PATTERNS OF LEARNING STRATEGIES OF EFL STUDENTS: THE CASE OF BRAZIL

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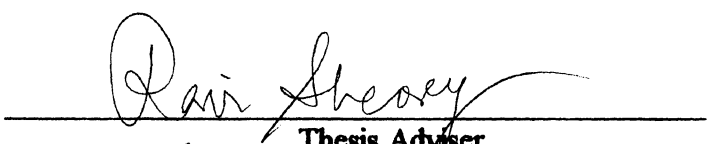

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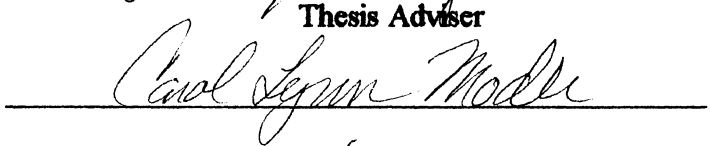

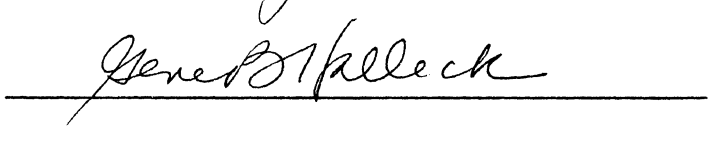

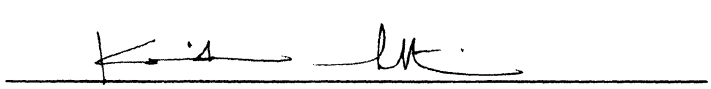

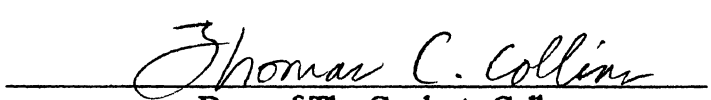

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"I pay attention when I hear somebody speaking English."

"I ask the teacher for help whenever I have a comprehension breakdown."

"I look for opportunities to read and speak English as much as possible."

"I try to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words."

"I watch movies in English to enhance my comprehension."

These are some of the many steps students may intentionally take to enhance their performance in the target language--*the learning strategies*, or more specifically, second language learning strategies, which is the topic of this thesis. Oxford (1990) defines them as "specific actions taken by the learner to make language learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8).

Research strongly suggests that students who engage in this type of activity are successful language learners (cf. Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo and Kupper, 1985b). They are not only aware of their mental processes, but also in control of their learning, knowing what to do to reach a specific objective. Simply put, they are *strategic* learners. They flexibly use a variety of strategies for understanding, retaining, and retrieving language information and rules as they engage in language learning. They change gears according to the circumstance at hand. They are actively involved in integrating what they already know (background knowledge) with new input, constructing meaning, and transferring this knowledge to new

situations (Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Rumelhart, 1981). They know how to learn (see Holec, 1987).

Research also attests to the association between the use of strategies and attainment in learning. In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), evidence accumulating from recent studies has led to an increasing interest in the topic. For example, Bialystok (1981) correlated functional practice (the use of language in realistic situations) with achievement on all tasks. O'Malley et al. (1985b) reported that students trained in learning strategies outperformed the control group in speaking tasks. Block (1986), examining the comprehension strategies of native and non-native speakers, found that there is a connection between strategy use and comprehension effectiveness. Likewise, Chamot & Kupper (1989), Abraham and Vann (1987), and others have confirmed that good performance in language learning is synonymous with strategic learning. In the field of cognitive psychology, Dansereau (1988), Weinstein and Mayer (1986), Brown, Campione, and Day (1980) are among those who have examined the influence of strategic learning on attainment. They all concluded that the use of learning strategies not only improves performance on a task, but also helps learners transfer beyond the learning context. In short, the facilitative role of learning strategies in learning has been extensively tested, justifying and encouraging any study that might add to the existing corpus of information.

Given the facilitative role of learning strategies in learning as well as the limitations imposed by foreign language learning contexts (settings in which the target language is not the dominant medium of expression, such as learning English in Brazil where people use Portuguese as the primary language of communication), it is surprising that learning strategies have not been fully studied in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. Actually, there

are very few studies in this area. The majority of the existing studies on learning strategies in the SLA field deals with second language contexts (settings in which the target language is the dominant medium of expression, such as learning English in the USA by international students) which, as opposed to EFL contexts, provide extensive exposure to the language, igniting strategy use. In addition to that, EFL learners tend to use strategies which are typically nurtured by the native-culture learning environment whereas ESL learners tend to adopt the learning strategies used by the target language culture. Lack of studies in EFL contexts may have withheld information that has proved valuable to language teaching and learning in ESL contexts, as for example, an extended awareness of typically common strategies across specific cultures or which strategies must be explicitly taught as a means of better equipping students with tools in learning how to learn.

The purposes of this study are to investigate the overall patterns of learning strategies of Brazilians learning English as a foreign language, and examine if there are any preferred strategies within the sample. In addition, this study will also investigate the influence of variables such as age, gender, and instructional approach on the choice of language learning strategies. In doing so, it will add to existing research exploring a foreign language context. It will also allow comparisons across countries, replicating studies which have used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), version 7.0. Some of the questions it will try to answer are: Are there any preferred strategies within cultural groups? If so, are they consistent over many studies? What other variables affect the use of strategies in language learning? How can language learning strategies be tailored to the needs of individuals and groups? Answers to some of these questions should be of particular interest to

second and foreign language teachers, and to researchers interested in learning, language acquisition, and cross-cultural studies.

The interest in learning strategies research in the language acquisition field has been accompanied by much inconsistency with regard to definition, classification, application, and study methodology. One controversy relates to the conscious versus unconscious quality of strategy use. Some researchers in SLA consider these two ways of encoding information to be learning strategies (see Oxford, 1990; Carver 1984; Abraham and Vann, 1987; Wenden 1986a; Galloway and Labarca, 1990). Others (see O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Cohen, 1990; Ellis, 1989) pair up with cognitive psychologists (e.g., Paris, Wasik, and Turner, 1991) who argue for the intentionality or deliberateness of strategy use. They claim that it is the intentional or conscious use of strategies that allows strategies to be reported in verbal data collection. Therefore, this group sees strategies as learned (conscious) behaviors subject to further automatization after extensive practice. When that occurs, according to these researchers, strategies become skills.

The conscious versus unconscious controversy takes on big proportions because of the theories of language acquisition upon which research on learning strategies in the field rests. Krashen's (1981) dichotomous learning-acquisition theory proposes that the learning (conscious, tutored language learning) and acquisition (natural, unconscious language learning) processes are distinct and independent of each other. According to him, monitoring has a minor role in the language acquisition process, a concept that discards the use of learning strategies. Furthermore, Chomsky's (1980) innateness theory considers the existence of a language acquisition device (LAD) that predisposes people to acquire

language. An information-processing approach to language learning that includes the use of learning strategies also contrasts with Chomsky's views.

On the other hand, Bialystok's (1978) information-processing model, among others, recognizes the role of conscious process in language learning, and, consequently, the importance of learning strategies in the development of language proficiency. Theories of SLA that adopt this approach see conscious and unconscious processes as a two-way street. One reinforces the other, continuously, allowing for the subsequent development, testing, refinement, and use of language forms and rules.

Reinforcing this understanding, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) show that language is learned much like any other complex cognitive skill, be it problem solving, reading, or writing. It involves a series of multiple, simultaneous mental operations (from encoding to integration) much like these other forms of learning. It requires the transfer of selected information from short term memory (working memory) to long term memory (permanent memory) through the use of conscious behaviors, and there, after a series of associations, it becomes automatized.

Furthermore, according to Chamot and O'Malley (1990) and many second language speakers, myself included, most second language learning begins as declarative knowledge (conscious knowledge about the facts of the language; for example, in English, sentences must begin with a subject). Not to mention the instances in which the target language is learned as a foreign language where daily exposure to the language and learning resources are severely restricted. It takes time and practice for declarative knowledge to become procedural knowledge (that which is automatic and dynamic). The evidence for Chamot and O'Malley's views is provided by millions of speakers of second or third languages who start

their learning with conscious manipulation of the language and who subsequently become fluent in the target language.

