

**THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LEARNING STRATEGIES,
MOTIVATION, AND THE ORAL PROFICIENCY OF ESL STUDENTS**

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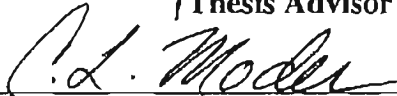
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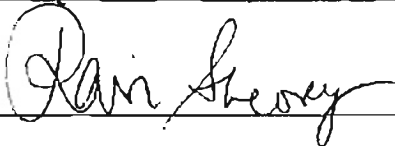
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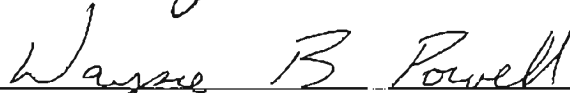


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

What motivates international students to learn to speak English? What approaches or tactics do they use in this ever-so-difficult task of learning to speak English? These are two of the questions that will be answered in this study. Language learning motivation and language learning strategy use appear to be quite different among different types of language learners, particularly those of different proficiency levels. For several years, researchers have been avidly investigating variables which have an effect on one's ability to acquire another language. The possibilities are never-ending and seem to be only continuing to expand, encompassing more variables than any one single researcher or study is capable of investigating. In light of this fact, many studies have examined the multitude of variables that are likely to contribute to one's level of proficiency. Research indicates that two of the most predominant variables which influence one's ability to acquire a language are motivation and learning strategy use. Studies on motivation have extended back as far as the 1950's, whereas research in the field of learning strategies only started about 20 years ago. Because of the relative newness of studies in the field of strategy use, very few studies have simultaneously focused on this factor in conjunction with motivation. Since interest was first expressed in this topic, researchers have focused on the goal of determining the effects of strategy use on proficiency. However, because of the relative infancy of strategy use research, much of the earlier research was dedicated to discovering what these strategies are and how they are employed. It has only been more recently, in the past 10 years or so, that researchers have focused primarily on the effect of strategy use on language proficiency.

Motivation, on the other hand, has been examined in terms of how it influences proficiency for more than 40 years.

Keeping in mind that many studies have examined the relationship between strategy use and proficiency and the relationship between motivation and proficiency, there is still a gap in the research. This gap involves a lack of investigation of the relationships between these variables and oral proficiency. Although numerous studies have investigated the relationships between strategy use and proficiency and motivation and proficiency, the majority of these studies examined general proficiency, typically by means of overall course grades (Dornyei, 1990; Ramage, 1990; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995) or by means of standardized language test scores (Gardner, Lalonde, & Moorecroft, 1985; Vann and Abraham, 1990; Gradman and Hanania, 1991; Wen and Johnson, 1997). Some studies, however, have examined relationships between these variables and individual language skills with the majority of them focusing on the skills of reading (Svanes, 1987; Anderson, 1991; Donato and McCormick, 1994) and writing skills (Svanes, 1987; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995), skills which are more easily assessed than the others. More specifically, a few studies have in addition even taken a closer look at the relationships between these variables and oral proficiency (Bialystok, 1981; Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow, 1983; Ely, 1986a; Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987); however, some of them test for only particular aspects of oral proficiency such as grammatical correctness, pronunciation, etc. The purpose of this study is to attempt to help fill this gap in the research by providing insights as to what motivates students to become better speakers of English as well as what strategies they use to attempt to achieve this goal.

Research indicates that the use of learning strategies has a positive influence on proficiency (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, & Sutter, 1990; Vann and Abraham, 1990; Green and Oxford, 1995). To adequately understand why strategy use has an effect on proficiency, an explanation of strategies is necessary. According to Oxford (1991), strategies are "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills" as well as "tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability" (p. 18). In other words, learners not only are able to identify which procedures are beneficial in reaching their learning goals, but they are also able to take personal responsibility for how successful they are in reaching these goals. Ultimately, through the use of learning strategies, learners are able to strategically assess their learning processes, identify goals, and use appropriate techniques to obtain those goals.

Research suggests that learners are able to effectively employ the use of strategies to obtain their desired level of proficiency. With an awareness of their objectives, and knowledge of which strategies to use that will provide the most beneficial learning outcomes, learners are not only able to make appropriate strategy choices, but they are also able to use those strategies in a manner most effective for learning and relative to the task at hand in order to achieve desired results. On the other hand, research began to emerge indicating that this is not always the case. Some learners who are less successful still employ a wide variety of strategies (O'Malley, 1985; Vann and Abraham, 1990), but they do not choose suitable strategies or do not use them in a way which is appropriate to the results they are aiming towards (Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Vann and Abraham,

1990). Still other studies report that less proficient learners do not use as many strategies as those who are more proficient or that less successful learners do not use strategies as frequently as successful learners (Bialystok, 1981; Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Green and Oxford, 1995). These types of results have led many researchers to believe that strategy training is virtually essential to teach learners which strategies are most appropriate and beneficial to particular tasks as well how and when to effectively use these strategies.

Another variable which influences proficiency is motivation. Research has suggested that level of motivation can ultimately determine how proficient a learner is or will be in acquiring a language. In addition, research also strongly suggests that not only is motivation important in the learning process, but particular types of motivation can have a positive or negative effect on proficiency. Instrumental and integrative motivation are the two types which dominate studies on motivation. Lambert (1974) defined integrative orientation as “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group,” whereas instrumental orientation places importance on “the practical value and advantages of learning a new language” (cited in Gardner and McIntyre, 1991, p. 58). Learners who are integratively motivated have the desire to communicate and identify with and possibly to integrate into the target culture. This type of motivation also entails an eagerness on the part of the learner to have new experiences and become a more well-rounded individual. However, those who are more instrumentally motivated are typically concerned with the benefits they can receive from learning the language such as to get a degree, to become more educated, or to advance in professional areas.

Results of studies concerned with the influence of such types of motivation are very inconsistent, particularly in terms of integrative motivation. Many researchers hold the opinion that learners who are more integratively motivated are more likely to attain a higher level of proficiency than those who are instrumentally motivated (Glikzman, Gardner, and Smythe, 1982; Reiss, 1985; Dornyei, 1990, Gardner and MacIntyre, 1992). On the other hand, there are also researchers who believe that integrative motivation has received too much attention and that its effect on motivation is not as great as past research has implied (Strong, 1984; Svanes, 1987; Gradman and Hanania, 1991, Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995).

There are still others who maintain that a new category of motivation should be observed. Some have insisted that a third category called assimilative motivation should be added to the existing types of motivation. Several other researchers, likewise, believe that a particular motive, the requirement motive, has such an influence on one's proficiency that it should be treated as a separate type of motivation (Kosbab, 1989; Bacon and Finnemann, 1990; Gillette, 1994). What this means is that many learners are most highly motivated to learn a language to fulfill a requirement during some stage of their education. Even more studies have been emerging lately that indicate career goals have such a tremendous effect on how motivated one is to learn a language that it should also be seen as a type of motivation in its own right (Dornyei, 1990).

Of even more interest, researchers have begun to discuss possible relationships which exist between motivation and strategy use (Chamot and Kupper, 1989; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Nyikos and Oxford, 1993; Gillette, 1994). From this it would appear that any individual study of either motivation or strategy use inherently holds

implications for the other. Most research investigating this relationship has found that learners who are highly motivated are also those who use the most strategies. This implies that a learner who is both highly motivated and uses a great deal of strategies is doubling his chances of becoming a proficient learner of the language.

In addition to these two major factors which have an influence on proficiency, various studies have also indicated that many other variables exist which also have an effect on proficiency. Some studies indicate that gender not only has an influence on proficiency (Wen and Johnson, 1997), but also on motivation (Muchnick and Wolfe, 1982; Svanes, 19897) and on strategy use (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Green and Oxford, 1995). However, if it is believed that there are relationships among these multiple variables, then it is a given that if gender has an effect on one of these variables, it likewise has an effect on all of them. Similar results have been found for variables such as age (Gradman and Hanania, 1991) and native language background (Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Svanes 1987).

Chapter two of this study begins with a general review of literature on language learning strategies and moves to a more specific discussion of research focusing on the effects of learning strategies on proficiency. Following this discussion, the second chapter then reviews studies on motivation with a major focus on types of motivation and the influence each has on level of proficiency. Finally, the chapter examines studies which show relationships between motivation and strategy use and how this particular relationship influences proficiency.

The third chapter provides a description of the methodology used in this study to examine the relationships between motivation, strategy use, and level of oral proficiency.

The Video Oral Communication Instrument (VOCI) for ESL/EFL (Halleck and Young, 1995), served as the measure of assessing oral proficiency. Oxford's (1989) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was the instrument employed to measure the strategy use of ESL university students. Other measures used were a motivation battery adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972) and a background questionnaire adapted from Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977). The fourth chapter presents the results of this study, and the fifth chapter discusses conclusions, implications, and future research.

learning strategies can aid in increasing the ability of students to acquire complex cognitive skills (p. 21). Likewise, if the students are aware of the strategies they employ or do not make use of, they may be able to more clearly focus on using these strategies as a method to improve their own learning.

The following review of literature on language learning research focuses on four particular aspects: 1) defining, 2) classifying and 3) measuring learning strategies and the relationship learning strategies have with 4) language proficiency. First of all, defining what learning strategies are and how and why learners utilize them to aid in the process of learning is of utmost importance in understanding the research at hand. The historical outline presented here shows how definitions of learning strategies have sometimes been simplified or broadened by researchers as new findings have been brought to light. It also highlights the progression of our understanding of learning strategies from seeing them as factors which affect learning in general to the more focused views on how strategies affect language learning, or even more specifically, how strategies affect second language learning or foreign language learning. The discussion will also reflect the changing of ideas as studies were conducted, differing results were found, and consequently, as researchers themselves learned more about the use of learning strategies. Strategy classification systems will also be discussed in order to show how individual strategies and strategy categories came into existence. Very closely related to the discussion of strategy classification is a summary of the development of assessment measures. These two aspects are substantially related to each other since often, measures of assessment are the products of well- thought-out classification systems or vice versa. Sometimes classification systems emerge out of the results of a particular

measure of assessment such as interviews or think-aloud tasks. However, other assessment measures such as self-report questionnaires have been developed based on the results of detailed classification systems. Therefore, this chapter will discuss how these various understandings of the theories underlying learning strategies have led to diversified means by which language strategies are classified and assessed. The choice of data elicitation method can strongly affect the outcomes of a study. The discussion of the various methods of measuring strategy use will indicate which methods are the most and the least effective in measuring this particular variable. These three areas of emphasis, defining, classifying, and assessing learning strategies, are intended to set up a foundation for the review of research on the relationships between learning strategies, proficiency and motivation.

Defining Language Learning Strategies

Beginning in the 1970's, learning strategies started to be recognized as a very important aspect in a person's learning process and a strong predictor of success in learning. There are many different definitions and descriptions of learning strategies in past research due to the constant development and continued findings in this area. As research on this topic continues, so the definition of language learning strategies continues to develop and evolve also. O'Malley et al. (1985) discussed the problem of having no agreement among researchers as to what actually constitutes a learning strategy and how they are different from other learning activities. They also emphasized the lack of consensus in defining specific strategies and their relationship to other strategies. One of the most predominant definitions of learning strategies and the foundation from which new definitions have unfolded is that of Rigney (1978). He defined learning strategies as

“operations used by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information” (cited in Oxford, 1989, p. 235). This is a general definition of strategies in any area of learning.

However, in the 1980's, learning strategies took on a slightly different direction becoming an integral part of not only learning in general, but more specifically, language learning. Teachers and researchers began to recognize the importance of learning strategies as approaches that would aid in the learning of a second or foreign language. Emphasizing language acquisition, Bialystok (1983) defined learning strategies as “activities in which the learner may engage for the purpose of improving target language competence” (p. 101). Adding also a different focus with respect to the directness or indirectness of language learning, Oxford (1985) asserted that learning strategies are actions employed by second language learners to enhance their learning either directly or indirectly.

After much research had been published on strategies used by successful language learners, some researchers began to place an emphasis in their definitions on the ability of strategies to lead to successful learning. Oxford (1989) somewhat refined her definition to say that language learning strategies are “behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable” (p. 235). This change was also brought about because Oxford felt that the current definitions were not emphasizing the excitement of learning strategies. However, Chamot and Kupper (1989), not willing to deviate much from Rigney's (1978) general description, explained learning strategies as “techniques which students use to comprehend, store, and remember new information and skills” (p. 13). A year later, Oxford (1990) once again expanded her

definition of learning strategies to highlight the efficiency and effectiveness of strategies by asserting that they 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” (p. 8).

As a result of the surge of research on language learning strategies, the definitions continued to become more specific, focusing on the development of skills in a language. Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter (1990) emphasized that language learning strategies are strategies utilized by second or foreign language learners in order to increase skill in the language. Oxford (1992/1993) finally developed her most focused and comprehensive definition of language learning strategies by characterizing them as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills” and also as “tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability” (p. 18). And finally, in response to research indicating that language learning strategies are specific to the language task and are not so easily generalizable, Ehrman and Oxford (1995) described language learning strategies as techniques and behaviors learners adopt in an attempt to advance in any aspect of their language development. With this idea in mind, MacIntyre (1994) emphasized what strategies can do rather than what they are by stating that “successful use of strategies may improve proficiency and generate new communicative demands and higher goals for the language student” (p. 191).

From this wide variety of definitions and descriptions, it can be seen that there is much consistency in the underlying beliefs of the purpose of learning strategies, that they are used to facilitate learning of some sort. What is different however is that the specifics

of the definitions change as new findings are uncovered and emphasis on language learning takes on new and different directions. This indicates that no one particular definition will consistently be applied by researchers and that existing definitions will likewise be revised and refined as the result of future research. As a result of studies like the present one, hopefully definitions will begin to emerge that more clearly define strategies used to promote proficiency in particular skill areas. From the above definitions, we are only presented with general explanations of how strategies (whether they be strategies for improving the skills of writing, reading, listening, or speaking) work and why they are used. How strategies work and why they are used to advance in particular skill areas should be more closely examined because different strategies are used in different ways and for various reasons based upon the particular skill in which a learner is trying to improve.

In the present study, since the focus is on oral ability, the most relevant definition is that of Oxford (1992/1993) which states that strategies are “specific actions, behaviors, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills” and also as “tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability” (p. 18). This definition is most appropriate because it places an emphasis on the goal of communication which is a major motivation for wanting to improve one’s ability in speaking.

Classification of Learning Strategies

Throughout the years in which a plethora of studies were conducted concerning language learning strategies, researchers were focusing their efforts on what strategies are actually used to learn a language and on devising systems for classifying these strategies. This section takes a look at the historical foundations and progressive development of

some of the most comprehensive and widely-known classification systems to date. As mentioned earlier, a detailed investigation of classification systems is important as often times measures of assessing strategy use have developed out of these systems. However, the classification systems which have been developed do not exist without problems. Oxford and Cohen (1992) suggested that serious problems exist in the classification of learning strategies which “underscore an urgent need to clarify assumptions about categorizations as soon as possible, so that future research can be more sound” (p. 3). One of the main problems considered by Oxford and Cohen is that there are too many contrasting criteria used to formulate a categorization of strategies which they suggest makes it difficult to understand, follow, or summarize strategy research (p. 13); a second problem is that there are no classification systems which emphasize strategies used in more naturalistic settings outside the classroom (p. 27).

Another area for concern is the fact that many of the classification systems are based upon the results of research on the strategy use of good or successful language learners. It is important to note that as learners become more proficient, their strategies change in accordance with their progress and level of proficiency. Rather than basing classification systems and assessment strategies on the behaviors of successful language learners at the time they are examined, what is important is to look at what these successful learners did in their earlier stages of learning. Learning is a process, and there are particular stages learners must pass through before they reach the level of proficiency which is determined as successful. Therefore, we should not assume that if a less successful learner is not using the same strategies as more successful learners, then he is using inappropriate or ineffective strategies. We should not assume this because the

learners at different levels of proficiency are at different stages of their learning process and naturally make different choices and have different approaches to learning based upon their most immediate goals which reflect the present stage of the learner. What should be more closely examined is the difference in the strategy use of the less successful learners in comparison to the strategy use of successful learners when they were also less proficient. Based on these differences, we can then determine what the less proficient learners may be doing incorrectly, inappropriately, or ineffectively in terms of strategy use.

Another weakness in the existing classification systems is that they classify strategies based on the mental processes and behaviors of learners in terms of general language learning rather than on the processes and behaviors used while learning specific language skills. Therefore, there is a great need for classification systems more directed at the strategies specifically used to acquire proficiency in the individual skill areas. With systems focusing on the strategies used to learn particular skills, researchers will be able to develop assessment instruments directly related to particular skills, therefore providing vital insights into how learners acquire those skills and what learners less successful in a skill need to do specifically to improve the skill in which they are lacking. This is a very important aspect of strategy classification and assessment that has been overlooked and should be considered because a learner's level of proficiency and use of strategies may vary greatly based on the particular skill being assessed.

In 1975, Rubin published the first list of language learning strategies which was to be succeeded by an overwhelming corpus of research and subsequent development in the field of language learning. Based on her own observations and intuitions as a language

teacher, she developed a list which consisted of seven strategies used by the second language learner: *guessing, communicative strategies, outgoingness, functional practice, attention to meaning, focus on form and communication, and monitoring*. Although this list was not empirically based, many empirical studies that followed have substantiated her claims (Bialystok, 1981; Rubin, 1981; Wenden, 1983; O'Malley et al., 1985; Reiss, 1985).

A comparable list of strategies was also developed by Stern (1975) while examining characteristics of the good language learner. Based upon his knowledge of stages of language learning and problems faced by language learners, Stern developed the following list of ten learning characteristics of the good language learner:

1. *A personal learning style or positive learning strategies*
2. *An active approach to the learning task*
3. *A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers*
4. *Technical know-how about how to tackle a language*
5. *Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and of revising this system progressively*
6. *Constantly searching for meaning*
7. *Willingness to practice*
8. *Willingness to use the language in real communication*
9. *Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use*
10. *Developing the target language more and more as separate reference system and learning to think in it* (pp. 311-314).

These ten language learning strategies along with those of Rubin set a good foundation for further development in the area which was much needed because neither Stern's nor Rubin's studies provided empirical evidence to confirm whether these strategies are actually used by either second language learners or good language learners.

Although these two lists of strategies developed by Rubin and Stern were good foundations, they only described the strategy use of successful learners at their current

stage of learning, not what their strategy use was like during earlier learning stages. Because of this oversight, we should question whether or not these lists can be used as a basis to determine what less successful learners should be doing in their own stages of learning. Likewise, subsequent classification systems and assessment instruments based on these lists should also be examined with close scrutiny.

As mentioned earlier, there is no emphasis whatsoever on these characteristics as they relate to individual skills. These characteristics are so general that nearly each one of them could apply to all the skills in some way, and each one could also encompass several much more specific characteristics relating to each of the skill areas. For instance, in Rubin's list, we don't know which skill the *functional practice* characteristic is referring to or what skill *attention to meaning* applies to. These characteristics could apply to all language skills, but it is unlikely that they are relative in the same ways. Likewise, from Stern's list, there is no indication of how each of these characteristics applies to the four skills in language learning.

When more empirically based classification systems began to appear, a slight awareness of strategies relevant to particular skills began to emerge, but they were still fairly scarce, and the majority of specific strategies focusing on a skill were in terms of listening and reading.

One of the first empirical studies was conducted by Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978). In this study, 34 successful adult language learners were interviewed to examine strategies involved in the success of second language learning. The researchers were able to identify five particular strategies which they determined as most significant (*active involvement in the language-learning process, development of an awareness of*

the language as a system, development and exploitation of an awareness of language as a means of communication, effective coping with affective demands imposed by language learning, and constant revision of understanding of the target language system). They also mentioned strategies of less prominence such as *modeling, memorization, listening to sources such as television and the radio, and extensive reading*. In a later study, Rubin (1981) found results that very closely echoed those presented in Naiman et al.'s study.

Another study focusing only on the strategy use of successful language learners is that of Reiss (1985). She conducted a study of 98 college-level language students who were asked to complete a short questionnaire consisting of 19 strategies of which the students had to choose those most frequently used. The strategies on the questionnaire were adapted from Rubin (1981) and other past studies of successful language learning. From the results of the questionnaire, Reiss was able to make the following list of eight strategies employed by good language learners:

1. *Listening closely in class and mentally answering questions whether called upon or not*
2. *Listening to other students in class and mentally correcting their errors*
3. *Applying new material mentally while silently speaking to oneself.*
4. *Looking for opportunities to use the language*
5. *Guessing when listening or reading the foreign language*
6. *Using the appendix in textbook or another reference*
7. *Practicing with a friend or native speaker*
8. *Remembering new material by making mental associations in English* (p. 515).

Although the reporting of these strategies was based on empirical research, the same fault still exists that was present in the previous lists derived from the nonempirical research of Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975). The results reported in the studies of Naiman et al. (1978), Rubin (1981), and Reiss (1985) were based on the reports of strategy use of learners at a more advanced level of learning. Just because some strategies were less

prominent does not make them strategies which should not be used by less successful learners. It only indicates that these are strategies which are not very necessary for learners at a more advanced level of proficiency and of a more advanced stage of learning. In addition, the strategies determined as most significant in Naimen et al.'s study were also still very general, while the ones they viewed as less prominent were those which dealt more closely with specific skills such as listening and reading. Therefore, the strategies emphasized on their list consisted only of general strategies and provided very few insights into those used to acquire any individual skill. Reiss, on the other hand, was more specific in her description of strategies such as *listening closely* in class and *guessing when listening and reading*. However, when her strategies were associated with particular skills, there were primarily the skills of listening and reading. Some of the strategies such as *practicing with a friend* and *looking for opportunities to use the language* can be viewed as strategies used to acquire the skill of speaking, but it is not apparent, and they could apply to the other skill areas as well.

Studies began to emerge that examined the strategy use of learners at different levels of proficiency or at different stages of learning; however, these studies still did not fulfill the need of examining the changes in strategy use during the learning process of particular learners. Without this type of analysis, it is questionable what the results of these studies actually mean and how they can tell us what learners should be doing at the different stages of learning. These types of results are important however because they depict the strategy use characteristic of less proficient and more proficient learners.

Studies began to evolve that placed a much stronger emphasis on identifying strategies related to the acquisition of certain skill areas. Although classification systems

were starting to become more detailed and focused, the systems often lack stress on the skill of oral proficiency.

One study that looked at strategies more specifically in terms of individual language skill was that of Bialystok (1981). She conducted a study of the strategy use of 157 high school students (grades ten and twelve) learning French as a second language. From this study, she developed an eight cell matrix by combining the strategies of *formal practicing*, *functional practicing*, *monitoring*, and *inferencing* with the skills of oral and written production. This resulted in the following cells: *formal practice-oral* (e.g. listening to sources in order to learn structures or improve pronunciation), *formal practice-written* (e.g. reading to learn new words or structures), *monitoring-oral* (e.g. plan exactly how you will say something before you say it), *monitoring-written* (e.g. write only what you know is correct), *functional practice-oral* (e.g. listen out of interest in content), *functional practice-written* (e.g. reading for meaning), *inferencing-oral* (e.g. use the gestures of activities of the speaker to help you understand), and *inferencing-written* (e.g. try to figure out the meaning of an unknown word from the context of the passage). One very positive aspect of this study is that it indicated a realization for the need to examine strategies related to individual skills, specifically that of speaking and writing. The foundation for the above matrix and the strategies comprising the matrix were not mentioned.

More and more classification schemes continued to appear, each attempting to be better than the ones constructed earlier. The focus of improving classification systems was to add to or narrow down existing schemes or to emphasize or decrease focus on certain aspects of strategy use. The weight placed on the fine tuning of classification

systems was very important because it provided more detailed strategies relating to the individual skill areas. However, because these systems tried to cover all the skill areas and consisted of such a large number of strategies, some more specific strategies relating to the individual skills may have been overlooked or were not evaluated in much detail.

For instance, Wenden (1983) recommended the use of classification schemes similar to those used in the past for future research, but she also placed an emphasis on their further development and alteration based on the results of new data collection. Similarly, O'Malley et al. (1985) found Rubin's (1975) strategies to be an acceptable foundation on which to develop their own classification system by adding metacognitive components. They felt that an accurate classification scheme needed to include metacognitive components because of the fact that Rubin's identification of strategies "tend to deal with direct manipulations of the learning materials rather than reflections on the process of learning or strategy applications" (p. 27). In light of the necessity seen by O'Malley et al. for metacognitive components, they elaborated on previous classifications and also added a third category called *Social Mediation* and narrowed down the cognitive strategies. The following scheme is the result of the above changes:

1. *Metacognitive Strategies* (advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, advance preparation, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement)
2. *Cognitive strategies* (repetition, resourcing, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing, question for clarification)
3. *Social Mediation* (cooperation) (p. 33).

