curricular training; the textbooks reinforce strategy use across both tasks and skills, encouraging students to continue applying them on their own way.

2.3. Learning Language Strategies

Benson & Gao (2008) think that compared with other individual learner differences, learning strategies can be largely controlled by the learner. This gives the learner freedom and power. Learning strategies offer learners a practical and realistic tool to improve their language proficiency. Because language learning strategies can be adopted by the learner independently, learner's self-efficacy and self-confidence are usually enhanced. The value of language learning and use strategies is tremendous to students, especially if they not only want to meet all the requirements of a rigid university programme, but also to have a more meaningful and enriched academic experience, and to contribute back to their academic communities.

2.3.1. Learning strategies

Dreyer and Oxford (1996); Lightbown and Spada (1999) point that language teachers and researchers have long observed that some learners acquire English as a second or foreign language more quickly and effectively than others. Brown (2000) debates that the nature of this marked discrepancy among learners has captured the attention of practitioners and researchers worldwide and researchers have identified a number of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors as significantly contributing to this variation in second language acquisition.

As emphasized by Cohen (1996) the term strategies has, in fact, been used to refer both to general approaches and to specific actions or techniques used to learn a second language. For example, a general approach could be that of forming concepts and hypotheses about how the target language works. A more specific strategy could be that of improving reading skill in the new language, with again a more specific

approach of coherence-detecting strategies or making use of summaries in order to comprehend reading passages.

When referring to the definition of learning strategies, one sees that there are numerous views in the field, fortunately not lacking certain commonalities. According to Wenden (1987) the interest towards the term, or the initial endeavours to define it, began in the early seventies, when research concerns shifted to learner characteristics and their possible influences on the learning process. Wenden argues that developments in the field of cognitive science and psychology have provided the driving force for the study of learning strategies and adds that the main educational goal of the research was to have more 'autonomous learners' which would especially be effective in the field of language learning.

Wenden (1987:7) describes learning strategies as "... specific actions or techniques used by the learner, to make the learning process more effective". She adds that learning strategies are "problem oriented" and "behaviours that contribute directly to learning", and they may be "consciously deployed... and can become automatized and remain below consciousness" (p.8). Wenden also sees that learning strategies include some actions that may be observable and that some others may not be observable such as making a mental comparison. Finally, she adds that learning strategies are behaviours that are amenable to change, as they can be modified, rejected and unfamiliar ones can be learned.

Rubin (1987) gives the description of learning strategies as the behaviours and thought processes that learners use in the process of learning and she underlines the fact that this definition excludes those variables which may provide a background to learning success, such as:

1. Psychological characteristics: risk-taking, tolerance of ambiguity, field dependence, empathy, and so on.

2. Affective variables: liking or disliking the teacher, the culture, the natives, the state of mind of the learner at the time of learning activity, and so on.

3. Social style: degree of sociability, outgoingness, social competence, and so on, Rubin (1987:19).

2.3.2. Definition of language learning strategies

Rubin (1975: 42), the founder of second language learning strategies research states: “if we knew more about what the ‘successful learners’ did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record”. Since then, there have been some different definitions of learning strategies and systems of classifications. Oxford (1990: 8) defined learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations”. Ellis (2003) points out that learning strategies were deployed to overcome particular learning problems.

Oxford (2008: 41) definition's “goal-orienting” characteristics of strategies: “second language learning strategies are the goal-oriented actions or steps (e.g. plan, evaluate, analyze) that learners take, with some degree of consciousness, to enhance their second language learning”. Finally, White (2008) emphasizes that learners’ role as responsible agents for language learning strategies are commonly defined as the operations or processes which are consciously selected and employed by the learner to learn the target language or facilitate a language task. Strategies offer a set of options from which learners consciously select in real time, taking into account changes occurring in the environment, in order to optimize their chances of success in achieving their goals in learning and using the target language.

The term strategy according to White (2008: 9) “characterizes the relationship between intention and action, and is based on a view of learners as responsible agents who are aware of their needs, preferences, goals and problems.” Based on a survey of international language learning strategy experts, Cohen (2007:37,38) reports that experts generally agree that language learning strategies can be used to “enhance learning”, “perform specified tasks” and “to solve specific problems” language learning strategy experts almost uniformly agree that the effectiveness of learning strategies “very much depend on” individual learner characteristics (such as age, learning styles, motivation and learner beliefs), the learning task at hand, and the learning environment”. This insight shows the ongoing influence of the social-culture perspective in the field, which views learning strategies as a socially and culturally situated phenomenon.

Table (2.3) Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

1.	Stern (1983)	In our view ‘strategy’ is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour.
2.	Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	Learning strategies are the behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process.
3.	Chamot (1987)	Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information.

4.	Rubin (1987:19)	Learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly. They are any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information.
5.	Oxford (1989)	Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable.
6.	O'Malley et al. (1985:23)	Learning strategies are operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information.
7.	Oxford (1990:8)	1. The strategy concept [...] has come to mean a plan, step or conscious action toward achievement of an objective. 2. Language learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning, easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations.
8.	O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	The special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information.
9.	Wenden (1987:6)	1. The term learner strategies [...] refers to language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to regulate the learning of a second language. These language learning behaviours have been called strategies.

		2. The term learner strategies refers to what learners know about the strategies they use, i.e. their strategic knowledge.
10.	Cohen (1998:4)	Learning strategies are processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall and application of information about the language.
11.	Cohen (2003: 278)	1. Strategies are specific behaviours that learners select in their language learning and use. 2. Language <i>learning</i> (Cohen's italics) are the conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviours used by the learners with the explicit aim of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language.
12.	Towel and Hawkins (1994: 226)	Learning strategies are deployed by learners to ensure that they learn.
13.	Nunnan (1999)	The mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language.

2.3.3. Two perspectives on language learning strategies

According to Oxford & Schramm (2007) there are two major perspectives on language learning strategies that have been developed in the field: the psychological view and the social-cultural view. The

psychological view of learning strategies was the “classical view” of learning strategies when the field was originated. It looks at learning strategies as mainly involving cognitive, mental processes that the learner conducts. The use of learning strategies is mostly an individual effort to achieve a language learning goal. The social-cultural view starts with the society instead of the individual learner as its fundamental unit of observation. It is influenced by many theories such as Smagorinsk (2007) “zone of proximal development” model, which describes that learners can learn through contacts or collaboration with a more capable person in a social-cultural context. With this view, Oxford & Schramm (2007) argue that the use of learning strategies is no longer an individualized mental process but a social-cultural phenomenon situated in different contexts.

2.3.4. Taxonomies of learning strategies

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars such as Wenden and Rubin (1987); O'Malley et al (1985); Oxford (1990); Stern (1992); Ellis (1994), etc. However, most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

According to White (2008) the two most influential taxonomies are Oxford (1990) taxonomy of direct (memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies) and indirect strategies (metacognitive, affective and social) and the other is O'Malley and Chamot (1990) list of metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Later on, Oxford (2011) revised the 1990 taxonomy and the new taxonomy includes four categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, affective and social-cultural interaction strategies.

In what follows, Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990), O'Malley's (1985), and Stern's (1992) taxonomies of language learning strategies will be handled:

2.3.4.1. Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Rubin, who pioneers much of the work in the field of strategies, makes the distinction between strategies contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning. According to Rubin, there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are:

- Learning Strategies
- Communication Strategies
- Social Strategies

2.3.4.1.1. Learning Strategies

They are of two main types, being the strategies contributing directly to the development of the language system constructed by the learner:

- Cognitive Learning Strategies
- Metacognitive Learning Strategies

2.3.4.1.1.1. Cognitive learning strategies

They refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identified 6 main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning:

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization

- Monitoring

2.3.4.1.1.2. Metacognitive learning strategies

These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management.

2.3.4.1.2. Communication strategies

They are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are used by speakers when faced with some difficulties due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker.

2.3.4.1.3. Social strategies

Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practise their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language, Rubin and Wenden (1987: 23-27).

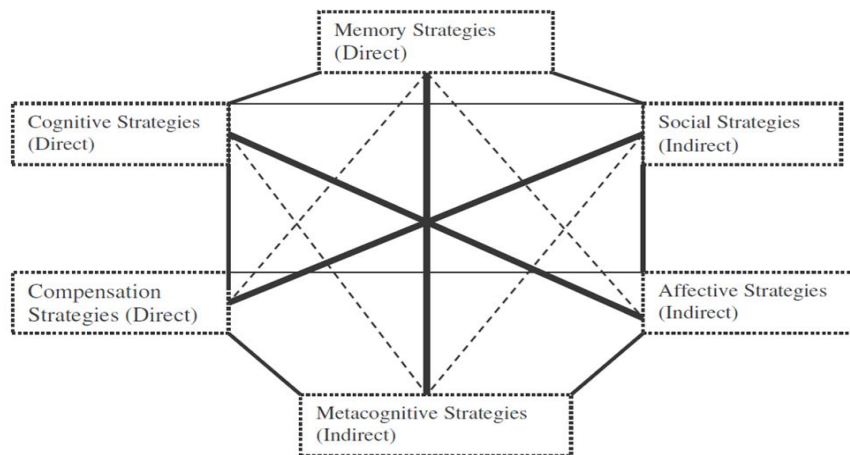
2.3.4.2. Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies

Oxford (1990:9) sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence. Oxford divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into six groups. In Oxford's system, metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the

target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication.

The figure suggested by Oxford (1990) presents a general overview of the system of LLS. Strategies are divided into two major classes: direct and indirect which in turn are subdivided into a total of six groups (memory, cognitive, and compensation under the direct class; metacognitive affective and social under the indirect class). It indicates that direct strategies and indirect strategies support each other, and that each strategy group is capable of connecting with and assisting every other strategy group.

Figure 2.3. Interrelations between direct and indirect strategies among the six strategy groups.



(Oxford's, 1990:17) taxonomy of language learning strategies

2.3.4.2.1. Direct strategies

- I. Memory
 - A. Creating mental linkages
 - B. Applying images and sounds
 - C. Reviewing well
 - D. Employing action

- II. Cognitive
 - A. Practising
 - B. Receiving and sending messages strategies
 - C. Analysing and reasoning
 - D. Creating structure for input and output
- III. Compensation strategies
 - A. Guessing intelligently
 - B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

2.3.3.2.2. Indirect strategies

- I. Metacognitive Strategies
 - A. Centering your learning
 - B. Arranging and planning your learning
 - C. Evaluating your learning
- II. Affective Strategies
 - A. Lowering your anxiety
 - B. Encouraging yourself
 - C. Taking your emotional temperature
- III. Social Strategies
 - A. Asking questions
 - B. Cooperating with others
 - C. Emphathising with others

It can be seen that much of the recent work in this area has been underpinned by a broad concept of language learning strategies that goes beyond cognitive processes to include social and communicative strategies.

2.3.4.3. O'Malley's (1985) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

O'Malley et al. (1985: 582 - 584) divide language learning strategies into three main subcategories:

Metacognitive Strategies

- Cognitive Strategies
- Socioaffective Strategies

2.3.4.3.1. Metacognitive strategies

It can be stated that metacognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the main metacognitive strategies, it is possible to include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation.

2.3.4.3.2. Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

2.3.4.3.3. Socioaffective strategies

As for the socioaffective strategies, it can be stated that they are related to social-mediating activity and transacting with others.

Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socioaffective strategies (Brown, 1987: 93-94).

2.3.4.4. Stern's (1992) classification of language learning strategies

According to Stern (1992:262-266), there are five main language learning strategies. These are as follows:

- Management and Planning Strategies
- Cognitive Strategies
- Communicative - Experiential Strategies
- Interpersonal Strategies
- Affective Strategies

2.3.4.4.1. Management and planning strategies

These strategies are related to the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner can take charge of the development of his own programme when he is helped by a teacher whose role is that of an adviser and a resource person. That is to say that the learner must:

Decide what commitment to make to language learning

- Set himself reasonable goals
- Decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress,
- Evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern (1992:263).

2.3.4.4.2. Cognitive strategies

They are steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. In the following, some of the cognitive strategies are exhibited:

- Clarification / Verification

- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

2.3.4.4.3. Communicative – experiential strategies

Stern (1992:265) states that "communication strategies, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going". The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication.

2.3.4.4.3. Interpersonal strategies

Stern (1992:265-266) thinks learners should monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. They should contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. Learners must become acquainted with the target culture.

2.3.4.4.4. Affective strategies

Stern (1992: 266) debates that "it is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. In some cases, the feeling of strangeness can be evoked by the foreign language. In some other cases, foreign language learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of a foreign language". Good language learners are more or less conscious of these emotional problems. Good language learners try to create associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved. Learning training can help students face up to the emotional difficulties and to overcome them by

drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise.

2.3.5. Speaking strategies

This subsection will discuss definitions and taxonomies of speaking strategies, and also research results about the speaking strategy use of more successful learners.

2.3.5.1. Definitions and taxonomies of speaking strategies

As generally acknowledged by language learners, instructors and researchers, Nakatani and Goh (2007) believes that it is crucially important for language learners to use strategies for helping them engage in social interactions in the target language. Speaking strategies are commonly referred to as communication strategies.

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) provide a comprehensive review of different definitions and taxonomies of communication strategies. They especially mentioned that scholars have divided communication strategies into two groups: achievement strategies which will help the learner achieve original communication goals, and reduction strategies which will help the learner avoid solving a communication problem by altering, reducing or even abandoning the original communication goals.

In another review of communication strategies, Nakatani and Goh (2007) point that research studies on oral communication strategies are based on two perspectives: the interactional and the psycho-linguistic. The interactional perspective focuses on how learners use strategies to help them negotiate meaning and effectively interact with others. Therefore, with this perspective, communication strategies include not only problem solving strategies to compensate for communication disruptions, but also strategies to enhance the message or otherwise to make the communication more effective. For example, negotiation of

meaning is an important communication purpose and the strategies to achieve that include requesting clarification, checking comprehension and confirming.

The psycholinguistic perspective focuses on the mental processes and behaviours of the learner for solving communication problems such as gaps of linguistic knowledge. Therefore, Nakatani and Goh (2007: 208) argue that “most researchers of a psycholinguistic orientation have narrowed the description of communication strategies to lexical-compensatory strategies”.

Strategies for solving communication problems were also traditionally called compensation strategies. Oxford (1990: 37) defined compensation strategies as strategies that “allow learners to use the language despite their often large gaps in knowledge.” Nakatani (2006: 151) explains that “learners can improve communicative proficiency by developing an ability to use specific communication strategies that enable them to compensate for their target language deficiency”. However, scholars also point out that speaking strategies should not be limited to compensation strategies, as Nyikos and Oxford (1993: 11) state: “Learning strategy research expands the strategies competence component of Canale and Swain’s communicative competence model by demonstrating that strategic competence goes beyond mere compensation strategies”.

Other scholars also suggested additional categories of communication strategies. Cohen (1998) divide communication strategies according to the timeline, into “before task”, “during task” and “after task”. Nakatani’s (2006) Communication Strategy Inventory was based on a combination of both the socialcultural perspective and also the psychological perspective. The inventory included two parts: the listening part and the speaking part. The unique feature of this inventory was that it

included nonverbal strategies such as the use of gestures and facial expressions, and strategies learners use to maintain fluency such as paying attention to intonation, rhythm and pronunciation. Vandergrift (1997) also suggested that both verbal and nonverbal strategies should be included into the category of communication strategies. Dörnyei and Scott (1997:178) also expand the definition of communication strategies by adding strategies that help speakers “gain time to think and keep the communication channel open such as using gap-fillers”.