Oxford (1990) thinks that it is extremely desirable that these conscious behaviors become fully automatized (unconscious) in the case of learners who are aware of them. In the case of learners who employ them instinctively, it is advisable to bring them to consciousness in order to check for appropriateness. For example, a learner who naturally acquires language might lack cognitive strategies that will allow him to be discourse competent. Likewise, a learner who learns the language in a classroom might lack the social and compensatory strategies that will allow him to be sociolinguistically and strategically competent. Therefore, conscious and unconscious strategies are equally important and essential to the attainment of communicative competence and learner self-direction, the two major goals of language teaching today.

Communicative competence, according to Canale and Swain (1980), entails the knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology of a language--*grammatical competence*; the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse, forming a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances--*discourse competence;* an understanding of the social context in which language is used (language's sociocultural rules underlie the appropriateness of a particular utterance, oral or written)--*sociolinguistic competence;* and the paralinguistic features (verbal or non-verbal) that compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or competence gaps.

The use of learning strategies clearly facilitates the development of these four elements of communicative competence (see Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall 1989), further

building on the rationale for strategy use and investigation. *Memory strategies* (i.e., grouping, elaborating, classifying, semantic mapping, structured review), and *cognitive strategies* (repeating, recombining, reasoning deductively, analyzing contrastively) enhance grammatical competence and are crucial to the acquisition of language skills (Thompson, 1987): New information will be lost if not attended to immediately through the use of memory strategies. *Social strategies* (asking for clarification or correction, cooperating with peers, developing cultural understanding) lead to sociolinguistic competence. The combination of cognitive, social, compensatory (using clues, gesture, and circumlocution), and metacognitive strategies (planning and evaluating one's learning) result in discourse competence, and strategic competence. In sum, learning strategies pave the path to communicative competence.

Learner self-direction, according to Dickinson (1987), entails acceptance or responsibility for all decisions concerned with one's learning, as well as a critical reflection on how one approaches learning and on what has been accomplished. A self-directed learner sets his objectives, defines the steps to be taken, decides how he will take these steps (chooses the techniques), and monitors and evaluates his progress (Holec, 1987). In monitoring and evaluating, the self-directed learner develops an awareness of what he knows; finds out what he still does not know; establishes what corrective steps he must take; and what kind of feedback to look for. His willingness to review and adapt to changes is essential to the learning task. He understands that there is no static knowledge, but knowing--a lifelong process of discovering and revising previous beliefs. To him, learning a foreign language is a matter of developing metacognitive awareness about it (Dickinson), and success, paraphrasing Andrew Cohen (1990), is no longer an accident, but the product of careful planning and

execution of a series of strategies that work for him. In a nutshell, the use of learning strategies puts students in control of their learning, encouraging them to be active learners, and engage in learning everywhere, not only in a classroom.

Such a constructive approach to learning relies heavily on the way people organize information in their schemata (the interaction between background knowledge and incoming information). Background knowledge incorporates numerous factors: previous schooling, instructional approach, level of proficiency, purpose for learning the language, life experiences in general. Research on learning strategies has also been concerned in tracing these factors back in an effort to clarify which underlying structures tend to promote choice of strategy and, ultimately, successful language learning. One of these factors is culture, which takes us back to the significance of exploring patterns of learning strategies in foreign language contexts where the culture variable is controlled.

Within this framework, culture is understood as the learning orientations and strategies that a learner brings to bear on a learning activity--" the base-learning culture" paraphrasing Little (1990). Or, it may be considered as learning that arises from the educational practice and from life in society in general, influencing the way people think, feel, act, and react.

This study opens with a review of the literature (Chapter II) that provides a theoretical foundation on learning strategies and then reviews the culture-learning strategy association. In building a theoretical foundation on learning strategies research, it first clarifies the role of learning strategies in SLA theories. Secondly, it looks at studies on learning strategies in the field, grouping them into the following categories: descriptive, related factors, effectiveness, and intervention studies. Finally, elaborating on this body of knowledge, this

study addresses whether a single cultural environment is associated with any particular pattern of learning strategies. Some studies have revealed common cognitive and affective behaviors within cultural groups, validating the tendency to conformity. Others have not. At the same time, most of the studies have emphasized the significant individual differences within cultural groups as well. It is important to indicate that there is no intention to create stereotypes. The individual is always to be respected as a unique contributor to the diversity and richness of this multi-cultural world. Yet there is a tendency to conformity, and it is this tendency that this study intends to explore.

The third chapter describes the methodology of a study conducted in Brazil to examine the learning behaviors of Brazilians learning English as a foreign language. Oxford's 1990 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) served as the instrument to elicit data from students enrolled in three language institutes in Southeast Brazil. Findings of this survey are presented in chapter four, followed by a discussion of results. Chapter V closes the body of this study with a thorough discussion of the practical implications of this research for EFL teachers and learners, and with further recommendations for research. It indicates, among other things, the need for further empirical research in EFL environments to allow for comparisons across countries.

As Andrew Cohen (1987) puts it, "as we find out more about the processes that learners use to learn a second or foreign language, we will be better equipped to test hypotheses about strategies that we would predict are likely to produce the greater success for given types of learners" (p.38).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter two provides a theoretical foundation on learning strategies research in second language acquisition (SLA) and reviews studies that deal with the culture variable. In building a theoretical foundation, it first clarifies the role of learning strategies in second language acquisition theories. Second, it examines learning strategies studies in the second language acquisition field, classifying them into descriptive, related factors, effectiveness, and intervention studies. In reviewing studies which deal with the culture variable, it classifies them into those which indicate a positive tendency towards conformity among members of the same cultural group and those which do not.

The Role of Learning Strategies in SLA

Though there is a considerable body of literature on learning strategies in the field, very few studies have tried to link findings in learning strategies research to existing theories of SLA. Among the few who have tried to bridge this gap are O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985b), Chamot , O'Malley, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1987), and Chamot and O'Malley (1990) who briefly and efficiently discuss these theories to identify cognitive processes related to learning strategies and how they are used by second language learners. Basically, they divide language acquisition theories into those that do not acknowledge learning strategies, those that are vague about the role of learning strategies in the acquisition of a second language, and those that do indeed acknowledge them.

In the group that does not acknowledge the importance of learning strategies is Krashen's Monitor Model (1981). This dual competence model controversially advocates that conscious knowledge of the rules of language (language that is taught) does not become acquired knowledge (language that is spontaneously/unconsciously caught), a hypothesis that rules out any form-oriented teaching to further language acquisition or individual differences in the acquisition process. Furthermore, the hypothesized monitor device to edit language output only operates if there is sufficient time and knowledge of the rules. Therefore, in Krashen's model, formal knowledge eventually intrudes as an editor, but it does not lead to acquisition. Krashen (1987) recognizes that an awareness of basic facts of the target language may sometimes pave the path to language acquisition, but that does not establish the necessity of prior formal instruction for acquisition.

Bialystok's model (1978), on the other hand, fully incorporates the concept of learning strategies, addressing both discrepancies in individual achievement and achievement in different aspects of second language within an information-processing paradigm. Her model includes three types of knowledge which might be systematically necessary according to different tasks: knowledge of the world, explicit linguistic knowledge (that which the learner can articulate), and implicit (intuitive) linguistic knowledge. Besides, it explicitly includes four learning strategies--inferencing, monitoring, formal practicing, and functional practicing--that vary with the type of knowledge required by the task. For example, functional practice (role playing a job interview) requires both explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge; monitoring (editing one's speech) requires explicit linguistic knowledge (knowledge of the rules of language); and inferencing (such as inducting a grammar rule) requires both implicit linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world. The model, therefore, establishes a continuum

between the processes that are operationalized by the use of strategies, reflecting recent developments in learning theory. Bialystok (1981) concludes:

> The problem is simply that it is not possible to listen to meaningful language only for the sake of its form, nor is it strictly possible to study form in the absence of any meaning. Language, by definition, must encompass both, and the language learner must learn to deal with both the formal and communicative aspects (p.374).