Chamot and Kupper (1989), working from the above classification system of O'Malley et al., developed an even more detailed and comprehensive classification

system. Also realizing the changing strategy use of learners during different stages of their learning, their study was a longitudinal study of 27 effective and 13 ineffective learners of Spanish at either the beginning, intermediate, or advanced level. Level of effectiveness was determined by the teachers of the learners. At the end of four semesters of study, only 11 effective and two ineffective students remained. During their longitudinal study, Chamot and Kupper found that much more complicated ways of applying particular strategies existed than had been uncovered by O'Malley et al. (1985). In light of this realization, the investigators added further descriptions of the basic strategies in terms of the specific tasks performed in their study. For instance, the metacognitive strategy of *self-monitoring* was defined more in terms of various language tasks and emphasized the wide range of forms this strategy can encompass. These changes resulted in one of the most widely known language learning strategy classification systems. These researchers revised O'Malley et al.'s (1985) classification by changing the category of *Social Mediation Strategies* to *Social and Affective Strategies* because of the frequent use of questioning as a strategy which had not been included in O'Malley et al.'s system. This classification system identified the basic strategy categories and the individual strategies more specifically than O'Malley et al.'s system. See Appendix A for Chamot and Kupper's Strategy Classification System.

This study was initiated with the intentions and had the opportunity to report on the changes in strategy use of learners at different proficiency levels throughout their different stages of learning. The major problem was that by the end of the study, very few of the subjects were still in the language learning program. The initial number of subjects was too small and did not allow room for subjects to drop out of the program.

Consequently, because of the small number of subjects at the end of the study, Chamot and Kupper's research became a case study focusing on the use of strategies of effective and ineffective learners and reporting on observations in the same manner as previous studies. Their opportunity to report individual changes in strategy use throughout different stages of learning was set aside at this point. However, because this was a longitudinal study, the researchers were able to report more specific strategies relating to specific language tasks and indicated a need for examining the various forms particular types of strategies can encompass.

Oxford (1990) also took into consideration and extended upon the work of researchers such as Chamot, O'Malley, Dansereau, and Rubin and developed what may very well be the most comprehensive classification system of language learning strategies to date (See Table 1). This system was based on the idea that the learner is a 'whole person' who not only uses cognitive/metacognitive information processing, but also uses resources that aid him or her intellectually, socially, emotionally, and physically. Her system focused on two main categories of learning behavior: *direct strategies* (those that require a direct involvement with the target language) and *indirect strategies* (those that aid in the learning of a language without direct involvement in the target language). The category of direct strategies was further broken down into *memory strategies*, *cognitive strategies*, and *compensation strategies*, while the category of indirect strategies was comprised of *metacognitive strategies*, *affective strategies*, and *social strategies*. This classification system was the basis for the now well-known strategy assessment instrument, the SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), which is used in the present study.

The more detailed classification systems developed by O'Malley et al. (1985), Chamot and Kupper (1989), and Oxford (1990) contained welcome additions in that they covered a wide variety of strategies in all the skill areas and covered a wide range of different types of strategies. The strategies in this classification system of O'Malley et al. were much more specific and detailed than those of previous systems, but the organization of the strategies focused solely upon the mental processes of the learners and not on the skill areas of the language. None of the strategies were written to show any relationship to an individual skill. Oxford's classification system also placed emphasis on aspects other than the skill areas, but her classification system did contain several strategies which could be seen as having direct relationship with certain skills. For instance, there were *compensation strategies* categorized as strategies used to overcome limitations in speaking and writing. So far, Oxford's classification has made the largest effort towards relating the strategies to the skills to which they are relevant.

Other studies also exist that place an emphasis on skills in which particular strategies might be most useful or most relevant, but none are as comprehensive as the above classification of Oxford (1990).

One such study is that of Vann and Abraham (1990). This study is similar to those which investigate strategy use of successful learners, except these researchers focused on the strategy use of unsuccessful learners. The classification system derived from this study was based on a case study of the observed strategies of two unsuccessful language learners during think-aloud task procedures. Because of the nature of data collection, their system focused on two major strategy categories: *cognitive/learning strategies* and *communication strategies*. In the *cognitive/learning category*, seven

strategies fell in either the subgroup of *focus on meaning* or *focus on form*, while in the category of *communication strategies*, three additional strategies existed. A more detailed outline is provided below.

1. *Cognitive Learning Strategies*

Focus on Meaning:

- Oral clarification/verification (e.g. asks for meaning, repetition, or explanation)
- Guessing (e.g. guesses meaning from context)
- Visual clarification/verification (e.g. uses written form to ascertain meaning)

Focus on Form:

- Deduction (e.g. compares item to one already known)
- Monitoring, clarification/verification (e.g. self-corrects, rereads)
- Practice, language play (e.g. repeats forms corrected, manipulates language)
- Induction (e.g. uses key words in making judgments about correctness of form)

2. *Communication Strategies*

- Content or task clarification/verification (e.g. asks for more information, reads directions)
- Production tricks (e.g. uses synonyms, repetition, gestures)
- Social management (e.g. expresses desire to do well, thanks research assistant) (p. 181).

Just as the studies focusing on successful language learners, the classification system resulting from this study is merely a representation of the strategy use of learners at a particular stage of their learning. It cannot be said that these strategies are the ones characteristic of all unsuccessful language learners or that these strategies are strategies which make a learner unsuccessful. We also do not know whether or not successful learners used these strategies when they were less successful or if they employed different methods of strategy use. However, a positive aspect of this classification system is that it does focus on strategies used to develop particular skills with a number of the strategies relating to the skill of speaking.

Another study which analyzed strategies as they related to skill areas was conducted by Wenden (1986). In her study, she interviewed 25 adult ESL learners.

From these interviews, subjects' statements about certain aspects of learning were compiled into the following five categories: *designating, diagnosing, evaluating, self-analyzing, and theorizing*. The statements were then analyzed to determine what strategies had been employed by the subjects during their learning process. The interviews conducted in this study asked learners what they did in the past in an attempt to learn the language. This study attempts to eliminate the problem of only analyzing strategy use during a single stage of learning, but the problem that still remains is that the strategies reported here are only those used in the past and does not include those they use in the present. An additional problem is that Wenden's classification is based upon the recollection of the learners. The accuracy in reporting their own learning strategies, especially those they used in the past, may be questionable. Table 2 illustrates Wenden's findings in terms of what she calls "A preliminary classification of interviewees' statements: an overview" (p. 204).

Oxford (1992/1993), after witnessing the formulation and application of several different classifications of learning strategies in research over nearly the previous 20 years or so, came to the conclusion that

strategy systems can be categorized as follows: (a) systems related to behaviors of successful language learners; (b) systems based on psychological functions, such as cognitive, metacognitive, and affective; (c) linguistically based strategy systems dealing with inferencing, language monitoring, formal rule-practicing, and functional practicing; (d) systems based on particular language skills, such as oral production, vocabulary learning, reading comprehension, or writing; and (e) systems based on different types (or styles) of learners (p. 20).

TABLE 2

Wenden's Classification of Statements on Learning

<i>Designating</i>	Language: grammar; vocabulary; pronunciation; discourse (e.g. They use complicated structures; I saw how words were related; There are many different accents, In conversation topics change quickly)
<i>Diagnosing</i>	Language Proficiency: specifying; asserting, qualifying; comparing 1; comparing 1 (e.g. I understand 50 per cent of the key words; I couldn't understand; I understood with difficulty; I understand better now; Europeans understand better than Japanese)
<i>Evaluating</i>	Outcome of learning: quality of experience; achievement (e.g. It was useful, I learned; I learned a lot; I learned to write letters)
<i>Self-analysing</i>	Self as learner: feelings; aptitude; physical state; age; learning style; social role; character (e.g. I felt embarrassed; I don't have the ability to learn; If I'm tired, I can't learn; At my age, it's hard to remember; I have to see it written to remember; My husband is studying. I should too; I want to conquer English. I'm ambitious)
<i>Theorizing</i>	How to approach language learning: use the language, learn about the language; personal factors are important (e.g. I'm learning the natural way; Grammar and vocabulary are basic. You have to be stimulated to learn)

Adapted from Wenden (1986)

Although the present study is not a longitudinal study examining the change in learners' strategy use during their learning process, it does focus on discovering strategy use concerning a particular skill area which is one of the aspects lacking in the existing classification systems. The classification system of Oxford (1990) is of most significance to the present study because the SILL (an assessment instrument developed from her classification system) was the instrument chosen to assess strategy use. This classification, though not flawless, is one of the most comprehensive systems to date, encompassing more strategies and consisting of more organization and understandability than the other systems of classification.

Measuring and Testing Learning Strategies

In 1985, Oxford voiced a need for better instruments to assess and measure the use of second language (L2) learning strategies. Some of the techniques used for

obtaining data on learning strategies are observation, interviews, think-alouds, and self-reports. Many of these techniques have been criticized at great length and some are even becoming obsolete in current research. This section will outline studies which have made use of these various techniques and will point out the advantages and disadvantages of using such data collection instruments. It will also trace the change that has occurred in the use of instruments and discuss the current trend in implementing self-report questionnaires.

Observation was one of the first methods used to assess learning strategies but has since lost most of its credibility as an appropriate measure of strategy use. Observations can be described as intuiting, watching students, or using more scientific methods. This method of strategy assessment has received criticism because of its inability to measure strategy use which is not observable. Oxford (1992/1993) states that “observational methods are often difficult to employ because many learning strategies are internal and thus invisible to observers” (p. 18). Some strategies such as *asking questions* or *gesturing* are observable, but other strategies such as *guessing* or *planning* are less apparent and cannot be assessed through observation alone.

Although some strategies cannot be directly observed, Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) used their intuition and general observations as language teachers to develop lists of characteristics of what the former called “successful” language learners and of what the latter called “good” language learners. The problem with these lists was the lack of empirical evidence for their claims which was a direct result of the way in which they assessed these characteristics. Hosenfeld (1976) was dissatisfied with research based on

observation and intuition, indicating that there is a lack of congruity between what observers think students are doing and what they are actually doing.

However, Rubin (1981) continued with the technique of observation in an empirical study to develop a strategy classification system based on particular cognitive processes. She employed the technique of using a strip-story in which students were given a sentence from a story and were required to cooperatively come up with the rest of the story. During their oral discussion of the story, researchers observed, recorded, and videotaped the interactions of the students. This type of observation was seen as more valuable because of its empirical foundation, but Rubin still felt that the observations were not very fruitful because teachers focused on obtaining the correct answer, not on the process the learners used to arrive at an answer. Rubin also stated that observations in language classrooms revealed very little about strategy use and questioned whether through observation one could even determine when a strategy was being used.

O'Malley et al. (1985) had a similar experience in measuring strategies through observation, stating that the observations were greatly nonproductive and unreliable, whereas they had much greater success in identifying learning strategies by conducting interviews with students.

Instead of using observation, other studies used interviews as a method of assessing strategy use. In interviews, the researchers ask the learners to explain what strategies they use, how they use them, and why they use them. There are three ways in which this can be done: 1) directly interviewing the learners, 2) using the think-aloud interview procedure (listening to the learners as they think aloud while performing tasks), and 3) combining direct interviews with think-aloud interviews. The major problem

with direct interviews is that because of the retrospection involved, reports of strategy use are often inaccurate as a result of memory loss. To avoid this problem, some researchers began using think-aloud interviews which are of a more introspective nature. These have typically been found to be quite productive, and some researchers suggest the use of both retrospective and introspective interviews as a means of comparing what learners think they do with what they actually do.

Foreseeing the potential problems with retrospective interviewing, Wenden (1986) attempted to provide somewhat of a structure for her interviews that would help to alleviate difficulties in a learners' ability to remember what strategies he had used during his learning processes. She provided the subjects with a list of areas that would be discussed during the interview and asked them to fill out a grid of their daily activities a few days before the interview occurred. She found that the subjects were able to retrospectively consider particular dimensions of their language learning. However, she found that problems existed during the interviews with the interviewer often taking the lead which resulted in less discussion by the interviewee of areas such as feelings and personal factors. She also emphasized the fact that although she took precautions against the problems of retrospection, there was still no way to determine whether what students reported during the interviews was actually what they did in particular instances of learning. Wenden came to the conclusion that, although still being able to provide insights into their metacognitive knowledge, learner's

retrospective statements can be a mixture of personal fact, inference based on personal fact, and popular belief, with a result that is not at all related to a particular learner's experience. Therefore, as a source of behavioral data,

statements such as those analyzed in this report should be interpreted cautiously (p. 197).

The think-aloud interview was introduced by Hosenfeld (1976) as a way of identifying strategies. She was interested in what strategies would surface from an interview that would not be readily observable. She identified two particular ways of think-aloud interviewing: immediately after the task (introspective) and after a period of time had elapsed following the task (retrospective). Therefore, think-aloud interviews can sometimes also be considered as retrospective.

Both retrospective interviews and think-aloud interviews were used to obtain data on strategy use by Chamot and Kupper (1989) in their *Foreign Language Instruction Project*. The problems they saw with retrospective interviewing were that “students may not report their strategy use accurately – they may forget to mention some strategies (especially those that have become so automatic that they may be operating on a subconscious level), and they may claim to use strategies that they do not in fact use with any frequency” (p. 19). Another major problem that occurred with the retrospective interviews was related to the type of information the researchers were trying to elicit. They were trying to find out information concerning *social-affective strategies*, and the only one used by the students was *questioning for clarification/verification*. The researchers believed the lack of use of *social-affective strategies* was due to the nature of face-to-face interviewing. On the other hand, Chamot and Kupper did find some positive aspects of retrospective interviewing. They found that learners could, to some extent, describe the mental processes which they use and that retrospective interviews allowed the learners to reflect on their learning.

Chamot and Kupper (1989), also employed think-aloud interviews in their study, and found both advantages and disadvantages in the use of this assessment measure. The most predominant advantage they found with the think-aloud method was that “students have immediate access to strategies operating in short term memory and can report on sequences of strategies used to solve a specific problem” (p. 19). On the other hand, they found that think-aloud interviews did not allow for an analysis of the strategies which learners use to understand, study, or recall new information. Much like observations, these types of strategies cannot be seen by the researcher and are often not recognized or reported by the learner as he performs a think-aloud task.

Other researchers have also advocated the use of think-aloud interviews. One such group of researchers is O’Malley et al. (1985) who reported that these types of interviews turned out to be a much more successful assessment of strategies than observations “which were exceedingly nonproductive and, in part due to low frequencies, proved highly unreliable”. Similarly, Vann and Abraham (1990) also advocated this method explaining that “the think aloud technique encouraged negotiation of meaning between the subject and a research assistant, thus eliciting strategies believed to be associated with language learning” (p. 180). In addition, Andersen (1991), in his study of strategies for reading, also promoted the use of think-alouds as a method used to identify the mental processes readers use to understand printed material.

In light of problems with the use of observations, interviews, and think-alouds to assess learning strategies, researchers began to look more closely at the option of using self-report questionnaires. Oxford and Crookall (1989), in their review of methods of assessing strategies, stated that the advantages of surveys or questionnaires is that they

cover a variety of strategies and are typically quite structured and objective methods of assessment. On the other hand, researchers such as Wenden (1983) expressed concern in terms of the subjectivity of self-reported strategies and the fact that they do not allow for a more detailed analysis or classification. Wenden (1985) also cautioned against the use of self-report measures because of their inherent subjectivity and ambiguity in data collection. Vann and Abraham (1990) also expressed concern for the use of learner's reported strategy use on questionnaires, stating that much of the results in studies using such assessment instruments are "puzzling." Regardless of these concerns, many self-report questionnaires have been developed and used by a variety of researchers.

The Language Strategies Questionnaire developed by Bialystok (1981) was one of the first questionnaires focusing on the assessment of language learning strategies. This questionnaire examined *formal* and *functional practice*, *monitoring*, and *inferencing* of oral and written skills. Bialystok believed that an instrument such as this one had advantages such as ease of administration to large groups, simple scoring and data compilation, and derivation of precise quantitative measures. A similar instrument, the Behavior Questionnaire, developed by Politzer and McGroarty (1985), was based on the findings of Naiman et al. (1978) and Rubin (1981). This particular questionnaire consisted of behaviors and strategies falling into three categories: *classroom study*, *individual study*, and *social interaction outside the classroom*. After analyzing their results, Politzer and McGroarty stated that "the use of self-report questionnaires on language learning behaviors appears to be a useful and promising form of research" (p. 117). Another self-report questionnaire, the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), was developed by Horwitz (1988). This instrument consisted of 34 items used

to assess students' beliefs in five particular areas: *difficulty of language learning, foreign language aptitude, nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivation and expectations.*

Some researchers, however, wanting to examine other variables as well as strategies developed questionnaires with only partial emphasis on strategy use. Along with a tolerance of ambiguity scale, Ely (1989) developed a strategy questionnaire consisting of learning and communication strategies. Likewise, Reid (1987) developed a self-report questionnaire influenced by existing learning style instruments consisting of statements related to six learning style preferences: *auditory, visual, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning.* Still yet another questionnaire was developed by Wen and Johnson (1997) called the Language Learner Factors Questionnaire which consisted of three parts: *personal details and reasons for learning English, statements of beliefs about language learning, and statements concerning learning strategies.*

The above self-report questionnaires are only some of the most predominant questionnaires which have been developed. Based on the large number of questionnaires which have been developed, it can be seen that many researchers view these as adequate instruments to assess strategy use. However, because of the wide variation of different existing questionnaires, it can be assumed that researchers have not yet been satisfied with any one of these particular questionnaires.

On the other hand, Oxford's 1989, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), the instrument used in the present study, has been widely used and excepted by a large number of researchers and focuses only on the use of learning strategies. Oxford (1995) reported that around 40 to 50 major studies have been conducted using this

measure of assessing strategy use. The SILL was published in two versions: Version 5.1 with 80 items and Version 7.0 with 50 items. According to Oxford (1990), these versions were developed based on her own strategy system along with surveys and strategy lists of O'Malley, Chamot, and Rubin. These versions also developed out of studies Oxford and her colleagues conducted using an earlier 121-item version.

The SILL, however, has not existed without criticism and concern. LoCastro (1994), after administering the SILL to 28 advanced EFL learners in Japan, reported that the subjects felt that the SILL lacked strategies related to listening as a means of learning and that some of the items lacked contextualization. Her main concern with this instrument was its inability to be transferred across various learning environments. As was indicated in the above discussion of classification systems, LoCastro held a similar view that "future research must consider the empirical and theoretical bases of such instruments as the SILL" (p. 413). Some researchers have also discussed the fact that self-report is sometimes questioned because of possible "social desirability response bias" (SDRB), such as the learner responding in the way that he thinks the researcher wants him to.

However, a number of studies using the SILL (Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Nyikos and Oxford, 1993) found that, through statistical analysis, it showed no evidence of SDRB. Oxford (1995) also reported that Chronbach alphas used to determine internal reliability have been very high in these studies, ranging from .91 to .94 when administered in the native language and from .85 to .91 when administered in English. Construct validity was also found to exist between SILL factors and other variables such as language proficiency and language motivation (Ehrman and Oxford,

1989 and Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Another advantage of the SILL is that it places more of an emphasis on social and affective strategies that other strategy questionnaires do not, therefore examining all aspects of the learner rather than merely examining the information-processing and management aspects. Oxford (1990) emphasized that

a learning strategy inventory such as this will help teachers become aware of the strategies their students use, diagnose difficulties in learning strategy use, and design ways to enable learners to improve their L2 learning strategies. This inventory will also help students assess their own strengths and weaknesses in strategy use and will serve as a tool for language researchers (p. 3).

A variety of assessment measures have been used to determine strategy use, but it appears that questionnaires are the most efficient methods. Think-alouds also have merits in discovering strategies which are not present on such questionnaires. Although there is a need for strategy assessment instruments focusing on particular skills or sample populations, the present study made use of the SILL as the measure of assessment because of its wide use and other benefits as stated above.

Studies on the Relationship Between Language Proficiency and Strategy Use

In discussing the influence of strategy use on proficiency, much research has focused on the characteristics, behaviors, and types of strategies employed by good language learners. One of the main focuses of language learning strategy research has been to examine what good language learners do in order to learn a language. Once that is discovered, it is hoped that these strategies could be made accessible to unsuccessful language learners also. This focus relies on the assumption that if less successful learners apply the same strategies in the same way as more successful learners, then the skills of

the less successful learners will improve. On the contrary, it has also been suggested by some researchers that less proficient learners employ as many strategies as more proficient learners, but that they do not use the strategies as effectively. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) stated that “there is a great need to determine whether frequency of use makes a given behavior more or less effective for language learners” (p. 118). This section will summarize research theories focusing on the relationship between proficiency and language learning strategies. When empirical studies are discussed, there will be an emphasis placed on measures of proficiency, especially that of oral proficiency, and any statistically significant and relevant results.

As one of the pioneer investigators of characteristics of the good language learner, Stern (1975), as mentioned earlier in this chapter, devised a list of ten language learning strategies used by the good language learner. Stern and a great many other researchers (discussed below) who have commented on successful language learning through strategy use agree that successful language learners tend to use good strategies more often than unsuccessful language learners.

Likewise, Oxford (1989) stressed that the quality and success of experiences in language learning can be influenced considerably by the use of language learning strategies. To be even more specific, the quantity, variety, and frequency of strategy use are mentioned as variables that influence differences between the successful and poor language learner. Oxford also states that good language learners employ more and better strategies than poor language learners. This idea leads to the obvious assumption that less successful learners use fewer strategies and use them less frequently than successful

language learners. This assumption has likewise been considered by researchers such as Wenden(1986) and Huang and van-Naerssen (1987).

There is a general consensus that language learning strategies have an influence on proficiency, but the exact relationship is not apparently clear.

Studies Focusing on the Relationship Between Strategy Use and Oral Proficiency

Bialystok (1981) studied the relationship between strategy use and proficiency of 157 grade ten and twelve grade students of French as a second language. The measures of achievement used in this study were standardized International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) achievement tests for listening, reading, and writing. To examine oral ability, the aforementioned listening test and the *Aural Grammar Test* (which was developed for this study) were used. Grade twelve students reported using all three strategies (practice, inferencing, and monitoring) more than grade ten students. However in grade ten, all the strategies were found to have a small but positive effect on achievement. From this, Bialystok concluded that a larger use of the strategies influenced achievement for the grade ten students, whereas the influence of strategies for the grade twelve students is more “specialized”. She also reported that only *functional strategies* (e.g. listening to radio, people, etc. out of interest in the content and reading magazines, newspaper, etc. because of meaning) significantly influenced test performance and did so on all proficiency measures.

Another study examining the effect of strategy use on oral proficiency was that of Politzer and McGroarty (1985). The subjects for this study were 37 ESL students enrolled in an eight-week intensive English college course. *The Behavior Questionnaire*, consisting of behaviors and strategies of good language learners, was the measure of

language learning strategies. The *Plaister Aural Comprehension Test*, the *Comprehensive English Language Test for Speakers of English as a Second Language*, and a communicative competence test were the measures of proficiency given as pre-tests at the beginning of the course and as post-tests at completion of the course. The test of communicative competence, a measure of oral proficiency, consisted of three sections: the *Descriptive* section where the subject is asked to describe an object in a picture, *Events Action* section where the subject is given a set of pictures depicting a birthday party and is asked to invite someone to the party, and the *Speech Acts* section where the subject is asked to discuss the utterances between characters in a picture. This test received an overall rating for the three sections and a discrete-point evaluation of the content. A significant correlation was found only between overall oral proficiency and *social interaction outside of class*, but relationships also existed between *individual* and *classroom behaviors*. Furthermore, Politzer and McGroarty found that gains on the discrete-point evaluation of oral proficiency showed significant positive correlations with the individual factors of *asking the teacher when and by whom an expression may be used* and *asking for confirmation of grammatical correctness* and that gains were higher for students who reported *asking the teacher to repeat a phrase or word which the student has not understood*. Gains in the overall rating of oral proficiency positively correlated with *interrupting oneself when noticing one's mistake*, *avoiding association with the native language*, and *asking for confirmation of grammatical correctness*. Negative correlations were, however, also found for *gains in overall proficiency* and *saying words or phrases aloud to oneself in the learning process* and *spending extra time in practicing words or constructions learned in class*.