2.3.5.2. Strategies frequently used by more successful language learners

Researches on language learning strategies have focused mainly on descriptive studies that have identified characteristics of the successful language learner and compare the strategies of successful and less successful language learners.

Griffiths (2003) believes that metacognitive and social-affective strategies are the most common strategies that are used by more successful language learners, she conducted a study in a private English language school in Auckland, New Zealand to explore statistically significant relationship between reported strategy use and course level. Griffiths (2003:376) found seven strategies that the students used for speaking. They included metacognitive strategies for seeking out speaking opportunities such as “I look for people I can talk to in English”; social strategies for asking for help such as “I ask for correction when I talk”; and affective strategies for controlling one’s emotions such as “I encourage myself to speak even when afraid”.

Although not with a specific focus on communication strategies, Green & Oxford (1995) discussed the importance of active-use strategies that adopted by more successful language learners. They conducted a

study of 374 learners of different English proficiency levels, contributed important insights regarding the strategy use of more successful learners. Among their findings, one particularly important to the understanding of communication strategy use is based on the new concept of active-use strategies, which is defined as: “strategies that involved active-use of the target language, with a strong emphasis on practice in natural or naturalistic situations” Green & Oxford (1995:287). They found out that almost all of these strategies that were more frequently used by more successful learners were active-use strategies. Using the concept of active-use strategies, Green & Oxford (1995:288) point out: “... there is a causal relationship between strategy use and proficiency level here, and that this relationship is best visualized not as a one-way arrow leading from cause to effect, but rather as an ascending spiral in which active-use strategies help students attain higher proficiency, which in turn makes it more likely that students will select these active-use strategies”.

Based on videotaped classroom, Rubin (1975) suggests that a model of the successful language learner could be identified by looking at the special strategies used by students who were successful in second language learners, and therefore he identified seven strategies that seemed to characterize the good language learner . Stern (1975) also identifies a number of learners’ characteristics and strategic techniques associated with successful language learners and he summarized ten strategies that described the good language learner as follows: planning, active, empathic, formal, experimental, semantic, practice, communication, monitoring and interlization strategies.

Naiman& Frohlich and Todesco (1975) further pursue the notion that the second language learning ability resides at least in part in the strategies one uses for learning, they used semistructured interviews with thirty- five successful students to explore learning strategies that were

commonly used among these good learners. However, they found that their initial expectation of isolating specific learning strategies of successful learners not met, and they concluded that “this approach had not been successful” (p:5). The researchers explained that the systematic patterns of learning behaviour were rarely evidenced in classrooms. Though there is an absence of a firm theoretical framework and successful results, these studies have aroused much interest in examining the behaviours that distinguish between successful and unsuccessful language learners . Taken together, these studies identified the successful language learner as one who has the following characteristics: an active learner; monitors language production; practises communication in the language; uses prior linguistic knowledge; uses various memorization techniques and ask questions for clarification.

Vann & Abraham (1990) point that other studies comparing successful and less successful language students have repeatedly revealed that less successful learners do use learning strategies, sometimes as frequently as their more successful peers, but they use the strategies differently. Green & Oxford (1995) indicated that more successful language learners are aware of the strategies they use and why they use them, and that they generally tailor their strategies appropriate to their own personal needs as learners. According to Oxford & Nyikos (1989) successful students use strategies appropriate to their own stage of learning, personality, age, purpose for learning the language, type of language and gender.

2.3.5.3. Factors influencing the student's choice of language learning strategies

Oxford et al (1990); Chamot and Kupper (1989) argue that 'Good' or 'successful' language learners use a number of effective learning and

communication strategies throughout their language learning experience . The use of these strategies can facilitate interaction, develop communicative competence and increase proficiency in a foreign or second language.

Oxford (2002:127) states that “the research indicates that factors influencing the student's choice of language learning strategies include motivation, career/academic specialization, sex, cultural background, nature of the task, age, learner beliefs and stage of language learning...”. This brief section summarizes what the literature has revealed about the effects of these factors on strategy use.

2.3.5.3.1. Gender and strategy use

Nyikos (1993) pointed out that gender is a complicated variable that interacts with race, social and economic status, and many other factors in a student’s life. Therefore we should not think of gender in its simple biological meaning. Oxford and Ehrman (1995:379) point out that “gender differences may often be a mask for deeper differences of personality type and career choice” and they also suggest that students should be encouraged to develop strategies that are effective for them, without being “pushed into a gender-stereotyped set of strategies”.

Still some scholars did find out some effects of gender. According to Oxford & Ehrman (1995) and recent studies done worldwide, females tend to use more language learning strategies than males do. This is an agreement with the results of a study of a large scale: Oxford & Ehrman (1995) studied highly educated and motivated language learners. Peacock & Ho (2003) studied the language learning strategies of 1,006 EAP (English for Academic Purposes) students in eight different disciplines also has found out that female learners reported significantly higher strategy use in all strategy categories than male students did. As for the reasons behind this possible effect of gender on strategy use,

Pavlenko (2001) suggested that female students consider language learning as a social, interpersonal process more than male students do.

Politzer (1983) examined ninety undergraduate foreign language learners, found a relatively minor difference between male and female learners with females making a greater use of social interaction strategies. Similarly, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) who investigated 1200 undergraduate university learners of French, Spanish, German, Russian and Italian found that females reported more frequent strategy use than males of formal practice strategies (e.g. comparing languages, formulating and revising rules, and analyzing words), general study strategies (e.g. Studying hard, neglecting distractions, being prepared, organizing, and managing time) and conversational input elicitation strategies (e.g. asking to speak slowly, requesting pronunciation correction, and guessing what the speaker will say).

On the other hand, other studies show that males had a greater use of certain strategies than females. Tran (1988) studied the Vietnamese immigrants aged from 40 to 92 in the USA and revealed that males made greater use of strategies to learn and to improve their English language skills than females (e.g. taking English courses, practicing English with American friends and watching television). A second study which revealed that males made greater use of a particular strategy was that of Nyikos (1990). By studying the vocabulary recall of university level beginner learners of German using different combinations of colour and picture stimuli. Nyikos suggested that such strategies were the result of the socialization of males and females and that such differences should be considered when the use of strategies was promoted in language learning.

2.3.5.3.2. Cultural background and strategy use

Bedell (1993) cited in Oxford & Ehrman (1995:365) pointed that “Cultural background, related to ethnicity or nationality, is a key factor in

language learning strategy use”. The main finding was that learners from various cultural backgrounds use certain types of strategies at different levels of frequency. Decades of research generally has found the effects of cultural background on language learning strategies such as Lee (2008), with Psalfou-Joycey (2008)’s research as one recent example. Psalfou-Joycey (2008:310) investigated the strategy use of 177 students who studied Greek as a second language in an academic setting. The results showed that among all the independent variables such as gender, age, language proficiency level and cultural background, cultural background is the “single most powerful variable that indicated significant differences in the choice of learning strategies”.

According to Politzer & McGroarty (1985), Asian students tend to prefer rote memorization strategies and rule-oriented strategies. In their study, they administered a questionnaire to 18 Asian learners (mainly Japanese) and 19 Hispanics (Latin American speakers of Spanish) enrolled in a preparatory course for graduate study in the USA to investigate the relationship between the students’ first language background/ethnicity and their strategy use. The study revealed that Asian students scored lower than the Hispanic learners on the scale of good language behaviours. The researchers concluded that such behaviours represent social interactions in which Asian learners are less likely to engage in than Hispanics. Politzer & McGroarty (1985: 113-114) claim that "classroom behaviours such as asking the teacher, correcting classmates, volunteering answers and other social interaction behaviours such as asking for help and asking others to repeat are apparently more a part of the Western rather than the Asian repertoire".

Lengkanawati (2004) gathered data from 56 students at two universities in Australia learning Indonesian as a Foreign Language and 114 students learning English as a Foreign Language in a university in

Indonesia and found that the differences among the two groups in language learning strategies use were due to differences in their learning culture. Oxford (1994) found Taiwanese students to be more structured, analytic, memory-based, and metacognitively oriented than other groups. Correspondingly, Huang & Van Naerssen (1987); (Tyacke & Mendelsohn (1986) point out that learners of Asian background prefer strategies of rote memorization and that they concentrate on the linguistic code. MacIntyre (1994) also, suggested that the effect of ethnicity as a determinant of strategy use may be more clearly understood by investigating the differences usually associated with the variable rather than with the variable itself.

2.3.5.3.3. Academic fields and strategy use

The field of specialisation has been associated with strategy choice. Oxford & Nyikos (1989) found out that academic disciplines do have effects on strategy use. They found social science/ education/ humanities students used “functional practice” and “resourceful, independent” strategies significantly more often than did students from other disciplines. Peacock & Ho (2003) studied the strategy use of about one thousand students across eight disciplines in a Hong Kong university. They found out that the English students used the most strategies while the computing students used the least. Actually according to Peacock & Ho (2003), other studies also found out that English students used strategies significantly more often than science students.

Politzer & McGroarty (1985) mentioned that learners who were majors in engineering or other physical sciences scored lower than did majors from social sciences and humanities background. However, no firm conclusion was drawn from this study as the distinction between the two groups was very similar, and largely overlapped. In a study of three

groups of learners (professional language trainers, native-speaker language teachers, and students). Ehrman & Oxford (1988) found that professional language trainers reported using a wider variety of strategies than the other groups in the sample, with students reporting less use of all types of strategies.

2.3.5.3.4. Proficiency level and strategy use

Generally, the results of the studies which have investigated the relationship between language proficiency and language learning strategy use indicate that high proficient learners use greater and wider variety of language learning strategies. However, there is no conclusive evidence to suggest a causal relationship between high proficiency and language learning strategy use.

Green & Oxford (1995) conducted a study investigating the strategy use of students at three different language course levels at the University of Puerto Rico. They found out that strategy use is related to proficiency level. However, they found out that only some strategy items showed some significant variations and more importantly, those strategies used more often by more proficient learners emphasized active and naturalistic practice. Peacock & Ho (2003) found out that proficiency level has effects on strategy use, too. Lai (2009) focused on the effects of proficiency level on the strategy use of 418 foreign language learners in Taiwan. She found out that proficiency levels did have significant effects on how students chose and used strategies. She found out that more proficient students used more strategies and also used metacognitive and cognitive strategies more frequently. On the other hand, the less proficient learners preferred social and other memory strategies than metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

Skehan (1989) pointed that in some learners more strategy use might increase proficiency, in others the opposite might be true. Discussing this issue, MacIntyre (1994:188) posed the question “Does the use of certain strategies lead to (cause) improved ability level or does an elevated level of ability lead to the use of different strategies?” and argued that it is difficult to determine whether strategy use contributes to proficiency or proficiency influences strategy selection. Using interviews with under-achieving learners in English language schools in London, Porte (1988) found that they used strategies similar to those used by good language learners. Vann & Abraham (1990) studied the strategies used by unsuccessful learners of academic English in the USA and found that, contrary to expectations, they actively used strategies similar to those employed by successful learners.

In the first part of a three-phase study of strategy use of first, third, fifth and sixth year high school students learning Spanish in the USA, Chamot & Küpper (1989) found that learners at the higher levels reported using more strategies than did the beginners. In the second phase of their longitudinal study of twenty-seven effective and thirteen ineffective learners, they found that more successful learners used language learning strategies more frequently, more appropriately and with greater variety than did the ineffective students.

Collecting data by means of verbal reports from 36 school learners of French in Canada, Anderson & Vandergrift (1996) found that the dominance of cognitive strategy use among all students declined as the level of proficiency increased. They also found that whenever levels of proficiency increased so did the use of metacognitive strategies.

2.3.5.3.5. Age and strategy use

Due to the rarity of longitudinal studies in the area of language learning strategies as they are “virtually non-existent” in the field of

Second Language Acquisition research in general, Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991: 166) think that fewer studies have been found to investigate the use of language learning strategies by different age groups. This is justified by the fact that research is constrained by time limits and is confined to homogeneous samples (e.g. young children, secondary school, university students or adults). Therefore, to see what effect age has on language learning strategy use, one has to draw conclusions from the results of such studies.

A study of young children by Wong-Fillmore (1979) showed that cognitive and social strategies were very important. Chesterfield & Chesterfield (1985) conducted a study on bilingual learners and found that children developed receptive strategies (repetition and memorization) first. Then they developed strategies which allowed them to start and maintain interactions (e.g. attention getting and asking for clarification). Finally, they developed strategies for the identification and monitoring of grammatical errors.

Purdie & Oliver (1999) surveyed 58 Australian primary school children learning English and found that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used and that social strategies ranked next in importance. Kaylani (1996) investigated 255 foreign language learners in Jordan and found that the frequency of use of metacognitive strategies were significantly higher for the more proficient learners.

Ramirez (1986) after identifying successful strategies employed by 105 learners of French at three levels of study (grade 8, grade 9-10 and grade 10-11) in two high schools in New York, concluded that successful learning behaviours were dependent on the task, and that years of study influenced language learning strategy use. The study also showed that certain strategies were employed more than others at different levels of study. White (1993) studied language learning strategy use by specific

age groups of learners of French and Japanese in New Zealand and found that learners aged over thirty used metacognitive self-management strategies more than those who were younger.

2.3.5.3.6. Beliefs and strategy use

Nyikos and Oxford (1993); Horwitz (1987); Bialystok (1981) have revealed that adults tend to hold a number of beliefs related to their language learning, and these beliefs influence the use of language learning strategies both inside or outside the classroom. Horwitz (1987); Wenden (1986) debated that within the field of second language learning the beliefs of language learners may include beliefs on how best to learn a language, that one particular language teaching method is more effective than another, that some languages are more difficult to learn than others, that some learning and communication strategies are inappropriate in certain settings as well as beliefs about themselves (whether positive or negative) as language learners.

From a study conducted with twenty-five students enrolled in part-time language classes in the United States, Wenden (1986b) concluded that these students held certain beliefs related to language learning and that these in turn influenced the type of strategies they used. These beliefs related to their approach to language learning, to how best learn a language and the criteria used to evaluate the effect of a particular strategy. Wenden (1986b: 194) states that "implicit beliefs held by the students, when revealed, were found to influence the use of social strategies and explicit beliefs, namely those related to the evaluation of a particular strategy, had an effect on the learning, communication and social strategies these students used".

Negative beliefs may also have an effect on the type of strategies used by language learners such these beliefs prevent the language learner from using particular learning strategies, which may have otherwise

enhanced their language learning. In a study by Nyikos and Oxford (1993) with 1,200 students from a mid- Western university studying five languages, it was found that the low use of metacognitive and memory building strategies were related to a number of negative beliefs that these students held. These beliefs were linked to how best not to learn a language, that is, 'it is not worthwhile to invest oneself significantly in the learning process when the rewards are not obvious'. Nyikos and Oxford (1993: 19-20) argues that another belief held by students and which is related to memory strategies was that memory strategies are 'mere gimmickry and therefore cannot be legitimately used by serious students'.

Horwitz (1987) has designed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to assess learners' beliefs about language learning. Victori & Lockhart (1995) concentrated on the students' beliefs about strategies' effectiveness. Abraham and Van (1987); Horwitz (1987,1988); Wenden (1986,1987) argued that learners' beliefs about language learning provide an explanation for their selection of specific LLSs. Learners' beliefs about language itself and how it is learned seem to affect their use of strategies.

Yang (1999: 518) found that "foreign language learners' beliefs are significantly related to their use of language learning strategies". He found that those learners with strong self-efficacy beliefs used several types of language learning strategies, and that students' "beliefs about the value and nature of spoken English" were significantly correlated with "more frequent use of formal oral practice strategies".