Likewise, Wong-Fillmore and Swain (1984) include a cognitive component in their model of language learning, adding to it affective and social components. In their view, learning strategies are the principal factors in the learning of a second language, and they include knowledge and mental skills, as well as strategic processes in their model-- namely, associative skills, induction, categorization, memory, social knowledge, inferential skills, analytical skills, generalization, inference, and the like. They have not established the relation among the components though. A third instance of a second language acquisition theory that incorporates the concept of learning strategies is McLaughlin, Rossman, and Leod's model (1983). They propose an information-processing approach to SLA similar to Bialystok's. Language automaticity (or permanent processes) is the result of either a top-down approach (knowledge-driven learning) that uses all the knowledge brought into the learning experience, or a bottom-up approach (data-driven learning) that uses external input. In either case, the learner is actively organizing incoming information according to the requirements of the task and his own limitations and capabilities. McLaughlin et al. oppose automatic processing to controlled processing (that which is capacity-limited and temporary), avoiding the differentiation between conscious and unconscious processes proposed by Krashen and establishing a possible gradation between the two.

More recently, Bachman (1987) proposed a comprehensive framework of language competence which not only recognizes the importance of learning strategies, but also resolves the vagueness of earlier models: It establishes the relation of strategies with the other components of the model; it incorporates strategies traditionally viewed as communication strategies into the learning strategy concept; and it adopts an information processing approach to language learning. His framework includes three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence comprises organizational competence (what Canale and Swain called grammatical competence and discourse competence) and pragmatic competence (sociolinguistic competence and illocutionary--functional--competence). Psychophysiological mechanisms have to do with the neurological and physiological processes involved in language use--visual versus auditory channel; productive versus receptive mode; and neuromuscular skills. He views strategic competence as the capacity to relate language competence (or knowledge) to self-knowledge structures (schemata), as well as to the features of the context in which communication takes place, involving planning, assessing, and execution. The paralinguistic features of language (traditionally seen as communicative strategies) also have a learning goal.

In between these two extremes are those theories that adopt a vague approach to the concept of learning strategies. Cummins's (1979) model of language proficiency is one case. His model distinguishes between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP)--that which is context reduced and focuses on form--and basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS)--that which is context-embedded and focuses on the communicative capacity to function in everyday life. Learning strategies are naturally located on the cognitive side of his model, but Cummins never identifies them directly. Likewise, Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative

model also fails to specify the role of learning strategies. They include grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic knowledge as parts of the communicative competence construct (see Chapter I), but only identify communicative strategies (body expression, paraphrase, and so on) in the strategic component, overlooking strategies such as note-taking, rehearsal, planning, evaluating, to mention just a few. Similarly, Spolsky (1985) presents a model in which cognitive processes play an important role, but he does not identify learning strategies as such. According to him, second language learning entails three types of conditions: necessary conditions (those without which learning cannot take place, such as target language input, motivation, and practice opportunities); gradient conditions (the greater the frequency of occurrence, the more learning is likely to take place--for example, the degree to which a learner seeks opportunities to speak the target language or to adjust strategy use to different tasks); and typical conditions (those which do not necessarily always assist learning, but that tend to be associated with good language learners such as risk-taking ability, outgoing personality, and so on). The two latter conditions vary according to the learner's preferences (which can be cognitive or affective). In this model, learning strategies are part of the preferences and capabilities learners bring into the learning experience, though that is not explicitly stated.

Theories of language acquisition which include a cognitive component, and which see learner and context as active components are the most appropriate for an understanding of learning strategies as promoters of language competence. This understanding is of the utmost importance, especially in foreign language learning, a context in which learners begin to learn the target language through controlled knowledge with very limited exposure to the language. In such contexts, functional practice is very restricted in the beginning stages. These theories

also recognize the right to different preferences among language learners. Within an information processing framework, rule-oriented language learners are no more condemned to failure, but they can flexibly use their preferred strategies (which may derive from educational and societal practices) as tools to advance to more automatic processing stages, freeing memory capacity to focus attention on new tasks.

Learning Strategies Studies in the Field of Second Language Acquisition

Descriptive studies

Studies in this section deal with the identification and classification of learning strategies. They are roughly organized in chronological order and by elicitation technique. Such grouping allows the tracing of the developmental stages of research in learning strategies during the last twenty years.

The history of learning strategies in second language learning started with Rubin's (1975) publication of a list of seven strategies used by successful language learners: guessing, communicative strategies (circumlocution, paraphrase, gestures, and the like), outgoingness, functional practice, attention to meaning, focus on form and communication, and monitoring (of learner's own speech and that of others). Rubin's observations and intuitions, though not empirically tested at the time, have been widely reaffirmed in several subsequent empirical studies. Her list shaped much of the common-sense understanding of how a language is learned as well as gave much food for thought for further investigations on the topic.

Stern (1975) almost simultaneously identified a similar list of strategies used by the successful language learner. He added tolerance of ambiguity, empathy with native speakers, knowledge of how to tackle a language, and development of the target language as a medium of thought to Rubin's (1975) list. Stern's list was developed from his own experience as a

language teacher and learner, as well as from making comparisons with the list proposed by Rubin.

Wong-Fillmore (1976), on her part, investigated five ESL Mexican children in California (ranging in age from 5.7 to 7.3 years) during nine months. Though her study was not based on structured research procedures, it also provided valuable insights into how people learn second languages. Wong-Fillmore concentrated on the cognitive and social strategies employed by the children while interacting with their American peers to explain the variation of proficiency that occurred in that period of time. Her study suggests that second language learners pretend understanding more than they actually do by using formulaic language together with some comprehensible forms; using input to make relevant guesses; looking for patterns to generate rules; relying on their peers for linguistic clues; and finally, focusing on meaning first, worrying about form latter. In doing so, they speed up the learning process and the achievement of language proficiency.

In later research, Rubin (1981) used formal observation, focusing on particular types of cognitive processes, to propose a classification system. She opted for a *strip-story* activity in which the students engage in lively oral communication while researchers write and videotape observations. Basically, this activity consists of giving students a sentence from a story and requiring them to unfold the whole story, cooperatively. The classification that emerged out of this study distinguishes between strategies which contribute directly to language learning (e.g. guessing, deductive reasoning, clarification/verification) from those which help indirectly (e.g. monitoring, memorization, and practice). All of them have cognitive orientation and require awareness of the learning process (metacognition). The first group has to do with in-class immediate behaviors, the latter with out-of class activities.

Empirical studies based on more systematic instruments such as "*think-aloud*" procedures (the subject just lets the thoughts flow verbally without any control or value judgment while performing second language tasks), and self-observation (interviews, questionnaires) began to appear in 1976, when Hosenfeld developed an interview procedure to identify strategies used by second language learners, and use the information as a tool to help learners overcome difficulties in learning a second language. She noted two types of self-reports: introspective (that which is obtained immediately after the experience) and retrospective (a delayed recall of the experience). These types of data elicitation allow for the investigation of strategies which are not easily observable; for example, planning, self-encouragement, and association between new information and information already internalized.

In line with the new trend, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) conducted one of the first large scale studies on learning strategies. They interviewed and observed 34 successful adult language learners to elicit second language success factors. The interviews elicited biographical data and self-report of strategies used in learning situations. Results parallel those of Rubin (1981). Five strategies were identified as well as minor strategies associated with them. These included actively involving oneself in the language-learning process; developing an awareness of the language as a system; developing and exploiting an awareness of language as a means of communication; effectively coping with affective demands imposed by language learning; and constantly revising one's understanding of the target language system. Furthermore, the researchers also identified more specific cognitive strategies such as silently modeling the teacher/native speaker, memorizing vocabulary through charts, listening to the radio, TV, records, etc., reading extensively, and following

grammatical rules listed in textbooks. The most relevant conclusion of the study was that anyone can learn a second language if certain steps are taken.

Wenden (1981) tackled another aspect of learning strategies: self-direction. She interviewed 25 adult learners who had lived in the United States for no more than two years in order to assess how they directed their learning in a variety of social settings. The students had to fill in a grid of daily activities during a typical week, including social settings and the type of language used in each one of them before the interview. During the interview, they had to reflect upon the language experiences in the grid, and report (through retrospection) on the kind of strategies they had used then. The students' statements were clustered into seven main categories which Wenden (1985) later subsumed into *cognitive* (learner's assessment about language based on notions acquired in the classroom, and on one's reading, speaking, writing, and comprehension); *communication* (using words used by the interlocutor or paraphrases); *global practice* (finding opportunities to practice), and *metacognitive* strategies (planning, evaluating, self-analyzing, and theorizing). Her most relevant finding was that as students learn a second language, they are involved both in directing the learning process and in acquiring the skills and linguistic knowledge necessary to be competent in the target language.