A relationship between strategy use and oral proficiency was also found by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) who conducted a study of 60 Chinese EFL students at a foreign language institute in China. To test proficiency, specifically oral proficiency, the students were given the *test of oral communicative ability in English* that consisted of an oral interview in which the students responded to questions such as *describe your home town*. The researchers found that students with higher oral proficiency used functional practice strategies significantly more often than those with lower oral proficiency. They likewise reported that the functional practice strategies of *thinking in English* and *speaking with other students, teachers, and native speakers*, were the strongest predictors of successful oral communication. On the other hand, *formal practice as a general strategy* and *formal oral practice* showed no significant differences between the proficiency levels. Surprisingly, *reading practice* was determined to be the strongest predictor of oral proficiency of all three levels.) It should also be mentioned that unsuccessful learners reported during interviews that attempting to use the strategies employed by their more successful counterparts was of little assistance to them. In terms of suggestions for further research, Huang and Van Naerssen suggested examining success in other skill areas and relationship of this success to strategy use.

Ehrman and Oxford (1995), likewise, found that strategy use and oral proficiency were related to each other in their study of 855 language learners affiliated with government agencies. These subjects were experienced language learners studying one of 34 different languages. At the end of language training, proficiency ratings, “equivalent to the guidelines of the Interagency Language Roundtable/American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages” were given for speaking and writing (p. 73). The

only category on the SILL that correlated with proficiency rating was the *cognitive* strategy use, and cognitive strategies showed a significant relationship with speaking proficiency in particular. Proficiency showed no significant relationships to any of the other strategy groups. The reason provided by Ehrman and Oxford for eliciting results different from previous research is that the students of this institution are preselected for the language training programs and typically meet the proficiency requirement at the conclusion of the programs. Based on these results, the researchers claimed that effective learners not only make use of a variety of learning strategies, but more importantly, they make use of a variety of strategies that are appropriate (or more effective) in terms of the learning task at hand.

Studies Describing Strategy Use and Effectiveness of Strategy Use of Learners at Different Levels of Proficiency

According to Oxford (1992), experts and novices in many areas of learning can be differentiated based on their choices of strategies. This is the case, according to Oxford et al. (1990), because experts use more strategies more effectively than do novice learners. Oxford (1992) stressed even further the importance of using language learning strategies appropriately as it will likely result in better overall L2 proficiency or in the proficiency of specific language skills.

MacIntyre (1994) also emphasized the relationship between strategy use and proficiency as being multifaceted in that it is difficult to determine whether strategy use has a greater effect on proficiency or whether proficiency has a greater effect on strategy use. He explains this by demonstrating how a learner may change in his use of strategies as he becomes more proficient in the language. He emphasizes that as learners gain command of certain skills such as vocabulary and grammar, their needs change, and they

become more creative in their strategy use focusing on strategies which will help them more in communication situations. The results of the following studies seem to show evidence of some validity in this theory.

One study which found that certain strategies are more useful for learners at a particular level than other strategies was O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985). These researchers conducted a study of 70 ESL students at three American high schools. Subjects' proficiency level was determined by the school districts' assessment and the instructional approaches used in that district. Subjects in this study were identified as being either beginning or intermediate. Drawing from the curriculum of the school districts, O'Malley et al. devised the following general descriptions of the two levels:

Beginning Level: Students who have little or no proficiency in English and need intensive English instruction.

Intermediate Level: Students with limited proficiency in understanding and speaking English, and little or no skill in reading and writing English, who also need intensive instruction in English (p. 30).

To assess strategy use, interviews were conducted with the subjects in which they reported on the types of activities or procedures they go through during particular learning processes. O'Malley et al. found that beginning-level students identified more strategies than the intermediate-level students. However, intermediate-level students used more metacognitive strategies than the beginning-level students. They explained this as a result of the fact that higher-level students are able to focus their attention on learning of a more metacognitive nature. *Planning* received the highest strategy rating for all students regardless of proficiency level, and for the remaining metacognitive strategies, there was little difference between proficiency levels. It was noted, however, that intermediate-

level students made more significant use of *self-monitoring* than beginning-level students. Cognitive learning strategies were used in a similar manner between the two proficiency levels, but some important differences were mentioned. Beginning-level students used *translation*, *imagery*, and *elaboration* more than the intermediate-level students, while the intermediate-level students used *contextualization or placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence* more than the beginning-level students. O'Malley et al. ~~came to the conclusion that~~ because the cognitive strategies most frequently used were those which required little "manipulation of the information to be learned," these strategies were not efficient strategies (p. 42). According to O'Malley et al., results from this study indicate that

novice language learners may find some strategies more applicable to certain language tasks, while more experienced language learners will find other strategies useful for different language tasks (p. 40).

The investigators concluded by expressing the need in further research for validation of learning strategies in terms of particular second language tasks.

Not only has research shown that successful language learners use good strategies more often and more appropriately than poor language learners, but based on their results, Chamot and Kupper (1989) propose that effective language learners also use a variety of appropriate metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies for both receptive and productive tasks, while less effective students not only use less strategies less frequently, but have a smaller repertoire of strategies and often do not choose appropriate strategies for the task (p. 13).

The view of Chamot and Kupper, that less effective students use inappropriate strategies, has been agreed upon by other researchers and provides a reason why some studies have shown that learners with lower proficiency do actually use just as many strategies as frequently as more proficient learners. This phenomenon is accounted for by the emerging belief that less proficient learners are not able to employ strategies as efficiently as more proficient learners. Chamot and Kupper (1989) conducted a study of 67 high school Spanish foreign language classes. The subjects' teachers assessed their students as being either effective, average, or ineffective language learners. The subjects were also asked to participate in think-aloud tasks. Based on results from the think-alouds, the investigators found that successful language learners were able to choose appropriate strategies and use them to achieve their learning goals, whereas ineffective language learners were less capable of doing so.

Similarly, in a study of 15 students in an intensive English program, Vann and Abraham (1990) found that unsuccessful learners also actively used strategies but that they often failed to connect the strategies to the task therefore causing their strategies of choice to lack appropriateness. Success in language learning was assessed by rate of progress through the program measured by average weekly gains on the Michigan English Language Proficiency Test. They found that the unsuccessful learners used many strategies and often the same ones as successful learners. Vann and Abraham believed these results directly contradicted Wenden's (1985) finding that ineffective learners' "inability to learn is, in fact, due to their not having an appropriate repertoire of learning strategies" (p. 7).

This was also found in a study conducted by Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter (1990) who reported on six case studies where students were participating in ongoing strategy training. The investigators concluded that “strategies can often significantly help learners attain greater proficiency by making the learning process easier, efficient, and more self-directed” (p.197). Therefore, if learners are not using correct strategies, or if they are not using them in a beneficial manner, their learning process will be drastically more complicated.

One of the more recent studies examining strategy use and its relationship with proficiency is that of Wen and Johnson (1997) who conducted a study of 242 students completing a two-year intensive English course in tertiary institutions in China. Although not emphasizing the effectiveness of strategy use, these researchers did indicate that this was an important factor. Along with *The Language Learner Factors Questionnaire*, three measures of proficiency were employed: two standardized matriculation tests used to select students for the course and *The Graded Test for English Majors* (also a standardized test) used to measure achievement at the completion of the course. Based on the scores of these proficiency measures, gains in proficiency were calculated, and the five students with the highest gains and the five with the lowest gains were selected for further study. These remaining ten subjects were then asked to participate in interviews, diary studies, and reading tasks to further measure their learning strategy use. The strategies of *mother tongue avoidance* showed a positive direct effect on achievement, but high achievers never used this strategy or the strategy of *translation as a communication or learning strategy*. Three of the low achievers, however, used the latter strategy consistently in reading, writing, and speaking. *Management strategies*

were reported as having the most significant indirect effect on achievement. Therefore, Wen and Johnson concluded that “any language learning strategies that are well managed are more likely to lead to more successful learning outcomes than those that are not” (p. 39).

Based on these studies of the relationship between proficiency and learning strategies it can be seen that there is great diversification in the assessment of proficiency. The most popular way of assessing proficiency was through the use of various standardized tests typically measuring comprehension, listening, reading, and writing. However, a couple of standardized tests were also used to measure speaking ability. A few of the studies placed an emphasis on oral proficiency, and three in particular (Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987; and Ehrman and Oxford, 1995) used more authentic means of eliciting samples of oral proficiency, such as the oral interview. Other means of determining proficiency level included assessment or indication by either the school district or language instructor.

It can also be seen from previous research that language learning strategies do in fact have an effect on level of proficiency and with the particular skill of speaking.

Concerns that come to the forefront after reviewing research is that a majority of studies on language learning strategies focus only on the strategy use of particular sets of subjects in particular learning environments. The abundance of research of this type has been conducted in an attempt to identify the various strategies that are employed by different types of language learners. Likewise, due to the lack of consistent results concerning the relationship between strategies and proficiency, more studies need to be conducted of this type. However, in light of existing studies on strategies and

proficiency, further research needs to be carried out emphasizing the complex relationships which are likely to exist between strategy use and individual language skill areas.

Language Learning Motivation

Many subtopics have been studied in conjunction with motivation, such as learning strategy use (previously discussed), proficiency (discussed at length in the following discussion), aptitude, attitudes, anxiety, personality, social distance, continuation of language learning, class attendance, class participation, gender, age study began, and ethnicity. Table 3 provides a brief outline of some related studies in terms of who the researchers are and what variables were examined. From this table it can be seen that many factors are viewed as having an important influence on learning, but typically, few of these variables alone are ever discussed as having an important impact without motivation intervening as a relative factor also. Many studies have focused solely on the effect of motivation on learning because it is viewed as having a very strong influence on many aspects of the learning process. These other variables are often seen as having an impact on motivation and are often not given much weight alone. Because motivation is seen as such a prevailing factor in the learning process, especially on one's ability to attain proficiency, this section will emphasize studies that focus particularly on motivation.

In the studies of motivation, researchers have used many different types of investigative instruments such as questionnaires (direct and indirect), proficiency tests, achievement tests, oral interviews, and observation. The research on this topic is widely inconsistent in its results which may be caused by the variance in desired hypothetical

outcomes, investigative instruments, subjects being studied, and setting in which the studies took place.

TABLE 3

Outline of Related Motivation Studies

VARIABLES	STUDY
Attitude	Oller, Hudson, and Lui, 1977 Clement, Smythe, and Gardner, 1978 Chihara and Oller, 1978 Pierson, Fu, and Lee, 1980 Muchnick and Wolfe, 1982 Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcraft, 1985 Ely, 1986a Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991 Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993 Tremblay and Gardner, 1995
Anxiety	Muchnick and Wolfe, 1982 Ely 1986a Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986 Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre, 1992 MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994
Aptitude	Clement, Smythe, and Gardner, 1978 Chihara and Oller, 1978 Gardner, Smythe, and Lalonde, 1984 Gardner, Lalonde, and Moorcraft, 1985
Personality	Hamayan, Genesee, and Tucker, 1977 Ely, 1988 MacIntyre and Charos, 1996
Social distance	Shumann, 1976 Ely, 1986a Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991
Continuation of language learning	Clement et al, 1978 Dornyei, 1990 Ramage, 1990
Gender	Muchnick and Wolfe, 1982 Svanes, 1987
Class attendance	Dornyei, 1990
Class participation	Ely, 1986a
Age study began	Gradman and Hanania, 1991
Ethnicity	Svanes, 1987

Tests of Proficiency in Motivation Studies

Some researchers have commented on the need for better and more reliable tests of measuring language proficiency (Oller et al., 1977). In light of concerns about the testing of proficiency, another problem is what the tests of proficiency are actually testing. Many of the proficiency measures actually assess a wide range of skills, and therefore, it is difficult to determine what relationships actually exist between motivation and proficiency. The majority of tests conducted to determine level of proficiency in motivation studies focus on general tests scores (i.e. standardized tests and cloze tests) and course grades, while only a few actually test for specific skills. Muchnick and Wolfe (1982) placed an emphasis on the need for an examination of the relationship between motivation and specific skill areas of language. When particular skills such as reading and writing are analyzed in motivation studies, they are typically examined as scores of subsections on standardized exams, such as the reading section of the TOEFL. Although some do exist, very few studies have examined the skill of oral proficiency, and when they do, they focus often on individual oral skills such as vocabulary, pronunciation or grammar. Consequently, holistic scores and ratings of proficiency in particular skill areas are not very common in these studies.

In the following discussion, research will be examined with a focus on the history of the types of proficiency measures and their effectiveness to show a relationship with motivation. Often, an individual study will contain several measures of proficiency which is best explained by Gardner et al. (1984) as emphasis of the fact that “the study of second language acquisition should include not only more than one type of predictor, but more than one criterion measure” (p. 34). This idea could potentially eliminate some of

the problems of overgeneralization in the testing of proficiency, only if the various measures test for individual skills. In other words, it is not likely to be helpful if all the instruments test general proficiency, such as using standardized tests and course grades both as measures of proficiency. Besides not leading to any detailed analysis of the effects of motivation on individual skill areas, standardized tests and course grades would not be testing similar areas. Therefore, in the following discussion of measuring proficiency, it will not be uncommon to see the same study appear more than once when different tests are mentioned as studies have begun to use a variety of instruments to test proficiency. Likewise, many of these studies will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section of this chapter.

One of the most predominant means of analyzing the relationship between motivation and proficiency is through the use of subjects' scores on a variety of different measures. One of the first tests used to determine level of proficiency in studies on motivation was the cloze test. Several researchers (Lukmani, 1972; Oller et al., 1977; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Pierson et al., 1980; Gardner et al., 1985; Svanes, 1987; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993) have used this test and continue to use this type of test. A cloze test often only measures certain abilities of the learner such as comprehension, vocabulary, and grammar. Cloze tests do not assess an individual skill area, therefore it is difficult to determine which aspect of proficiency is related to motivation. Lukmani (1972) found that the cloze test correlated highly with instrumental motivation and not with integrative motivation, therefore one must speculate as to whether this relationship was with proficiency or the test itself.

Another means of determining proficiency is through scores on standardized tests. Some researchers have used standardized tests such as the following: The Test of English as a Foreign Language (England, 1982; Gradman and Hanania, 1991;), The Test of English Proficiency (Spolsky, 1969), the Canadian Achievement Test in French (Gardner et al., 1976; Clement et al., 1978; Gardner et al., 1984), Test de Rendement en Français (Hamayan et al., 1977), Test de Lecture "California" (Hamayan et al., 1977), the Michigan English Language Placement Test (Chihara and Oller, 1978), the Cooperative Foreign Language Test (Gardner et al., 1984), and the French Comprehension Test (Gardner et al., 1984; Gardner et al., 1985). However, some researchers prefer to use tests which they have developed themselves or tests of specific skills as opposed to evaluating specific skill areas in sections of a standardized test. These tests typically measure more than one language skill area, if not all four of them. Some of the studies refer to proficiency as the overall score on tests of this type, while others look at the relationships between motivation and sections on these tests. Analyzing the relationships between motivation and the sections on a standardized test would likely provide insights into how motivation effects different skill areas, but they are still not adequate as they do not test the learners' actual production of a skill.

Other types of tests which have been used test individual aspects of a skill area. For instance, vocabulary tests are quite popular in determining a learner's proficiency (Gardner et al., 1984; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner et al., 1992, Julkunen, 1992) as are comprehension tests of listening (Hamayan et al., 1977; Svanes, 1987) and reading (Svanes, 1987) skills. The format of these types of test are still predominantly

multiple choice or fill-in-the-blank; therefore, they also do not test a learner's actual ability in producing the skill.

The use of course grades are also quite popular in previous and current studies on motivation (Gardner et al., 1976; Muchnick and Wolfe, 1982; Gardner et al., 1984; Dornyei, 1990; Ramage, 1990; Julkunen, 1992; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). What do course grades actually measure though? As a teacher myself, I realize that there are many aspects that go into the consideration of an overall course grade, such as class attendance, class participation, late work, extra credit, etc. Consequently, if course grades are used as the measure of proficiency, they are actually testing more than proficiency. Simply because a person receives a lower grade for not attending or participating in class regularly, does not necessarily mean that he is less proficient. Julkunen (1992) pointed out that in her study, a different measure of proficiency, such as an oral communication task, might have yielded different results than the use of overall course grades.

In addition, essay exams have also been considered as a determinant of proficiency in some studies (Ely, 1986a; Svanes, 1987; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). These types of tests are more specific when looking at the relationship between motivation and proficiency. In analyzing the relationships from this sort of study, we would be able to tell exactly what relationship motivation had with a particular skill, such as writing. These tests are also better because the learners actually have to engage in the production of the skill that is being tested. Therefore, we can get a truer assessment of the abilities of the learner.

Gardner and Lambert (1995) best sum up the influence of this widely varied use of instruments with a word of caution that

(a) the measurement strategy one uses to assess an affective variable can influence its correlation with achievement and that (b) different measures of achievement correlate differently with affective variables (p. 189).

The instrument used to test proficiency in the current study tests the particular skill of speaking. This oral proficiency assessment measure (discussed in Chapter III) requires that the subjects actually produce samples of speech that are given a holistic rating. The rating does not simply test the individual aspects of a learner's speech such as grammatical correctness or pronunciation, but rather it assesses all the aspects of speech in conjunction with one another to get a more clear picture of what the learners can do with respect to the skill of oral communication. By employing this type of test of proficiency, many of the above criticisms would be eliminated.

Types of Motivation: Instrumental versus Integrative

Much research has been conducted on the subject of motivation and attitudes and their correlation to language learning. In the forefront of these investigations is Gardner and Lambert (1972) who proposed that motivation can be either integratively or instrumentally oriented. Integrative orientation describes learners who have a desire to learn a second language (SL) in order to interact with and eventually become part of the target language community. These types of learners are said to be integratively motivated. On the other hand, instrumental orientation is associated with the practical reasons for learning a language such as the advancement of career opportunities. These types of learners are characterized as instrumentally motivated. Although the basic

studies of Gardner and Lambert investigated both types of motivation, each is not widely accepted as a valid predictor in language learning. Integrative motivation has received the most attention in studies conducted concerning motivation and attitudes. Many studies have shown that learners who are integratively motivated tend to be higher achievers and show higher levels of proficiency in the second language than those who are instrumentally motivated, but there is much controversy concerning the idea that integrative motivation leads to higher proficiency. An emphasis in this section has been placed on studies that focus on the relationship between proficiency and type of motivation, but a few studies mentioned will directly involve a discussion of proficiency.

As previously mentioned, integrative motivation has been studied in great detail by Gardner and Lambert (1972), who maintained that integrative motivation suggests that in order for learners to be successful in learning a second language, they must demonstrate “a willingness or a desire to be like representative members of the ‘other’ language community, and to become associated, at least, vicariously, with that other community” (p. 14). The researchers also suggested that a learner with instrumental motivation can be just as motivated as a learner with integrative motivation, but that integrative motivation is better in the long run because it will provide the determination which is necessary to attain the second language.

Skehan (1989) defined instrumental motivation as the type of motivation that “is based on the advantages that can accrue if a language is known, e.g. professional advancement, capacity to do one’s job well; ability to read useful material in the target language; potential to exploit members of the foreign culture, etc.” (p. 53). Instrumental motivation is not believed to be a strong factor in predicting language learning according

to many researchers. Gardner and Lambert (1959) theorized that instrumental motivation is not as effective as integrative motivation because it is not based on the personality of the learner, whereas integrative motivation is. This type of motivation has also been termed “The Carrot and Stick Hypothesis” (Skehan, 1989; Ellis, 1994) in that external influences or rewards aid in determining the success of learners and the degree of their motivational strengths. The following investigation of the research concerning language learning motivation will show the differing views of how and whether type of motivation influences proficiency, the sharing of ideas among researchers, and their incentives and rationales for conducting the types of studies in the manner that they did.

Studies Showing that Integrative Motivation Leads to Higher Proficiency

In an attempt to obtain insights into the theory of integrative motivation, Spolsky (1969) conducted a study of 315 foreign students attending American universities through the use of a direct questionnaire, an indirect questionnaire, and the correlation of the two with an English proficiency exam score. The direct questionnaire was intended to measure motivation by providing fourteen reasons for the students’ having come to the United States of which they were asked to rate the importance. The indirect questionnaire attempted to measure attitudes of the students by asking them to rate how well each of thirty adjectives described self, ideal self, native speakers of their language, and native speakers of English. Spolsky reported that only 20% of the students in the study could be categorized as integratively motivated, while the rest of the students demonstrated more instrumental reasons for coming to the United States. Spolsky’s reasoning behind such results was that the students had not been away from their native country long enough to admit they may have motives other than just getting an education,

degree, or training (instrumental motives). They were not ready to acknowledge that they might wish to leave their country permanently or for a long period of time. Although there were fewer integratively motivated students, those that did show this type of motivation also scored higher on the proficiency test. Spolsky also found a positive correlation between language proficiency and the scores on the identity scales relating to self, native language group, and target language group. The results showed that a desire to be more like native English speakers (integrative motivation) rather than speakers of their native language correlated with level of English proficiency. Therefore, Spolsky concluded that “learning a second language is a key to possible membership of a secondary society: the desire to join that group is a major factor in learning” (p. 282).

Integrative motivation was also seen as a predictor of proficiency in a study conducted by Glikzman, Gardner, and Smythe (1982). The subjects of this study were a combination of 149 ninth, tenth, and eleventh grade students enrolled in French. During the first week of class, the students were given a battery of questions concerning attitudes. They were also observed for a 70 minute class period twice a month for four months. Using six factors derived from the attitude battery, Glikzman et al. classified students as integratively or non-integratively motivated. These six factors were: *Attitudes toward French Canadians, Degree of Integrativeness, Attitudes toward Learning French, Attitudes toward the European French, Motivational Intensity, and Desire to Learn French*. Results of this study showed that students who were categorized as integratively motivated volunteered more in class, therefore being more active participants. They also answered with more correct responses and had greater affect than the students who were categorized as non-integratively motivated students. Therefore,

the integratively motivated students who demonstrated these actions can be characterized as being more proficient by answering with more correct responses or as possessing a higher likelihood of becoming more proficient by actively participating in in-class learning.

Likewise, in Reiss' (1985) study investigating the characteristics of good language learners, integrative motivation was determined to be a predictor of high proficiency. Her subjects were 38 foreign language college students at the elementary and intermediate levels of learning a language. These subjects were hand-picked by their instructors as being good language learners. Reiss used the multiple-choice questionnaire format which among other factors contained strategies related to motivation to communicate. Her results showed that 60 percent of these good language learners actively sought out opportunities to use the language they were learning. These results indicated that the subjects had relatively high integrative motivation to learn the new language.

Another study advocating integrative motivation was that of Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre (1992) who found that integrative motivation facilitates the learning of vocabulary words. The subjects of the study, 49 introductory psychology students unfamiliar with the French language, were given one hour to learn 26 rare French nouns by microcomputer. The students' viewing time of the English stimulus and study time of the French noun were analyzed. The focus of this study was the effect of anxiety on motivation and proficiency. There were two groups under investigation, an experimental group consisting of subjects who received information on their monitor that told them they were being videotaped and a control group whose subjects did not receive this

information, nor were they videotaped. The subjects rated their anxiety level before the first trial began and after each of the following six trials. The subjects were also given a questionnaire to fill out which consisted of questions concerning integrative motivation, anxiety, and social desirability. The researchers found that those students who were integratively motivated learned more words, showed a faster rate of learning, initiated responses more quickly, and demonstrated less anxiety than students who possessed little integrative motivation. The viewing time decreased throughout the trials for those who were integratively motivated; whereas, viewing time remained fairly consistent for those who had less integrative motivation. Gardner et al. concluded that integrative motivation facilitates the learning of vocabulary items.

Intrinsic motivation (similar to integrative motivation) was seen to be most prevalent in the highly educated and experienced language learners tested by Ehrman and Oxford (1995). The researchers tested the motivation of 855 students receiving language training in the setting of government institutions by the use of a self-report questionnaire. Their investigation yielded results indicating that motivation was remarkably high for these subjects. The intrinsic (or integrative) motivation was at a very high level, and the subjects showed great desire to use the language outside of the language classroom. Motivational factors showed the second highest level of correlation with proficiency, while language learning strategies was reported as having the highest correlation with proficiency. Intrinsic motivation correlated strongly with reading but even more strongly with speaking. The self-report questionnaire indicated that the subjects were both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated, but most of them reported being more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated.