Riley (1996:155) maintains that "beliefs about a language and how it is learned may form or at least influence learners' behaviour in the process of learning that language". Wen & Johnson (1997: 40) found that belief "variables were very influential and consistent on strategies variables, which led them to recommend that teachers and

syllabus designers have to take into account the learners' preconceived knowledge about learning a language".

2.3.5.3.7. Motivation and strategy use

A number of research studies by Oxford et al (1993); Oxford and Ehrman (1995); Oxford and Nyikos (1989) have looked at the relationship between motivation and the use of language learning strategies by adult learners. This research has revealed that motivation has a causal effect on strategy use and often influences the frequency of strategy use and the type of strategies used by language learners. Seemingly, Oxford et al (1993); Oxford and Nyikos (1989) proved that the more motivated language learner, uses language learning strategies more often than the less motivated language learners.

The reasons why a language learner becomes motivated to learn a language, and continues to be actively involved with language learning for long periods of time may be attributed to any one of various types or kinds of motivation. Research on the motivational orientation of language learners by Oxford and Nyikos (1989); Oxford and Ehrman (1995); Pickard (1995) has distinguished between some significant dichotomies in types of motivation; the most important of these are integrative/instrumental, intrinsic/ extrinsic, Resultative motivation has also been shown to affect the strategy use of adult language learners.

Researchers have found that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation play a role in influencing the use of language learning strategies by adult language learners. Both these motivational orientations relate to the sort of gratification the learner receives or expects to receive from the language learning process and tasks. Intrinsic motivation as Sdorow (1998: 400) states, is essentially 'the desire to perform a task for its own sake', whereas extrinsic motivation 'is the desire to perform a task to gain external rewards, such as, praise, grades, money'. In a qualitative research

projected by Pickard (1995: 35-37) all three case studies were found to be either extrinsically /or intrinsically motivated to learn English. The adult language learners in his study learned English because, for example, they needed English to participate in certain activities, understand certain songs, to be able to read novels and because learning English would create more opportunities abroad. Two of Pickard's case studies were also motivated to learn English because of their love of languages, which indicates that they were intrinsically motivated to learn the language. Pickard (1995) suggests that out-of-class strategy use by each of the case studies was influenced by their motivational orientations.

A qualitative study by Oxford & Ehrman (1995) found that a strong relationship existed between intrinsic motivation and strategy use. The participants in the study 520 were from different US government departments learning a variety of foreign languages and were intrinsically motivated through their desire to use language outside the classroom. The study found that the type of strategies used by these participants was influenced by motivation that was internally generated, with those users who used metacognitive and compensation strategies being intrinsically motivated.

Resultative motivation has also been known to affect the use of language learning strategies in adult language learners. This type of motivation is linked to the learner's level of achievement. Ellis (1994: 515-517) debates that "if a language learner is successfully learning the language and attaining a reasonably high level of achievement then this in itself motivates the language learner even further". In a study by Oxford et al (1993) with 107 high school students learning Japanese through satellite television, this type of motivation was shown to influence language learning strategies used by these students. Oxford et al(1993: 368) found that "the frequency of use of language learning strategies was

definitely linked to student achievement and that the more often the student used a variety of learning strategies, the more motivated he or she became; and the cycle worked the other way, too, with the more motivated students using even more strategies".

2.3.5.3.8. Learning environment and strategy use

Second language learners in the foreign language use a range of learning strategies. These learning strategies facilitate performance in language learning and are related to achievement in the classroom as well as outside the classroom.

2.3.5.3.8.1. Within the classroom

Bialystok (1981); Nyikos and Oxford (1993); O'Malley et al (1985); Mangubhai (1991) think that among learning strategies the most commonly used in the classroom are cognitive, metacognitive and, to a lesser extent, social and affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are predominantly used in the language classroom and are often responsible for achievement in a foreign or second language. O'Malley et al (1985); Chamot and Kupper (1989); Oxford and Nyikos (1993); Vandergrift (1997) argue that foreign language students' use of metacognitive strategies also plays a role in achieving success in learning a second language. In classroom studies language learners rarely use social and affective strategies. Chamot and Kupper (1989: 16) states that evidence suggests that social strategies (e.g. questioning for clarification and verification) and affective strategies (e.g., self-talk and self-reinforcement) have been used in the classroom to facilitate learning in another language.

Research studies by Bialystok (1981); Chamot and Kupper (1989); O'Malley et al (1985); Vann and Abraham (1990) with university students, who are learning a foreign language, have identified a number of learning strategies which are used within the classroom and which are

task-related. For example, in a longitudinal study which was carried out with effective and ineffective advanced Spanish students, revealed that the cognitive strategy of elaboration and the metacognitive strategy of self-monitoring correlated with all tasks completed by participants in the study.

2.3.5.3.8.2. Outside the classroom

Learning strategies used within the classroom, for classroom tasks according to Pickard (1995,1996); Pearson (1988); Wenden (1986); Oxford (1995); Skehan (1989: 73-74) "are not the only strategies that contribute to proficiency in learning another language, out-of class strategies also contribute to the foreign language learner's success in learning a language". Out-of-class strategies may include speaking with native speakers of the target language, creating opportunities for practice with native speakers, other students or peers, listening to the radio, or cassette tapes in the target language or reading newspapers, novels, magazines and watching television or movies in the target language.

Researches by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987); Pearson (1988); Naiman et al (1978) have revealed that functional practice or speaking with other students, peers or native speakers of the target language and involve themselves in communication significantly enhances language learning.

In an early study with good and poor adult language learners, Naiman et al (1978: 17) found that the "successful language learners took responsibility for their language learning, involved themselves in communicating and practiced with others". Similarly, in a study with sixty Chinese students, Huang and Van Naerssen (1987: 291) found that "functional practice equalled success in language learning. That is to say, the students who spoke or practiced with other students, teachers or

native speakers and were willing to take risks and were not afraid of making mistakes made progress in the language”.

Oxford (1995); Pearson (1988) see that another out-of-class strategy which is also said to facilitate language learning is the foreign language learner's ability to seek out practice opportunities. Pearson (1988) studied employees of a major Japanese company and found that the 'successful' or more effective language learners in the study had opportunities to practice with native speakers and they created opportunities to practice with native speakers of the target language. That is, the participants socialized with native speakers, made friends with native speakers and involved themselves in the culture of the country, which created opportunities for further practice.

2.3.5.3.9. Anxiety and strategy use

Brown (1987) explains that a number of different types of anxiety exist and these include: trait, situational (state) and language anxiety (foreign and second). Trait anxiety is linked to personality as by nature a person can be said to be predisposed to anxiety. Situational or state anxiety according to (Ellis (1994: 479) "occurs in response to a specific event or situation", for example, a situation whereby a person finds themselves learning a second or foreign language. Language anxiety is defined by MacIntyre & Gardner (1994: 284) as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning and is usually related to language performance". For Brown (1987: 106; Ellis (1994: 482), anxiety can be either debilitating or facilitating, "Facilitative anxiety can have a positive effect on language learning as the language learner may view a learning task as a challenge to be overcome", whereas "debilitative anxiety may have a negative effect as the language learner may avoid a learning task due to their high level of anxiety".

Research done by MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) clearly demonstrates the effect anxiety has had on the a second language. In their first study, anxious students were slower at learning and recalling was hampered (undertaken in the 1980s), In their second study (carried out in the 1990s) language anxiety again was shown to affect language performance. This study, with students from a first year credit French-as-a-second-language course, measured the effect of anxiety at three stages of language learning; the input, processing and output stages and at each stage students were required to complete language tasks. Findings revealed that at all three stages the student's learning of French was affected by language anxiety. Anxious students had difficulty in retaining information in memory', were slow to recognize words in French, had difficulties with translation and required more time to study a task. A study by Oxford & Ehrman (1995) with 520 adults learning a variety of languages at the Foreign Service Institute in the US has found that users of cognitive strategies were not overly anxious, although there was an element of anxiety about speaking in the classroom. However, this anxiety proved to be more facilitative rather than debilitating. Oxford & Ehrman (1995: 364) claim that there is 'little or no empirical research that has been done linking anxiety and the use of language learning strategies'.

2.4. Previous studies

A lot of studies that written in the area of the impact of strategies based-instruction on speaking a foreign language, will be introduced in this section. However, the researcher selects some of them.

Al-rafee'a Suliman (2010) conducted a study aiming at verifying the strategies used to develop English oral communication skills for Sudanese secondary school students (third-grade). It also aims at identifying the strategies, teachers and students employ when they teach

and learn speaking skills. The researcher adopted the descriptive approach. The teachers' questionnaire was of thirty four questions which was distributed among forty English teachers in twelve boys and girls secondary schools in(Al- Kamleen locality). The questionnaire aims at identifying the strategies English teachers use when they teach English speaking skills. The other questionnaire was distributed among 120 third class students (boys& girls). The questionnaire aims at identifying the strategies students use when they learn speaking skills. The researcher designed two pre and post speaking tests.

The results of speaking test have been analyzed using T-test scale. According to teachers' questionnaires for using speaking strategies , only two strategies were used out of thirteen effective strategies. According to students' questionnaires for using speaking strategies , only two strategies were used out of eighteen effective strategies. There was a clear difference in the speaking pre and post tests' performance. ,which has clearly demonstrated the efficiency of training students on some strategies of speaking skill before asking them to participate in that skill.

A study was conducted by Zeynab Onel (2003) in a state of high school in Istanbul, Turkey. 46 upper-intermediate learners of English were participants in strategies based instructional treatment for 15 weeks and the rest of the group were control students receiving the regular English course in the same period of time. Both groups filled out a pre-treatment questionnaire and then carried out a series of two speaking tasks. The students filled out the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) on a pre-post test basis, as well as completing a Strategy Checklist after performing each of the two tasks. Nineteen of experimental and control group students also provided verbal report data. Analyses of data indicated that students benefited from strategies based

instruction. The degree of their developmental progress differed depending upon their level of English and motivation respectively. It could also be inferred that learners' awareness of where and how to use strategies was increased. They also became more skillful about employing language learning strategies in their English classes. Another conclusion is that the learners not only became more strategic as far as the language tasks were concerned, but also their disposition towards learning in general changed.

Andrew D. Cohen, Susan J. Weaver, and Tao-Yuan Li (1996) conducted a research at Minnesota university about the impact of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language. The sample consisted of 55 students enrolled in intermediate-level foreign language classes at the University of Minnesota, learning French and Norwegian languages. Thirty-two students comprised the experimental group and received strategies-based speaking instruction training . Twenty-three students served as a comparison group. These students represented three different levels of speaking ability in their respective classes, as determined by their instructors. The adopted instruments in the study were The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, Speaking Task Battery and Strategy Checklists. The results of analysis of variance showed that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group on the third of the three speaking tasks. When analyzing task performance by subscales, there was another significant difference, again in favour of the experimental group.

O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner- Manzanares, Kupper and Russo (1985) conducted a research on learning strategies used by intermediate ESL students. This study tried to define and classify strategies used in second language and used retrospective interviews with students learning English as a second language. The participants in the study were seventy students

enrolled in ESL classes during the 1983 Spring semester and twenty-two teachers providing instruction in the classes. Three data collection instruments in gathering information on strategies utilized by students were employed: a student interview guide, which contained questions concerning strategy use; a teacher interview guide focusing on specific language tasks; and classroom observation, the form of which was designed to detect language strategy use in classroom settings. The results of the study had four important implications as follows:

- 1- Although students reported using strategies, they rarely used them on integrative tasks.
- 2- Although the teachers of these students had little awareness of the types of strategies their students actually use and little familiarity with processes by which strategies use could be encouraged, they expressed interest in strategy use.
- 3- The strategies did not appear to be different, suggested that strategic processing can be applied to all areas of learning.
- 4- Strategy use and conscious analysis of learning occur with both classroom and non classroom learning.

A study by Iwai (2006) involved 30 participants receiving one week of strategy instruction and 30 receiving two weeks, with 15 in a control group. The principle finding was that teaching communication strategies has a potential for foreign language learners' declarative knowledge to become procedural knowledge, thus enhancing oral performance.

Another study that has just appeared by Dörnyei (1995) has suggested the feasibility of training learners in the use of communication strategies. The researcher trained high school students in Hungary who were learning English as a foreign language to employ communication strategies. Assessment involved a brief talk on a topic, a description of a cartoon, and a series of Hungarian words to describe or define in English.

Those who received the training showed improvement in both quality and quantity of strategy use. The investigator concluded that it does pay to directly teach communication strategies because as Dörnyei (1995:80) states "they provide the learners with a sense of security in the foreign language by allowing them room to maneuver in times of difficulty. Rather than giving up their message, learners may decide to try and remain in the conversation and achieve their communicative goal".

A study by Nakatani (2005) looked at strategies for oral communication, the degree to which these strategies could be explicitly taught, and the impact of strategy use on communicative ability. In a 12-week EFL course based on a communicative approach, 28 female learners received metacognitive strategy instruction, focusing on strategy use for oral communication, whereas the 343 females in the control group received only the normal communicative course, with no explicit focus on communication strategies. The findings revealed that participants in the strategy instruction group significantly improved their oral proficiency test scores, whereas improvements in the control group were not significant. The results of transcription data analyses confirmed that the participants' success was partly due to an increased general awareness of oral communication strategies.

Koymen (1989) conducted a research on comparison of learning and study strategies of traditional and open-learning system students in Turkey. This study aimed at investigating if there is significant difference in the learning and study strategy of both systems' students due to different setting, and identify the learning and study strategy of students from both traditional and open education systems. The main conclusion of this study is that there is no significant difference as regards the learning and study strategies of the students of a traditional and an open learning system. The findings also imply that low scores in the affective

domain for both groups might be attributed to the Turkish educational system, rather than to the individual students. So, the study stating that the result of the study provide some important implication that the Turkish educational system requires systematic reform.

A major study of good language learners was conducted by Vann & Abraham (1990) where they compared successful learners of language with those who were unsuccessful. They reported that successful learners had the tendency to employ more variety of strategies and spend more time on the learning tasks given. Successful learners preferred to use a greater variety of strategies more appropriate to the tasks.

In a study, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) compared the improvement on certain language tasks for three groups of learners, and related the learners' performance to the strategy training they had received. On the speaking task, the group given explicit training in metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies improved significantly more than the control group.

Zübeyde Aykac (2010) conducted a study about the effects of the explicit strategy training on EFL young learners' listening and speaking skills in terms of their communicative competence. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. Pre-and post questionnaires, language learning diaries, mini papers (one minute papers) and Verbal Report Protocols (semi formal interviews) were chosen as data collection tools. The participants of this study were 6th grade students who were attending a state primary school. They were randomly selected by the researcher. The overall interpretation of the results showed that there is a close relation between the findings of the study and the assumption that strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language produces positive results.

Gallagher-Brett (2007) conducted a study and applied a questionnaire to elicit information concerning learners' beliefs about speaking a foreign language. The students surveyed were in their final year in South East England, and were learning German. The questionnaire consisted of statements with a rating scale from one to five (one is 'strongly disagree' and five is 'strongly agree'). Students had to identify to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the statements. Students were also asked to answer open-ended questions in order to find out the strategies used while speaking in the foreign language. According to Gallagher-Brett (2007), the three strategies used most by students were practicing, revising, and repetition at home after revision. Although the results were from a very small number of participants, they reveal that the participants used strategies when speaking a foreign language.