Wenden (1986a; 1986b) further built upon the previous study to explore the role of metacognition in second language learning, finding that the beliefs concerning language learning learners bring into the learning experience determine what they do to learn, or their use of learning strategies. For example, students who believe language should be learned the natural way are likely to emphasize communication and functional practice.

O'Malley et al., for their part, conducted a series of studies to identify learning strategies used in typical classroom activities (pronunciation, oral drills, vocabulary learning, following directions, making an oral presentation, and others typical of ESL curricula at secondary level) and in communication outside the classroom (students were asked to describe the strategies used in operational communication or functional settings, as when applying for a job). They combined, therefore, think-aloud interviews with classroom observation, and came up with one of the most well-known language learning strategies (LLS) classification system (see table 1). Their work draws extensively from research on learning outside the field (Anderson, 1983; Brown and Palincsar, 1982; Dansereau, 1978), and has served as the basis for other studies, among them, those of Oxford et al.

O'Malley et. al (1985a), for example, reported on the first phase of a major longitudinal study involving interviews with 70 beginning and intermediate ESL high school students and their 22 teachers as well as classroom observations. Interviews were conducted in small groups and in their native language to avoid misinterpretation. Results were based on student interviews only because of methodological problems. They identified 26 strategies which were divided into 16 cognitive strategies (those which operate directly on the language), nine metacognitive strategies (those which operate indirectly), and one socioaffective strategy, refining the classification schemes proposed by Rubin (1981), Wenden (1981, 1985), and Naiman et al. (1978). Analyses of the data indicated that metacognitive strategies are combined with cognitive strategies in 7% of all strategy applications; that students use more cognitive strategies (especially repetition, note taking, cooperation, and clarification) than metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluation); and that extensive reflection on the acquisition and function of language was

occurring (26.7 percent of strategy applications were metacognitive). Among the metacognitive strategies used, almost all were related to planning and attention-enhancing (self-correction, evaluation, and reinforcement were seldomly reported). Furthermore, the correlation of strategies with students' proficiency revealed that intermediate level students tended to use more metacognitive strategies than beginners, especially self-monitoring. This finding is consistent with Krashen's (1981) view that monitoring only occurs if there is knowledge of the rules and the learner has time.

Surprisingly, few socioaffective strategies were reported (cooperation and questions for clarification) contrary to research on affective variables on language learning (Gardner, 1985) and to previous findings by Wong-Fillmore (1976), Rubin (1981), and Naiman et al. (1978). The strategy "questions for clarification," grouped with cognitive strategies in this study, was later grouped with socioaffective strategies (O'Malley et al., 1985b). Metacognition played a more significant role.

Finally, the use of strategy was related to discrete language tasks like vocabulary and pronunciation which paradoxically require less active involvement with the material. Perhaps, the environment in which the study was conducted (classrooms) provided fewer opportunities for performing integrative tasks, an explanation which may also partially account for the low frequency of the use of social strategies.

O'Malley et al. (1985b) simplified the classification proposed by O'Malley et al. (1985a) and presented the second part of this longitudinal study summarized later. They bring the number of strategies down to 20 distinct types and divide them into 14 cognitive strategies, 7 metacognitive and 2 socioaffective strategies, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

O'MALLEY ET AL.'s CLASSIFICATION

I. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES		
Planning:	Advance organizers	Previewing/skimming for main ideas
	Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend to a learning task, ignoring irrelevant distracters
	Functional planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming task
	Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of input, scanning for key words/concepts/linguistic markers
	Self-management	Understanding the conditions which are optimal to learning and arranging for the presence of those conditions
Evaluation:	Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's language learning against a standard
Monitoring:	Self-monitoring	Checking one's comprehension during listening or reading or checking the accuracy/appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place
II. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES		
Resourcing:		Using dictionaries, encyclopedias, textbooks
Repetition:		Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal
Grouping:		Classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their attributes or meaning
Deduction:		Applying rules to understand or produce the second language or making up rules based on language analysis
Imagery:		Using visual images (mental or actual) to understand or remember new information
Auditory representation:		Planning back in one's mind the sound of a word, phrase, or longer language sequence
Keyword method:		Remembering a new word in the second language by: (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or resembles the new word, and (2) generating easily recalled images related to the new word
Elaboration:		Relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; or
Elaboration:		making meaningful personal associations with the new information
Transfer:		Using previous linguistic knowledge to assist comprehension and production
Inferencing:		Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information

TABLE 1 (Continued)

II. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Note taking:	Writing down key words/concepts in any abbreviated form while listening or reading
Summarizing:	Making a mental/oral/written summary of new information gained through listening or reading
Recombination:	Constructing meaningful language by recombining known elements in a new way
Translation:	Using the first language as a base for understanding/producing the target language
III. SOCIOAFFECTIVE STRATEGIES	
Question for clarification:	Eliciting explanations/verification/feedback from teachers or peers
Cooperation:	Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, etc.

Adapted from O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985b)

In a similar study, Russo and Stewner-Manzanares (1985) used the same procedures to identify strategies used by ESL students in the US Army (mostly Hispanic students), this time aided by classroom observations. Their basic classification and findings are identical to O'Malley et al. (1985a; 1985b). The second phase of this study is reported later.

A third study was conducted by Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1987). This study, the first large one to focus on learning strategy in foreign language instruction, reported the learning strategies of 67 high school students of Spanish and 34 college students of Russian. The main objective of this study was to check the applicability of O'Malley et al.'s (1985a) classification of strategies for an ESL environment to an EFL environment. Basically, the same patterns emerged in each of the three major categories (metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective), even though adjustments were necessary to

accommodate new strategies (self-talk and delayed production) and the inclusion of reading and writing activities. Strategies which were not reported were eliminated (the keyword technique for example). The only socioaffective strategy reported was self-talk, and among the metacognitive strategies, planning prevailed. Table 2 reflects Chamot et al.'s proposed taxonomy. In regard to data elicitation, procedures were similar to O'Malley et al. (1985a, 1985b), refined by the inclusion of reading and writing tasks to the group interview.

TABLE 2

CHAMOT ET AL.'s STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION IN FLL

I. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Planning	
Organization planning	Planning the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be expressed orally or in writing
Delayed production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking to learn initially through listening comprehension
II. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Rehearsal	Rehearsing the language needed for an oral or written task
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding/producing the foreign language
Note taking	Writing down key words/concepts in any abbreviated form during listening or reading activity
Substitution	Using paraphrases/synonyms to replace an intended missing word or phrase
Contextualization	Assisting comprehension or recall by placing a word or phrase in a meaningful situation
III. SOCIOAFFECTIVE STRATEGIES	
Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task

Adapted from O'Malley & Chamot (1990)

Other findings by Chamot et al. (1987) reveal more advanced students making greater use of strategies than beginners (contrary to O'Malley et al.,1985a). Also, some strategies appear to be related to instruction by a specific teacher--only students of Russian reported using rehearsal and summarizing strategies.

Finally, Chamot et al. (1987) showed that unsuccessful learners could report and use learning strategies, demonstrating articulatedness in discussing strategy use. This last finding offsets criticism on self-reported data based on the potential inability of unsuccessful language learners to report on abilities they lack (see Seliger, 1983; Skehan, 1989). At the same time, it encouragingly points towards the teachabilitiy of strategies.

A comment is in order regarding the relation between instruction and strategy use. As indicated by O'Malley & Chamot (1990), the types of tasks emphasized in a classroom can be expected to influence the use of strategy because strategies vary across tasks. In this sense, a grammar-oriented classroom leads students to prefer strategies such as deduction which will help them to formulate correct utterances and succeed in the course. On the other hand, a communicative-oriented classroom leads students to develop and use an array of socioaffective strategies. In other words, instruction is effective. Teachers should be attentive to the strategies they use in class because students tend to model behaviors used in the instructional approach they are taught with.

Oxford's taxonomy

Building on and synthesizing all prior research, Oxford (1985) developed a comprehensive classification of learning strategies. It includes strategies identified by second language researchers (O'Malley et al., Rubin, Bialystok, Naiman et al., and others) as well as by researchers outside the field, including Dansereau (1978), and Weinstein (1978).

Redundancies and inconsistencies were checked, and the taxonomy was field tested by means of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which when mapped against the taxonomy came up with a content validity agreement coefficient of .95. This high coefficient agreement means that 87.3% of the strategies in the taxonomy are present in the SILL.