Also finding that integrative motivation was related to higher proficiency was Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977). The researchers hypothesized that positive attitudes toward the target language group would correlate with higher achievement in learning the target language; likewise, negative attitudes toward the target language group would correlate with lower achievement in the target language. This study applied the identity scales of Spolsky (1969), along with an attitude questionnaire, a cloze passage, and motivation questions modified from Gardner and Lambert (1972). Oller et al. justified the relatedness of results from the identity scales to motivation by explaining that the affective traits on the identity scales could be used as a reference to integrative or instrumental motivation. For instance, traits such as kindness, friendliness, and helpfulness can be seen as integrative, and traits such as intelligence, power, and success can be seen as instrumental. The subjects of this study were 44 primarily Chinese-speaking foreign students studying graduate level courses at universities in the U.S. Oller et al. noted that the interpretation of whether motivation is integrative or instrumental depends on how each individual understands the questions on the questionnaire. The outcome of this study was not what Oller et al. had expected. The cloze passage did not correlate with some of the attitudinal variables, mainly those on the attitude questionnaire such as years spent studying English, years spent in the U.S, use of English texts in college, and parents' skill in English. The researchers proposed several reasons for such results but came to the conclusion that the most "plausible explanation is that proficiency is more apt to covary with factors related to intent to learn and effort than to the quantity of exposure" (p.8). This study also showed that instrumentally motivated reasons for coming to the U.S. such as *getting training in a particular field* or *getting a*

degree were more abundant than integratively motivated reasons; however, those who were more integratively motivated demonstrated better performance on the cloze test than those who were less integratively motivated. This study was one of the first to indicate a confusion in the interpretations and definitions of integrative and instrumental motivation. Therefore, Oller et al. concluded that

there exists the possibility that Ss attitudes, particularly attitudes toward speakers of the target language, are changing rather markedly during the course of becoming proficient in the target language (p. 21).

Studies Indicating that Proficiency is not Related to Integrative Motivation

Because such an issue had been made of integrative motivation in earlier studies, some studies set out not to test which type of motivation has the greatest influence on proficiency, but to simply test whether integrative motivation was actually a predictor of proficiency or not.

England (1982), while placing an importance on previous research concerning the role of attitude, also examined the role of integrative motivation among 84 ESL students at an American university. These 84 subjects were determined as being “successful” in English based on their TOEFL scores. The results obtained from an attitude and motivation questionnaire showed little evidence that these subjects were integratively motivated. England, therefore, concluded that “the long-held notion, that integrative orientation toward Americans is necessary as part of successful English language learning in the U.S. among all university-level students cannot be assumed” (p. 27). Since the subjects of this study were all determined to be at a high level of proficiency,

their lack of integrativeness towards Americans showed that success in language learning has little to do with integrative motivation.

Also reporting that integrative motivation has little influence on proficiency is Strong (1984) who conducted a study in which the integrative motivation of 45 Spanish-speaking kindergarten students was measured. Integrative motivation was measured by bi-monthly individual interviews with the students concerning issues such as who they liked to play with, sit with, work with, and with whom they were best friends. Strong also used samplings of spontaneous language to test communicative language proficiency. The quick learners progressed throughout the year without demonstrating a desire to identify with members of the SL. Children who played and associated with children of the SL group gained no advantage over those who did not. It was not found that an integrative orientation towards members of the SL group increased second language acquisition; thus, the deduction was made that integrative motivation did not hold as much weight with children as it might with adults.

Studies Showing that Instrumental Motivation Leads to Higher Proficiency

As indicated above, studies have reported that integrative motivation has an effect on proficiency, and studies have also indicated that integrative motivation has little or no effect on proficiency. Other studies, however, found that instrumental motivation may have a stronger influence on proficiency than integrative motivation.

While investigating Gardner and Lambert's (1959) theory that instrumental motivation is not as effective as integrative motivation, Gardner and Santos (1970) found results to the contrary. Based upon the reported motivation of Philippine students learning ESL, the researchers concluded that students who had a more instrumental

outlook were more successful in learning English as a second language, while having an integrative outlook correlated only with 'audio-lingual aspects' (cited in Oller et al., 1977, p. 3). As a result of these findings, Gardner and Lambert (1972) felt it necessary to modify their original theory concerning integrative motivation to the following:

It seems that in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language – as in the Philippines and in North America for members of linguistic minority groups – the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective (p. 141).

Still unsatisfied by this modification of theory, Lukmani (1972) conducted a study of 60 high school graduating female Marathi-speaking students in India who had been studying ESL for seven years. In carrying out this study, four measures were used: direct questionnaire, indirect questionnaire, cloze test, and written composition of "My reasons for studying English." The questionnaires were the same as the above-mentioned identity scales used by Spolsky (1969). The results of this study also contradicted Gardner and Lambert's theory (1959). Lukmani found that instrumental motivation was a more powerful predictor of success in language learning because the subjects with instrumental motivation scored higher on the cloze than those who were integratively motivated. She also found that the females were more significantly motivated for instrumental reasons such as getting a good job, coping with university classes, and travelling abroad rather than integrative reasons such as acquiring new ideas and broadening their outlook and becoming more modern. Lukmani came to the conclusion that instrumental motivation and English proficiency were strongly related to one another.

Gradman and Hanania (1991), in their study of 101 students enrolled in a seven-week intensive English program, examined the relationship between background factors (including motivation) and ESL proficiency. The subjects in this study represented a variety of language backgrounds, degrees of formal learning of English, and TOEFL scores. Four variables showed a positive relationship with TOEFL scores: *English as the language of instruction, months of previous intensive or special English, recognition of the need for English, and extent of future need for use of English in the home country.* The latter two variables are of the instrumental type of motivation.

It was also found by Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) that instrumental motivation had an influence on learning, but only learning up to a certain point. The subjects, 92 introductory psychology students who had not taken a university course in French were given six trials (one hour) to learn 26 rare French nouns by microcomputer. The students' viewing time of the English stimulus and study time of the French noun were analyzed. Also, 50 of the 92 introductory psychology students participating in this study were offered \$10 if they got at least all but two items right on the sixth and final trial. The \$10 financial reward for learning was the instrumental motive. The students were also asked to answer questions concerning their levels of integrative motivation, anxiety, and social desirability. The results of Gardner and MacIntyre's study showed that the students who were offered a financial reward for high performance spent more time studying the pairs of words and spent more time viewing the English stimulus than those who were not offered a reward. The only problem was that both groups of students began experiencing less study time as the trials progressed, and more significantly, the students with the incentive spent significantly more time studying in each trial except the

last one in which there was no significant difference in the study time of the groups. Gardner and MacIntyre arrived at the conclusion that though different, integrative and instrumental motivation both were better aids in learning than if there were no motivation at all.

Studies Emphasizing the Importance of Both Types of Motivation

Muchnick and Wolfe (1982) investigated the language learning motivation of 337 high school and middle school students learning Spanish as a second language in the U.S. The subjects were asked to fill out an attitude/motivation questionnaire (similar to the attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner and his associates) and a questionnaire containing biographical information. Final Spanish course grades were used as the measure of proficiency. The researchers reported that because the subjects had very little opportunity to speak Spanish outside the classroom, there was no apparent advantage of being motivated by one type of motivation over the other in learning Spanish. The researchers stated that “both integrative and instrumental orientations are combined into one composite factor related to positive attitudes about learning Spanish” (p. 276).

Another study emphasizing the importance of both types of motivation is that of Gardner, Smythe, and Lalonde (1984) who conducted a study of 31 groups with over 100 Canadian students of French in each group representing grades seven through eleven. Several measures of proficiency (e.g. the French Comprehension Test, the Canadian Achievement Tests in French, and final French course grades) were examined in terms of their influence on responses to questions about language learning attitudes and motivation. The results seemed to only slightly confirm the earlier hypothesis of Gardner

and Lambert (1959) in that integrative motivation was a primary factor but showed only some evidence of a relationship to language proficiency. Since this evidence was not strong, Gardner et al. explained the outcome as being the result of the fact that high integrative motivation can “indicate that learning French is important and/or that it leads to utilitarian goals” (p. 18). By this, the researchers were emphasizing the idea that although most research treats integrative and instrumental orientation as contrasting entities, there is a possibility that learners who have either type of orientation will believe that learning the second language is important.

Also reporting results that indicate the importance of both integrative and instrumental orientation is Ely (1989). In this study, 84 university Spanish students were asked to fill out scales rating strength of motivation, attitude toward studying Spanish, and desire for a good grade. He found that students who displayed a desire for good grades (instrumental motive) focused on correct speech and written production and also had a strong desire to actively participate in learning and in communication. The assumption can therefore be made that these students are most likely to be both instrumentally and integratively motivated with the instrumental motive influencing integrativeness (the desire to communicate in the target language). This indicates that high motivation of both types is very important in learning and can possibly have more of an influence on proficiency.

Dornyei (1990) found that proficiency is not dependent upon whether a learner was instrumentally or integratively motivated, but that proficiency is more or less influenced by the type of motivation learners have at particular stages of learning. Dornyei conducted a study of 134 learners of English as a foreign language in Hungary.

The subjects were categorized as being beginners with less than a year of instruction or intermediate being in their fourth or fifth terms of learning. A questionnaire, partially adapted from previous questionnaires, was made to test a variety of variables, including motivation. Dornyei identified four types or groups of motivation much like those established by Clement and Kruidenier (1983): *instrumental language use* (e.g. need English for career purposes), *passive sociocultural language use* (e.g. interest in foreign culture, products, and events), *communicative sociocultural language use* (e.g. making foreign friends), and *reading for nonprofessional purposes* (e.g. reading English newspaper, magazines, etc.) (pp. 53-54). Other variables such as course achievement (assessed by course grade), course attendance, and intention concerning further enrollment were also examined in this study. With respect to a relationship between proficiency and motivation, course achievement showed a significant positive correlation with *need for achievement*, an integrative type of motivation. However, *desire to spend some time abroad* and *communicative sociocultural language use* had a negative effect on course achievement. In light of these results, Dornyei suggested that course achievement was not affected by whether one is instrumentally or integratively motivated. Six motivation factors concerning career or professional interests (instrumental motives) proved to be quite important to all the subjects. The investigator also reported, however, that learners with an integrative attraction towards the target language and group strive for a higher level of proficiency. This was determined by the subjects' responses to questions concerning *level of desired proficiency*. Based on these results, Dornyei proposed that

although it is instrumental motives and need for achievement that most efficiently promote learning up to the intermediate level, to go beyond this point, that is, to 'really learn' the target language, one has to be integratively motivated (p. 62).

Therefore, it can be concluded that it is not type of motivation per se that leads one to be more proficient, but rather it is the type of motivation that one possesses at the different stages of learning. This indicates that both types of motivation may not be necessary at the same time, but that one type is more beneficial at a particular stage of learning than another.

Studies Showing Only Small Relationships Between Type of Motivation and Proficiency

Although studies such as those discussed above have shown that both types of motivation in conjunction lead to higher proficiency, there are also studies which indicate that whether students are integratively or instrumentally motivated does not influence their proficiency.

One study which found that type of motivation has less to do with proficiency than indicated by other studies was that of Bacon and Finnemann (1990). These researchers constructed a questionnaire designed in part to test motivation. Their questionnaire was tested on a sample of almost 1,000 university students studying Spanish. As with previous studies, the majority (95%) of these subjects were studying the language as a foreign language requirement. Here again is a focus in research on the possibility of requirement motivation being strong enough to demand its own category instead of being disguised within the rest of the instrumental motives. The results of this study indicate that motivation of either type, instrumental or noninstrumental, had small relationships to comprehension of and satisfaction with language learning. This does

indicate that motivation had an influence, but as Bacon and Finnemann point out, the relationship was not as great of an indicator as previous studies have shown.

Another study which reported only a small relationship between motivation and proficiency was that of Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) who conducted a study of 92 university-level French students. A questionnaire containing attitude and motivation variables, self-rating scales of French proficiency, and several measures of proficiency were used as data collection instruments. An emphasis in this study was placed on the different types of results obtained from the following various measures of proficiency: class grade, French cloze test, French word production task, French prose writing task, and a multiple-choice test of French proficiency. The researchers concluded that the data indicated that differences in instrumental orientation tended to show no relationship to proficiency on any of the measures. They accounted for these results by saying because there are so many “pragmatic reasons” (or instrumental motives) for second language learning, if a learner possesses even just one pragmatic reason, then other pragmatic reasons are likely to appear irrelevant to him. Gardner and Lambert did express a similar theory (mentioned in previous research) that “concerns about proficiency [an instrumental motive], based in part on differences in actual proficiency, might tend to become more pronounced in individuals at this level [a higher level of language learning]” (p. 191). In other words, a learner’s level of proficiency may influence how concerned he is about proficiency, therefore, insinuating that not only does motivation effect level of proficiency, but proficiency likewise effects level of motivation.

From the above discussion of studies which investigated integrative and instrumental motivation, it can be seen that there is very little consensus of the relationship these two types of motivation actually have with proficiency. Some researchers believe that integrative motivation has a very pronounced influence on proficiency, while others believe that the influence of integrative motivation has been overemphasized. Some researchers, on the other hand, believe that instrumental motivation is more of a predictor of proficiency than integrative. There are still others who believe that both types of motivation are important, while conversely some have indicated that neither type of motivation influences proficiency. While there does appear to be some complex relationship between type of motivation and level of proficiency, the studies in the following section report that there are underlying variables that influence motivation, therefore indicating that they also have an indirect relationship to level of proficiency.

Studies Indicating that Learners' Language Background Influences Motivation

Some studies have been conducted that more closely examine the effect of language background on motivation. Because these studies indicate that a learner's language background may effect how motivated he is or the type of motivation he has, and because other studies have demonstrated how motivation influences proficiency, then there appears to be an indirect relationship between language background and level of proficiency. The following studies point out that students with different language backgrounds in different environments are motivated in different ways. Some of these studies also indicate that because of the differences in language background, there may be types of motivation present other than the traditional integrative and instrumental

motivation or that particular motives are so strong that they cannot be hidden within either type of motivation.

A study, very similar to that of Oller et al. (1977), was conducted by Chihara and Oller (1978). They used the same methods and materials as did the previous study, but the subjects in this study were English as a foreign language (EFL) learners rather than English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. This study was conducted primarily to see if the results of the direct and indirect questionnaires and their correlations to attained proficiency of the foreign language learners would yield similar results as with those of the second language learners. Chihara and Oller were able to report that attitudes and attained proficiency were significantly related to one another. The results of motivational strengths of the EFL students differed significantly with those of the ESL students in the previous study in that the EFL students were much more integratively motivated. The EFL learners in this study responded that factors such as *travelling to an English speaking country, getting to know different kinds of people, learning English, and having new experiences* were more important than the instrumental factors. The instrumental reasons such as *getting a degree, getting training in a particular field, and getting a better paying job* were rated as the least important factors.

Another study indicating that language background has an influence on motivation is that of Pierson, Fu, and Lee (1980). This group of researchers also used the same methods as that of Oller et al. (1977) and Chihara and Oller (1978). Their subjects were 466 Chinese-speaking tenth grade students in Hong Kong. Echoing the conclusion of Spolsky (1969), the results of this study showed significant agreement with the direct statements of the subjects who insinuated that they were afraid of losing their

native identity or being unpatriotic. They also showed significant disagreement with the direct statements that would normally be thought of as positive statements concerning English people and language. Pierson et al. accounted for these results by stating that “these results reflect a tension within the Ss between needing and wanting to use English, while at the same time maintaining their identity as Chinese, in a Chinese society” (p. 292).

Clement and Kruidenier (1983) found that learners with different characteristics reported different types of motivation, some that were even different from the traditional integrative and instrumental types. These researchers conducted a study of motivation with the purpose of proving whether or not milieu, ethnicity, and target language had an effect on motivational orientation. 871 grade 11 students distributed into eight groups were the subjects of this study. The eight groups were made up of combinations of the different milieus, ethnicities, and target languages represented by the subjects. After an analysis of the data, the researchers decided that there were orientations represented other than the traditional integrative and instrumental orientations. The four orientations or reasons for learning the second language were: *to achieve pragmatic goals, to travel, to seek new friendships, and to acquire knowledge*. Clement and Kruidenier identified an orientation to achieve pragmatic goals as instrumental orientation; however, they do not identify any of them as being of an integrative orientation. Subsequently, they suggest that the four orientations identified in this study should be maintained as individual orientations in future studies. Although the three factors other than instrumental orientation may possibly be seen by some as integrative orientations, the researchers account for this by saying that a friendship orientation represented “affective goals” as

reasons for learning the second language other than wanting to identify with the target group. Similarly, they stated that the affective nature inherent in integrative orientation was not present in the travel orientation. They concluded that “the relative status of learner and target group as well as the availability of (or, at least, familiarity with) the latter in the immediate environment are important determinants of the emergence of orientations” (p. 288).

Another study which resulted in the assumption that language background has an influence on motivation was that of Kosbab (1989) who studied the motivational attitudes of 66 American college students of German. The sample was broken up into three groups representing different levels (elementary, intermediate, and advanced) partially based upon class sizes. *Considering job opportunities with American firms*, an instrumental motive, was a strong predictor for all three groups of subjects. On the questionnaire, a majority of the students reported having relatives of German origin. From this, Kosbab concluded that there is a “high degree of probability that familial and related concerns have played a significant motivational role in these students’ choice to study German in a linguistic and cultural sense” (p. 18). Consequently, he comments that this factor falls into neither the category of instrumental nor integrative, but that it should be examined as a separate type of motivation where a desire to know and understand one’s own self and/or genetic background are important factors in learning a language. Other than being motivated for family- related reasons, Kosbab points out that his subjects were also integratively motivated because the majority reported *wanting to learn the TL to communicate with members of the target community, forming lasting relationships with native German speakers, a willingness or desire to live and work in the target*

community, and a willingness or desire to spend a long period of time or to live permanently in Germany. However, Kosbab also stated that 39.4% of the students reported *fulfilling a foreign language requirement* as a strong motivator. Since, at this time, requirement motivation had still not been established as its own type of motivation, this factor would be considered as instrumental.

Also realizing the difference in motivation as a result of language background, Ely (1986b) set forth to find out the motivational variables and their relative strengths of a particular population. With the belief that different populations of learners are motivated differently and the fact that previous research had indicated that strength of motivation effects type of motivation, Ely was placing an emphasis on the idea that studies should focus their efforts more directly on individual populations of language learners. Motivation factors were elicited by interviewing a group of Spanish students. Another group was then chosen to rate the importance of the factors identified by the first group. From these results, Ely developed a questionnaire which was given to a third group of students, 75 second-year Spanish students. The questionnaire consisted of three clusters of motivation factors, instrumental, integrative, and requirement (added as a result of reports from group 1). It was found that both clusters reflecting instrumental and integrative motivation were positive predictors of strength of motivation, while the cluster reflecting a requirement motivation was seen as a negative predictor of strength of motivation. Having similar beliefs to those of Clement and Kruidenier (1983), Ely pointed out that future studies should be open to examining different types of motivation other than those prescribed to in theory (integrative and instrumental).

Studies Reporting Other Factors that Affect Motivation

Different orientations to task and life goals were factors which seemed to have affected the results of Gillette's (1994) study. In her longitudinal study of three effective and three ineffective foreign language learners of French, she found that reasons for studying a foreign language was a very important factor in determining learning effectiveness. Based on the Vygotskian sociocultural theory that "the initial motive of an activity determines the character of that activity," the researcher came to the conclusion that

if two students are asked to write an essay in a second language class, but one student's motive for being in the class is simply to fulfill a requirement, while the other genuinely desires to learn the language, they are not engaged in the same activity (p. 196).

Gillette suggested that different orientations (very similar to type of motivation) to a task can elicit different learning outcomes. Likewise, she also proposed that life goals had more of an influence on the effort put forth by the learner and the resulting level of success. Gillette came to this conclusion based on learners reporting that they felt learning a foreign language was either useful and interesting to them or that it was merely a very difficult and useless language requirement. The latter, of course, indicates an instrumental motivation for learning the language, or as mentioned in previous studies, the requirement motive may need to be allowed to stand on its own.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) emphasized that another variable, instructional setting, had an influence on motivation. The researchers examined motivation in a study of 1,200 university students learning a foreign language with 70 percent of them studying it as a

foreign language requirement and the remaining 30 percent as an elective. The researchers used a background questionnaire to test motivational strength and its relationship to other variables. They found that motivation is not simply something that occurs inherently with individual students but that it is affected by several external variables. It was found in this study that the subjects' motivation was affected by the instructional setting which focused on the development of analytic language skills and discrete language elements in order to achieve success on exams. These subjects can be said to have been instrumentally motivated as their concern focused on fulfilling the language requirement and earning good grades in a traditional foreign language class which does not emphasize communicative competence.

Based on the results of the above studies, it can be seen that not only are there relationships between type of motivation and proficiency, but there are also relationships between other variables and motivation which may influence proficiency.

Studies of the Effect of Motivation on Oral Proficiency

Of particular interest to the study at hand is the fact that although several motivation studies have examined proficiency, only a few studies examined the skill of oral proficiency. One reason for the lack of research on how motivation affects this particular skill may have to do with the fact that it is much more complicated to test oral production as opposed to the skills of reading, writing, and listening. The majority of the aforementioned tests are in the format of multiple choice or fill-in-the-blank questions. This form of assessment, of course, is much easier and faster in terms of elicitation of proficiency samples and in terms of rating. However, testing of this type does not lead to an adequate assessment of what a learner can actually do with the language. Previous

integratively motivated one is to communicate with people from the target culture, the more one's oral proficiency will improve. The researchers finally expressed a concern for "continuing reliance on criterion measures such as subjective estimates of 'oral production' skills" which they feel are unsatisfactory (p. 239).

Genesee, Rogers, and Holobow (1983) also found that motivation has an influence on proficiency. These researchers assessed oral proficiency using an oral exam much like that in the previous study of Hamayan et al. (1977). The oral exam was composed of two parts of unequal value: listening comprehension (30%) and oral expression (70%). Oral expression was tested by conducting individual interviews with 34 grade 12 English-speaking Canadian students of French as a second language. The interviews, however, were both carried out and rated by a French teacher from the subject's school who was not his French teacher at that time. Genesee et al. point out that because of the possibility that the interviewer may have been acquainted with the student, this factor may have some effect on the results obtained in this study. The rating given to the subjects was based on the score obtained on rating scales in the areas of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency. The investigators did not explain how 30% of the oral exam was accounted for by listening comprehension. The results showed that the subjects' expectation of motivational support from the target language group was a significant determiner of proficiency. However, subjects' own motivation was the strongest predictor of the listening comprehension section of the oral exam and of an additional measure, a written exam.

Concern for grade (an instrumental motive) was also found to be a predictor of high oral proficiency in a study conducted by Ely (1986a). Ely employed still another

method of assessing oral ability, the “story-telling” task. The subjects for this study were 75 university students enrolled in first year Spanish courses. For the “story-telling” task, stories were developed by input from both the researcher and the teachers participating in the study and were then recorded by a native Spanish speaker. Students were to listen to the story on the tape, and then with the aid of a handout containing picture frames, they were to retell the story. The transcripts of the retold stories were the basis for determining the two factors of *oral fluency* and *oral correctness*. High oral fluency was determined by an absence of self-interrupted elements such as fragments and disfluent words. A score on this factor was produced by adding the number of fragments and disfluent words and dividing that number by the number of fluent words. *Oral correctness* was marked in terms of morphology, syntax, and lexical choice. A score for this factor was obtained by calculating an average of the judges’ error counts, and then dividing that number by the number of fluent words. In his results, Ely found that *oral correctness* was determined by the factors of *classroom participation*, *concern for grade*, and *language learning aptitude*, while *oral fluency* was determined by *language background* and the *number of years of high school Spanish study*. However, for the essay exam, on the factor test of *written correction*, *strength of motivation* was a predictor. In terms of type of motivation, *concern for grade* would typically be seen as an instrumental motive. Therefore, although *strength of motivation* did not appear to be a predictor of oral proficiency, *concern for grade* (an instrumental motive) did. Ely finally concluded that some of the findings “may indicate that the real-time oral test reflected the effect of unmonitored or automatic language performance developed through classroom

interaction. He notes that this may be an explanation of why *oral correctness* and *class participation* showed a relationship with one another.