An interesting feature of the findings was the acknowledgement by students of failure due to individual factors related to their actions, efforts and feelings. This refers to the participants' awareness of themselves as learners and of their responsibility for their own learning actions and outcomes. The two main themes emerging from this study are: awareness of strategy use by students, and the role of affective factors such as confidence, mood and anxiety when speaking a foreign language.

2.5. Summary

Language learning strategies are defined as 'steps', 'actions', 'techniques', and 'behaviours' that language learners employ in language learning. Many researchers have classified strategy use in terms of cognitive learning. According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategy is mainly composed of six categories; memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

According to Oxford & Schramm (2007), there are two major perspectives on language learning strategies that have been developed in the field: the psychological view and the social-cultural view.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by Wenden and Rubin (1987); O'Malley et al (1985); Oxford (1990) and Stern (1992) were discussed in details. However, most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes.

Studies of good language learners have investigated learning strategies and learning characteristics of successful language learners. Successful learners tend to use a greater variety of strategies more appropriate to the learning tasks. By understanding learning strategies of successful learners, teachers can guide those who are less successful in language learning.

A great deal of research has explored how individual variables, especially, language proficiency, gender, and cultural factors can influence a learner's language learning strategy use. Overall, proficient language learners prefer to use a variety of language learning strategies.

Chapter Three

The Methodology of the Research

3. 0. Introduction

This section introduces information about the nature of the research and how the study is designed in terms of the methodological perspective. It covers the points of research design, participants, instruments, data collection, pilot study, procedure and data analysis.

The study investigates the impact of strategies based-instructions on the performance of Sudanese university students' at tertiary level in speaking a foreign language. The study also interests in introducing the students' forward in speaking a foreign language.

3.1. Research design

This study is conducted as both descriptive and experimental research design which aims to investigate the impact of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language in terms of their communicative competence.

3.2. The participants

The participants of the study are 150 Sudanese students at tertiary level. The students are selected randomly and divided into two groups, one is assigned as an experimental group and the other is a control one. Of course there are 75 students in each group. Nearly, all the students fall into the 18-20 age range. Already all the participating students had studied English language for ten years. Therefore, it is assumed that the participants' proficiency level will be equal.

In the experimental group, the strategies-based instruction programme is conducted by the researcher himself and other instructors in the field. The control group is taught the regular English course by their usual instructors.

3.3. Instruments

In terms of research methodology, Cohen (1998) delineated six methods that have been used in examining learning strategies: oral interviews and written questionnaires, observation, verbal report, diaries and dialog journals, recollective studies and computer tracking. In this study three types of instruments are used in order to collect data as follow:

3.3.1. Speaking strategy questionnaire

The researcher has chosen a design which was categorized by Oxford (1990) " Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)". This speaking strategy questionnaire is administered before and after the treatment to both groups. It aims to determine whether or not the students use these strategies related to their speaking skills. Oxford (1996) presents some advantages and limitations of questionnaires in general. Questionnaires can give general assessments of students' typical strategies across a variety of tasks. They are effective, quick and easy to administer and don't threaten the learners. Hence students discover their own strategies because of the fact that the instrument can be self-scored and provides immediate feedback, yet questionnaires don't describe strategies in details. Thus they should be supported by other data collection tools.

The aim of the study is clearly explained to the participants by emphasizing that it isn't an exam in order to feel relaxed and collect reliable responses. The items, words and unclear areas are clarified by the researcher and the other instructors whenever the need arises.

The SILL is a self-scoring, paper-and-pencil survey which consists of statements such as "I review English lessons often" or "I ask questions in English" to which students are asked to respond on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never) to 5 (always or almost always).

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

The students are told to answer in terms of how well the statement describes them. They do not answer how they think they should be, or what other people do. The researcher and the instructors explain to them that there are no right or wrong answers to these statements. (Never or almost never true of me) signals the complete absence of speaking strategy while (Always or almost always true of me) indicates the complete presence of a speaking strategy and of course the other options stand in between according to its strength or weakness.

The questionnaire consists of six categories to investigate; Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and social strategies scales, each of which is represented by a number of different items. As illustrated below, items included in each category are presented in a form of a table for a better data analysis procedure.

Table (3.1) speaking strategies scales and item numbers

Strategies	Item Number
Memory strategies	1 to 4
Cognitive strategies	5 to 7
Compensation strategies	8 to 10
Metacognitive strategies	11 to 14
Affective strategies	15 to 17
Social strategies	18 to 20

The SILL is a useful language learning strategy questionnaire. According to Oxford (1996), the SILL has been adopted for various language learning and approximately 10,000 language learners have been involved in its research. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995:4) stated that,

“According to research reports and articles published in the English language within the last 10-15 years, the SILL appears to be the only language learning strategy instrument that has been extensively checked for reliability and validated in multiple ways”. The statements in SILL are not only easy for subjects to respond , but they are also an efficient measurement of varied strategy use. It also measures the relationship between strategy use and other factors. On the other hand, Macaro (2006) took a contradictory position concerning the use of SILL in the sense that the SILL questionnaire items may be interpreted in several ways depending on cultural situations and the SILL cannot be transferable across socio-cultural domains.

3.3.2. Pre- and post- speaking tests

Pre-and post-speaking tests are the same tests. They are administered before and after the treatment for the both groups to find out whether or not there is any significant difference between the two groups. The pre-and post-speaking tests are tape recorded in order to obtain reliable data. By the help of the tape recordings, the raters who evaluate the performances through speaking scales consider the participants' speaking performances. The pre-and post-speaking tests are measured through a speaking scale produced by Chaney and Burke (1998) as an analytic scoring evaluation for oral productions.

3.3.3. Teachers' questionnaire

In order to learn more about the impact of the strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language, and to gain an accurate understanding of these language strategies, it is critical that we have to learn from teachers about their own point of view.

Teachers' perspectives are very important because they are close to their students' needs. They are in the field of teaching and their point of view is highly considered. Moreover, teachers' perspectives give a considerable reliability to the data collection.

3.4. Data collection

Three data-collection tools are used in this study, the learning strategy questionnaire on speaking skill, tape recording of pre-and post-speaking tests, and teachers' questionnaire.

The researcher randomly chose the participants at the tertiary level from Sudan University of Science and Technology, Omdurman Islamic University and Al Gazira University and divides them into experimental and control groups. The researcher contacted the English class instructors to gain their permission to administer the survey and to give them detailed information about the study and the questionnaire.

In class, the instructors give the participants the questionnaire. The participants are directed by their instructors on how to take the questionnaire. The participants read the consent form, which states that the survey is strictly voluntary and will not impact their grade. The confidentiality of the questionnaire responses are made clear, and all students are notified that their instructors won't have an access to their responses. The anonymous questionnaire is kept by the researcher. After the data has been analyzed, the questionnaire will be kept safe.

The instructors provided some directions on how to respond to the questionnaire. A total of 150 copies of the questionnaire are distributed to the participants. The subjects are instructed to circle a response number ranging from one to five. Upon finishing, each participant placed his or her questionnaire into an anonymous envelope. One student volunteer collected all surveys and brought it to the instructor.

At the second stage, the students in both groups are given the speaking test to determine their level of speaking proficiencies. After the training period for the experimental group only, the same speaking test is applied to both groups as a post-speaking test.

The teachers' questionnaire is distributed to the university instructors in English language departments. The instructors are asked to complete the questionnaire to find out their point of view of the impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language.

The results of the speaking strategy questionnaire and the grades of the students in the both groups who took the pre-and post-speaking tests are documented in order to find out if there is any significant difference.

3.5. Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out in March 2013. The aim of the piloting was to determine the functionality of the questionnaire that is developed. The purpose of the pilot study was also to provide insights into the data collection and analysis process. The objectives of the pilot study are:

- To find out whether or not the questionnaire items actually elicit the intended information for the study.
- To find out if any of the items need to be rephrased in order to make it more comprehensible.
- To determine the amount of time and effort required to respond to the questionnaire.
- To determine validity and reliability.

The piloting was conducted by five instructors who were excluded from the actual participants of the study. The outcome of the pilot study gave a more realistic understanding regarding the significant amount of

time required to conduct the research tool as well as to analyze the data. Responding to the questionnaire took about fifteen minutes. As a result of the pilot study many items were rephrased in the questionnaire.

The two questionnaires were first piloted to a group of teachers. The comments from the respondents were taken into consideration during the process of refining the questionnaire. The primary purpose for this is to develop statements that are relevant and which could be understood easily by the respondents. The questionnaires were further thoroughly checked for reliability and validity.

3.5.1 Validity and reliability of the Questionnaires

According to Patten (2002) an instrument is valid if it measures exactly what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it was designed. He emphasises that validity is a matter of degree and discussion should focus on how valid a test or questionnaire is, not whether it is valid or not. According to Patten, no test instrument is perfectly valid. So the researcher needs some kind of assurance that the instrument being used will result an accurate conclusions.

Wallen and Fraenkel (2001) argued that, validity involves the appropriateness, meaning fullness, and usefulness of influences made by the researcher on the basis of the data collected. Patten (2002) identifies three principles to improve content validity: 1- use broad sample of content rather than a narrow. 2- emphasize important material, and 3- write questions to measure the appropriate skill. These three principals were addressed when writing the questionnaire items. To provide additional content validity of the questionnaire, the researcher formed a focus group of five experts in the field of language teaching who provide

input and suggestive feedback on questionnaire items and test questions. Their suggestions were taken into consideration and made some modifications to the questionnaire items.

Reliability relates to the consistency of the data collected. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal reliability of the instruments.

3.5.2. Apparent Reliability and Validity

In order to check the apparent validity for the study questionnaire and validation of its statements according to the formulation and explanation, the questionnaires are shown to five PhD holders who are specialists in the field of the study. Some of the referees made some suggestions and accordingly some items of the questionnaires were modified and others were agreed that the questionnaires are reliable. All suggestions were studied, and some corrections on the two questionnaires have been done.

3.5.3. Statistical Reliability and Validity

It is meant by the reliability of any test, to obtain the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

To calculate the validity statistically the following equation is used:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The researcher calculated the reliability coefficient for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals into two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e.g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown

Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

3.6. Procedure

To improve the students' speaking ability, long-term strategy-based instruction training is infused into the existing course and materials for a period of one semester. The students in the experimental group receive speaking strategy training while the students in the control group do not deviate from their standard program.

At the beginning of the semester, the SILL questionnaire is administered to the students in both the experimental and the control groups in order to obtain descriptive data on students' awareness of speaking strategies. Of the items, those related to speaking skill are chosen. These items are characterized under six subtitles. Regardless of the students' speaking skill ability, all subjects administer a pre-speaking test before the treatment. Two English teachers who are native speakers and M.A holders assess the speaking performances of the both groups without knowing which recording is pre-test or post-test. Nor are they aware which group is experimental or control in order to obtain reliable and objective results and not to influence their judgement.

During the training process, the participants' speaking performances in both experimental and control groups are recorded. In both pre-and post-speaking tests and also in every speaking task during the training process, a tape recording is conducted as a kind of learning strategy. The participants are given a chance of listening and evaluating themselves after every speaking task experience.

Through the regular use of tape recordings in speaking task performances, the participants accustom to taping which will lessen their anxiety in the following speaking tasks; hence they can behave more comfortable in their following speaking tasks.

The recordings of the speaking tasks during the training are analyzed so as to find out whether the experimental group performs the

desired strategies in their speaking performances. In order to find out whether there are statistically significant changes in speaking strategies that are used by the learners, both experimental and control groups are given a post-speaking test.

The English language teachers at university level are asked to complete a questionnaire about their own point of view of the impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language.

After the semester treatment, the students in the experimental group who participated in this study will be aware of speaking strategies as measured by speaking strategy questionnaire SILL conducted at the beginning of the study. Also, after the semester treatment, the students in the experimental group who participated in this study would have improved their speaking ability as measured by pre-and post-speaking tests which are tape recorded and assessed according to Chaney and Burk's (1998) speaking scale.

3.7. Data Analysis

The results of the data obtained through the pre and post strategy use questionnaires and the teachers' questionnaire are analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). On the other hand the data obtained from the pre and post speaking tests are analyzed by the raters who are native speakers accordingly to the Speaking Scale designed by Chaney and Burk (1998). The teachers' questionnaires are analyzed and examined in order to present the teachers' perspectives about the importance of language strategies in speaking a foreign language.

Chapter Four

Findings and Discussion

4.0. Introduction

This chapter aims at presenting the analysis of the data as follows: The analysis and the discussion of the data obtained by the SILL questionnaires given to the students both in the Experimental and the Control groups, the analysis and the discussion of the data collected through the Pre- and Post-speaking tests administered to the students both in the Experimental and the Control groups ,and the analysis and discussion of the teachers' questionnaire.

The obtained data were analyzed through a statistical program, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

4.1. Pre-and post-speaking strategy questionnaire

The questionnaire was conducted before and after the treatment. Through the usage of this questionnaire, the researcher aims to find answers to the following question:

- What is the effect of explicit strategy training on learners' performance in speaking skills?

(A) Table (4.1) Descriptive analysis for experimental group

No	Part	Pre			Post		
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Result	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
A	Memory strategies.	3.287	0.375	Usually	4.138	0.487	Usually
B	Cognitive strategies	3.333	0.404	Somewhat	4.650	0.104	Usually

C	Compensation strategies	2.725	0.250	Somewhat	4.712	0.025	Usually
D	Metacognitive strategies	4.200	0.800	Usually	4.800	1.755	Usually
E	Affective strategies	3.737	0.460	Usually	2.875	0.263	Somewhat
F	Social strategies	4.200	0.800	Usually	4.120	0.055	Usually

Table (4.1) shows that there is a remarkable difference in the performance of the students in the post-test. In memory strategies, the mean was 3.287 in the pre-test while in the post-test it was 4.138. In Cognitive strategies, the mean was 3.333 in the pre-test but in the post-test the mean went up to 4.650. In Compensation strategies, the mean was 2.725 while in the post-test it was 4.712. A slight improvement took place in Metacognitive strategies in the post-test which the mean was 4.800 compared to 4.200 in the pre-test. In affective strategies, the mean was 3.737 in the pre-test compared to 2.875 in the post-test. In regard to social strategies, the mean was 4.200 in the pre-test while in the post-test it was 4.120.

Generally, there is a difference between the performance of the students in the pre-test and the post-test which means the students benefited from the training sessions on strategies- based instruction.

(B) Table (4.2) Descriptive analysis for Control group

No	Part	Pre			Post		
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Result	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
A	Memory strategies.	3.687	0.217	Usually	3.331	0.334	Usually
B	Cognitive strategies	3.433	0.225	Somewhat	3.441	0.370	Somewhat
C	Compensation strategies	3.516	0.5204	Usually	4.700	0.001	Usually
D	Metacognitive strategies	3.612	0.411	Usually	4.700	0.003	Usually
E	Affective strategies	4.150	0.563	Usually	4.750	0.023	Usually
F	Social strategies	4.560	0.462	Always	3.520	0.055	Usually

Table (4.2) shows the results of the SIL pre - and post-test survey for the control group. The score of the students in the control group is similar to some extent. Obviously, the participants also didn't get high grades in these strategies which means that they were unfamiliar with strategy-use.

In this questionnaire, the highest mean for the students in the pre-test was 4.560 in social strategy; the lowest mean was 3.433 in cognitive strategy. The highest mean for the control group in the post-test was 4.750 in affective strategy; the lowest mean was 3.331 in memory strategy.

4.2. Pre-and post-speaking tests

Pre-and post-speaking tests were administered before and after the training sessions in order to measure and compare the change in the

speaking performance of the students. The Chaney and Burk's (1998) speaking scale was used in this study. The researcher aims to find the answer to the following questions:

- What is the relationship between strategies-based instruction and the performance of the students in speaking skills?
- What is the effect of explicit strategy training on learners' performance in speaking skills?