The taxonomy covers the four language skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) systematically, and contains two main groups of strategies: *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies*. Direct strategies operate directly on language itself (similar to Rubin's, 1981, direct strategies, or O'Malley et al.'s, 1985a, cognitive strategies). Indirect strategies support learning by creating a good attitude in the learner, establishing objectives, and reducing anxiety (O'Malley's socioaffective and metacognitive strategies). Direct strategies comprise (a) *memory strategies*--those that involve information retrieval, such as grouping, imagery, rhyming, and structured reviewing; (b) *cognitive strategies*--those that are used for understanding and producing the language, as for example, reasoning, analyzing, summarizing, and practice in general; and (c) *compensation strategies*--those that make up for eventual gaps in language competence through the use of guessing, gestures, paraphrasing, deleting, borrowing, and circumlocution. Indirect strategies comprise (a) *metacognitive strategies*--those that involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring comprehension, production and errors, self-evaluation, and consciously searching for practice opportunities; (b) *affective strategies*--those that involve regulation of emotional and motivational factors such as anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, and self-reward; and (c) *social strategies*--those that involve learning as a social act, that is, asking questions, cooperating with native speakers, acculturating, etc. Table 3 presents a more

detailed list of the strategies and their specific behaviors. As shown by Oxford (1986a), these strategies are not meant to be prescriptive, but descriptive. Some will be useful at early stages ("memory building" for example), others at all stages (planning, and goal setting, for example), and they will vary with the nature of the task. She goes on to reinforce Bialystok's (1981) finding that functional practicing is relevant at all stages, across tasks, and for all language learners.

TABLE 3

OXFORD'S STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

DIRECT STRATEGIES (memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies)	
I. MEMORY STRATEGIES	
Creating mental linkages	Grouping / associating/ elaborating/ placing new words into a context
Applying images and sounds	Using imagery/semantic mapping/keywords/ representing sounds in memory
Reviewing well	Structured reviewing
Employing action	Using physical response/mechanical tricks/sensations
II. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Practicing	Repeating/ formally practicing with sounds and alphabets/ recognizing and using formulas and patterns/ recombining/ practicing realistically
Receiving and sending messages	Getting the idea quickly/ using resources (dictionaries, etc.) for receiving and sending messages
Analyzing & reasoning	Reasoning deductively/ analyzing expressions/ analyzing contrastively (across languages)/ translating/ transferring
Creating structure for input & output	Taking notes / summarizing/ highlighting
III. COMPENSATION STRATEGIES	
Guessing intelligently	Using linguistic or other clues
Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	Switching to the mother tongue/ getting help/ using mime or gesture/ avoiding communication partially or totally/ selecting the topic / adjusting or approximating the message/ coining words/ using circumlocution or synonym

TABLE 3 (Continued)

INDIRECT STRATEGIES (metacognitive, affective, and social strategies)

I. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Centering your learning	Overviewing with already known material/ paying attention/ delaying speech production to focus on listening
Arranging & planning your learning	Finding out about language learning / Organizing / setting goals and objectives / identifying the purpose of a language task/ seeking practice opportunities
Evaluating your learning	Self-monitoring / self-evaluating
II. AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES	
Lowering your anxiety	Using progressing relaxation/ using music, deep breathing, meditation or laughter
Encouraging yourself	Making positive statements / taking risks wisely rewarding yourself
Taking your emotional temperature	Listening to your body / using a checklist/ writing a language learning diary/ discussing your feelings with someone else
III. SOCIAL STRATEGIES	
Asking questions	Asking for clarification/ verification/ correction
Cooperating with others	Working together with peers/ proficient users of the new language
Empathizing with others	Developing culture understanding Becoming aware of others thoughts and feelings

Adapted from Oxford (1990)

Oxford's typology addresses the learner as a "whole" (see Oxford, 1992), giving affective and social variables a prominent status and subsuming communication (compensation) strategies into learning strategies. After all, language is a social act, and communication strategies do help learners learn by engaging them in functional practice, allowing them to receive greater meaningful input and, ultimately, taking them to the threshold level (autonomous learning). Oxford tried to list every strategy identified to date, putting aside the prioritization of strategies as relative to successful learning, and causing the overlapping of some categories. Nevertheless, the last ten years of research on learning

strategies have shown that all strategies are good (see effectiveness studies later in this chapter). What differentiates them is flexibility: the appropriateness with which they interact with the learning context. Furthermore, her classification has served as the basis for the development of the SILL and its subsequent application in several different studies by Oxford and colleagues, as well as by teachers and other researchers all over the world.

Summary. Although the studies reviewed above diverge in terms of population, data elicitation technique, underlying language acquisition theories, and strategies categorization itself, a theory of learning strategies in SLA is clearly emerging. First of all, there is agreement that all learners use strategies at all levels. Some are more aware of their learning processes than others, but even unsuccessful learners reported using strategies. Second, researchers by and large have recognized social, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies as contributors to the process of language learning, the first being ranked higher in importance in earlier studies (Wong-Fillmore, 1976; Naiman, 1978; Rubin, 1981), and falling to third place, in later studies (O'Malley et al., 1985a). Metacognitive strategies, though sometimes disguised under different names, are present in all reviewed descriptive studies. Third, research procedures such as classroom observations are not sufficient to identify second language learning strategies; interviews, notetaking, and diaries proved to be more efficient, and a combination of these procedures even better. Finally, there is sound agreement that an active approach to learning facilitates language learning.

Related factors studies

During the 1980's, an increasing number of researchers started to use structured questionnaires or surveys to ask learners what strategies they employed. The SILL is an example. These self-report methods are more reliable, and consequently more valid,

allowing for comparisons across studies. Naturally, these methods do not provide detailed information as qualitative methods ("think-aloud" or interviews) do, but they have been successfully used in several instances, being easy to administer, score and analyze, and allowing the investigation of larger and more representative samples. This type of data elicitation facilitated the appearance of numerous *related factors studies* in which the "fit" of strategy use was associated with types of task, achievement, proficiency level, gender, age, etc., by means of different statistical procedures such as correlation, factor analysis, and multiple regression.

Bialystok (1981) was one of the first to use a questionnaire to assess the effects of the use of inferencing, monitoring, formal practicing, and functional practicing (see her model of language learning earlier in this chapter) on various types of language tasks and achievement (information on achievement was elicited by means of four achievement tests). She surveyed 82 Grade Ten and 75 Grade Twelve students of French as a second language in Toronto (totaling 157 students). Among her findings is the pervasive positive effect of functional practice on achievement across tasks, even on writing or reading. This implies that functional practice requires attention to either meaning or form. Formal practice was effective only to a limited extent, reflecting Krashen's (1981) view. As indicated by Bialystok, these findings have important pedagogical implications: they suggest that information, even formal aspects of language, should be presented in communicative contexts. Findings of the reviewed descriptive studies lend support to this suggestion.

Other evidence also emerged from her study. Similar to O'Malley et al. (1985a), the appropriateness of strategies choice varied according to the task, for example, monitoring was maximally effective for formal tasks as writing. And finally, the use of strategies was

determined by the *attitude* and not the *aptitude* of the learner, a result supported by extensive research on attitudes and motivation variables in second language learning (Oller, 1977; Gardner, 1985), as well as by Naiman et al.'s (1978) research on learning strategies (see Descriptive studies in this chapter). Bialystok concludes: "It is the motivated learner who engages in these strategies" (p.392).

Likewise, Politzer (1983) studied the correlation between level of language course, proficiency, students' grades, instructors' evaluations, effort, and voluntary classroom participation with strategy use, by means of a questionnaire based on findings by Naiman et al. (1978), and Rubin (1981). His sample consisted of ninety-five undergraduate American students enrolled in French, Spanish and German courses (foreign language environment). Among other things, Politzer observed that language learning behaviors vary significantly according to the language being learned and course level, as well as, to a minor extent, according to gender (females showed a greater tendency to engage in out-of class interaction). He also noted that there is a link between learning behaviors and achievement, but that this relation may be influenced by other factors such as intelligence, context, learning goals, professional interests or national origin. In other words, not all strategies are useful for all learners at all times, a fact that contradicts Bialystok's (1981) finding regarding the effect of functional practice. Also, the nature of the achievement measure used to obtain students' grades is unknown, therefore Politzer's results might have been distorted. Finally, this study furnished evidence that the relation between learning behavior and success may depend on teaching methods, injecting some "caution into the quest for the best learning behaviors" (p. 63), and opening the door for variety. The doubt as to whether good language behaviors exist is further discussed under effectiveness studies. Another aspect to consider when

analyzing Politzer's results is the moderately low internal reliability coefficients (Cronbach's α) of the questionnaire scales (0.77 for general behavior, 0.75 for classroom behavior, and 0.72 for interaction behavior).