Finally, Svanes (1987) found that motivation did have an effect on oral proficiency, but that language background also had an influence on motivation. This researcher tested for oral proficiency, but only explained assessment of this skill as an examination grade. Subjects for this study were 167 foreign students from 27 different countries studying Norwegian as a foreign language at a Norwegian university. Svanes found that language background had an affect on motivation. The results indicated that students from the Western countries showed higher integrative motivation than did the students from Middle East/Africa and Asia who demonstrated higher instrumental motivation. Svanes' explanation for this is that American and European students can afford to go to Norway for reasons such as having new experiences or meeting new people, but students from "third world countries" come to Norway for the primary purpose of getting an education. However, although language background had an influence on motivation, Svanes also emphasizes that a positive correlation did not exist between integrative motivation and grades for any particular language background but that a negative relationship did exist between grades and integrative motivation for the American group. Svanes did, on the other hand, report that students with higher grades also scored highest for integrative motivation and lowest on instrumental motivation, but that the correlation was not strong. Noteworthy, however, is the fact that this correlation was of motivation and overall grades, a combination of all proficiency tests (essay, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, cloze, and oral proficiency).

Relationships between the individual tests of proficiency and motivation were either ignored in this study or did not exist.

Although some studies have been conducted that examine the relationship between motivation and oral proficiency, there is still a lack of research in this area and much that needs to be done. There is much room for investigations on the effect of motivation on oral proficiency as well as a need for investigating motivation factors directly related to oral ability. Because of the fact that such a small amount of research has been done concerning the effect of motivation on this skill, there is still much remaining that is not known such as whether motivation as a whole or if particular types of motivation or motives have an influence on oral production.

It is apparent that although much research has been conducted on the topics of motivation and its correlation to attained language proficiency, there is still a great deal of research that needs to be initiated. Most of the studies are able to find something in common with each other even though there are likely to be many more differences. Many of the studies of motivation used similar or the same measurements and/or methods to come up with conclusive results. The major difference in these studies was with the populations of subjects being tested and the setting in which they were being tested. No two studies used exactly the same subjects or groups and were not conducted in the same setting, and many times, not even in the same country. When there are so many differences in the subjects, methods, materials, hypotheses, and interpretations of results, it is no wonder the results of the studies are so inconsistent with one another.

Studies on the Relationship Between Motivation and Strategy Use

The relationship between motivation and language learning strategies can be seen as complicated and multidimensional. Some of the studies discussed below are the same as were mentioned in the review of research on the relationship between learning strategies and proficiency. This is because the researchers who conducted studies on these two topics were generally examining the influence of strategies on a number of variables. This can be seen as a problem because since these studies investigated so many different variables, each variable received only a brief and rather general analysis and discussion. Therefore, research focusing on a much more limited number of variables needs to be carried out in the future. When testing so many variables, none of them receive proper treatment or analysis that is specific enough to draw any concrete conclusions. Another reason for the need for further research in this area is the fact that findings about the influence of language learning goals and motivational orientation on the use of language learning strategies has resulted in much inconsistency (Oxford, 1989). The following discussion will focus on the assumptions drawn from previous research and emphasize the fact that language learning strategies and language learning motivation are possibly interrelated.

Bialystok (1981) found that there was a relationship between motivation and strategy use. She conducted a study of 152 tenth and twelfth grade students learning French as a second language in which she was investigating the effects of language learning strategies on achievement. It was found that use of strategies was related mostly to the attitude of the language learner and not to his aptitude in learning a language. It should be noted here that some studies, such as this one, identify certain attitudes as

reflecting particular types of motivation. Bialystok stated that “language learners who are particularly motivated to master the language engage in these [language learning] strategies” (p. 34).

In a study of 98 college-level elementary and intermediate language learners, Reiss (1985) did not look for a relationship between motivation and strategy use, but rather she included motivation as one of the strategies in her instrument. *Motivation to communicate* was categorized as a strategy on the assessment measure and was found to be used by 60 percent of the subjects. The underlying assumption is that a very fine line exists between at least some motivational factors and learning strategies and that the two may not necessarily be separate entities.

Career choice and strategy use were examined by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) to investigate whether there was a relationship between the two variables. Their study consisted of 78 Foreign Service Institute (FSI) students studying various languages for career purposes. One aspect of their study was to determine whether or not career choice had an influence on strategy use. The significance here is that the researchers viewed career choice as a sort of replacement for or equivalent of instrumental motivation. They stated that the underlying variable of motivation in choice of career had a strong effect on strategy use. These subjects appeared to be more instrumentally motivated to learn a new language rather than integratively motivated. The strong instrumental orientation of the subjects resulted in the use of *communication-oriented strategies* more than any other. Although not directly supported by data, the researchers also pointed out that because *social learning strategies* are important

for exposing the learner to the target language, increasing the amount of interaction with native speakers, and enhancing motivation, it is reasonable to anticipate that they will enhance verbal learning (p. 1).

In a study by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) of 1,200 undergraduate university students learning a new language, it was found that motivation had the greatest influence on choice of language learning strategy. Of the five strategy groups discussed in this study, *formal rule-related practice strategies*, *functional practice strategies*, *resourceful, independent strategies*, *general study strategies*, and *conversational input elicitation strategies*, motivation had a significant effect on all of the strategy groups except for the category of *resourceful, independent strategies*. The most frequently used strategies were *formal rule-related practice strategies* and *general study strategies*, while the least frequently used were *functional practice strategies*. These results indicate an instrumental motivation for learning the language for the fulfillment of a language requirement and a concern for grades (analytic rule-learning skills) being of primary concern. Oxford and Nyikos' results showed that students who were more motivated used learning strategies of all kinds more often than did the less motivated students. Interestingly, the researchers not only found that high motivation results in significant use of language learning strategies, but they also proposed the belief that high strategy use may likewise lead to high motivation. Basically their idea holds the view of motivation and language learning strategies as effecting and enhancing each other in a sort of spiraling motion. For instance, if a language learner employs appropriate strategies which lead to better proficiency, then her self-esteem will rise. Her heightened self-esteem will in turn lead to high motivation. The cycle will then continue back at the

beginning where the learner will start out with an even better use of strategies which will lead to greater proficiency. The more proficient she is, the higher her self-esteem will be, thus her motivation will become stronger, and so forth. The implication derived is that one's perception of her language proficiency can be either an effect or cause of strategy use and is strongly related to motivation.

Ely (1989) investigated the relationship between motivation and strategy use of 84 second- and third-year university-level Spanish students. He found that strength of language learning motivation may influence the promotion of the following strategy descriptions: "a desire to internalize language deeply, an interest in encountering, mastering, and using new language items, a willingness to create associations, and an openness to teacher correctness after an utterance has been completed" (p. 442). Ely also found that students who had a high concern for grade (an instrumental motive) made use of particular types of strategies such as: *focus on correctness of production in speaking and writing, a desire to engage actively in learning and persistence in attempting to communicate.*

In 1993, Nyikos and Oxford conducted a study of 1,200 undergraduate foreign language university students learning a new language and found that the students chose to use particular strategies that would assist in obtaining high grades rather than strategies that are intended to aid in the advancement of skills used in authentic and communicative language situations. In this study, the subjects had very low use of strategies in one particular category (resourceful, independent strategies) which Nyikos and Oxford explained as not providing adequate rewards for these types of subjects (learning a foreign language) to want to use such strategies. These strategies require personal

investment in the learning process and may not have been seen by the subjects as necessary in their ultimate goal of obtaining a high grade. These results show that the instrumental motivation of getting a certain grade is much stronger than integrative motivation normally used in achieving the competence or proficiency necessary to interact with native speakers of the language being learned.

Gillette (1994) determined that the strategy use of six learners of French as a foreign language was ineffective without appropriate goals. In this longitudinal study, the results from a cloze test, and oral imitation task, biodata, class observation, writing samples, self-ratings, and an essay describing language learning experience indicated that three students were effective and three were ineffective language learners. These six students kept language learning diaries, took notes in class, participated in interviews concerning their language learning experience, and completed attitude and motivation questionnaires. Gillette found that even when ineffective learners reported using what was viewed as a positive language learning strategy such as *reading for the main idea before close reading* as recommended by a teacher, their attempt did not necessarily turn out to be successful. The researcher accounts for these results by stating that “in the absence of the appropriate goal, namely to learn the L2, even what appear to be positive strategies may be unproductive” (203). It was also found that the language learning diaries reflected a conscious choice by the ineffective learners to limit their acquisition of the language to what would minimally fulfill the language requirement; however, the effective learners who had more integrative motivation toward learning the language chose to strive for a level of success beyond that of merely fulfilling a requirement. Gillette therefore concludes that “this productive approach grows out of an apparent life-

long orientation that views foreign languages as a useful, personal goal rather than being the result of superior language learning strategies alone” (p. 206). In other words, regardless of one’s strategy use, lack of proper motivation will inherently undermine the use of strategies. Once again, the idea has emerged that learning strategies and motivation are not completely inseparable variables. In light of this finding, it could be said that either appropriate use of strategies will enhance proper motivation or that being properly motivated will influence appropriate use of strategies.

Research focusing on and emphasizing the relationship between language learning motivation and language learning strategies is still greatly needed. In the above studies, researchers generally had only indirect proof of this relationship or were merely making assumptions to account for their results. Studies specifically targeted toward this theory may be quite useful since they not only hold implications for the importance of teaching strategies to students as an important step in their acquisition of a language, but they also imply that motivation deserves similar consideration.

Summary

Based on the above review of literature, it is quite apparent that many variables have relationships with proficiency, particularly strategy use and motivation. Regardless of the amount of research which has been conducted examining these relationships, the results are very different, and it is, therefore, difficult to come to any specific conclusions with respect to what these relationships really are. In addition, there is a lack of emphasis on the relationships between strategy use, motivation, and level of oral proficiency. Oral proficiency is one of the skills that is most important to any language learner as it is the ultimate means of communication, assuming that the learner’s goal is to communicate.

Therefore, the present study has set forth to investigate what relationships may exist between particular variables (with an emphasis on strategy use and motivation) and oral proficiency. Studies such as the present one will hopefully provides insights into what teachers and learners themselves can do to aid in language learners' attainment of higher levels of oral proficiency.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The purpose of the study was to analyze the strategy use and motivation of ESL learners at different levels of oral proficiency, and to uncover any possible relationships between these factors and level of oral proficiency. This chapter explains the methodology used to assess oral proficiency and patterns of language learning strategies and language learning motivation of ESL students. It is composed of a description of the four measures of instrumentation, subjects, procedures, hypotheses, and data analysis used in the study.

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study to determine level of oral proficiency was the Video Oral Communication Instrument (VOCI) for ESL/EFL. This particular version of the VOCI was developed at San Diego State University's Language Acquisition Resource Center (LARC) (Halleck and Young, 1995). Other versions of the VOCI are available in Spanish, French, German, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian. The VOCI uses video stimuli to elicit samples of oral performance from the subjects. The subjects watch a video and respond to a variety of questions asked by the participants on the video. The test is formatted in a fashion where the participants on the video set up a situation or context and ask a related question to the examinee in which the examinee then orally responds into a manually operated audio recorder. The VOCI comes in either a timed or untimed version. In the present study, the untimed version was employed.

The examinee watches the audio-visual stimulus, pauses the VCR with a remote control, starts the audio tape, records his or her response, stops the audio tape, and then restarts the video to move on to the next stimulus. The ESL/EFL version of the VOCI used in this study asks a variety of intermediate-, advanced-, and superior-level questions for a total of 23 questions. The VOCI consists of questions of varying difficulty and represents a range of speech tasks such as describing, comparing and contrasting, supporting an opinion, and hypothesizing. The recorded speech samples are then rated in accordance with the ACTFL Guidelines for the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). This is further explained in the discussion on procedure below. Although for this particular study, only two proficiency levels, intermediate and advanced will be examined, Table 4 depicts generic descriptions of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines of all four levels: novice, intermediate, advanced, and superior.

The VOCI is relatively new to the field of oral testing, and, therefore, is in great need of empirical data to support its application. In terms of format, the VOCI is similar to the OPI in that it elicits a variety of speech tasks at the different levels of the ACTFL scale. In addition, this instrument makes use of both aural and visual stimuli to elicit speech, which is likely to eliminate the possibility of misunderstanding which so often occurs in face-to-face interactions. Although this instrument of measuring oral proficiency is relatively new and has little data to support its use, the test does have several promising benefits for the researcher and testers as well as for the examinees. First of all, the test is less time-consuming for the examiner in that her presence is not required during the actual test. Also, several examinees can be tested in conjunction if the proper technology is available, and this will eliminate the possibility of extraneous

TABLE 4
Description of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines

<i>Novice</i>	Speakers at the novice level are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Speak mostly in isolated words and phrases ▪ Deal with topics of immediate daily concern ▪ Be understood with difficulty by a person accustomed to non-native speakers
<i>Intermediate</i>	Speakers at the intermediate level are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Speak primarily in sentences and strings of sentences ▪ Create with the language using learned elements ▪ Ask and respond to questions ▪ Deal with survival situations and topics primarily related to self ▪ Be understood best by a person accustomed to non-native speakers
<i>Advanced</i>	Speakers at the advanced level are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Speak in paragraph length discourse ▪ Describe and narrate in past, present, and future time/aspects ▪ Discuss topics of personal or public interest (i.e. school, work, current events) ▪ Compare and contrast or deal with situations with a complication ▪ Be easily understood by a native speaker
<i>Superior</i>	Speakers at the superior level are able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Speak in extensive discourse ▪ Support opinions and hypothesize ▪ Participate in both formal and informal conversations ▪ Deal with topics of general interest and some special fields of expertise ▪ Discuss abstract and unfamiliar topics ▪ Speak with a high level of accuracy ▪ Be easily understood by a native speaker

(ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, 1986)

test preparation. An article published on the internet by the LARC at San Diego State University states that the VOICI's portable video format was designed to be administered to either individual students or to a group of students simultaneously (http://larcnet.sdsu.edu/lang_testing.html, p. 1). Another benefit is that some of the subjectivity of the OPI is removed because there is no actual interviewer. External factors concerning interviewer

which are believed to influence OPI results such as interviewer dominance (Valdman, 1988; Raffaldini, 1988), gender (Shohamy, 1988; Young and Milanovic, 1992), personality (Ross and Berwick, 1992), language background (Chalhoub-Deville, 1995), and the like are eliminated. Because an interviewer is not present, the questions asked do not vary and therefore provide all examinees with the same test quality, which should result in higher reliability of the test. Likewise, without the presence of an interviewer, the examinees may feel less restricted, inhibited, or anxious, an often-occurring side effect of face-to-face formal interviews. The examinees will have the opportunity to feel more comfortable and relaxed and hence may produce more natural speech than they would in a more formal setting. In other words, the examinees will not experience as much pressure from being put “on the spot.” Although the VOI is less authentic than the OPI with respect to face-to-face communication situations, it does represent the type of speech that is becoming quite prevalent in the present era of technology. This type of oral test represents authentic language situations such as speaking to machines (i.e. answering machines, computers). Because of the advancing technology and the developing ease of communication through machines, appropriate speech occurring in language situations of this type will likely become essential in the near future.

Also, it should be noted that there are a variety of question levels represented on the VOI; this eliminates factors of rater behavior that may influence the outcomes of the test as discussed in Reed and Halleck (1997). Table 5 illustrates examples of such questions and the level of difficulty represented by each question. Because the VOI asks a variety of questions at all levels, this variation may give the subjects more of an

opportunity to demonstrate their actual abilities in answering more challenging questions (McCrackin, 1997). See Appendix B for a complete transcript of the VOICI questions.

The second instrument in this study is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which was chosen as the instrument to measure language learning strategies. The SILL exists in three versions: a 121-item version developed to assess the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students at the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California; a revised 80-item version for foreign language learners whose native language is English; and another revised 50-item version for students of English as a second or foreign language. In addition to these original versions, the SILL

TABLE 5
Examples of Questions on the VOICI

Question Level	Example
<i>Novice</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What's your name? (Q1) ▪ Where are you from? (Q2)
<i>Intermediate</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Tell us about your hometown. (Q3) ▪ Describe one of your friends. (Q5)
<i>Advanced</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Compare your hometown with a city you visited or know well. (Q7) ▪ Discuss the positive benefits and negative consequences of our dependence on machines. (Q15)
<i>Superior</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ If you were a teacher and you discovered one of your students had cheated on a test by copying from another student's paper, what would you do? (Q17) ▪ What do you think about the portrayal of violence and crime on TV? (Q21)

has been translated into Arabic, Chinese, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Spanish, Thai, and Ukrainian (Oxford, 1995). The version chosen for this study was the ESL/EFL 50-item SILL because of its proven validity and reliability in previous research.

According to Oxford (1995), the creator of the SILL, an estimated 40 to 50 major studies have been conducted using this instrument to measure language learning strategies.

Oxford reported that Cronbach alphas used to determine reliability have been very high in these studies, ranging from .91 to .94 when administered in the native language of the subjects and .85 to .91 when administered in English. Oxford also stated that content validity has been established at a .99 agreement by two strategy experts who matched the SILL items against the items in a language learning strategy taxonomy (p. 5).

The SILL is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 50 items which subjects respond to in a Likert-scale format. The responses range from 1-5, describing the frequency with which the subjects make use of individual learning strategies while learning English as a second language. For instance, a response of 1 indicates “never or almost never true of me,” and 5 represents “always or almost always true of me.” The individual strategies are then grouped according to Oxford’s (1990) classification system into six categories called subscales, with each containing a different group of individual language learning strategies of similar types. These six subscales are:

- 1.) Part A: Remembering more effectively – *memory strategies* (9 items)
- 2.) Part B: Using all your mental processes – *cognitive strategies* (14 items)
- 3.) Part C: Compensating for missing knowledge – *compensation strategies* (6 items)
- 4.) Part D: Organizing and evaluating your learning – *metacognitive strategies* (9 items)
- 5.) Part E: Managing your emotions – *affective strategies* (6 items)
- 6.) Part F: Learning with others – *social strategies* (6 items)

Each of the subscales represents a different group of strategy type. The first subscale represents memory strategies; the second cognitive strategies; the third compensation strategies; the fourth metacognitive strategies; the fifth affective strategies; and the six social strategies. See Appendix C for the complete SILL.

The third instrument used in the study was a motivation battery used to determine type of motivation employed (instrumental vs. integrative) by the subjects and the extent of motivation of the subjects. The battery used in this study is a direct measure adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972) and has also been adapted and used as a data collection instrument in several past studies (Oller et al., 1977; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Pierson et al., 1980; Svanes, 1987). The battery consists of two parts, reasons for coming to the United States to study (15 items) and reasons for learning English as a second language (9 items). Like the SILL, the subjects are asked to respond to the items on the motivation battery by rating the items on a five-point Likert-scale. The responses on the scale indicate level of importance of each individual statement. For instance, a response of one indicates “not at all important,” and five represents “most important.” See Appendix D for the complete motivation battery.

The fourth and final instrument employed in this study was a background questionnaire adapted from Oller et al. (1977). This questionnaire was given to the subjects as a means of determining what other variables might have an effect on or influence the results of the study. The information elicited on this questionnaire included gender, age, country of origin, native language, years spent studying English, levels of English proficiency of mother and father, and length of time in the United States. See Appendix E for the complete background questionnaire.

Subjects

In the preliminary stages of this study, 61 international students at Oklahoma State University participated by completing all four instruments. Due to an unequal number of subjects at the two ACTFL proficiency levels of focus, intermediate and

advanced, the number of subjects was narrowed to 34. Seventeen subjects at the intermediate level and 17 at the advanced level were chosen for further analysis based upon the ACTFL ratings they received on the VOCL.

The demographic information collected from the background questionnaire is displayed in Table 6. The average age of the subjects was 23.55, with the ages of the intermediate subjects ranging from 18 to 25 and the ages for the advanced group ranging from 21 to 40. The average number of years spent studying English was 11.13. The number of years ranged from two to 15 years for the intermediate group and three to 20 years for the advanced group. Length of time living in the United States ranged from .16 to 90 months for the advanced group and from three to 36 months for the intermediate group with an average length of 17.07 months. The gender distribution of the subjects was 23 males and 11 females. The subjects represented the following 15 countries of origin: Japan, India, Malaysia, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Lebanon, Korea, Pakistan, Oman, Togo, Romania, Panama, Ethiopia, Bulgaria, and Sri Lanka. The native languages reported by the subjects were also quite diverse. Subjects reported the following 18 languages as their native language backgrounds: Japanese, Chinese, Arabic, Indonesian, Hindi, Telugu, Tamil, Amharic, Marathi, Bengali, Bulgarian, Spanish, Romanian, Kabiye, Urdu, Korean, and Malay. Table 6 shows the distribution of subjects from each country of origin and the native languages represented by the subjects.

As can be seen from the descriptions of the subjects in Table 6, the characteristics of the subjects in the advanced group are quite different from those in the intermediate group. Of major importance, is the difference in country of origin and native language background. More than half of the advanced subjects came from countries where an

TABLE 6

Demographic Information*(N = 34; intermediate = 17, advanced = 17)*

Background Factors	Intermediate		Advanced	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Age	21.76	18-25	25.35	21-40
Years studying English	8.11	2-15	14.14	3-20
Months in the U.S.	15.88	3-36	18.26	16-90
Country of Origin	Japan (7) Malaysia (5) Indonesia (2) Korea (1) Oman (1) Bangladesh (1)		India (7) Lebanon (2) Bulgaria (1) Ethiopia (1) Bangladesh (1) Panama (1) Togo (1) Pakistan (1) Romania (1) Japan (1)	
Native Language	Japanese (7) Chinese (4) Indonesian (2) Korean (1) Malay (1) Bengali (1) Arabic (1)		Hindi (2) Teluga (2) Tamil (2) Arabic (2) Japanese (1) Urdu (1) Kabiye (1) Romanian (1) Spanish (1) Amharic (1) Marathi (1) Bengali (1) Bulgarian (1)	
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female
	10	7	13	4

institutionalized variety of English is spoken; thus, they are not typical non-native speakers of English, even though they may have accents. They most likely received their elementary and secondary education in English medium schools where this institutionalized variety of English was the predominant language of instruction. On the

other hand, nearly all the intermediate subjects are more typical second language learners because they came from countries where they were exposed to the English language very little. It is likely that the only instruction they received in English was in their English language courses with the rest of their education being presented to them in their native languages.

One other important difference in the characteristics of the two sets of subjects is that they are at different levels of their higher education. The intermediate subjects are all undergraduate students, while all but one of the advanced subjects are graduate students. In light of these differences between the two groups of subjects, conclusions should be moderated with the differences in mind, as it is possible that they may have affected the results of this study.

Procedures

Subjects were solicited in two different manners. Undergraduate students in two international freshman composition courses and graduate students new to OSU hoping to enter the International Teaching Assistant program were asked to participate. Participation in the study was completely voluntary, and none of the potential subjects were penalized in any way for declining to participate. Subjects typically seemed eager to have the opportunity to practice their English and participate in the study.

Subjects were placed alone in a testing room where they were to take the VOCl and fill out the SILL, motivation battery, and background questionnaire. All instructions and instruments were presented to the subjects in English, orally and in writing. The researcher provided instructions to each subject for taking the VOCl and was on hand in

a nearby office in case assistance was needed with the testing equipment; however, no problems existed during test taking. Each subject was allotted approximately 30 minutes to take the VOI. After completion of the VOI, subjects were given the questionnaires to complete. It was explained to each subject that the results of all the instruments would be kept completely confidential and used only for the study at hand. Each subject was assigned a number, which was recorded on the audio tape and the questionnaires to insure anonymity. The sample speech was then transcribed, analyzed, and rated by the researcher in accordance with the ACTFL Guidelines for the Oral Proficiency Interview (shown in Table 4). A second rating was also obtained. An ACTFL-certified rater analyzed the transcripts of all 34 subjects and rated them in accordance with the ACTFL Guidelines. The researcher and the certified rater agreed on the holistic rating for all cases. Examples from the present study of questions and responses are provided below and are followed by an explanation of how each question was examined. The full transcript, not merely individual questions, of each subject was analyzed to arrive at a holistic rating. The sample VOI questions and responses below depict the type of analysis that was conducted for the entire transcripts. An *I* before the subject's number indicates she is at the intermediate level; an *A* before a subject's number indicates she is at the advanced level.

Intermediate Level Question:

"Instead of writing letters, you have decided to send a cassette message to a friend back home. Describe where you are living now and what you've been doing recently."

Subject #I21's Response:

Hi how are you doing : mm I live in Oklahoma USA and uh I'm studying uh physical education : mm I usually study homework and play with my friend mm study is hard but mm everyday I have interesting day mm please send me back your message bye .