4.2.1. Pre-speaking test

It was administered to the experimental and the control groups before the participants of the experimental group were subjected the training program. The researcher documented the performance of the participants to compare it with their performance in the post-test to see if there is a significant progress or not.

Table (4.3) Frequency distribution of the students' pre-speaking test.

Speaking skills	Excellent		V. good		Fair		Poor		Upper		Lower	
	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp
Fluency	18.0	17.0	19.0	18.0	31.0	34.0	31.0	30.0	37.0	35.0	62.0	64.0
Accuracy	19.0	20.0	21.0	17.0	32.0	36.0	28.0	27.0	40.0	37.0	60.0	63.0
Vocabulary	18.0	16.0	16.0	20.0	32.0	32.0	34.0	32.0	34.0	35.0	66.0	64.0
Complexity	18.0	13.0	17.0	21.0	30.0	32.0	35.0	34.0	35.0	34.0	65.0	66.0
Pronunciation	16.0	15.0	14.0	18.0	33.0	38.0	37.0	29.0	30.0	33.0	70.0	67.0

Table (4.3) shows the performance of the experimental and the control groups in the pre-speaking test. There is no a considerable difference between the score of the students in the two groups. The participants did not get high percentage in speaking skills which means that they weren't trained to use speaking strategies before.

In this test, the highest percentage for the control group of upper students (excellent and good) is 40.0 in accuracy; the lowest percentage is

30.0 in pronunciation. The highest percentage for the control group of lower students (fair and poor) is 60.0 in accuracy; the lowest percentage is 70.0 in pronunciation. On the other hand, the highest percentage for the experimental group of upper students is 37.0 in accuracy; the lowest percentage is 33.0 in pronunciation. The highest percentage for the experimental group of lower students is 63.0 in accuracy; the lowest percentage is 67.0 in pronunciation. From the results discussed above, it is clear that the both groups shared the weakness in pronunciation which is a crucial element in speaking skills.

4.2.2. Post-speaking test

After the experimental group had gone over a training programme of using language strategies, the same pre-speaking test was administered to the both groups again.

Table (4.4) Frequency distribution of the students' post-speaking test

Speaking skills	Excellent		V. good		Fair		Poor		Upper		Lower	
	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp	Cont	Exp
Fluency	17.0	31.0	20.0	36.0	31.0	24.0	31.0	17.0	37.0	67.0	62.0	41.0
Accuracy	18.0	32.0	22.0	33.0	30.0	19.0	30.0	16.0	40.0	65.0	60.0	35.0
Vocabulary	17.0	29.0	19.0	32.0	30.0	21.0	32.0	18.0	38.0	61.0	62.0	39.0
Complexity	19.0	24.0	18.0	31.0	30.0	22.0	33.0	23.0	37.0	55.0	66.0	45.0
Pronunciation	17.0	26.0	15.0	28.0	33.0	26.0	35.0	20.0	32.0	54.0	68.0	46.0

As shown in table (4.4) there is significant difference in the score of the experimental students' pre-test and post-test. The students' performance was enhanced in the post-test.

Regarding speaking fluency, as shown in table (4.4), there is apparent development in the experimental students' performance in adopting the language strategies in speaking. The post-test score in

percentage was 67.0 which was higher than the pre-test score percentage 35.0. The lower score in the pre-test was 64.0 compared to 41.0 in the post-test. This result showed a progress in the ability of the students to talk at length with few pauses and to be able to fill the time with talking without hesitations and pass their messages in a coherent, reasoned and semantically-expressed manner.

As for the speaking accuracy, the students produced the target language according to its rule system. In the post-test the performance of the students was 65.0, compared to the pre-test score 37.0. The lower score in the pre-test was 63.0 compared to 35.0 in the post-test. This result shows that there is progress in the students' performance.

The test score showed that the students made good vocabulary usage in speaking and used coherent and appropriate style in their post-test. The post-test score was 61.0 in the use of vocabulary which is higher than the pre-test score 35.0. The lower score in the post-test was 39.0 compared to 64.0 in the pre-test. Coherence in the students' use of vocabulary improved as a result of the training sessions.

As shown in table (4.4), the test score reveals that there is a good progress in the students' usage of complexity in the speech organization. The pre-test score in the students' achievement was 34.0 while in the post-test it was 55.0. The lower score in the post-test was 45.0 compared to 66.0 in the pre-test. This result shows that the students have achieved better and the amount of subordination has been commonly used, as it reflects the degree of structuring of speech.

Table (4.4) shows that the students' pronunciation was improved in the post-test compared to the pre-test. The pre-test score was 33.0 while in the post-test the percentage went up to 54.0. In the lower post-test

score it was 46.0 whereas in the pre-test was 67.0. The development is in the terms of producing the sounds of speech, including articulation, stress and intonation. This progress is the result of language strategies sessions that were taught before the post-test.

Generally, the speaking test revealed that positive teaching of language strategies contributed to the development of the students' speaking skills. Therefore, the hypotheses that were set to answer the main research questions have been validated and confirmed.

4.3. Teachers' questionnaire

After checking reliability and validity of the questionnaire, the researcher had distributed the questionnaire to the determined study sample (30) teachers, and the researcher constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (Strongly agree, Agree, Not sure, Disagree, Strongly disagree) to quantitative variables (5, 4, 3, 2 ,1) respectively, also the graphical representation done for this purpose and the responses percentage.

The researcher aims at finding the answer to this research question:
-What are the teachers' perspectives on the importance of strategies-based instruction in improving the students' speaking skills?
To find the answer for this research question, here are the teachers' perspectives:

1-Awareness of language strategies:

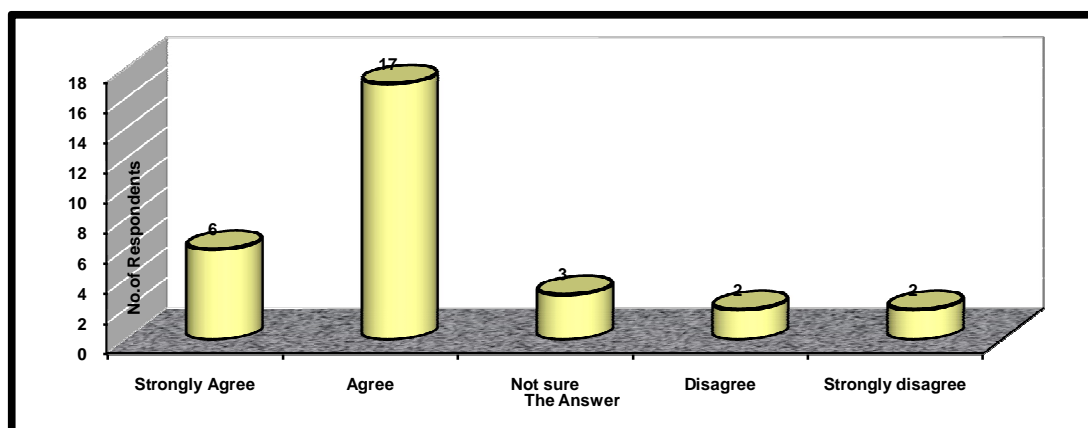
Question No.(1): Teacher need to know the benefits of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language.

Table no. (4.5) and figure no.(4.1) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(1).

Table (4.5):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(1)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	6	20.6
Agree	17	56.7
Not sure	3	10.0
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-1):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(1)



It is clear from table no.(4.5) and figure (4.1) that there are (6) teachers in the study's sample with a percentage of (20.6%) have strongly agreed with " Teacher need to know the benefits of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language ". There are (17) teachers with percentage (56.7%) have agreed on that, and (3) teachers with percentage of (10.3%) are not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have shown strongly disagreement about that.

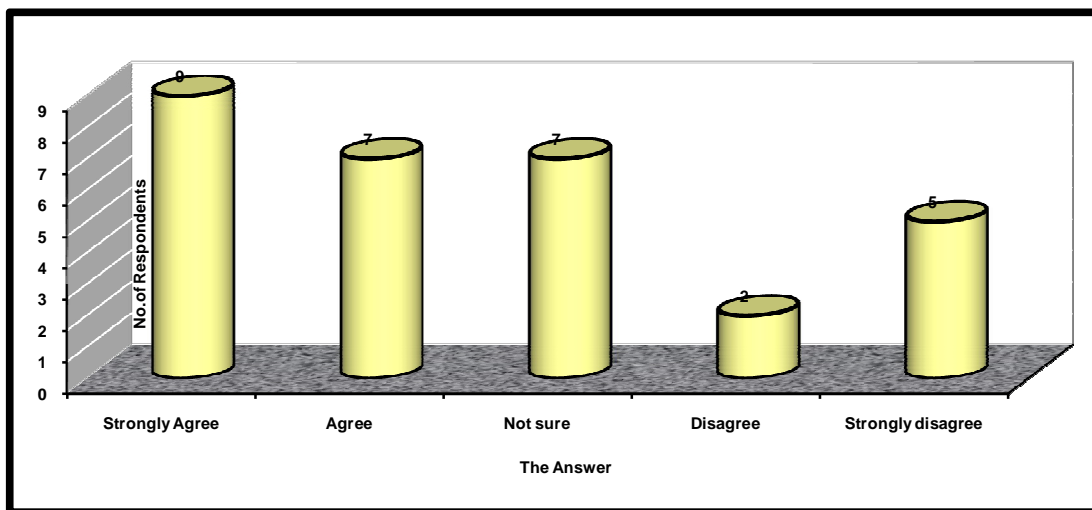
Question No.(2):Teacher can help students identify language strategies in their learning .

Table no. (4.6) and figure no.(4.2) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(2).

Table (4.6) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(2)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	9	30.0
Agree	7	23.3
Not sure	7	26.0
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	5	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-2):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(2)



It is clear from table no.(4.6) and figure (4.2) that there are (9) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) have strongly agreed with " Teacher can help students identify language strategies in their learning ". There are (7) teachers with percentage (23.3%) have agreed on that, and (7) teachers with percentage (23.3%) are not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while (5) teachers with percentage (16.7%) have strongly disagreed about that.

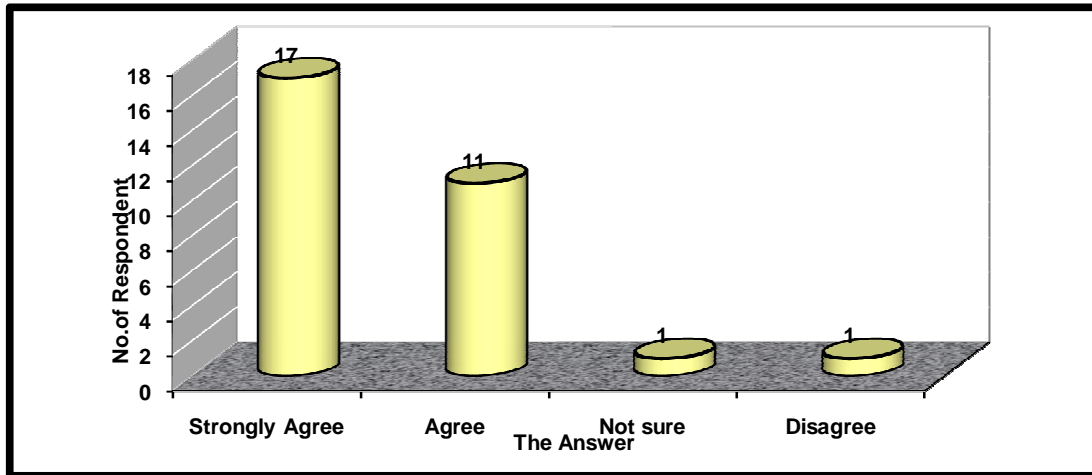
Question No.(3): Teachers should encourage students to use language strategies.

Table no. (4.7) and figure no.(4.3) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(3).

Table (4.7) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(3)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	17	56.7
Agree	11	36.7
Not sure	1	3.3
Disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-3):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(3)



It is clear from table no.(4.7) and figure (4.3) that there are (17) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (56.7%) have strongly agreed with " Teachers should encourage students to use language strategies ". There are (11) teachers with percentage (36.7%) have agreed on that, and only one teacher with percentage (2.2%) is not sure about that, and only one teacher with percentage (2.2%) is disagreed about that.

Question No.(4):Teacher need to know that there are various factors effecting learners strategies choice (e.g motivation or teaching methods) .

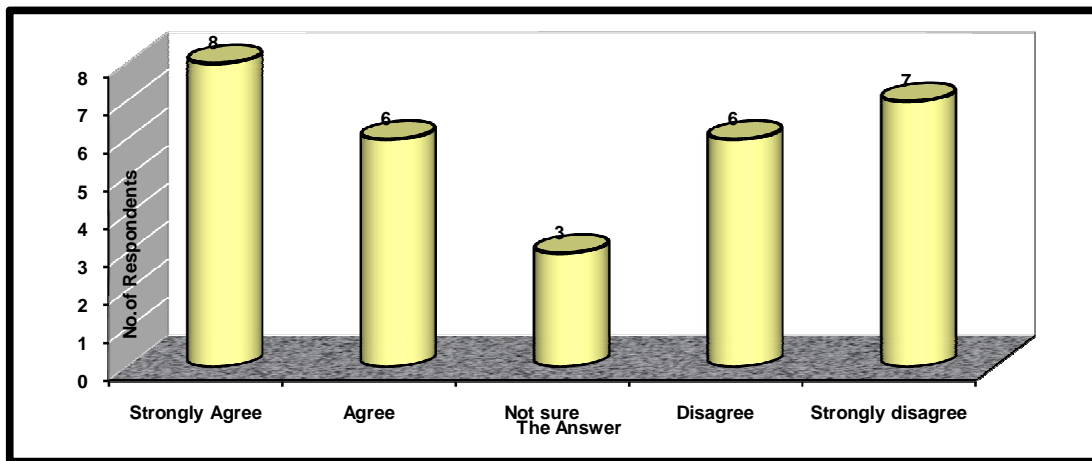
Table no. (4.8) and figure no.(4.4) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(4).

Table (4.8) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(4)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	8	26.7
Agree	6	20.0
Not sure	3	10.0

Disagree	6	20.0
Strongly disagree	7	23.3
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-4):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(4)



It is clear from table no.(4.8) and figure (4.4) that there are (8) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (26.7%) have strongly agreed with " Teacher need to know that there are various factors effecting learners strategies choice (e.g. motivation or teaching methods) ". There are (6) teachers with percentage (20.0%) have agreed on that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) are not sure about that, and (6) teachers with percentage (20.0%) have disagreed about that, while (7) teachers with percentage (23.3%) have strongly disagreed about that.