Contrary to Politzer's (1983) and corroborating with Bialystok's (1981) findings, some studies involving factor analysis (the search for factors that explain the greatest amount of reported variability or difference among individuals) support the existence of a few strategies which are useful for most second language learners across tasks. One of them is functional practice.

Not many surveys have been factor analyzed to date. Oxford conducted the largest and most significant studies of the type, using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in its first version, an instrument which is highly reliable (.96 internal consistency) and valid (.95 agreement between two independent raters). Oxford (1986b), for instance, surveyed 483 non-university adults at the Defense Language Institute (Monterey) who were studying four different languages. The results revealed five main factors that accounted for the variance among respondents. They are (a) general study habits (previewing lessons, using time to the advantage, arranging for an optimal learning environment, skimming reading passages before reading, checking one's performance, etc.)--which explained the greatest amount of variability; (b) functional practice; (c) searching for and communicating meaning (e.g. guessing, inferencing, circumlocution); (d) studying or practicing independently (practicing rules, using the tape recorder); and (e) using mnemonic devices.

The second factor analytic study, by Oxford and Nyikos (1989), investigated the variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by 1,200 university students learning five different languages (French, Spanish, Italian, German, and Russian). The students were

inexperienced language learners, ranging from 17 to 23 years old. This time, the SILL was accompanied by a background questionnaire on motivation, course level, previous language learning experience, age, gender, etc. Two main research questions were addressed: What kind of strategies do university foreign language students report using, and what variables (gender, course status, motivation level, etc.) influence the use of these strategies. Results were similar to the previous study (conducted in a non-university setting), though the order of factors differs: formal rule practice appears in the first place, followed by functional practice (a factor which maintained its rank), independent studying, general studying habits, and searching for meaning from other people. These results partially agree with Politzer's (1983) findings--some strategies are more applicable in one setting than in others. To use Oxford and Nyikos' words, students frequently report using "formal rule-related practice and general study strategies likely to be useful in a traditional, structure-oriented, discrete-point foreign language instructional environment geared to tests and assignments" (p. 293). Nonetheless, a recurrent pattern favoring the use of functional strategies, and socioaffective strategies (though in different degrees) is present, reporting back to the commonalities among descriptive studies. These findings further reinforce the need to explore tendencies within specific environments, as in for example, English foreign language environments.

Concerning the second research question--what variables influence the use of these strategies--motivation had the greatest influence on strategy choice, confirming earlier research by Naiman et al. (1978), and Bialystok (1981). Likewise, self-reported proficiency strongly influenced a greater use of strategies, similarly to Chamot et al.'s (1987) findings--the higher the student's self-reported proficiency, the more frequently he chose to use strategies; elective versus required status for language learning influenced the use of

functional practice and general study strategies; years of study highly affected the two communicatively-oriented factors, and students who had been studying the language for more than four or five years reported using more strategies than less experienced learners (see Bialystok, 1981); gender highly influenced formal rule-related practice, general study, and conversational input elicitation strategies, revealing females as greater strategy users than males; and university major impacted factor three (use of resources), showing humanities/social science/education majors using strategies more frequently (these majors also reported a greater use of functional practice). This study has many implications for foreign language instruction. Motivation, gender, years of study, and other variables proved to be central in the choice of strategies, reinforcing their role in the process of language acquisition, and formal practice emerged as the central factor in coping with the demands of an analytical, grade-oriented environment that restricts the creative potential of students.

Building on the previous study, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) examined individual characteristics and strategy use of 78 adult learners (United States Government employees from the Department of State, the United States Information Agency, and the Department of Defense, and their spouses). The sample included language students, language supervisors, and native-speaking instructors. Their study related learning strategies to gender, career choice, cognitive style, and personality types (personality variables) by means of analysis of variance. The most relevant result of this study is the relation between learning styles and strategy choice. It reveals that general learning style (stable biological or developmental factors that determine how learners process information, and how the learning environment affects him, e.g. field dependent versus field independent, feeling versus perceiving) determine strategy choice. For example, introverts prefer to manipulate concepts, extroverts

tend to make more use of out-of-classroom techniques involving native speakers; sensing students prefer sequentially organized lessons; intuitive learners like to put pieces together, and engage in independently controlled learning; and so on. Their findings strongly suggest that introversion, intuition, and perception are characteristics of professionals in the language field. By extension, the strategies used by these language specialists can be paired with those of good language learners. Other significant influences reflect previous findings by Politzer (1983), and Oxford and Nyikos (1989), adding that career affected choice and range of strategy use (language trainers, mostly intuitive persons, reported on a wider range of strategies than any other group, probably by virtue of their education; and language teachers preferred authentic language use as opposed to language learners). This is the greatest evidence for the influence of career choice on learning strategies in language learning.

In a recent study, Green and Oxford (1993) reconfirmed the influence of gender and proficiency in strategy choice when surveying 374 EFL/ESL learners at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez. This time SILL version 7.0 was used. This version consists of 50 items as opposed to 80 in the previous one, and was specially designed for speakers of languages other than English. Results show significant variation across course levels in overall strategy use, similar to previous studies. Proficiency is at least one of the factors underlying variation in student responses. Higher-level students reported greater use of strategies, and predominantly reported using functional/natural practice across tasks. In addition, prebasic learners made more use of relaxation techniques than intermediates. Regarding gender, females used significantly more affective strategies than males as a group.

Adding to these research findings, Ely (1989) used multiple regression--regression of the strategies on a specific factor, in this case tolerance of ambiguity--to investigate if

tolerance of ambiguity was influencing students' use of various learning strategies. The sample consisted of 84 university students of Spanish (EFL), and the questionnaire he developed had satisfactory psychometric quality (.82 reliability coefficient). Ely found that tolerance of ambiguity negatively predicted strategies involving reliance on the native language ("looking for similarities between new words and words in the native language"), as well as strategies focusing on individual language elements ("planning out what to say ahead of time," "monitoring while writing," "checking words meaning while reading," and "asking for help"). Surprisingly, no predictive relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and "guessing" was found. On the other hand, a positive relationship was found between tolerance of ambiguity and strategies involving looking for overall meaning in reading and using creative techniques such as mnemonic devices to learn new vocabulary. Strength of motivation, attitude, and concern for grade were also found to influence use of strategies (reconfirming Ehrman and Oxford, 1989, and Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). The greater the strength the more balanced the use of strategies.

Summary. Analysis of relationships between variables confirm that more proficient learners appear to use a wider range of strategies in a variety of situations even though the relationship between the two variables is highly complex (whether proficiency leads to a greater use of strategies, or strategies lead to greater proficiency is yet to be clarified). It also confirms that strategy use varies across course levels and according to the nature and difficulty of the task; that motivation (both type and degree) influence learning strategy use; that different types of strategies often work together for better results; that factors such as language being learned, years of language study, metacognitive awareness, age, gender, affective variables, attitudes, learning goals, career orientation, personality types, individual

characteristics, learning style, and instructional approach all play a role in the choice of specific learning behaviors.

Effectiveness studies

The importance of learning strategies is intimately related to their strong positive correlation with performance. Many studies have confirmed this relationship, as seen earlier in this review (e.g. Oxford et al.; Chamot et al., 1988; Bialystok, 1981). Others (Politzer, 1983) established the statistical link, but advised caution in the interpretation of results because of the interaction of other factors with the learning situation (see factor analytical studies), and because of the highly complex relationship between achievement and strategy use. Nevertheless, very few researchers have addressed the issue of this doubtful relationship. Most studies simply assume that unsuccessful learners do not do what good learners do, forgetting that the ultimate objective of research on learning strategies is to provide language teachers with insights into how to help their unsuccessful learners in their quest for language learning.