Subject #A6's Response:

Hello () I am staying in Stillwater which is in Oklahoma state in USA and I have been doing mechanical engineering ; right now I have decided to be in fluid dynamics which is my field of interest . now there are lot of people working in this field and I have decided to work under one of the professors who is good in that field .

Upon examining the responses of the above question, it is difficult to determine at which level of proficiency these subjects are. Both responses are of sentence length with the advanced subject having only a slightly longer response than the intermediate subject. Both subjects likewise only minimally fulfill the task of the question by providing only a small description of what they have been doing recently and by merely stating where they are living with no description. Each response also contains errors; however, the advanced subject had fewer errors than the intermediate subject. It should be noted though that, due to the short length of the responses to this question, it is not possible to determine if these are patterned errors or isolated errors. Also, both subjects had the exact same number of t-units (independent clauses which can stand as sentences in their own right) in their responses; however, the considerable difference is that subject #A6 responded with much longer t-units. The intermediate questions alone do not typically elicit a large enough sample of speech to determine which level represents the ability of the subject. A pilot study (McCrackin, 1997) conducted for this larger study found that questions of the intermediate level which do not challenge subjects often elicit speech samples that are not truly representative of a subject's actual abilities. For this exact reason, questions of a higher level are necessary to probe what the subjects are capable of

answering when they are asked questions which challenge them to do as much as they can with the language.

The excerpt below is an example of an advanced-level question with the responses from the same two subjects as in the examples above.

Advanced-Level Question:

Speaker 1: "One thing that I didn't like about New York was that it is so big. I never really feel comfortable in big cities anymore." Speaker 2: "Really, I love city life. There's nothing more fascinating than a really big city." Speaker 1: "Not me. There are too many problems I guess. What do you think? What are the advantages or disadvantages of big city life?"

Subject #121's Response:

I have never lived in big city but when I visited big city mm big cities advantage are mm many kind of amazements amazement place and uh many clothing store and uh there are sti- stimulated me but disadvantage are mm there are many dangerous place example park and uh station where some kind of dangerous person () there mm maybe big city in night was dangerous so.

Subject #A6's Response:

I can describe this question much better because earlier I've been living in Houston which is a big city and now I'm living in Stillwater uh it's there are many advantages there are many disadvantages in living big cities uh in Houston if you want to buy something you have to go very far you have to have to have a car to go and buy something like groceries and uh any shopping that you want to do uh in Stillwater everything is very near by you can just walk to the shop and buy whatever you want there are lot of crime crimes also in big cities which is not there in Stillwater I just leave my hope open without even locking the door uh in big cities people don't know each other very well as they do in small cities because they com in contact frequently in small cities than in big cities there is lot of vehicular traffic also in big cities which is not there in small cities sometimes while you are walking you come across lot of traffic and you just can't sear it which is not there in small cities there is no freeway system in small cities hence the chances of accidents are reduced because on freeways vehicles are moving at quite a very high speed that's all I have to say.

Here, it can be seen that the advanced question elicited responses that much more adequately represented the level of proficiency of these subjects. In response to this question, the intermediate subject continued to speak in only strings of sentences as opposed to the paragraph-length discourse of the advanced subject. The advanced

subject fulfilled the task of making a comparison in that she provided more advantages and disadvantages and supported each of these points with much more detail than the intermediate subject. There were also many errors within the short response from the intermediate subject, as in the previous response, but since the advanced subject provided a lengthier response to this question, it can now be seen that her errors only occurred sporadically and did not interfere with intelligibility. Therefore, from this question, it can more clearly be seen that subject #I21 could not adequately perform at the advanced level and that the level at which he performed with most accuracy and fulfilled more of the rating criteria of the ACTFL Guidelines was at the intermediate level. Subject #A6's response showed that he could fulfill the rating criteria requirements at the advanced level and still demonstrated a fairly high level of accuracy; therefore, it was determined that this subject was probably at the advanced level. Of course, additional questions other than intermediate and advanced are on the VOCL. There are questions at the novice level which serve as an initial impression phase to assess possible abilities. Questions are also asked at the superior level which serve as a means of identifying whether a subject can perform best at the advanced level or whether he can fulfill the requirements of the superior level.

Research Questions

This study set out to find answers to the following research questions:

- 1) What relationships exist between strategy use and oral proficiency?
 - a) Do learners at different levels of oral proficiency prefer different types of strategies?
 - b) Are individual strategies used more or less frequently by learners at different levels of oral proficiency?

- 2) What relationships exist between motivation and level of oral proficiency?
 - a) Do learners at different levels of oral proficiency have different types of motivation?
 - b) Are individual motivation factors viewed as more or less important by learners at different levels of oral proficiency?

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted to demonstrate similarities of the findings of this study to the results of previous studies of a comparable nature and to add to the existing bodies of research on oral proficiency, language learning motivation, and language learning strategies. The data were analyzed using version 5.0 of a statistical software package called SYSTAT. The Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test was chosen as the instrument for data analysis. A nonparametric test was necessary to calculate the data because the dependent variables (motivation and strategy use) were not reported as interval data. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was chosen in particular to deal with the data of the SILL and the motivation battery which is presented by means of ranked data. Results from the Kruskal-Wallis test were considered significant at the $p < .05$ level. Median tests of central tendency were also calculated for the data as a means of identifying trends or patterns and differences between the two proficiency groups. Median average responses were examined to identify differences in reported overall strategy use, overall motivation, strategy use according to strategy category, and instrumental versus integrative motivation. The medians of the individual responses were used to analyze strategy use according to individual strategies and

motivation according to individual motivation factors. Chapter IV presents and discusses the results of the above analyses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter includes a presentation and discussion of the results from the assessment measures introduced in Chapter III. The major areas of discussion will focus on the relationships between strategy use, language motivation, and subjects' level of oral proficiency.

Relationships Between Strategy Use and Level of Oral Proficiency

In discussing the use of language learning strategies by the two proficiency groups, the results will be reported in three specific ways for each group as a whole: overall strategy use, strategy use according to strategy category, and use of individual strategies. Presentation of results has been arranged in this format because, as stated in Chapter II, studies of strategy use often do not show a significant difference when overall strategy use is observed. It is often necessary to conduct a much more detailed analysis of the strategy groups or individual strategies to find any statistically significant differences. Results will be discussed in terms of statistical significance and medians. Significance was based on each subjects' average overall responses, average responses for each strategy category and the responses with respect to individual strategies on the SILL. Medians were also calculated in each of these three areas for both the advanced group and the intermediate group. It should also be noted that when names of strategies are discussed or presented in table format, the names of strategies themselves have often been shortened in light of space constraints. These strategies can be seen in their complete, original wording in Appendix C.

Overall Frequency of Strategy Use

Overall strategy use was based upon the subjects' average overall responses on the SILL. The difference in overall strategy use between the subjects at the two oral proficiency levels showed no statistical difference. Even though overall strategy use showed no statistical difference between the two groups, the frequency with which these groups reported using each strategy does indicate that there are more complex differences in their use of strategies. This difference, however, is not apparent when examining overall strategy use alone. These results are similar to the results of previous studies which found that there was no difference or only slight differences in the overall frequency of strategy use by learners at different levels of proficiency. The differences in strategy use according to strategy category and individual strategies seem to even out when examined as overall strategy use.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of median responses of individual strategies at each of the response levels. Subjects indicated level of strategy use by reporting that each strategy was either 5, *always/almost always true of me*; 4, *usually true of me*; 3, *somewhat true of me*; 2, *usually not true of me*; or 1, *never/almost never true of me*. The medians of the SILL responses show that the advanced subjects reported a wider range of strategy use than did the intermediate subjects. The advanced group reported a much more even distribution of strategy use, with at least some of the median strategy responses falling into all of the response levels. On the other hand, the intermediate group indicated that it used the majority of the strategies either *somewhat* or *usually*, with very few of the median responses falling into the response levels at either of the extremes. The median responses of two strategies were reported by the intermediate

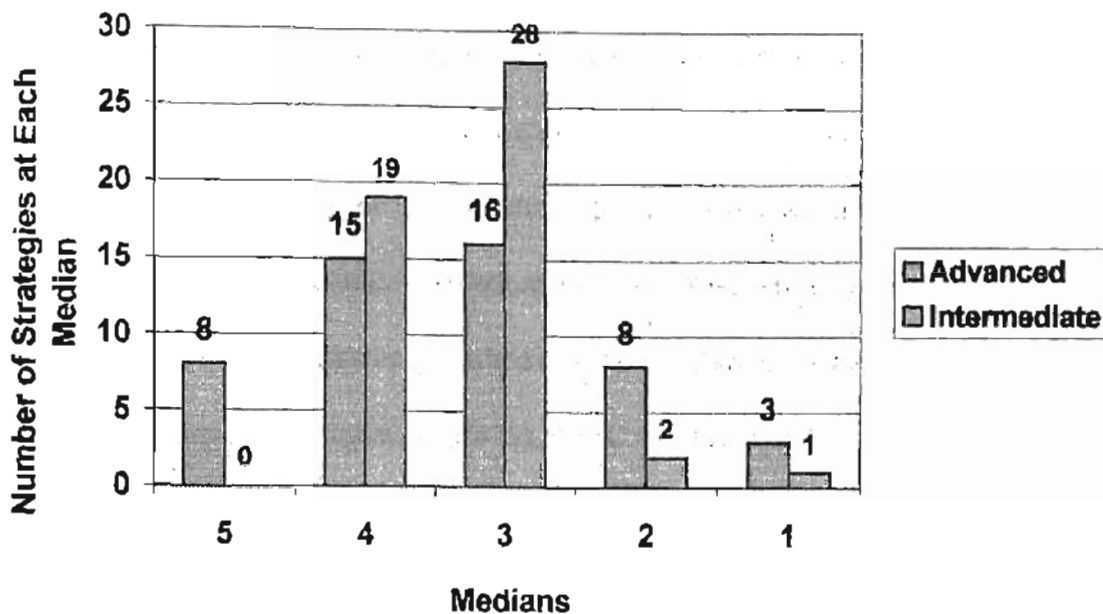


Figure 1. Number of Strategies Representing Each SILL Response Level

(Medians represent truth level of each strategy as it applied to the subjects:
 5 = *always/almost true of me*; 4 = *usually true of me*; 3 = *somewhat true of me*;
 2 = *usually not true of me*; 1 = *never/almost never true of me*)

group as *usually* being used, while only one strategy had a median response at the *never/almost never* response level, and there were no strategies with median responses at the *almost/always* level. On the other hand, for the advanced group, eight strategies had median responses in the *usually not true* level, three in the *never/almost never true* level, and eight in the *almost/always true* level. The majority of the median responses for both groups of subjects were predominantly found at the response levels of *usually true* and *somewhat true*. From this distribution of the median responses, it can be seen that the advanced group reported a wider range of strategy use than did the intermediate group. This indicates that there may be little or no relationship between oral proficiency and overall strategy use, but that there may be a relationship between oral proficiency and

how well learners are able to recognize the importance or lack of importance of the use of particular strategies at their stage of learning or level of proficiency.

Frequency of Use According to Strategy Category

In a closer analysis of the SILL results, data were examined according to six strategy categories as demonstrated in Oxford's (1990) classification system and on the SILL. These six categories can be described as follows: Part A – *memory strategies* (#s 1-9), Part B – *cognitive strategies* (#s 10-23), Part C – *compensation strategies* (#s 24-29), Part D – *metacognitive strategies* (#s 30-38), Part E – *affective strategies* (#s 39-44), and Part F – *social strategies* (#s 45-50).

The intermediate subjects displayed a preference for *cognitive* (3.42), *compensation* (3.33), *metacognitive* (3.33), and *social* (3.33) strategies, with the latter three categories having the same median average responses. They showed less preference for *affective* (2.83) and *memory* (2.66) strategies. Although the medians were the same for three of the categories, an analysis of response range was more revealing. The category with the largest range of average responses was the *social* category with a range of 2.83. Therefore, some intermediate subjects reported using these strategies much less frequently than other subjects in this group. The *compensation* ($r = 2.34$), *metacognitive* ($r = 2.33$), and *memory* categories ($r = 2.23$) had reasonable large ranges also. However, the *affective* ($r = 1.83$) and the *cognitive* ($r = 1.72$) categories had smaller ranges. This indicates that the intermediate subjects were much more similar in their reported usage of *affective* and *cognitive* strategies than they were in their use of *social*, *compensation*, *metacognitive*, and *memory* strategies.

The advanced subjects also showed a preference for *cognitive* (3.67), *metacognitive* (3.55), *compensation* (3.50), and *social* (3.50) strategies over strategies in the *affective* (2.83) and *memory* (2.66) categories. The range of average responses in the categories also varied for this group of subjects. The *metacognitive* ($r = 3.01$) category and the *social* category ($r = 3.00$) had wider ranges of average responses than the other categories; however, the *memory* category ($r = 2.56$) and the *affective* category ($r = 2.50$) had fairly large ranges also. The ranges of average responses for the *compensation* category ($r = 2.34$) and the *cognitive* category ($r = 2.08$) were not as great for these two categories as for the others. This shows that the advanced group reported a greater consistency of use within these last two categories than in the others. Thus, the advanced subjects demonstrated more of a consensus with respect to their frequency of strategy use in these two categories (*compensation* and *cognitive*), while they reported more varied usage in the other four categories (*metacognitive*, *social*, *memory*, and *affective*).

Figure 2 presents a comparison of strategy use between the proficiency groups in terms of strategy category. Medians show the frequency of use for each of the strategy categories of the two sets of subjects as reported in their Likert-scale responses of 1-5. Based on the average of the responses in each category of the subjects in each group, Part A (*memory strategies*) was the only category that showed a statistically significant difference ($p < .042$). In this category, the intermediate subjects made more frequent use of *memory strategies* than the advanced group with the former having a median average response of 3.11 and the latter having a median average response of 2.66. The range of average responses for the intermediate group was 2.22, while the advanced group reported a range of responses of 2.56. This shows that although some intermediate and

some advanced subjects used strategies in this category very frequently or very rarely, more of the responses of the intermediate subjects were at a higher response level than those of the advanced subjects.

As mentioned above, although the median average responses and the ranges of the average responses were different between the two groups, both the intermediate and the advanced subjects preferred *cognitive*, *compensation*, *metacognitive*, and *social* strategies over *memory* and *affective* strategies. Even though both groups preferred using strategies in these categories, the advanced group reported higher median average responses in all these categories, than did the intermediate group.

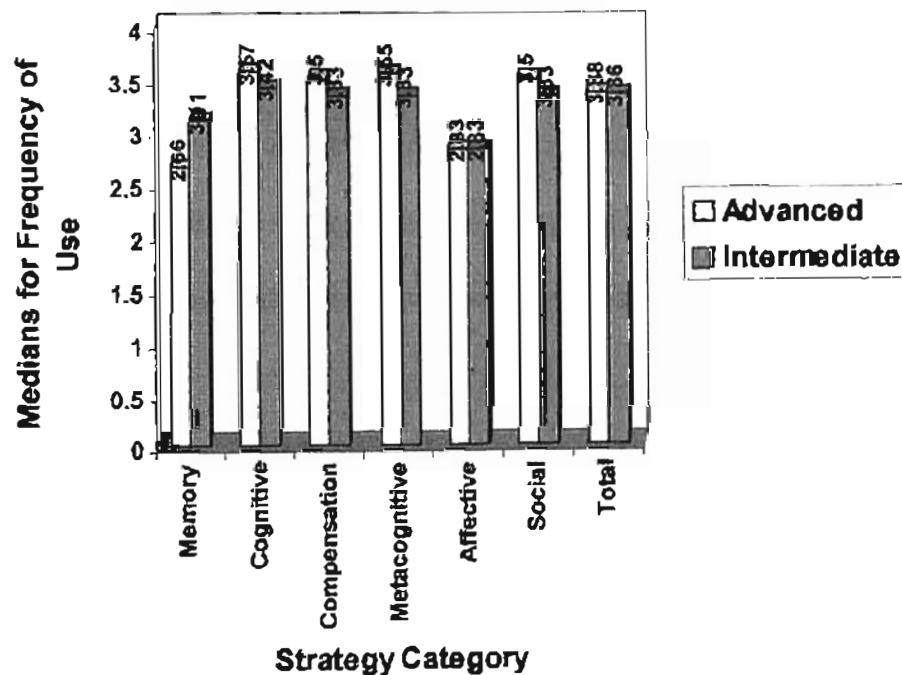


Figure 2. Comparison of Proficiency Groups According to the Median Average Responses in Each Strategy Category

(5 = always/almost always, 4 = usually, 3 = somewhat, 2 = usually not; 1 = never/almost never)

There were still other similarities between the two groups: they both had quite large ranges of average responses in the *social*, *metacognitive*, and *compensation* categories, and both groups also had fairly large ranges in the *memory* category. Based on these results and the median average responses, it can be seen that even though there was less consensus in the use of strategies in these categories within each proficiency group, the majority of the average responses fell mostly in one of the higher response levels.

Another similarity was that both groups had a smaller range of average responses in the *cognitive* category than in any of the other categories. This indicates that the subjects, regardless of proficiency level, showed much less difference in reported use of cognitive strategies than they did in their reported use of any of the other types of strategies. Not only did the subjects agree in their frequency of use of *cognitive strategies*, but this category also had the highest median average response for both groups. Therefore, in addition to a consensus within each of the two groups in their use of *cognitive strategies*, there was also a consensus in the use of *cognitive strategies* between the two groups.

Other similarities existed between the two groups in their reported use of strategies, one of which was that they both reported the same median average response in the *affective* category. In addition, both groups also preferred strategies of this type less than all of the other types of strategies except for *memory* strategies. For the *affective* category, the intermediate group and the advanced group reported the same median average responses of 2.83. The intermediate group reported a much smaller range of average responses ($r = 1.83$) in this category than did the advanced group ($r = 2.50$).

Another interesting similarity between the two groups is that although both groups reported the same range of average responses ($r = 2.34$) for the *compensation* category, the advanced group reported a median average response of 3.33, whereas the intermediate group reported a median average response of 3.50. From this, it can be seen that there was more agreement in the use of *affective* strategies among intermediate subjects than advanced subjects, and that there was more of an agreement between the two groups in their use of *compensation* strategies. Therefore, based on this analysis of median average responses and range of average responses, it is apparent that examining both median and range provides more detailed insights into what differences exist within each of the groups of subjects and between the two groups of subjects.

Several possible conclusions can be drawn from these results. First of all, the intermediate group's reported higher frequency of use of *memory strategies* than the advanced group's reported frequency of use may indicate that these are strategies which hinder one's ability to become more proficient, or it may instead mean that the advanced subjects no longer need to use these strategies at their particular level of proficiency. If the latter is the case, the use of these types of strategies may merely be a reflection of the learning process of a particular stage of learning. In other words, the intermediate learners may need to use these strategies in their current stage of learning, while the advanced subjects may have moved beyond the stage of using *memory strategies*. Another possible reason for the significant difference in use of *memory strategies* could deal with the difference in the methods of language instruction received by the subjects from different language backgrounds. For instance, the education systems of some of the countries represented by the intermediate subjects, China, for example, stress the use of

memorization strategies. On the other hand, a much larger portion of the countries represented by the advanced subjects focus on western modes of thinking in their teaching methods. Therefore, the reported difference in the use of *memory* strategies may be a result of the methods of language instruction the subjects received in their native countries.

Conclusions can also be drawn based upon the similarities in strategy preference between the two groups. Because both groups reported a preference for *cognitive*, *compensation*, *metacognitive*, and *social* strategies, this may mean that both groups recognize the importance of these strategies. However, the advanced subjects reported using strategies in all these categories more frequently than did the intermediate subjects which may indicate that strategies of these types are the only ones that the advanced subjects need at their stage of learning, or they may have used these strategies consistently more frequently in the past when they were less proficient, thus leading them to higher proficiency. The lower median average responses reported by the intermediate group in these categories may simply indicate that they need to apply other strategies as well as strategies of these types in their current stage of learning, hence leading them not to place as much of an emphasis on these strategies as the advanced group did.

There was also an interesting similarity in the subjects' use of *cognitive* strategies. Because both sets of subjects had a higher median average response and a smaller range of average responses in this category than the others, this suggests that using *cognitive* strategies is very important or necessary at both levels of proficiency.

Based upon the differences and similarities presented above, it can be seen that although the two groups displayed similar patterns of strategy use with respect to strategy

category, there were also very important differences in strategy use between the two groups. After testing for statistically significant differences, it was found that there was a significant difference in the subjects' use of *memory* strategies, while less obvious differences were uncovered in the other strategy categories when examining median average responses and range of average responses.

Frequency of Strategy Use According to Individual Strategies

An analysis of individual strategies resulted in even more revealing differences between the two groups. Table 7 presents the following 11 strategies which proved to be statistically significant: *using flashcards, reviewing English lessons, starting conversations in English, reading for pleasure in English, writing notes/reports in English, using gestures, paraphrasing, planning a study schedule, using a language learning diary, asking for help, and asking questions in English.*

Of these 11 strategies, the intermediate subjects had higher median responses for the strategies *using flashcards, reviewing English lessons, using gestures, planning a study schedule, and asking for help* than did the advanced group. These strategies which the intermediate group reported using more frequently than the advanced group appear to be strategies which one might consider typical of lower level language learners. Learners who need more practice in the language, such as the intermediate subjects, might engage in these strategies more frequently than learners at a more proficient level. For instance, *using flashcards* and *using gestures* are typically thought of as activities performed at lower levels of language learning which require less complicated mental processing. Likewise, for the intermediate subjects, there is much benefit in *reviewing English lessons, planning a study schedule, and asking for help*. Although using these three

TABLE 7
Strategies of Statistical Significance

Language Learning Strategy	
SILL #	Description
6	* I use flashcards to remember new English words
8	* I review English lessons often
14	* I start conversations in English
16	* I read for pleasure in English
17	* I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English
25	* When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
29	* If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
34	* I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English
43	* I write down my feelings in a language learning diary
48	* I ask for help from English speakers
49	* I ask questions in English

(* Significant at $p < .05$)

strategies is likely to be beneficial for students at both levels of proficiency, they are probably more necessary or helpful for the intermediate learners than the advanced learners.

However, the advanced subjects reported higher median responses on the strategies *starting conversations in English, reading for pleasure in English, writing notes/reports in English, paraphrasing, and asking questions in English* than did the intermediate group. The median response for each of these strategies from the advanced group was 5, the highest of the response levels. The high reported use of these five strategies suggests that the advanced subjects are more frequently using complicated and creative strategies than the intermediate subjects since three of these five strategies are *cognitive strategies (starting conversations in English, reading for pleasure in English,*

and *writing notes reports in English*). The reported use of these strategies may indicate that the advanced subjects are involving themselves more directly with the language as opposed to learning the language for the simple sake of learning or merely to attain certain educational goals. This could also be a reflection of their level of education and learning. Because these subjects are more proficient, they are able to focus on more integrative reasons for learning the language rather than on predominantly instrumental reasons (to be discussed later in the chapter). Also, because these subjects are more proficient and are likely to have more confidence in their ability to speak English, they would be more willing to *start conversations in English* than the intermediate subjects who may have less confidence and because of their language background, may also be more shy. It is also possible that the advanced subjects reported *writing notes and reports in English* more frequently since they were taught in English medium schools where this was likely to be an activity they performed on a regular basis.

The only significant strategy which had the same median response for both groups of subjects was *using a language learning diary*. The reported median response for both groups was 1 which indicates that neither group uses this strategy with much frequency. However, an examination the range of responses and the individual responses of the subjects was more productive in determining differences between the groups. The intermediate group had a range of responses of 4, whereas the advanced group had a range of responses of 3. The range of responses shows that there are subjects in both groups who reported using this strategy with a high level of frequency and some who reported using it with a low level of frequency or never using it at all. Looking at the individual responses of the subjects from each group shows that only two subjects in the

advanced group reported a response other than 1, whereas half the subjects in the intermediate group reported responses other than 1. From this analysis, it can be seen that the majority of the advanced subjects reported that they *never or almost never* use language learning diaries, while at least half of the intermediate subjects reported using language learning diaries at least *somewhat*. This, of course, is a strategy which may be less necessary or helpful to more proficient learners of English.