2- Significance of Strategies-based instruction:

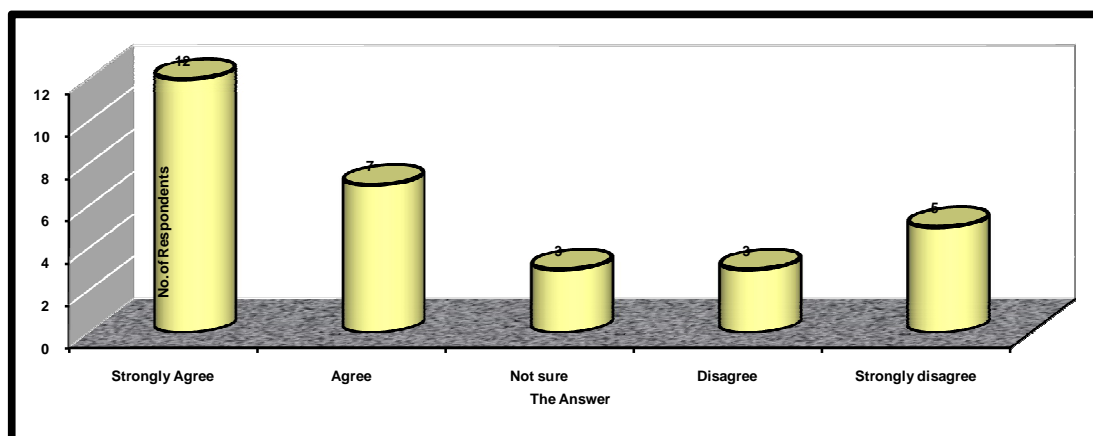
Question No.(5): Strategies-based instruction is learning tool for students.

Table no. (4.9) and figure no.(4.5) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(5).

Table (4.9) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(5)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	40.0
Agree	7	23.3
Not sure	3	10.0
Disagree	3	10.0
Strongly disagree	5	16.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-5):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(5)



It is clear from table no.(4.9) and figure (4.5) that there are (12) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) have strongly agreed with " Strategies-based instruction is learning tool for students ". There are (7)

teachers with percentage (23.3%) have agreed on that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.3%) are not sure about that, and (3) persons with percentage (10.3%) have disagreed about that, while (5) teachers with percentage (16.7%) have strongly disagreed about that.

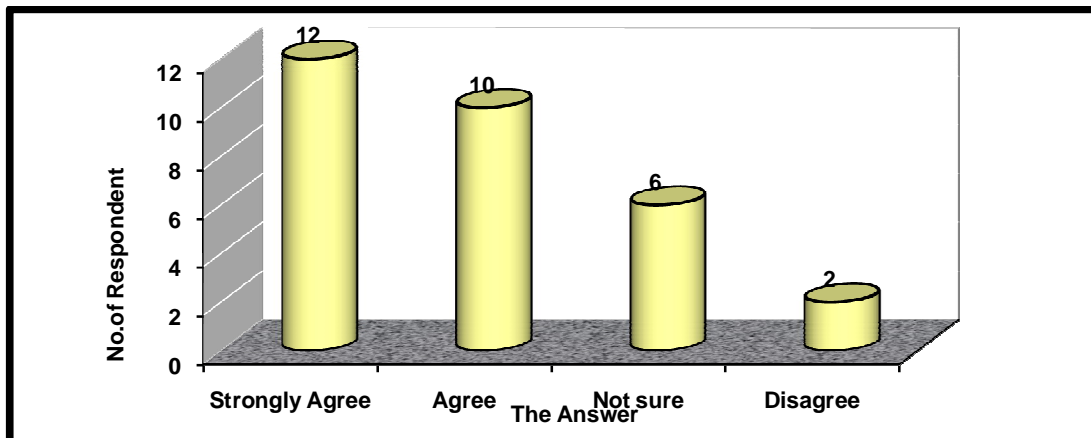
Question No.(6): Strategies-based instruction improves language performance.

Table no. (4.10) and figure no.(4.6) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(6).

Table (4.10) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(6)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	40.0
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	6	20.0
Disagree	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-6):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(6)



It is clear from table no.(4.10) and figure (4.6) that there are (12) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) have strongly agreed with " Strategies-based instruction improves language performance ". There are (10) teachers with percentage (33.3%) have agreed on that, and (6) teachers with percentage (20.0%) are not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that.

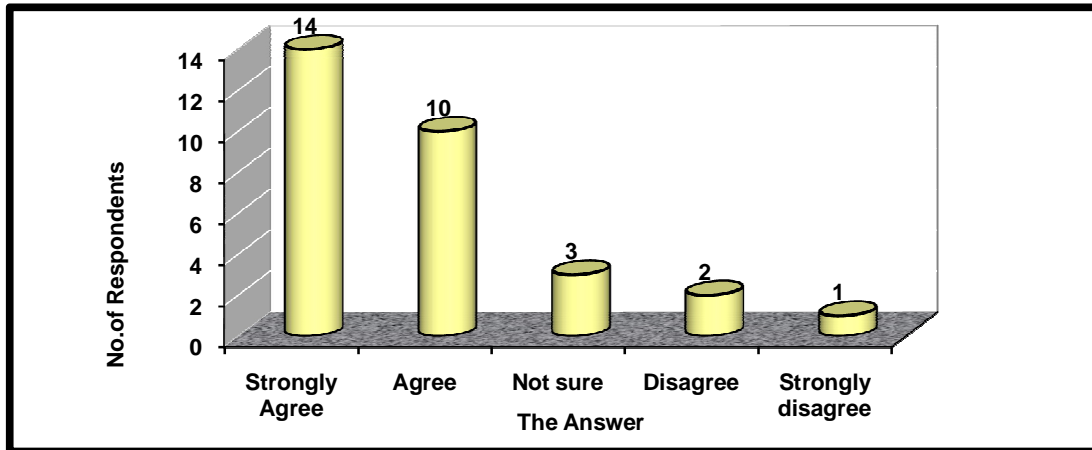
Question No.(7):Many different strategies can be used by language learners

Table no. (4.11) and figure no.(4.7) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(7).

Table (4.11) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(9)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	14	46.7
Agree	10	33.3
Not sure	3	10.0
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-7):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(9)



It is clear from table no.(4.11) and figure (4.7) that there are (14) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (46.7%) have strongly agreed with " Many different strategies can be used by language learners ". There are (10) teachers with percentage (33.3%) have agreed on that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) are not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while only one teacher with percentage (3.3%) has strongly disagreed about that.

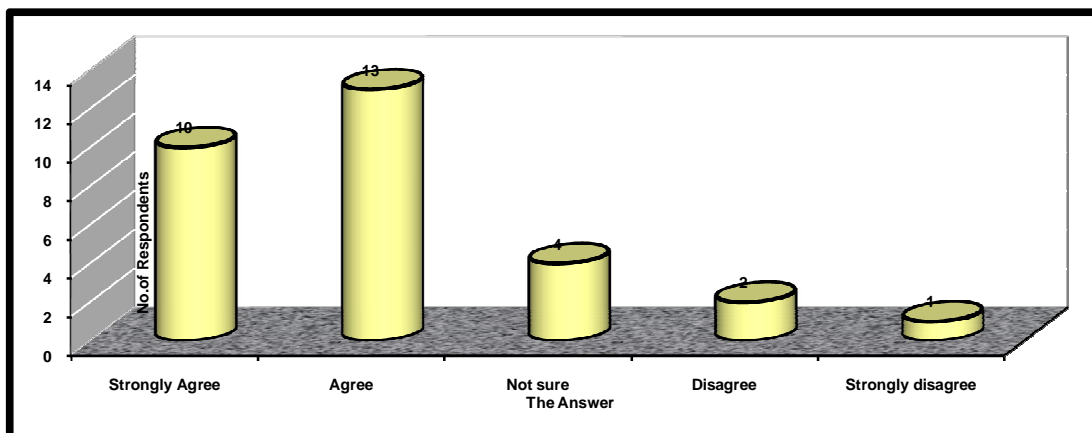
Question No.(8):Most successful students tend to use language strategies that appropriate to task and their own goals, needs, and stage of learning

Table no. (4.12) and figure no.(4.8) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(8).

Table (4.12) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(8)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	33.3
Agree	13	43.3
Not sure	4	13.3
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	1	3.3
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-8):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(8)



It is clear from table no.(4.12) and figure (4.8) that there are (10) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (33.3%) have strongly

agreed with " Most successful students tend to use language strategies that appropriate to task and their own goals, needs, and stage of learning ". There are (13) teachers with percentage (43.3%) have agreed on that, and (4) teachers with percentage (13.3%) are not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while only one teacher with percentage (3.3%) have strongly disagreed about that.

4- Significance of language Strategies teaching:

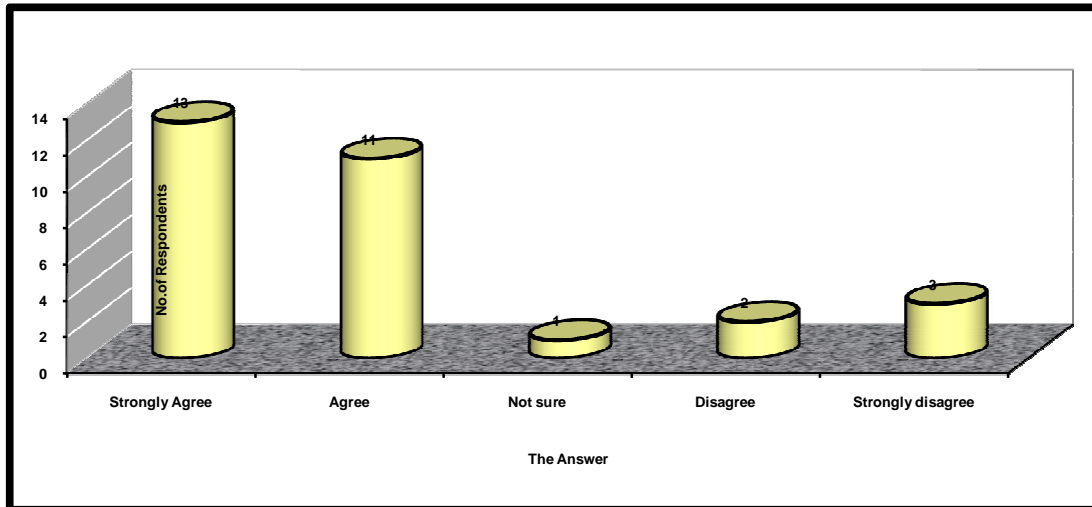
Question No.(9): Students can be taught to use effective strategies.

Table no. (4.13) and figure no.(4.9) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(9).

Table (4.13) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(9)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	13	43.3
Agree	11	36.7
Not sure	1	3.3
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	3	10.0
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-9):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(9)



It is clear from table no.(4.13) and figure (4.9) that there are (13) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (43.3%) have strongly agreed with " Students can be taught to use effective strategies ". There are (11) teachers with percentage (36.7%) have agreed on that, and only one teacher with percentage (3.3%) is not sure about that, and (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

Question No.(10): Strategies-based instruction helps students become more effective language learners.

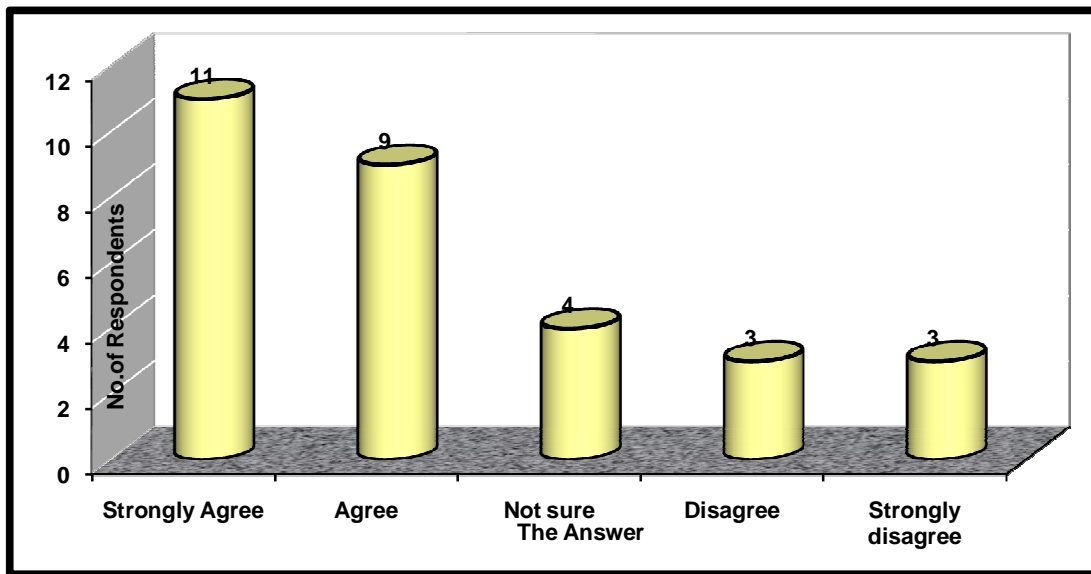
Table no. (4.14) and figure no.(4.10) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(10).

Table (4.14) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(10)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	11	36.7
Agree	9	30.0
Not sure	4	13.3

Disagree	3	10.0
Strongly disagree	3	10.0
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-10):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(10)



It is clear from table no.(4.14) and figure (4.10) that there are (11) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (36.7%) have strongly agreed with " Strategies-based instruction helps students become more effective language learners ". There are (9) teachers with percentage (30.0%) have agreed on that, and (4) teachers with percentage (13.3%) are not sure about that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) have disagreed about that, while (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) have strongly disagreed about that.

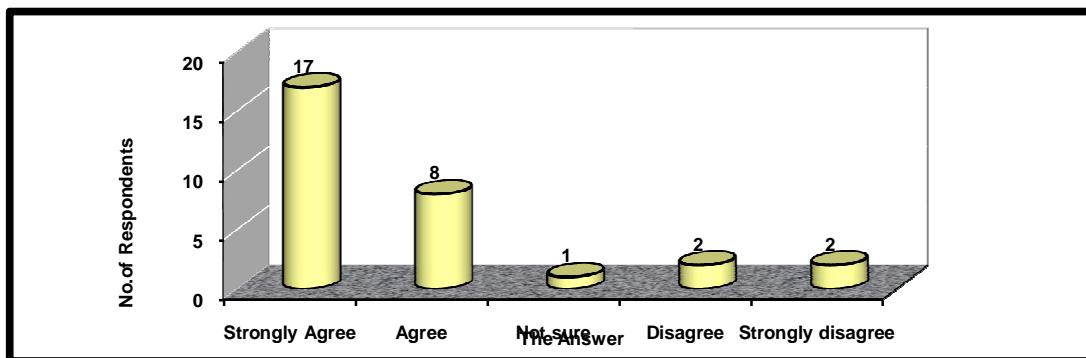
Question No.(11): Strategies-based instruction makes students more independent learner.

Table no. (4.15) and figure no.(4-11) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(11).

Table (4.15):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(11)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	17	56.7
Agree	8	26.0
Not sure	1	3.3
Disagree	2	6.7
Strongly disagree	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-11):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(11)



From table no.(4.15) and figure (4.11) that there are (17) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (56.7%) have strongly agreed with " Strategies-based instruction makes students more independent learner ". There are (8) teachers with percentage (26.7%) have agreed on that, and only one teacher with percentage (3.3%) is not sure about that, and (2)

teachers with percentage (6.7%) have disagreed about that, while (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have strongly disagreed about that.