In trying to bridge this gap, Vann and Abraham (1987) and Abraham and Vann (1987) devised a two-phase study that probed the strategies used by fifteen learners in an intensive academic ESL course by means of four different instruments--an interview, a verb exercise, a cloze passage, and a composition. The strategies used by this group of learners were contrasted to information on learners' backgrounds and success in language learning. "Success" in language learning meant passing the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and being able to function adequately in a university environment. All tasks required an active approach to learning, having declarative, procedural, and background knowledge, as well as using varying levels of cognitive control. Their findings provide

counter evidence to the belief that unsuccessful learners are inactive. Actually, both types of learners emerged as very active ones, though unsuccessful learners sometimes applied strategies which were inappropriate to the task at hand. Some unsuccessful learners proved to use as many strategies, and many of the same strategies as successful learners, in the same contexts. This finding goes against Wenden's (1985) conclusions, at least under the established experimental conditions, that the unsuccessful learner is one without direction. At the same time, it sheds some light on Politzer's doubts relative to the causal relationship between strategies use and performance, the key lying heavily on appropriateness of choice, not on frequency of use.

In the first phase of this study, Abraham and Vann (1987) contrasted successful and unsuccessful learners strategy use. Two learners, the most and the least successful, were chosen for detailed observation. The difference between the two lay in their efforts to achieve grammatical correctness and in their ability to use strategies flexibly. Background factors and personality traits also explained differences between the two, namely, previous education, maturity, and cognitive styles. The successful student was older, reflective, and very persistent. He was more concerned with form than the unsuccessful learner and appeared to use a variety of strategies when learning English, matching his choice of strategy to the demands of the task. On the other hand, the unsuccessful learner was younger, always in a hurry and did not pay attention to detail. He was concerned with communicating in the language and appeared incapable of switching to strategies appropriate for writing, which was partially responsible for his failure in an academic program.

The second phase of this study (Vann and Abraham, 1987) focused exclusively on two unsuccessful Saudi Arabian female learners. These two subjects also used strategies

remarkably similar to those of successful learners, but they lacked certain metacognitive strategies which would had allowed them to discern between appropriate and inappropriate strategies for specific tasks, confirming findings of the first phase (see also Wenden, 1987). For example, one of the subjects seemed not to differentiate between simple and higher-level tasks. She would invariably use cognitive and monitoring strategies which apply to simple tasks such as application of grammar rules and error correction. The other subject, in contrast, seemed to pursue meaning, focusing on strategies such as "getting the overall impression" and "conveying the message," and applying no systematic set of strategies for attending to form. Vann and Abraham go even further in analyzing the differences of strategy use between the two subjects: According to the background information elicited, formal schooling and instructional approach that either explicitly or implicitly encouraged knowledge telling or knowledge processing are potential determinants of different strategy use between the two learners.

Chamot et al. (1988) in the second part of their longitudinal study in FL instruction identified differences between effective and ineffective language learners, and analyzed changes in strategy use over time. They followed students over four semesters of language study, meeting with them once a semester to conduct a "think aloud" interview in different tasks. Students were classified as effective or ineffective by their teachers. The type of criteria used to designate students' performances as such were not reported. The data showed that effective language learners were those who could choose appropriate strategies to reach their learning goals while ineffective language learners were those less skilled in matching strategy choice to the task at hand. General results differed slightly from those of Abraham and Vann (1987) in the sense that effective students used a wider range and a

greater number of strategies. Nevertheless, the relevance of matching strategy choice with the task at hand was maintained. Effective learners, for example, relied most heavily on metacognitive strategies (i.e., planning, monitoring, etc.) during the writing activity, but shifted to predominantly cognitive strategies (i.e., elaboration, deduction, and translation) for both listening and reading cloze activities. Some strategies were efficiently applied to a variety of language tasks though. For instance, self-monitoring and elaboration were relevant to vocabulary learning, listening comprehension, cloze exercises, and writing.

Chamot et al. (1988) also showed that choice of language learning strategies by effective and ineffective learners varies according to the difficulty of the task (if the task is too difficult perhaps strategy use is impossible), student's motivation (if there is a motivational problem, the learner hardly tries to draw on tools to learn), the nature of the task, and instructional approach. Apparently, listening tasks required learners to preview, use the introduction to generate ideas and make inferences, use selective attention, self-monitoring, note-taking, elaboration and summarizing strategies. Writing tasks required a much more integrative approach which drew not only on grammatical knowledge, but also on an awareness of discourse rules and style. Therefore, the strategies the students used to perform these task varied from planning and self-monitoring on the one hand to resourcing, translating, using the dictionary, substituting, and summarizing on the other. Reading tasks required the same integrative approach to strategy use, and vocabulary tasks were facilitated by the use of several mnemonic devices, resourcing and elaboration strategies. Chamot et al. (1988) also showed that each of these strategies are broken down into various subcategories by the effective learner, when adjusting strategy use to the task at hand. For example, monitoring does not exclusively refer to ensuring that spelling and verb agreement are

correct; it also refers to style and comprehensibility, reading ease and visual appearance of the text. In short, their study suggests that no one profile of an effective or ineffective learner exists, but that strategy use is influenced by personal style and other factors, and that strategy training should concentrate on teaching students how to manage their learning so as to choose appropriately from an array of possible tools to complete a task at hand and move forward.

Chamot and Kupper (1989) further developed case studies of eight exceptionally effective students, finding that they read in Spanish very much as they read in English, except for vocabulary constraints. The remedial strategies they used the most while reading were inferencing, elaboration (particularly between parts of the passage and world knowledge), and deduction. During listening comprehension tasks, they previewed questions and focused attention; and when writing in Spanish, they applied their knowledge of the writing process in their native language. The principal strategies applied to listening comprehension were selective attention, elaboration, inferencing, and transfer. Those applied to reading comprehension were inferencing, deduction, elaboration, and transfer. The principal strategies applied to the speaking task were substitution, cooperation, and self-evaluation.

Porte (1988) addressed the same issue over this doubtful relationship when interviewing fifteen under-achieving ESL students in private language schools in London. She reached exactly the same conclusions. The strategies used by these learners were very similar to those pictured in studies of "the good language learner," and the use of these strategies in class was apparently affected by past language learning experience. As she says, this line of study may discover that many apparently "poor" language learners do not

necessarily need to copy their "betters," but to enlarge, refine, and supplement their repertoire of strategies.

In more general terms, these studies bring to light the importance of assessing the strategies our students bring into the learning experience and teaching them to be flexible. By uncovering what students do, teachers become better equipped to train them in the strategies they lack, as well as to teach them why one strategy might be more appropriate than the other for a specific task, preparing them to transfer this knowledge purposefully and consciously to specific learning situations. Specific strategies appear to be most useful to certain types of tasks such as elaboration of parts to reading tasks or monitoring to writing tasks. Furthermore, these studies also show that students should be made aware of individual preferences (learning styles) in strategy use. Strategies that appear useful to certain tasks will not be equally efficient for every learner. Students should be free to alter and adapt strategy forms to their learning styles and to situational influences. Modeling strategies associated with good language learners will not provide the flexibility unsuccessful learners need to succeed. The answer to unsuccessful learners' needs is a training program that exposes them to the strategies they initially lack, and, subsequently, that concentrates exclusively on training them to reflect, adapt, create, plan and use strategies which fit their individual preferences and certain traditional tasks in the second language classroom.

Intervention Studies

There would be little sense in searching so hard for reasons to explain failure in language learning, as in for example, lack of flexibility, if it were not for the purpose of putting findings to use in the language classroom. Language teachers want their students to

be competent learners. Strategy training is one way of helping students succeed in their quest for language learning.

Research on strategy training in SLA is still in its embryonic stage (ten years approximately). Not many studies have been conducted. Nevertheless, a clear picture has emerged as to the teachability of strategies, encouraging teachers and researchers to further work together in the development of longitudinal studies which comprise the teaching of many strategies over a long time span, integratively, including the often neglected affective strategies.

Several training techniques emerge from these studies: *indirect training*--students are led to use particular techniques without explicit information about the nature or importance of them, or about how to transfer, as in modeling for example; *direct training*--students are told what a particular strategy does and why it is useful (it can accommodate the previous modality, provided explanations are given); and *completely informed training*--this modality, besides instructing on the nature and use of the technique explicitly teaches how to transfer, monitor, and evaluate. Naturally, a combination of the three yields better results, mainly because it allows for the maintenance of strategies across time, transfer to related tasks, manipulation of attitudes, motivations, and beliefs (see Oxford, 1990). The following studies not only described training techniques, but also tested their effectiveness, attesting to the need of combining training techniques.