Table 8 presents a comparison of the medians of each group of subjects according to the subjects' reported use of all the individual strategies. From this table, it can be seen which strategies each group of subjects reported using most and least frequently, and it also shows each group's reported use in comparison to that of the other group. Of the strategies which were significant, it is clear that some of them may have a direct relationship to oral proficiency, while others may have more of an indirect relationship to oral proficiency. For example, *starting conversations in English*, *paraphrasing*, and *asking questions in English* are likely to be strategies which have a positive influence on oral abilities; thus, the advanced subjects' high reported use of these strategies may have helped them reach their level of oral proficiency. It may also be that these are strategies which are more necessary in terms of the tasks or activities advanced learners engage in. Taking control of one's learning and taking the initiative to speak in English by *starting conversations in English* and *asking questions in English* could greatly help a learner to improve his or her oral skills. Likewise, *paraphrasing*, using a word or phrase with a similar meaning, is a strategy used by more proficient speakers, whereas lower level speakers are more likely to abandon what they were trying to say, use gestures, or ask a

TABLE 8

Comparison of Medians for Individual Strategies

Learning Strategy		Advanced	Intermediate
SILL #	Description	Median	
Part A			
1	Comparing old and new information	4	4
2	Using new words in a sentence	3	3
3	Connecting word sounds to images	4	4
4	Making mental pictures	4	3
5	Using rhymes	2	3
6	Using flashcards *	1	2
7	Acting out new words	1	3
8	Reviewing English lessons *	2	3
9	Remembering words by location	3	3
Part B			
10	Repeating words orally & in writing	3	4
11	Imitating speech of native speakers	3	4
12	Practicing the sounds of English	4	4
13	Using words in different ways	4	3
14	Starting conversations in English *	5	3
15	Watching TV & movies in English	5	4
16	Reading for pleasure in English *	5	3
17	Writing notes, letters, etc. in English *	5	4
18	Skimming before careful reading	4	4
19	Comparing own language to English	2	3
20	Looking for patterns in English	3	3
21	Dividing words into parts	3	3
22	Avoiding word-for-word translation	4	3
23	Making summaries of information	3	3
Part C			
24	Guessing meaning of new words	4	4
25	Using gestures to express words *	3	4
26	Creating new words	3	3
27	Reading without checking words	4	3
28	Guessing what someone will say	3	3
29	Using similar words or phrases *	5	4

TABLE 8 (Continued)

Part D			
30	Seeking ways to use English	4	3
31	Learning from mistakes	4	4
32	Paying attention to English speakers	5	4
33	Trying to be a better learner	4	4
34	Planning a study schedule *	2	3
35	Seeking out English speakers	3	3
36	Looking for opportunities to read	3	3
37	Setting goals for improving English	3	3
38	Thinking about learning progress	3	3
Part E			
39	Trying to relax when nervous	4	4
40	Encouraging oneself to speak	5	4
41	Rewarding oneself for doing good	3	3
42	Noticing level of nervousness	2	3
43	Writing in a language learning diary *	1	1
44	Talking about feelings on learning	2	2
Part F			
45	Asking for slower speech/repetition	4	4
46	Asking for correction	2	3
47	Practicing English w/ other students	3	3
48	Asking for help *	2	3
49	Asking questions in English *	5	4
50	Trying to learn about native culture	4	4

(* Strategies significant at $p < .05$)

participant in the conversation for help. Learners who are less proficient in their speaking abilities are also likely to feel insecure in speaking English to others which may be why the advanced subjects reported that they *start conversations in English* and *ask questions in English* much more frequently than reported by the intermediate subjects.

Strategies which may have indirect relationships with oral proficiency are *reading for pleasure in English* and *writing notes/reports in English*. Because these strategies

were significant when compared with level of oral proficiency, it is likely that they have an indirect relationship with oral abilities. The different skills of a language are typically not acquired at the same rate, and it is possible that a learner may be at a different level of proficiency for each of the skills of speaking, writing, listening, and reading.

However, it is conceivable that reading and writing in English, strategies which had a median response of 5 for the advanced subjects, are strategies which may have an influence on oral proficiency. All of the skills have relationships to each other, and the more one practices a skill and becomes more proficient in that skill, the more likely he is to improve in the other skill areas also. For example, engaging in strategies such as *reading for pleasure in English* and *writing notes/reports in English* will presumably have a positive influence in such areas as vocabulary and grammar which may inherently promote proficiency in the other skills of listening and speaking.

Also of importance is the fact that the intermediate subjects reported using some strategies which may very possibly aid them in improving their speaking abilities as well as improving their abilities in the other skills of the language. For instance, *reviewing English lessons*, *planning a study schedule*, and *asking for help* are strategies which may be very helpful to learners at a lower level of proficiency. It may be that the intermediate subjects realize they still have much room for improvement and are aware that these strategies will aid them in becoming more proficient; however, the advanced subjects, because of their higher level of proficiency, may no longer feel that they need to use these strategies as frequently as they may have when they were less proficient. Likewise, because the intermediate subjects are undergraduates and the advanced subjects are graduate students, the frequency with which each group uses these strategies may reflect

the types of tasks they are required to perform at their different levels of education. However, it should be noted that even though the intermediate subjects had a higher median average response on these strategies than the advanced subjects, the medians were rather low for both groups.

Relationships Between Motivation and Level of Oral Proficiency

The following presentation and discussion of results concerning language learning motivation will focus on a comparison of the two oral proficiency levels with particular emphasis on the analysis of overall motivation, instrumental versus integrative motivation, and individual motivation factors. The following discussion is based on the results of the motivation battery described in Chapter III. On the motivation battery, subjects chose a response from 1 to 5 for each of the motivation factors in terms of its level of importance as a reason for either coming to the United States or for learning English as a second language. Statistical significance will be reported as well as the median responses for overall motivation, integrative and instrumental motivation, and individual motivation factors. When motivation factors are discussed below, some have been shortened from their original wording or paraphrased due to length. The factors can be seen in full in the motivation battery presented in Appendix D.

Overall Level of Language Learning Motivation

Overall motivation was based upon the subjects' average overall responses on the motivation battery. The difference in overall motivation between the subjects at the two oral proficiency levels showed no statistical difference. However, similar to the results of strategy use, although overall motivation showed no statistical difference between the

two groups, the reported levels of importance for each of the factors does suggest that less obvious differences do exist in the motivation of these two groups of subjects.

Figure 3 shows the distribution of median responses of the individual strategies at each of the response levels as reported by both proficiency groups. Subjects indicated level of importance by reporting that each motivation factor was either 5, *most important*; 4, *very important*; 3, *quite important*; 2, *a little important*; or 1, *not at all important*. The medians of the motivation battery responses indicate that the advanced subjects possess more varied motivation than do the intermediate subjects. The advanced subjects reported a more even distribution of how important they felt the motivation factors were, with at least some of the median factor responses falling into all of the response levels. On the other hand, the intermediate group indicated that the majority of the factors were either *very important* or *quite important* to them. This group reported only one median response as being *a little important*, none as being *not at all important*, and only three as being *most important*. This means that the intermediate subjects felt that few factors qualified at either of the extremes of the response scale. The advanced group, on the other hand, reported five median responses as *most important*, four as *a little important*, and two as *not at all important*. The advanced group had more median responses in the level of *quite important* than any of the other response levels, the same amount as the intermediate group. However, the intermediate group had more median responses in the *very important* level than any other response level which was also much more than the advanced group had at this level of importance.

Based on this distribution of median responses, it can be seen that although there was no significant difference in the motivation of the two groups. The advanced subjects

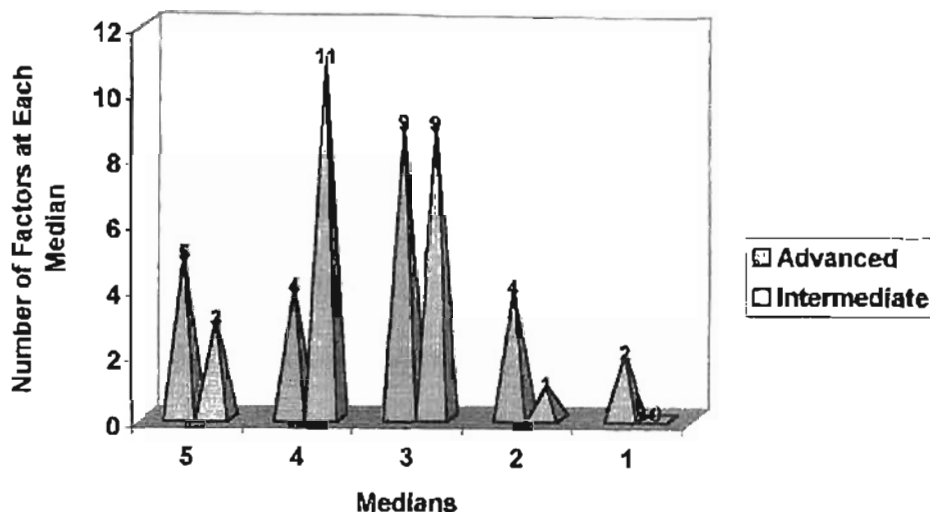


Figure 3. Number of Factors Representing Each Response Level

*(Medians represent level of importance as it applied to the subjects:
5 = most important, 4 = very important, 3 = quite important,
2 = a little important, 1 = not at all important)*

are more precise in what motivates them and what does not, whereas the intermediate subjects appear to view all the motivation factors with generally relative importance. This indicates that there may be little or no relationship between motivation and oral proficiency, but that there may be a relationship between oral proficiency and how much importance learners place on certain motivating factors at their stage of learning or level of proficiency.

Analysis of Motivation Type and Individual Motivation Factors

In a closer analysis of the motivation battery, type of motivation was examined as well as individual strategies. The individual motivation factors on the motivation battery can be divided into two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative. Table 9 shows a breakdown of instrumental and integrative motivation factors and indicates which were

significant in this study. Instrumental reasons for coming to the U.S. and learning ESL are typically reasons which are seen as necessary to further one's knowledge and education or as integral in terms of professional and career goals. Integrative reasons, on the other hand, focus more on a desire to relate to or integrate into the target culture and to expand one's experiences and horizons. Because the motivation battery was divided into two sections by its originators (Gardner and Lambert, 1972) (*reasons for coming to the U.S. to study* {15 factors} and *reasons for learning English as a second language* {9 factors}), Table 9 presents the instrumental and integrative factors as they appear in each of these two sections. Out of the 24 factors on the motivation battery, 14 of them were considered to be instrumental, while 10 of them were integrative. Statistical significance for these two types of motivation was based on each subjects' average responses for the factors of each type.

There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups with respect to their reported average responses of level of importance of integrative factors at $p < .023$, whereas there was no significant difference between the groups in their instrumental motivation. The intermediate group reported a higher median average response of 3.50 than that of the advanced group of 3.00 for integrative motivation. This indicates that although there is no difference between the groups in terms of overall instrumental motivation, the intermediate group did report being more overall integratively motivated than the advanced group. A closer examination of the individual motivation factors, however, is more revealing in terms of differences in instrumental and integrative motivation between the two sets of subjects.

TABLE 9

Distribution of Instrumental and Integrative Motivation Factors

Battery #	Instrumental Motivation Factors
	<i>Reasons for Coming to the U.S.</i>
1	Seeing the United States
3	* Getting a degree
4	Getting training in my field
6	Learning about the United States government
9	Finding out how people in my profession work here
10	Finding out what student life is like here
13	Learning English
15	Trying to raise living standard of family
	<i>Reasons for Learning ESL</i>
16	Was required to study English in high school
17	To pass school entrance exams
18	In order to be an educated person
21	* In order to go into international business
22	* In order to get a higher paying job
24	* To gain the approval of family and friends at home
	<i>Integrative Motivation Factors *</i>
	<i>Reasons for Coming to the U.S.</i>
2	Getting to know Americans
5	Finding out how people live in the United States
7	* Having a chance to be away from home
8	* Having a chance to live in another country
11	Finding out more about what I am like
12	Having different experiences
14	Meeting many different kinds of people
	<i>Reasons for Learning ESL</i>
19	* Had long planned to come to the United States
20	* Had American friends before coming here
23	Interested in English language, literature, culture

*Statistically significant at $p < .05$

Instrumental Motivation

Of the four significant instrumental motivation factors, the intermediate subjects reported being more motivated than the advanced group by three of these factors: *to go into international business, to get a higher paying job, and to gain the approval of family*

and friends at home. The gaps in the median responses of the two groups were quite large for these three factors, spanning over two response levels. A comparison of medians between the two groups can be seen below in Table 10.

The intermediate group had a median response of 5 on the factor *to get a higher paying job*, whereas the advanced group had a median response of 3 for this factor. Therefore, it can be seen that the majority of the subjects in both groups believe this factor is at least *quite important* with the bulk of the responses appearing at the mid to high end of the response scale.

For the factor *to go into international business*, however, the majority of the intermediate subjects reported responses at the higher end of the response scale, whereas the advanced subjects reported responses at the lower end of the response scale. The intermediate group had a higher median response of 4 for this factor than the advanced group which had a median response of 2. A variable which may have an influence on this factor is major field of study which unfortunately was not examined in this study.

Similarly, there was a large gap in the medians for the factor *to gain the approval of family and friends at home* with the intermediate group reporting a median response of 3, while the advanced group reported a median response of 1. Although both groups reported lower responses on this factor than most others factors, the majority of the intermediate subjects reported that it was either *quite or very important* to them, while the majority of the advanced subjects felt that this factor was either *not at all important* or *only a little important* to them.

Getting a degree, the final significant instrumental factor, resulted in the same median average response from both groups of subjects. While the medians for this factor

TABLE 10

Comparison of Medians for Individual Motivation Factors

#	Motivation Factor	Median	
		Advanced	Intermediate
1	Seeing the United States	3	3
2	Getting to know Americans	3	3
3	* Getting a degree	5	5
4	Getting training in my field	5	5
5	Finding out how people live in the U.S.	3	3
6	Learning about the U.S. government	2	2
7	* Having a chance to be away from home	2	3
8	* Having a chance to live in another country	3	4
9	Finding out how people in my profession work	4	4
10	Finding out what student life is like here	3	4
11	Finding out more about what I am like	3	4
12	Having different experiences	5	4
13	Learning English	4	4
14	Meeting many different kinds of people	4	4
15	Trying to raise living standard of family	3	3
16	Was required to study English in high school	5	4
17	To pass school entrance exams	4	4
18	In order to be an educated person	5	4
19	* Had long planned to come to the U.S.	2	3
20	* Had American friends before coming here	1	3
21	* In order to go into international business	2	4
22	* In order to get a higher paying job	3	5
23	Interested in English language, culture, etc.	3	3
24	* To gain approval of family & friends at home	1	3

(* Significant at $p < .05$)

were the same for both groups (5), the range of responses was more revealing in terms of differences between the two groups. The intermediate subjects reported a response range of 2 for the importance of *getting a degree*, while the advanced subjects reported a smaller response range of 1. This indicates that there was more of a consensus among the advanced subjects concerning level of importance of this factor with the majority of them viewing this factor as being either *very* or *most important*. On the other hand, the

intermediate subjects showed less agreement than the advanced subjects with some reporting that they also felt that *getting a degree* was only *quite important*. A closer look at the individual responses of the subjects at each proficiency level showed that 13 of the 17 advanced subjects viewed this factor as *most important*, while the four remaining advanced subjects viewed it as *very important*. On the other hand, for the intermediate group, 11 of the subjects felt it was *most important*, 4 thought it was *very important*, and 3 thought it was only *quite important*.

It should be noted here that language background could have had an affect on the reported motivation of these subjects. The advanced subjects, more than half of whom come from countries where English is a language of wider communication, would naturally not place as much importance on these instrumental motives because learning English was already a necessity for them. They may not be motivated to gain approval from family by learning English because they have probably spoken English throughout their school years. And for the same reason, they would not be motivated to learn English to achieve career-related goals because they already know English well and may be at a level of proficiency acceptable to fulfill such professional expectations. On the other hand, the intermediate subjects who were predominantly only foreign language learners of English reported that these instrumental factors were of more importance to them than they were to the advanced subjects.

Integrative Motivation

An analysis of the data also indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups' reported level of importance of four integrative

factors: *having a chance to be away from home, having a chance to live in another country, had planned to come to the U.S., and had American friends before coming here.* The intermediate group had higher median responses on all four of these factors than the advanced group did, indicating that the intermediate subjects are more motivated by these factors than are the advanced subjects.

For the factor *having a chance to be away from home*, the intermediate subjects reported a median response of 3, while the advanced subjects reported a median response of 2. More than half of the responses reported by the advanced subjects indicated that this factor was *not at all* or *only a little important*, whereas more than half of the intermediate subjects reported that it was either *quite, very, or most important* to them.

Similarly, *having a chance to live in another country*, was also reported to be of more importance to the intermediate subjects than to the advanced subjects. The intermediate subjects reported a median response of 4 with half of the subjects reporting that it was either *very* or *most important*. On the other hand, the advanced subjects reported a median response of 3 with almost half (8) of the subjects reporting that it was either *not at all important* or *only a little important*.

The results of these motivation factors, other than indicating a relationship with oral proficiency, may also have been affected by the background characteristics of the subjects. For instance, students working towards a master's or doctorate degree are generally quite focused on their immediate educational needs, whereas undergraduate students, most of whom are probably leaving the parents' home for the first time, are also driven by their need to experience life and become independent as well as receiving their education.

Another factor that indicated a significant difference between the two groups was the level of importance of learning ESL because the subjects *had long planned to come to the U.S.* This was more of a motivating factor for the intermediate subjects who reported a median response of 3 than for the advanced subjects who reported a median response of 2. Of the intermediate subjects' responses, all but two subjects indicated that this factor was *quite, very, or most important*; however, of the advanced subject's responses, all but three responses were reported at the levels of *not at all important* or *only a little important*. This factor is, however, difficult to analyze in terms of why one group was more motivated because of the different ways in which it can be interpreted. For instance, subjects may have reported level of importance based upon why they had long planned to come to the U.S. and not just the simple fact that they had planned to come here. In other words, if a student had planned to come to the U.S. to get a degree to improve his professional marketability, then he may have reported this factor as being of a certain level of importance which he might have reported differently if he had interpreted it as having planned to come to the U.S. to meet many different kinds of people. Therefore, interpretation of the factors may have also had an affect on the results of the motivation battery.

The remaining factor which showed a significant difference between the two groups was learning ESL because of *having American friends before coming here*. This integrative factor resulted in a larger gap between the median responses of the two groups than any of the other significant integrative factors. The intermediate group reported a median response of 3 with half of these subjects indicating that this factor was *quite, very, or most important* to them, while the advanced subjects reported a median

response of 1, with over half of the responses indicating that this factor was *not at all important*. Based on my experiences as an ESL teacher, I must be skeptical as to how the intermediate subjects also interpreted this factor. After becoming quite familiar with undergraduate international students and students with the same characteristics as the intermediate subjects, I have observed that most of these students generally know few if any Americans before coming here. Therefore, there is concern that the intermediate subjects may have interpreted this factor as having friends in America before coming here rather than having American friends before coming here. Many of these types of students have friends from their own countries that have already been studying in the U.S. before they come here. These types of problems in interpretation of factors are possible as the intermediate subjects are at a lower level of proficiency and because the subjects' level of reading proficiency was not tested.

Influence of Background Variables on Oral Proficiency

Other than the relationships which exist between strategies, motivation and oral proficiency, other relationships can be seen between the background variables and oral proficiency. These variables are those which were asked on the background questionnaire: age, gender, months spent in the U.S., years of studying English, parents' English speaking ability, and native country of origin and native language. Some factors resulted in significant differences between the two sets of subjects, while other factors indicated less direct relationships. This section will discuss the background information of the subjects and what, if any, relationships existed among these factors and proficiency level.

Years of English Study

The background variable, *years of English study* showed a statistically significant difference ($p < .002$) between the two proficiency groups. The advanced group reported an average length of study of 14.14 years, while the intermediate group reported an average length of study of 8.11 years. However, it should be taken into consideration that the actual number of years of studying English may have been less of a predictor of proficiency level than type of English study during those years. For instance, learning English in an English medium school for 10 years would likely lead one to be more proficient than if he had learned English in a school in which his native language was the medium of instruction. Therefore, it is difficult to determine whether actual years of English study or type of study during those years had more of an influence on the difference in oral proficiency level.

Age

The age of the subjects also resulted in a statistically significant difference ($p < .006$) between the two proficiency groups. The average age for the advanced group was 26.64, while the average age for the intermediate group was 21.76, a difference of 4.88 years. This variable has essentially the same possible relationships with oral proficiency and other background variables as the variable of length of studying English. The older a learner is, the more likely he is to have studied English longer than someone younger than him. This, of course, cannot be said to be true for all ESL learners, but it does appear to be the case for this particular group of learners. Therefore, the older a learner is, the longer he has probably studied English, and the more likely he is to be at a higher level of proficiency. Type of study during years of English study should also be

considered as a possible influence here as it was on the previously discussed background variable. From this, it appears that many variables are working in conjunction with each other to produce a particular influence on proficiency.

In light of these various possible relationships, it is suggested that a spiraling cycle may exist. The older a learner is, the higher the probability that he has studied English for a longer period of time. The longer he has studied English, the more motivated he becomes, leading to higher proficiency. Once he has achieved a certain level of proficiency, he is able to employ more complex cognitive, metacognitive, and compensation strategies, leading to an even higher level of proficiency and so on.

Parents' Level of Proficiency

Another variable which showed a relationship with oral proficiency level was how well one's parents speak English. On the background questionnaire, the subjects reported on how well their mothers and fathers speak English. They indicated on a scale from 1 to 4 whether their parents could speak English *not at all*, *a little*, *fairly fluently*, or *very fluently*. A response of 1 represented *not at all*, and a response of 4 represented *very fluently*. A significant difference was found between the two groups of subjects with respect to father's English speaking ability and subjects' level of oral proficiency; however, no difference was found between the two groups with respect to mother's English speaking ability and the subjects' level of oral proficiency. The advanced subjects reported that their fathers spoke English fairly fluently with a median response of 3, while the intermediate subjects reported that their fathers spoke English with little to no fluency with a median response of 1. This indicates that the fathers of the advanced subjects are more proficient speakers of English than the fathers of the intermediate

subjects. More than half of the intermediate subjects reported that their fathers were *not at all* proficient in English, and only one intermediate subject indicated that his father was anything above *fairly fluent*. On the other hand, nearly half (7) of the advanced subjects reported that their father's could speak English *very fluently*, while only four reported that their fathers were *not at all* proficient in English. However, it should be kept in mind when drawing conclusions concerning these results that the criteria which the subjects used to determine their fathers' level of English speaking proficiency are unknown. Keeping this in mind, there seems to be a relationship between how well a learner judges his father to speak English and how well he speaks English himself. This variable, as many others, may be influenced by language background because it is likely that the fathers of the advanced subjects also received their education in schools where English was the medium of instruction and grew up in the same country where English is a language of wider communication. If this is the case, it would be expected that the fathers of the advanced subjects would be more proficient than the fathers of the intermediate subjects who predominantly live in a country where English is a foreign language.

Other explanations for these results may have to do with amount of exposure to more proficient speakers and the extent to which a learner wants to please his parents. First of all, the more one is exposed to speakers who are more proficient, the more likely he is to improve his own English speaking skills. However, another explanation could be that children often want to please their parents; therefore, they try harder to achieve or exceed the level of English spoken by their parents. Because of this particular influence, it could be said that how well a learner's parents speak English may be a motivating

factor to become proficient in the language, thus resulting in the fact that it may also be related to the motivation factor of learning ESL *to gain approval from family and friends*.

Native Country of Origin

As mentioned throughout this study, it appears that native country of origin may also have a very important relationship with level of proficiency as well as relationships with many of the other variables. Because the majority of the advanced subjects came from countries in which an institutionalized variety of English is spoken (i.e. India, Ethiopia, Pakistan), and because the majority of the intermediate subjects came from countries where English is typically only spoken in English language classes, this fact may have had an influence on the differences in the results between the two sets of subjects.

Not only are there possible relationships between country of origin and level of oral proficiency, but there are also possible relationships between this factor and motivation as indicated in Chapter IV.

Gender

Gender did not appear to have much of a relationship with level of oral proficiency in this study. The intermediate group consisted of 10 (58%) males and 7 (41%) females, while the advanced group was made up of 13 (76%) males and 4 (23%) females. The effect of gender on proficiency was difficult to determine in this study because of the small number of subjects and because of the unequal distribution of males and females in each of the proficiency groups.