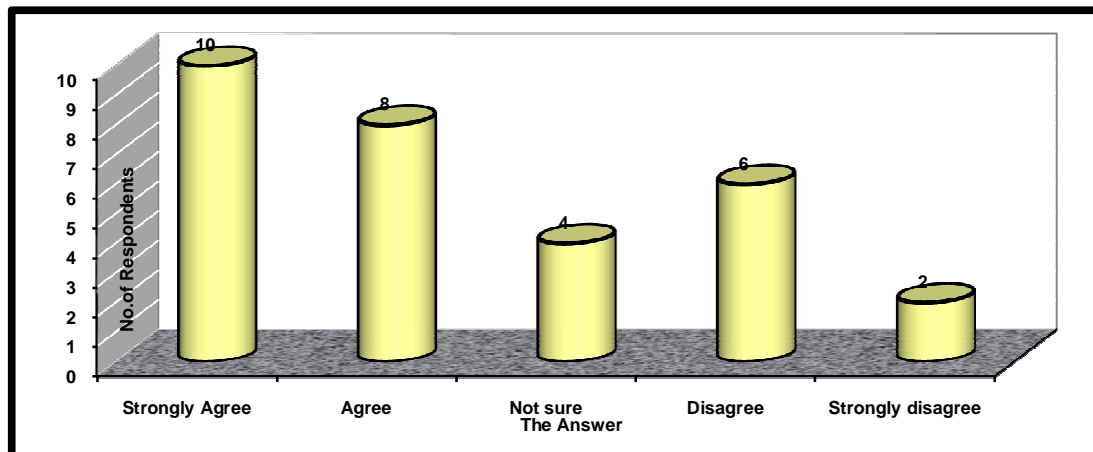
Question No.(12): Strategies-based instruction can increase student confidence in their own learning ability .

Table no. (4.16) and figure no.(4.12) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(12).

Table (4.16):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(12)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	10	33.3
Agree	8	26.0
Not sure	4	13.3
Disagree	6	20.0
Strongly disagree	2	6.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-12):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(12)



As table no.(4.16) and figure (4.12) show, there are (10) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (33.3%) have strongly agreed with " Strategies-based instruction can increase student confidence in their own learning ability ". There are (8) teachers with percentage (26.7%) have agreed on that, and (4) teachers with percentage (13.3%) are not sure about that, and (6) teachers with percentage (20.0%) have disagreed about that, while (2) teachers with percentage (6.7%) have strongly disagreed about that.

5- Perception of self-development in teaching language strategies:

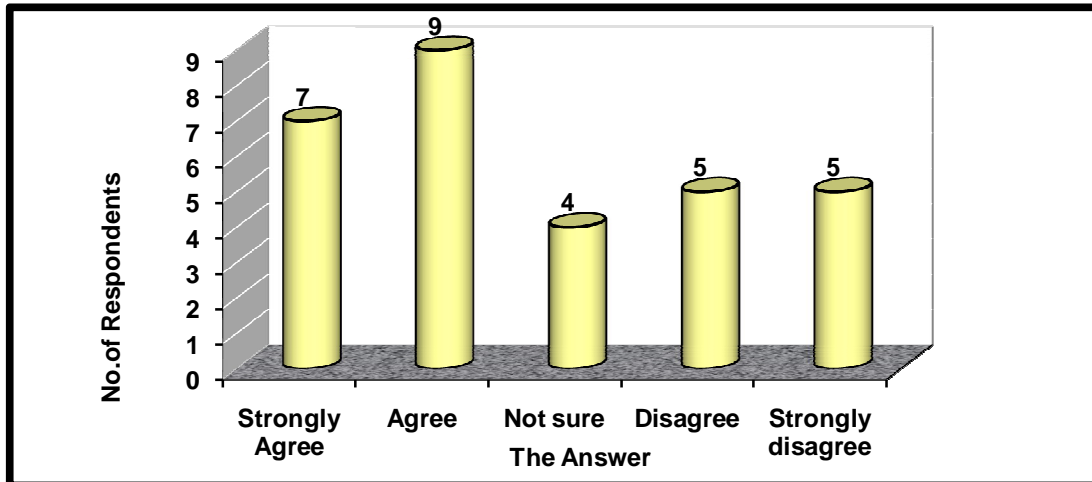
Question No.(13): Teachers should seek share their knowledge with other educators on teaching language strategies.

Table no. (4.17) and figure no.(4.13) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(13).

Table (4.17):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(13)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	7	23.3
Agree	9	30.0
Not sure	4	13.3
Disagree	5	16.7
Strongly disagree	5	16.7
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-13):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(13)



It is clear from table no.(4.17) and figure (4.13) that there are (7) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (23.3%) have strongly agreed with " Teachers should seek share their knowledge with other educators on teaching language strategies ". There are (9) teachers with percentage (30.0%) have agreed on that, and (4) teachers with percentage (13.3%) are not sure about that, and (5) teachers with percentage (16.7%) have disagreed about that, while (5) teachers with percentage (16.7%) have strongly disagreed about that.

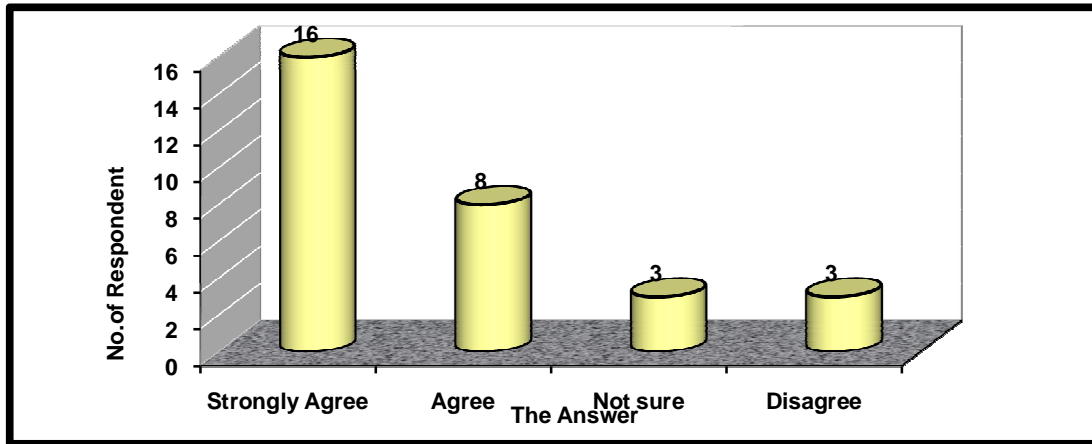
Question No.(14): Teachers should seek opportunities to promote their understanding on language strategies.

Table no. (4.18) and figure no.(4.14) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(14).

Table (4.18) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(14)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	16	53.3
Agree	8	26.7
Not sure	3	10.0
Disagree	3	10.0
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-14):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(14)



According to table no.(4.18) and figure (4.14), there are (16) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (53.3%) have strongly agreed with " Teachers should seek opportunities to promote their understanding on language strategies ". There are (8) teachers with percentage (26.77%) have agreed on that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) are not sure about that, and (3) teachers with percentage (10.0%) have disagreed about that.

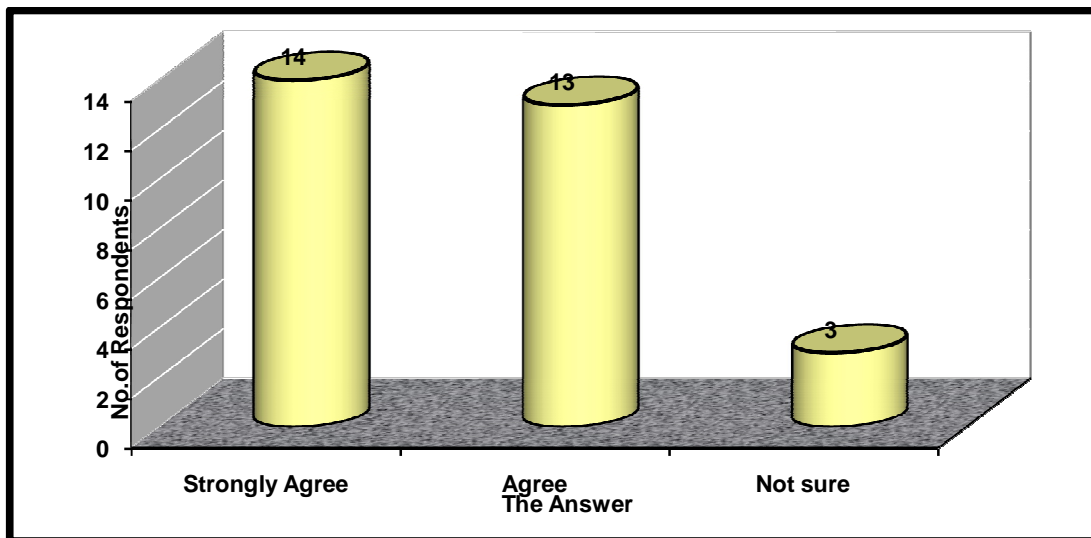
Question No.(15): Teachers need to become aware of teaching strategies through appropriate teacher training .

Table no. (4.19) and figure no.(4.15) shows the frequency distribution for the study's respondents about question no.(15).

Table (4.19) The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(15)

Answer	Number	Percent
Strongly Agree	14	46.7
Agree	13	43.3
Not sure	3	10.0
Total	30	100.0

Figure no.(4-15):The frequency distribution for the respondents' answers about question no.(15)



From table no.(4.19) and figure (4.15), there are (14) teachers in the study's sample with percentage (46.7%) have strongly agreed with " Teachers need to become aware of teaching strategies through appropriate teacher training ". There are (13) teachers with percentage (34.3%) have agreed about that, and (3) persons with percentage (10.0%) are not sure about that.

4.4. Test of the Study's Hypotheses

To answer the study questions and to test its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the questionnaire that shows the

opinions of the study respondents. To do that, the researcher gives five degrees for each answer of "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer of "agree", three degrees for each answer of " Not sure", two degrees for each answer of "disagree", and one degree for each answer of "strongly disagree", this is according to the statistical analysis requirements and transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, non-parametric chi-square test will be used to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions.

4.4.1. Results of the First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis in this study state the following:

-Explicit strategy training improves the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.

The aim of this hypothesis is to show that language learning strategies can be taught and employing strategies based-instruction can upgrade the achievement of the students in speaking a foreign language.

To test this hypothesis, we must know the trend of respondents' opinions about each question from the hypothesis's questions, and for all questions. The researcher employs the mean, standard deviation, T-value and P-value which are the central tendency measures, used to describe the phenomena, and represent the centered answer for all respondents' answers.

Table no.(4.20):Different between pre & post in groups(experimental &control)

Group	Test	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value	P-value
--------------	-------------	-------------	---------------------------	----------------	----------------

Experimental	Pre	3.425	0.472	4.895	0.000
	Post	2.627	1.187		
Control	Pre	3.285	0.412	-2.910	0.005
	Post	3.535	0.717		

From above table, it is clear that:

1. The P-value of T-test (0.000) is less than significant level (0.05) that mean there is statistical difference between pre test and post test in the experimental group.
2. The P-value of T-test (0.005) is less than significant level (0.05) that mean there is statistical difference between pre test and post test in control for post test.

From above results, we see that the first hypothesis that state:

“Explicit strategy training improve the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language” is accepted.

4.4.2. Results of the Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis in this study states the following:

“There is a close relationship between strategies based-instruction and the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.”

The aim of this hypothesis is to show that the students show progress in speaking a foreign language after they were exposed to the language strategy and went over training sessions.

Table no.(4.21):Different between pre & post in experimental &control groups

Test	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value	P-value
Pre	Experimental	3.525	0.472	4.946	0.004
	Control	3.284	0.412		
Post	Experimental	2.627	1.187	-5.670	0.000
	Control	3.535	0.717		

From above table,

1. The P-value of T-test (0.004) is less than significant level (0.05) that mean there is statistical difference between experimental and control in pre for experimental group.

2. The P-value of T-test (0.000) is less than significant level (0.05) that mean there is statistical difference between experimental and control in post for experimental group.

From above results, we see that the second hypothesis that states “There is a close relationship between strategies based-instruction and the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language” is fulfilled.

4.4.3. Results of the Third Hypothesis

The third hypothesis in this study states the following:

“The teachers believe that employing strategies-based instruction can improve the performance of the students in speaking skills”

The aim of this hypothesis is to show that the English language teachers who are in the field of teaching and close to the needs of their students, believe in the significance of employing strategies-based

instruction to improve the performance of the students in speaking English language.

Table no.(4.22):Chi-square test results for respondents' answers about the questions of the third hypothesis

No	Questions	Degree of freedom	Chi-square value
1	Teacher need to know the benefits of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language.	4	27.39
2	Teacher can help students identify language strategies in their learning.	4	18.04
3	Teachers should encourage students to use language strategies.	3	17.47
4	Teacher need to know that there are various factors effecting learners strategies choice (e.g motivation or teaching methods).	4	20.65
5	Strategies-based instruction is a learning tool for students.	4	19.33
6	Strategies-based instruction improves language performance.	3	17.60
7	Many different strategies can be used by language learners.	4	21.67
8	Most successful students tend to use language strategies that appropriate to task and their own goals, needs, and stage of learning.	4	18.33
9	Students can be taught to use effective strategies.	4	20.67
10	Strategies-based instruction helps students become more effective language learners.	4	19.33
11	Strategies-based instruction makes students more independent learner.	4	30.33

12	Strategies-based instruction can increase student confidence in their own learning ability.	4	16.33
13	Teachers should seek share their knowledge with other educators on teaching language strategies.	4	16.66
14	Teachers should seek opportunities to promote their understanding on language strategies.	3	15.07
15	Teachers need to become aware of teaching strategies through appropriate teacher training.	2	17.40

According to the table, we can demonstrate the results as follows:

- The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the 1st question was (27.39) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4). According to what mentioned in the above table, there are statistically significant differences among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have agreed with “Teacher need to know the benefits of strategies based instruction on speaking a foreign language”.
- The significance differences for the respondents' answers in the 2nd question was (18.04) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4). This indicates that, there are significant differences among the answers of the respondents, which sustain the respondents who have strongly agreed with “Teacher can help students identify language strategies in their learning”.
- The respondents' answers in the 3rd question was (17.47) that is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4). This reveals that, there are significant differences

among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with "Teachers should encourage students to use language strategies".

- The participants' answers in the 4th question was (20.65) which is greater than the degree of freedom (4). This shows that, there are statistically significant differences, which support the respondents who have agreed with "Teacher need to know that there are various factors effecting learners strategies choice (e.g. motivation or teaching methods)".
- The teachers' answers in the 5th question was (19.33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4). This demonstrates that, there are differences, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with "Strategies-based instruction is learning tool for students".
- In regard to 6th question, the participants' answers was (17.60). This displays that, there are statistically significant differences among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with "Strategies-based instruction improves language performance".
- The respondents' answers in the 7th question was (21.67). This shows that, there are significant differences of the respondents' answers, which support that "Many different strategies can be used by language learners".
- The respondents' answers in the 8th question was (18.33) which is greater than the degree of freedom (4). This indicates that, there are significant differences of the respondents' responses, which support the participants who have agreed with that "Most

successful students tend to use language strategies that appropriate to task and their own goals, needs, and stage of learning”.

- The teachers’ answers in the 9th question was (20.67) which means that, there are statistically differences in the answers of the respondents, that strength the respondents’ claim who have strongly agreed with that ”Students can be taught to use effective strategies”.
- The respondents’ answers in the 10th question was (19.33). According to what mentioned in the table above, this reveals that, there are significant differences among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondents who have strongly agreed with that “Strategies-based instruction helps students become more effective language learners”.
- The participants’ answers in the 11th question was (30.33). This indicates that, there are differences in the answers of the respondents, which support the participants who have strongly agreed with that ” Strategies-based instruction makes students more independent learner”.
- The teachers’ answers in the 12th question was (16.33). This reveals that, there are significant differences among the answers of the respondents, which empower the respondents who have agreed with “Strategies-based instruction can increase student confidence in their own learning ability”.
- The respondents’ answers in the 13th question was (16.66) which is greater than the degree of freedom (4). This proves that, there are differences in the answers of the respondents, which support the participants who have agreed with ” Teachers should seek share

their knowledge with other educators on teaching language strategies”.