The background factors which resulted in significant differences between subjects at the two oral proficiency levels were *years of studying English, age, and father's level*

of English speaking proficiency. Other variables which may also have relationships with the subjects' level of oral proficiency are medium of instruction during primary schooling and native language background. At times, some of the possible relationships among the many variables which can influence how a person learns a language appear to be less prominent than others, and it is difficult to determine to what extent these variables actually influence oral proficiency. Because of the many possible complex relationships which may exist among these variables, it is impossible to say with any amount of certainty what the nature of these relationships actually are and how much of an influence any of these variables alone may have on proficiency or on each other.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes the study of the relationships between strategy use, motivation and level of oral proficiency by responding to the research questions, discussing implications of the results, and suggesting possibilities for future research. Because the goal of this study was to provide insights into the relationships between strategy use, motivation, and oral proficiency (an area of research which has largely been overlooked) this chapter places an emphasis on the need for studies which will provide further insights into the relationships between these variables and the particular skill of oral proficiency as well as studies examining relationships among these variables.

Research Questions

1. What relationships exist between strategy use and oral proficiency?

Although there was no significant difference in overall strategy use between the intermediate and advanced subjects, the frequency with which these two groups of subjects reported using each strategy does indicate that there are more complex differences in their use of strategies. Based upon the median average responses of each strategy, the advanced group reported a wider range of strategy use with at least some of the strategies being reported at each level of frequency, whereas the intermediate group was more restricted in its distribution of strategies within the different frequencies.

a. Do learners at different levels of oral proficiency prefer different types of strategies?

The category of *memory strategies* was the only category which demonstrated a significant difference between the two sets of subjects with the intermediate subjects

using strategies of this type more than the advanced subjects. Both groups showed a preference for *cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies* with the advanced group reporting higher median average responses than the intermediate group in all four of these strategy categories. Subsequently, both groups also least preferred *memory and affective strategies*.

b. Are individual strategies used more or less frequently by learners at different levels of oral proficiency?

Of the 50 strategies on the SILL, 11 of them resulted in a significant difference between the two groups of subjects. The intermediate subjects reported a higher frequency of use of the strategies *using flashcards, reviewing English lessons, using gestures, planning a study schedule, using a language learning diary, and asking for help* than did the advanced group. The advanced subjects, on the other hand, reported a higher frequency of use of the strategies *starting conversations in English, reading for pleasure in English, writing notes/reports in English, paraphrasing, and asking questions in English*.

2. What relationships exist between motivation and level of oral proficiency?

No significant difference appeared in the data between overall motivation and level of oral proficiency. Although overall motivation showed no statistical difference between the two groups of subjects, the level of importance of the individual factors was more revealing with respect to what relationships exist between level of oral proficiency and motivation. Based upon the median average responses indicating level of importance of each factor, the advanced subjects have more varied motivation with the median average responses falling into all of the importance levels, while the intermediate

subjects did not distinguish as much between factors with the majority of their median average responses falling into the response levels of *very* and *quite important*.

a. Do learners at different levels of oral proficiency have different types of motivation?

Of the two types of motivation examined in this study, *integrative* and *instrumental*, *integrative motivation* resulted in a significant difference between the intermediate group and the advanced group, but *instrumental motivation* did not. Based upon median average responses, the intermediate subjects did report being significantly more *integratively* motivated than the advanced subjects. There were also more detailed differences between the two groups with respect to individual instrumental and integrative factors. Even though there was no relationship between *instrumental motivation* and level of oral proficiency, there were relationships between level of oral proficiency and individual *instrumental* factors. Of four *instrumental* factors which were significant, the intermediate group reported higher median responses than the advanced group. Likewise, of the four significant *integrative* factors, the intermediate subjects also reported higher median responses than the advanced group.

b. Are individual motivation factors viewed as more or less important by learners at different levels of oral proficiency?

The intermediate group viewed all eight significant factors as more important than the advanced group did. The intermediate subjects reported that they were more motivated by the following factors than the advanced subjects were: *to go into international business, to get a higher paying job, to gain the approval of family and friends at home, having a chance to be away from home, having a chance to live in another country, had planned to come to the U.S., and had American friends before*

coming here. Although there were factors which the advanced group, based on the median responses and range of responses, appeared to view as more important than the intermediate group, none of them resulted in a significant difference between the two groups.

3. Which background variables (years of English study, parents' level of English speaking proficiency, native language, age, and gender) have relationships with oral proficiency?

There were three background variables which resulted in a significant difference between the two groups of subjects: years of English study, age, and father's level of English speaking proficiency. These three factors were reported to be higher for the advanced subjects than the intermediate subjects. Other than these variables which were statistically significant, there is a high possibility that native language background may have also had a relationship with level of oral proficiency; however, because of the small sample population and the wide variation of language backgrounds, this was not examined in data analysis. Gender did not appear to have any relationship with level of oral proficiency, but for the same reason stated above, this variable was also excluded from data analysis.

Implications

Because the particular skill of speaking was tested as the measure of proficiency, the results of this study should not be generalized and cannot be applied to overall proficiency or proficiency in any of the other skill areas such as reading, writing, or listening. These skills are all quite different, and the effects of motivation and strategy use on these other skill areas may be entirely different from their effects on oral proficiency.

Although it has become a widely held view by researchers and teachers in the field of language learning that strategy training is necessary and can help students improve their level of proficiency, this is rarely discussed in terms of the individual skills. A large number of strategies have been proposed as characteristics of good language learners, but not specifically in terms of learners who are good speakers of English. The abilities of the students in each skill area should be assessed as well as the strategies they use in learning and attaining each particular skill. Once this has been done and the strategies typically used by good ESL speakers have been uncovered, it is only then that teachers will be able to train their students to use strategies that will aid them in their journey to become proficient speakers of the language. For this reason, research of a similar nature as the present one which use instruments to test strategies that actually test for general strategy use may unconsciously have an influence on the results. For instance, reporting that learners at a low level of oral proficiency use just as many strategies as frequently as learners at a higher level of oral proficiency does not mean that the low level learners are using proper strategies to aid them in attaining that specific skill.

Similarly, overall motivation, type of motivation, and individual motivation factors should be examined more closely to determine what exactly motivates a learner to become a better speaker of English, not merely a better learner of the language. It is not enough to generically state that the more motivated a learner is the more proficient he is likely to be or vice versa. Likewise, one cannot simply say that the more or less instrumentally or integratively motivated a learner is that his proficiency will be at a certain level. It is quite likely, based on the results of this study, that valuing

instrumental motivation over integrative motivation leads to better oral ability. In other words, what motivates a learner to become a better speaker should be examined, and then teachers can focus on how to facilitate motivation that leads to attainment and higher achievement of a particular skill. Therefore, teachers not only need to learn and teach the proper strategies for obtaining higher oral proficiency, but they also need to learn what motivates good speakers and encourage this type of motivation in those with lower oral proficiency.

In addition to the teaching of appropriate strategies and the encouragement of effective motivation, teachers also need to consider many other variables that may have an influence on a learner's oral ability. Based on the results of this study and the theories proposed in Chapter IV to account for such results, it is suggested that many complex and indistinct relationships exist between the variables that influence oral proficiency. In this study, years of English study, age, parents' proficiency level, and native language background all have either a very direct or a sometimes less direct relationship with oral proficiency. These factors need to be taken into consideration as different strategies and motivation may be applied in various ways based on the characteristics of the learners. It cannot be assumed that certain strategies which work for learners of a particular language background in improving oral ability are the same ones that will assist learners from other language backgrounds in advancing their oral ability as well. Therefore, if these types of external variables influence strategy use and motivation, then this will also influence how teachers should deal with assisting the learners. For instance, discovering what strategies are beneficial for aiding learners from countries such as India in

becoming more orally proficient may not be the same strategies that are needed for learners from countries such as China.

In conclusion, knowledge of the motivation and strategies used by effective ESL speakers will assist teachers in their ability to convey these concepts to their students as well as develop a curriculum that will be most beneficial for students to learn how to speak appropriately. In addition, this knowledge should be extended to the students so that they can become more productive in their learning outside of the classroom.

Because much interaction takes place outside of the classroom between ESL learners and native speakers in English-speaking countries, the learners should be aware of what steps they need to take to ensure that these interactions will not only be profitable learning experiences but so that the interactions will also be more successful. The main factor that should be held with great importance by all educators is that overgeneralization of results, in any aspect, should be avoided because of the many complex relationships that exist between a multitude of variables that may have an influence on proficiency.

Future Research

Although there are indications that research on strategies, motivation, and proficiency are becoming less generalized, there is still much that needs to be done in terms of examining each of these areas and their relationships to one another much more closely. Not only should studies be conducted that investigate individual skill areas, but studies should also be done which closely examine relationships of external variables with these skill areas. Some very influential factors, such as characteristics of the subjects are often overlooked or are only touched upon very briefly in some of the existing research. Moreover, in terms of strategy use and motivation, there is a great need for research

examining the relationship between and their effects on oral proficiency. Many studies have been conducted which investigate the influence of these variables on proficiency, but typically the studies focus on general proficiency or the skills of reading and writing.

One possible reason for this is that testing of these types of proficiency is much easier than testing for oral proficiency. This leads to an urge for the avoidance of employing assessment measures such as standardized tests that typically do not test for particular skills or do not do so adequately or for the use of course grades which often reflect factors other than proficiency. Researchers also need to closely examine exactly what is being tested when they use instruments which examine individual skills. For instance, some assessment measures of oral proficiency merely test grammar, pronunciation, accuracy and the like. For a true assessment of oral proficiency, tests need to be conducted which take all of these factors into account. If this is not done, then the results of such studies in the areas of strategy use and motivation may not necessarily represent the effects on oral proficiency but on an individual skill which is only a minute part of what makes up the whole of oral proficiency. Another problem which exists in studies of the effect of motivation and strategy use on proficiency is that too many variables are often examined and none of them are treated with the consideration which they deserve or need. When examining so many factors, the results can become obscured or a detailed analysis and discussion of each variable is neglected. Several studies do exist, as discussed in Chapter II, which examine a very large number of variables and their effects on proficiency. However, in discussing these results, the relationships can only briefly be mentioned as a result of a lack of focus on only one or just a couple of variables.

In addition, as indicated in this study, there appear to be several relationships between the three variables of motivation, strategy use, and oral proficiency which are not necessarily easy to understand or to test. It has been proposed that cycles exist wherein a high level of motivation leads to higher proficiency which in turn leads to even more motivation and, therefore, promotes even higher proficiency, and so on. To date, relationships such as this have not been empirically proven, only theoretically implied. It would be of much interest and benefit to know which factor, motivation or proficiency, begins this cycle and the effect each has on the other.

Finally, the testing of motivation and strategy use needs to be tailored more towards particular types of learners with similar characteristics. The results of motivational tendencies of EFL learners, for instance, are not applicable to ESL learners. Likewise, studies testing ESL learners in general may differ widely in their results due to the varying characteristics and backgrounds of the subjects examined. Similarly, one needs to consider the environment in which the students are learning. Reporting results of a study investigating the proficiency of ESL students in a university course may not yield the same results as those examining the proficiency of ESL students in an intensive English program. Often, because of the difficulty in obtaining subjects, students with only one similar characteristic, such as the fact that they are all learning ESL, are grouped into one study, and the fact that there are extenuating factors is often overlooked. Studies using more homogeneous groups of subjects would provide valuable insights into particular group tendencies.

In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the relationships which exist between strategy use, motivation, and level of oral proficiency. For this particular

group of subjects there were no significant differences in overall strategy use or motivation, but there were significant differences between the subjects at the two proficiency levels with respect to types of strategies preferred, type of motivation, frequency of use of individual strategies, and importance of individual motivation factors. Future studies examining such relationships between these variables and level of oral proficiency will also likely provide valuable information to both language teachers and students as to why particular learners are more or less orally proficient than other learners and what can be done to facilitate and encourage higher oral proficiency.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
CHAMOT AND KUPPER'S STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

Chamot and Kupper's Strategy Classification System

Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned.

1. *Planning*: Previewing the organizing concept or principle or an anticipated learning task ("advance organizer"); proposing strategies for handling an upcoming task; generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be used in handling a task
2. *Directed Attention*: Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors; maintaining attention during task execution.
3. *Selective Attention*: Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situation details that assist in performance of a task, attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution.
4. *Self-management*: Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions; controlling one's language performance to maximize use of what is already known.
5. *Self-monitoring*: Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a language task.
 - *Comprehension monitoring*: checking, verifying or correcting one's understanding
 - *Production monitoring*: checking, verifying, or correcting one's language production
 - *Auditory monitoring*: using one's "ear" for the language (how something sounds) to make decisions
 - *Visual monitoring*: using one's "eye" for the language (how something looks) to make decisions
 - *Style monitoring*: checking, verifying, or correcting based upon an internal stylistic register
 - *Strategy monitoring*: tracking use of how well a strategy is working
 - *Plan monitoring*: tracking how well a plan is working
 - *Double Check monitoring*: tracking across the task previously undertaken acts or possibilities considered
6. *Problem Identification*: Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task, or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
7. *Self-evaluation*: Checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy; checking one's language repertoire, strategy use or ability to perform the task at hand.
 - *Production evaluation*: checking one's work when the task is finished
 - *Performance evaluation*: judging one's overall execution of the task
 - *Ability evaluation*: judging one's ability to perform the task
 - *Strategy evaluation*: judging one's strategy use when the task is completed
 - *Language Repertoire evaluation*: judging how much one knows of the L2, at the word, phrase, sentence, or concept level

Cognitive strategies involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task.

1. *Repetition*: Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task.
2. *Resourcing*: Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks, and prior work.

3. *Grouping*: Ordering, classifying, or labeling material used in a language task based on common attributes; recalling information based on grouping previously done
4. *Note-taking*: Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviated verbal, graphic, or numerical form to assist performance of a language task.
5. *Deduction/Induction*: Consciously applying learned or self-developed rules to produce or understand the target language.
6. *Substitution*: Selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or different words or phrases to accomplish a language task.
7. *Elaboration*: Relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; making meaningful personal associations to information presented.
 - *Personal elaboration*: Making judgments about or reacting personally to the material presented
 - *World elaboration*: Using knowledge gained from experience in the world
 - *Academic elaboration*: Using knowledge gained in academic situations
 - *Between Parts elaboration*: Relating parts of the task to each other
 - *Questioning elaboration*: Using a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical solutions to a task
 - *Self-evaluative elaboration*: Judging self in relation to materials
 - *Creative elaboration*: Making up a story line, or adopting a clever perspective
 - *Imagery*: Using mental or actual pictures or visuals to represent information; coded as a separate category, but viewed as a form of elaboration
8. *Summarization*: Making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a task.
9. *Translation*: Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner
10. *Transfer*: Using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a language task.
11. *Inferencing*: Using available information: to guess the meanings or usage or unfamiliar language items associated with a language task; to predict outcomes; or to fill in missing information.

Social and Affective strategies involve interacting with another person to assist learning, or using effective Control to assist a learning task.

1. *Questioning*: Asking for explanation, verification, rephrasing, or examples about the material; asking for clarification or verification about the task; posing questions to the self.
2. *Cooperation*: Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
3. *Self-talk*: Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.
4. *Self-reinforcement*: Providing personal motivation by arranging rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been successfully completed.

Adapted from Chamot and Kupper (1989)

APPENDIX B
VOCI QUESTIONS

VOCI QUESTIONS

Q1: Hello, my name is Gene and this is Ron. What's your name?

Q2: I am from New York and Ron is from Wisconsin. Where are you from?

Q3: This is a picture of my hometown. Tell us about your hometown.

Q4: Instead of writing letters, you have decided to send a cassette message to a friend back home. Describe where you are living now and what you've been doing recently.

Q5: I'm so happy my best friend just got back from vacation. I really missed him a lot. My best friend moved away and she's impossible to replace because she's so special. Describe one of your friends.

Q6: Because of a last minute problem you missed a dinner engagement with a friend. You called to apologize, but your friend is not yet home, so you need to leave a message on the answering machine apologizing for missing the date and explaining why you were not there.

Q7: Did you know that I went to New York last month? It sure is an interesting city. What's so special about it? The entire time I was there I tried to compare it with our city. There's lots of differences, but on the other hand, lots of things are similar. Can you compare your hometown with a city that you visited or you know well?

Q8: One thing that I didn't like about New York was that it is so big. I never really feel comfortable in big cities anymore. Really, I love city life. There's nothing more fascinating than a really big city. Not me. There are too many problems I guess. What do you think? What are the advantages or disadvantages of big city life?

Q9: Yes, that's just really unbelievable. It was a really terrific experience. There are some experiences you just can't forget. That's true. Have you ever had such an experience? An experience that you'll never forget. It can be something positive or it can be something negative. Tell us about it.

Q10: So, you finally made up your mind? Yes, and I'm really excited about it. Then you must have pretty concrete plans for the next few years? I have a good idea about what my life might be like. And you, what are your plans? What do you need to reach your goals? How might your life look ten years from now?

Q11: You have a summer job selling great books. I'm a potential customer. Convince me why I should buy the books from you.

Q12: Gene did you read about the student who took one of these Swiss army knives to school with him in his pocket? No, what happened? Well, when he was using the scissors part of it, his teacher caught him and she took the knife away from him and they

expelled him from school. I don't get it. It looks like an innocent tool to me. Well, their school has a zero tolerance policy and they considered a Swiss army knife as a weapon. If you were the principal of this school, what would you do about this issue?

Q13: Wow, look at the headlines, another war. There have always been wars. It's nothing new. It's just human nature. Not necessarily. How do you feel about this issue? How do you think we could create a lasting peace?

Q14: I really love this painting. I don't understand it at all. Tell us why you think this is or isn't art.

Q15: My computer is broken again. Man, what a disaster. I feel so dependent on this machine. Yeah, modern technology can make life easy, but sometimes it can cause a lot of frustrations too. Discuss the positive benefits and the negative consequences of our dependence on such machines.

Q16: Some undergraduates at American universities think that native speakers of English make the most effective teachers. On the other hand, some people think the advantages of having an international teacher outweigh the disadvantages. What do you think?

Q17: If you were a teacher and you discovered one of your students had cheated on a test by copying from another student's paper, what would you do?

Q18: In many countries, higher education is for an elite group of students. Not everybody can go to the university. That certainly isn't the case in this country. Our universities are open to almost everyone regardless of their background. I can see the pros and cons of both types of educational systems. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of both types of educational systems.

Q19: You know, I'm reading an article here on free trade in Europe and in America and it says that everybody benefits from having free trade. No, I don't know. There's still an awful lot of opposition in a few countries to the whole issue of free trade. Take one position and defend your opinion regarding the issue of free trade.

Q20: Did you know that US laws allow trials to be televised? Yes, several high profile trials have been televised recently because of the freedom of information act. I wonder if that's such a good idea? What do you think about televising criminal trials?

Q21: Have you noticed how many shows on TV portray violent crimes. Pretty hard not to notice. Some people feel that this creates violence in our society. Yeah, but other people feel it doesn't have any effect at all on our young people. In fact, they're proud of this country's freedom of expression. What do you think about the portrayal of violence and crime on TV?

Q22: There must be problems in your country too. What are some of the problems in your country? Suggest some solutions and discuss the implications of these solutions.

Q23: This is the last question. If you've gotten this far, you've probably taken other English tests. If so, how does this test compare to other English tests you have taken?

APPENDIX C
STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)
VERSION 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

© R. Oxford, 1989

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the separate Worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

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

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of me.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

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. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

EXAMPLE

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

Read the item, and choose a response (1 through 5 as above), and write it in the space after the item.

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers of English. _____

You have just completed the example item. Answer the rest of the items on the Worksheet.

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

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them
3. I connect the sound of a new English word or an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

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

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully

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

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make gestures.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.

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

Part E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.
48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Worksheet for Answering and Scoring
the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

1. The blanks (____) are numbered for each item on the SILL.
2. Write your response to each item (that is, write 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
3. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.
4. Divide by the number under SUM to get the average for each column. Round this average off to the nearest tenth, as in 3.4.
5. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMS for the different parts of the SILL. Then divide by 50.

<u>PART A</u>	<u>PART B</u>	<u>PART C</u>	<u>PART D</u>	<u>PART E</u>	<u>PART F</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
1. ____	10. ____	24. ____	30. ____	39. ____	45. ____	SUM Part A ____
2. ____	11. ____	25. ____	31. ____	40. ____	46. ____	SUM Part B ____
3. ____	12. ____	26. ____	32. ____	41. ____	47. ____	SUM Part C ____
4. ____	13. ____	27. ____	33. ____	42. ____	48. ____	SUM Part D ____
5. ____	14. ____	28. ____	34. ____	43. ____	49. ____	SUM Part E ____
6. ____	15. ____	29. ____	35. ____	44. ____	50. ____	SUM Part F ____
7. ____	16. ____		36. ____			
8. ____	17. ____		37. ____			
9. ____	18. ____		38. ____			
	19. ____					
	20. ____					
	21. ____					
	22. ____					
	23. ____					
<hr/>						
SUM ____	SUM ____	SUM ____	SUM ____	SUM ____	SUM ____	SUM ____
/ 9 = ____	/ 14 = ____	/ 6 = ____	/ 9 = ____	/ 6 = ____	/ 6 = ____	/ 50 = ____ (OVERALL AVERAGE)

APPENDIX D
MOTIVATION BATTERY

MOTIVATION BATTERY

This questionnaire is designed to study reasons ESL students come to the United States to study. Please answer all the questions to the best of your knowledge. Your answers will be kept in confidence. Thank you for your effort, time, and cooperation.

Listed below are some of the reasons people have for coming to the United States to study. Please indicate by placing an X in the appropriate column, how important each reason is for you personally.

	Most Important	Very Important	Quite Important	A little Important	Not at all Important
1. Seeing the United States					
2. Getting to know Americans					
3. Getting a degree					
4. Getting training in my field					
5. Finding out how people live in the United States					
6. Learning about the United States Government					
7. Having a chance to be away from home					
8. Having a chance to live in another country					
9. Finding out how people in my profession work here					
10. Finding out what student life is like here					
11. Finding out more about what I am like					
12. Having different experiences					
13. Learning English					
14. Meeting many different kinds of people					
15. Trying to raise living standard of family					

Listed below are some of the reasons people have for learning English as a second language. Please indicate by placing an X in the appropriate column, how important each reason is for you personally.

	Most Important	Very Important	Quite Important	A little Important	Not at all Important
1. Was required to study English in high school					
2. To pass school entrance exams					
3. In order to be an educated person					
4. Had long planned to come to the United States					
5. Had American friends before coming here					
6. In order to go into international business					
7. In order to get a higher paying job					
8. Interested in English language, literature, culture					
9. To gain the approval of family and friends at home					

APPENDIX E
BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Gender _____
2. Age _____
3. Country of origin _____
4. Native language _____
5. How many years have you spend studying English? _____ years.
6. Did you go to college before coming to the US? _____
7. If you did, did you use English texts in college? (Please check one):
Very few _____
Half English-half native language _____
Mostly English _____
8. How well does your father speak English? (Please check one):
Not at all _____
A little _____
Fairly fluently _____
Very fluently _____
9. How well does your mother speak English? (Please check one):
Not at all _____
A little _____
Fairly fluently _____
Very fluently _____
10. How long have you been in the United States? _____ years.

APPENDIX F
IRB REVIEW FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
 INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
 HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 12-23-97

IRB #AS-98-034

Proposal Title: THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES ON ORAL PROFICIENCY OF ESL LEARNERS

Principal Investigator(s): Gene B. Halleck, Kimberly McCrackin

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE APPROVAL PERIOD.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

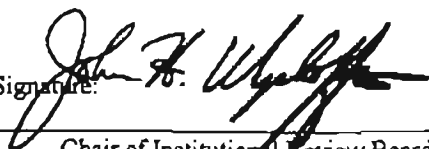
Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

This IRB application does not appear to have any special concerns relative to the subject population involved. This study is part of a master's thesis which proposes to examine the effects of motivation and language learning strategies on the oral proficiency of ESL learners. The subjects are undergraduate (and graduate?) students enrolled in an International Composition course at OSU.

If carried out as planned, the subjects' identities and personal information are kept confidential and the procedures to maintain confidentiality seem adequate.

It is suggested that the Principal Investigator(s) submit a detailed methodology chapter (which should be a part of the candidate's thesis proposal) outlining expected information pertaining to subjects, instructional setting, procedures and other relevant details. The methodology chapter should provide information that is consistent with the IRB application. The one-page summary, which accompanies the IRB application, does not seem to have all the pertinent details normally found in a methodology chapter.

Signature:



Chair of Institutional Review Board
 Cc: Kimberly McCrackin

Date: December 23, 1997