- The participants’ answers in the 14th question was (15.07). This shows that, there are differences in the answers of the respondents, which strength the respondents who see that “Teachers should seek opportunities to promote their understanding on language strategies”.
- The respondents’ answers in the 15th question was (17.40). This indicates that, there are significant differences in the answers of the respondents, which sustain the respondents who think that Teachers need to become aware of teaching strategies through appropriate teacher training”.

From above results, we see that the third hypothesis that states “The teachers believe that employing strategies-based instruction can improve the performance of the students in speaking skills” is fulfilled.

Chapter Five

Conclusion, Findings and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusion

The study investigates the impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language in Sudan. To achieve the objectives of the study, analysis of the SILL questionnaire, speaking test and the teachers' questionnaire were used to find answers for the research questions and test the hypotheses. The questionnaire is meant for English language university students' at tertiary level.

The core hypothesis of the study is that there is a close relationship between strategies-based instruction and the performance of the students in speaking skills. Language learning strategies can also be an effective tool to help the students become autonomous learners and transfer these strategies for different tasks.

The study basically attempts to validify three hypotheses:

- 1- There is a close relationship between strategies based-instruction and the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.
- 2- Explicit strategy training improve the performance of the students in speaking a foreign language.
- 3- The teachers believe that employing strategies-based instruction can improve the performance of the students' speaking skills.

These hypotheses have generated three basic questions:

- 1- What is the relationship between strategies-based instruction and the performance of the students in speaking skills?
- 2- What is the effect of explicit strategy training on learners' performance in speaking skills?
- 3- What are the teachers' perspectives on the importance of strategies-based instruction in improving the students' speaking skills?

5.2. Findings

The following are the major findings that have been generated from the students' SILL questionnaire analysis, the analysis of the results of the students' speaking tests and the teachers' questionnaire.

Depending on the study results, important findings have been arrived:

- 1- Strategies-based instruction is an important and influential element in the process of teaching English as a foreign language. It was revealed that it can be used for developing speaking skills among Sudanese university students.
- 2- Language strategies, if taught properly, greatly contribute to enhancing students' performance in speaking. It can be used as a model and subject matter for speaking. It can also help widen their scope of vision and thinking.
3. Exposing the students to good models, styles and elements of different language strategies, can be an effective means to enhance speaking skills. Teaching students different language strategies and engaging them in communication activities will promote their styles of speaking.
4. Involving students in speaking activities or role plays and training them, group speaking and speaking workshops would enhance speaking skills.
- 5- Engaging students in speaking activities during English language courses helps promote their speaking styles. Speaking workshops and group speaking also help ease students' tension when they start practising speaking; peer help and corrections motivate students to improve their speaking skills.

6. The results of the study have revealed that strategies-based instruction is an effective medium for developing language skills. Since speaking topics are authentic samples of the target language, it can be used as a good source of materials for practicing language skills.

7. Teaching language strategies helps promote speech fluency and pronunciation.

8. The results of the students' test have shown that utilizing language strategies in teaching is considered to be an effective means for developing understanding of a foreign language and enhancing speaking skills.

In regard to the pedagogical implication, the study was undertaken to determine whether strategies-based instruction should have a role in affecting students' speaking performance in a foreign language. It would seem that, the results speak in favour of such a role. The researcher sensed the urgent need to promote students' awareness of employing more frequently these strategies during their English study. Preferably, if the instructors systematically introduce and reinforce strategies that are specially designed for any given test and that can help students improve their EFL proficiency, their students may well improve the performance on language tasks.

The study also endorses the notion of integrating strategy training into the classroom instructional plan and embedding strategies into daily language tasks unconsciously since strategies use has been frequently documented contributing to the success of L2 / FL learning.

5.3. Recommendations

The outcome of this study can be beneficial for syllabus designers who can include sufficient practices in the scope of language learning

strategies in EFL syllabuses in order to encourage learners develop their competence in strategy use while learning a specific skill in target language. It would be appropriate to make some important recommendations as follows.

5.3.1. Recommendations for English language departments

1. More emphasis should be placed on developing students' speaking skills. English language departments at universities are urged to adopt language strategies to enhance students' abilities to produce English language in a proper way.

2. Because of its importance, language strategies should be included in the syllabus.

3. Strategies-based instruction is to be used for the purposes of developing speaking skills and help students be autonomous learners.

4. Instructors are to be urged to organize presentations, speaking workshops and set up speaking groups to provide suitable environment for students to practice speaking well.

5. Sufficient and suitable training in language strategies should be made available to students.

6. Teachers are to be sufficiently trained so that they can adopt strategies and methods that contribute to enhancing speaking skills.

7- English language clubs should be activated to give the students opportunities to practice English more.

5.3.2. Recommendation for English language instructors

Depending on the results of the study, there is an urgent need for language strategies whether English is taught as a second or foreign language. To meet this need, it is recommended that:

1. Language strategies are to be taught and the students are to be trained and informed on the significance and role of language strategies in pushing forward their speaking performance.
2. Instructors can be encouraged to employ strategy instructions in their language teaching classes.
3. Speaking groups, presentations, and speaking workshops are to be adopted in English language classes.
5. Students' interest in learning language strategies for the purposes of developing speaking skills must be greatly encouraged.
6. To consolidate the study findings, it is of great importance to recommend the use of language strategies in the best possible manner in English language teaching.

5.4. Suggestion for further studies

Here are some suggested areas that can be covered by other researchers in the same field of study:

1. How to make our language teachers aware of the importance of learning strategies.
2. How to teach strategies effectively to ESL or EFL students of different ages, motivation and cultural backgrounds.
3. To what extent each learner can successfully challenge his culture's values in using particular learning strategies.
4. What strategy instruction that learners need.

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Appendix (A)
Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
Questionnaire

This form of the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) is for (ESL) students. Please read each statement and draw a circle around the number of the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells how true the statements.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. **There are no right or wrong answers** to these statements.

Part A: Memory Strategies

NO	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in the SL.					
2	I use new SL words in a sentence so I can remember them.					
3	I connect the sound of a new SL word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4	I physically act out new SL words.					

Part B: Cognitive Strategies

NO	Statements	1	2	3	3	5
5	I say or write new SL words several times.					
6	I try to talk like native SL speakers.					
7	I watch SL language TV shows spoken in SL or go to movies spoken in SL.					

Part C: Compensation Strategies

NO	Statemnts	1	2	3	4	5
8	To understand unfamiliar SL words, I use the guessing.					
9	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in the SL, I use gestures.					
10	If I can't think of an SL word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					

Part D: Metacognitive Strategies

NO	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
11	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my SL.					
12	I notice my SL mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
13	I pay attention when someone is speaking SL.					
14	I have clear goals for improving my SL skills.					

Part E: Affective Strategies

NO	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
15	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL.					
16	I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
17	I give myself a reward when I do well in SL.					

Part F: Social Strategies

NO	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
18	If I do not understand something in SL, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
19	I ask SL speakers to correct me when I talk.					
20	I practice SL with other students.					

Appendix (B)

Speaking Tasks

Speaking Tasks consist of a series of four speaking tasks. All subjects from the Experimental and Control groups are asked to complete the same four tasks on a pre-posttest to determine whether there are gains in speaking ability or not. The data is collected from the subjects' audio-taping responses, and also during non- classroom hours due to the constraints on class time. For each of the tasks, students are given time to prepare what they will say before they begin their individual recordings. The following are descriptions of the four speaking tasks :

a- Introduce yourself:

This task requires students to make use of previously-studied material. In this task, the students are asked to introduce themselves in the target language. Because this topic was based already on content that students had already come across and it is an authentic language exchange, therefore the task can be natural and helps put the students at ease.

b- Story Re-telling:

The students are asked to give a summary of a story or a novel that they already read. The students are asked to use their own language, but referring back as little as possible to the written text is permissible.

c- Hometown Description:

Optionally, the learners are supplied with a list of language words and they are free to use them in their descriptions. They are asked to give a brief description of their hometown.

d- Free topic:

The students are asked to choose a topic and talk about it. The four speaking tasks are expected to elicit a range of learning strategies.

Appendix (C)

Teachers' questionnaire

Please read the statements and make a tick to the correct responses from your own point of view as follows:

- 1- Strongly agree
- 2- Agree
- 3- Not sure
- 4- Disagree
- 5- Strongly disagree

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1-	Awareness of Language Strategies Teachers need to know the benefits of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language.					
2-	Teachers can help students identify language strategies in their learning.					
3-	Teachers should encourage students to use language strategies.					
4-	Teachers need to know that there are various factors effecting learners' strategies choice (e.g. motivation or teaching methods).					
5-	Significance of Strategies-based instruction Strategies-based instruction is a learning tool for students.					
6-	Strategies-based instruction improves language performance.					
7-	Many different strategies can be used by language learners.					

8-	Most successful students tend to use language strategies that appropriate to the task and their own goals, needs, and stage of learning.				
9-	Significance of Teaching Language Strategies Students can be taught to use effective strategies.				
10-	Strategies-based instruction helps students become more effective language learners.				
11-	Strategies-based instruction makes students more independent learners.				
12-	Strategies-based instruction can increase students' confidence in their own learning ability.				
13-	Perception of self-development in teaching Language Strategies Teachers should share their knowledge with other educators on teaching language strategies.				
14-	Teachers should seek opportunities to promote their understanding on language strategies.				
15-	Teachers need to become aware of teaching strategies through appropriate teacher training.				

Appendix (D)

Speaking Test Scale

Chaney and Burk (1998)

Overall impression	Score	Grammatical Accuracy	Score	Vocabulary	Score	Pronunciation	Score
Adequacy of response to tasks; effectiveness of communication ,content, expression		Control of grammar		Control of vocabulary		Control of pronunciation	
Appropriate response to tasks/ situation ;all tasks demands met Message clear Consistently demonstrates understanding Responds with thorough, thoughtful answers		Structures used adequate and appropriate for task; High accurate; very few errors in morphology/syntax Errors do not comprise meaning		Excellent range of vocabulary Fluent with few or no breaks hesitations		Error-free intonation and pronunciation	
Appropriate response to task/situation; most tasks demands met Message fairly clear Usually demonstrates understanding Responds with sufficient details		Structures used adequate and appropriate for task; Good control of major (basic) structures; some errors in morphology/syntax Few patterned errors Errors do not appreciably comprise meaning		Vocabulary range adequate for level and task Fairly fluent with minor breaks or hesitations		Pronunciation free of major errors; intonation accurate	
attempt made to communicate; does not fulfill most task demands response to task/ situation inappropriate frequently demonstrate miscomprehension of details avoid using the target language		attempts made to used structures that are appropriate for task errors on major (basic) structures; syntactic morphological errors patterned errors errors often comprise meaning		word choice inadequate for task or level performance characterized by hesitations or breaks		pronunciation or intonation errors comprise understanding	7
almost none of		little evidence of control of		word choice		pronunciation or	

<p>responses not appropriate to task/situation</p> <p>demonstrate global miscomprehension</p> <p>avoids using the target language, resorts to English or no response</p>		<p>structures necessary for the task</p> <p>grammar highly inconsistent; predominated by errors/ inaccuracies</p> <p>patterned errors</p> <p>errors severely comprise meaning</p>		<p>inadequate for task or level</p> <p>performance characterized by hesitations or breaks</p>		<p>intonation errors comprise meaning</p>	
<p>communication breakdown</p> <p>no appropriate responses/ questions or no attempts made to communicate</p>		<p>grammar control inadequate for task</p> <p>too little production to evaluate</p> <p>errors block meaning</p>		<p>word choice inadequate for task or level, too little production to evaluate</p>		<p>pronunciation or intonation errors predominate, block meaning</p>	

Appendix (E)

Speaking Strategies

[Compiled by C. Alcaya, K. Lybeck, & P. Mougel, teachers in the Experimental sections of the Speaking Strategies Experiment, NLRC/CARLA, Univ. of Minnesota, November:1994]

1) Before You Speak lower your anxiety

- deep breathing
- positive self-talk
- visualize yourself succeeding
- relaxation techniques
- feel prepared
- other anxiety-lowering techniques?

prepare and plan

- Identify the goal and purpose of the task: what is it you are to learn/demonstrate in this exercise?
- Ask for clarification of the task if you are unsure of its goal, purpose, or how you are to do it.
- Activate background knowledge; what do you already know about this situation/task?
- Relate the task to a similar situation; make associations.
- Predict what is going to happen:
- Predict the vocabulary you will need. Make word maps, groupings.
- Think of how you might circumlocute for vocabulary you do not know. Think of synonyms, antonyms, explanations, or nonverbal communication that can substitute.
- Translate from English to your lengua any words you predict you will need that you do not already know.
- Predict the structures (grammar) you will need.

- Review similar tasks in your textbook.
- Transfer sounds and structures from previously learned material to the new situation.
- Predict the difficulties you might encounter.
- Plan your responses and contributions:
- Organize your thoughts.
- Prepare a general "outline" (use notes, keywords, draw pictures).
- Predict what the other party is going to say.
- Rehearse (practice silently, act out in front of a mirror, record yourself and listen).
- Cooperate in all areas if it is a group task.
- Encourage yourself to speak out, even though you might make some mistakes.

2) While You Are Speaking feeling in control

- Take your emotional temperature. If you find you are tense, try to relax, funnel your energy to your brain rather than your body (laugh, breathe deeply).
- Concentrate on the task, do not let what is going on around you distract you.
- Use your prepared materials (when allowed).
- Ask for clarification ("Is this what I am supposed to do?"), help (ask someone for a word, let others know when you need help), or verification (ask someone to correct pronunciation).
- Delay speaking. It's OK to take time to think out your response.
- Don't give up. Don't let your mistakes stop you. If you talk yourself into a corner or become frustrated, back up, ask for time, and start over in another direction.
- Think in the target language.
- Encourage yourself (use positive self-talk).

Be involved in the conversation

- Direct your thoughts away from the situation (e.g., test!) and concentrate on the conversation.
- Listen to your conversation partner. Often you will be able to use the structure or vocabulary they use in your own response.
- Cooperate to negotiate meaning and to complete the task.
- Anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.
- Empathize with your partner. Try to be supportive and helpful.
- Take reasonable risks. Don't guess wildly, but use your good judgment to go ahead and speak when it is appropriate, rather than keeping silent for fear of making a mistake.

Monitor your performance

- Monitor your speech by paying attention to your vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation while speaking.
- Self-correct. If you hear yourself making a mistake, back up and fix it.
- Activate your new vocabulary. Try not to rely only on familiar words.
- Imitate the way native speakers talk.
- Compensate by using strategies such as circumlocution, synonyms, guessing which word to use, getting help, using cognates, making up words, using gestures.
- Adjust or approximate your message. If you can't communicate the complexity of your idea, communicate it simply. Through a progression of questions and answers, you are likely to get your point across, rather than shutting down for a lack of ability to relate the first idea.
- Switch (when possible) to a topic for which you know the words. (Do not do this to avoid practicing new material, however!)

3) After You Speak

Evaluate your performance

- Reward yourself with positive self-talk for completing the task. Give yourself a personally meaningful reward for a particularly good performance.
- Evaluate how well the activity was accomplished (Did you complete the task, achieve the purpose, accomplish the goal? If not, what will you do differently next time?)
- Identify the problem areas.
- Share with peers and instructors (ask for and give feedback, share learning strategies).
- Be aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

Plan for future tasks

- Plan for how you will improve for the next time.
- Look up vocabulary and grammar forms you had difficulty remembering.
- Review the strategies checklist to see what you might have forgotten.
- Ask for help or correction.
- Work with proficient users of the target language.
- Keep a learning log (document strategies used and task outcomes, find out what works for you).