O'Malley et al. were among the first to conduct a number of training studies (the second phases of previously reviewed descriptive studies). In O'Malley et al. (1985b), 75 high school ESL students at the intermediate level, equally divided among Hispanics, Asians, and other ethnic backgrounds, received training in: Group A--one metacognitive strategy

(selective attention), up to two cognitive strategies (note-taking or grouping), and a socioaffective strategy (cooperation), depending on the task; Group B--cognitive and socioaffective strategies; and Group C received no special training, but special instruction on reading strategies on content unrelated to the study, as well as instructions to work on the tasks as they would naturally do. This procedure ensured group C to benefit from participation and avoided a Hawthorne effect. The three groups were trained for 50 minutes daily for 8 days in listening, vocabulary or speaking activities by means of explicit directions and cues which were reduced on successive days of treatment. Self-evaluation, grouping, and imagery strategies were applied to vocabulary tasks; selective attention, note-taking, and cooperative strategies were applied to the listening tasks; and functional planning and cooperative strategies were applied to speaking tasks. Time for practice was provided, and teacher effects were controlled. All pretests, post-tests, and interim assessments consisted of multiple-choice recognition items, except for speaking (a brief oral presentation). No major difficulties were reported in the implementation of the training program. The two treatment groups clearly outdistanced the control group in the speaking task, and in several, but not all, of the listening tests. Surprisingly, in two of the listening tests, results were reversed between group A and B: Group B, which received instruction in the use of note-taking and cooperative strategies for listening tasks, outperformed group A, which received instruction in the use of selective attention, note-taking, and cooperative strategies. Possibly, this unpredictable result was due to the type of metacognitive strategy--selective attention, a planning strategy-- used in the intervention, which would not allow students to reflect and evaluate while learning. As noted by the authors, this intervention program, though successful for listening and speaking tasks, provided some mixed results due to its short time

span and to the selected metacognitive strategy. Training has to be continuous and structured until the strategies become internalized, and the selected metacognitive strategy should allow for planning and evaluation in learning.

O'Malley (1987) revisited O'Malley et al. (1985b) to analyze the effects of training in the use of learning strategies by groups A, B, and C. For the vocabulary test, the results of training were not statistically significant. The control group outperformed the treatment groups showing that students were more efficient in their learning when using familiar strategies. Asian students, for example, were negatively affected by the introduction of grouping and imagery strategies, being more efficient when using familiar strategies such as rote memorization of vocabulary lists. Hispanics, on the other hand, readily adopted the new strategies. Also, an interaction between the difficulty of the task and limited study time, and strategy effectiveness may have existed. Strategies may fail to facilitate learning if the task is exceedingly difficult or if there is not enough time to practice. Another possible explanation for this result is differences in cognitive styles. Only individuals with high imagery can make use of grouping and imagery strategies. Results of training were significant in two of the listening tests, and in all speaking tests beyond the .01 level. In short, learning strategies were shown to be effective in enhancing listening and speaking skills.

The second phase of the Russo and Stewner-Manzanares' (1985) project provided results similar to O'Malley et al. (1985b): Training was more effective to speaking than listening, and strategies proved to be teachable. Nevertheless, Russo and Stewner-Manzanares used a different methodology: Strategy training was embedded in listening and speaking activities, covering a wider range of strategies. There was no control group. The whole sample of Army ESL soldiers was trained six hours per day for five days in selective

attention, guessing, questioning for clarification, physical response, cooperation, self-evaluation, and functional planning. They were tested before and after the training week to check for differences in performance. This study also reconfirmed the difference between Hispanics and Asians as to strategy training (Hispanics responded more favorably to training in both tasks than Asians); and the importance of matching task difficulty to the strategy being taught (performance on the listening task was influenced by task difficulty as well).

Several researchers, for their part, devised strategy training models based on empirical research on strategy use, strategies' correlation to performance, motivation, and individual characteristics. Wenden (1986a), after analyzing semi-structured interviews of 34 adult ESLers proposed eight modules to help students think about learning and discover their own beliefs and alternative views to language learning. In other words, she focused on training students to develop metacognitive awareness. Students discuss their beliefs about learning by working on any provocative text about learning, discussing the topic in groups of three, reporting/comparing/supporting their opinions on the board, and concluding with a short summary of their answers. The modules demand increasing levels of self-awareness. These integrative activities provide teachers with valuable insights into students' beliefs and related preferred learning strategies, serving as a guide to the development of additional activities to help students learn how to learn a second language.

Chamot and Kupper (1989) summarized findings of Chamot et al.'s (1987; 1988) longitudinal study on FL instruction (descriptive, effectiveness, and course development studies), and suggested specific classroom applications for learning strategy instruction, similarly to their colleagues O'Malley et al. (1985b), and Russo and Stewner-Manzanares (1985). Their instructional framework begins by identifying students' current strategies.

Then they propose, in this order, assessment of strategy needs; planning of instruction; direct teaching of strategies for different language skills; provision of extensive opportunities for practice; evaluation of strategy use; and assistance in transferring learned learning strategies to new tasks. This can be done through a number of classroom activities such as *open discussions*--in discussing their mental processes with their peers, students find out new strategies and new applications to old ones; "think-aloud" group interviews (the case of their descriptive study); a *combination* of retrospective and "think-aloud" elicitation procedures to optimize strategy report and avoid forgetfulness; *diaries* (students record the strategy they use and then share and discuss them in class); and *cooperative learning*--students work in pairs, one being the interviewer, the other the recorder, and vice-versa. Results are first discussed in small groups, and then in the class as a whole. After identifying strategies being used, teachers analyze them as compared to students' achievement, research in learning strategies, nature of the learning tasks, and course objectives to plan further instruction accordingly. Basically, Chamot and Kupper recommend starting with a brief explanation of why the strategy is important and how it is expected to assist students. Then the teacher models the strategy through a think-aloud, step by step demonstration, providing practice opportunities. After practicing and discussing new strategies on several tasks, teachers should gradually decrease the frequency with which he reminds the students to use the strategies, thus promoting independent strategy use. Notwithstanding, recycling is important because strategy acquisition is a slow process. The match between core strategies and specific tasks is equally important. Imagery and grouping, for example, seems to be adequate strategies for vocabulary tasks while selective attention seems more appropriate for listening tasks.

An additional training model, very similar to Chamot and Kupper's (1989), was presented by Oxford, Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos, and Sutter (1990). They supported their model on findings of six case studies that dealt with the teaching of specific strategies linked to a clear effort to manipulate students/ attitudes, beliefs, and motivation. Two of them occurred in second language environments (Cohen's and Sutter's cases), and four in foreign language environments (Lavine's, Oxford's, Nyikos', and Crookall's cases). All were very successful in their endeavors, sharing a light-hearted, creative approach to language instruction that emphasized affective aspects of learning. They often combined explicit with integrative strategies training (except for Sutter who confirmed previous findings regarding Asians and East Europeans resistance to new techniques).

Furthermore, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also contributed with a similar instructional model which is one of the components of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) designed to develop academic language skills of limited English proficient students in upper elementary and secondary schools (it integrates content-based topics, academic language, and direct instruction/ practice in learning strategies); and Oxford (1990) provided a full account of intervention models such as the CRAPEL Model of Self Directed Language Learning at the Universite de Nancy, France, which gives learners the opportunity to plan and manage their own language programs (see also Holec, 1987); the Language Learning Disc (a Videodisk for Training Language Learning Strategies devised by Rubin), and many other on-going intervention programs around the world. Her book itself is a collection of ideas and useful pedagogic applications of learning strategies to the language classroom.

Summary. Strategies are teachable. Existing training programs show that training in strategy use brings a whole array of advantages. As to the learners, it enlarges their repertoires of tools in learning how to learn; it develops a greater sense of competence and self-direction; it promotes consistent and more relaxed performances; and it helps them keep what they have got (language maintenance). As to the teacher and trainer, it brings enthusiasm to the class; it allows students' characteristics and personal needs and how they relate to teaching styles and strategies to surface; and it promotes a more learner-oriented environment. Furthermore, the reviewed intervention studies share a basic structure: Teachers first identify current strategies, then explain what, when, and how to complement strategy use, and close the intervention with an evaluation of activities and gains. Complete-informed training seems to be the predominant and more adequate pattern of intervention, as in for example, Chamot and Kupper (1989), and Oxford et al. (1990). On top of that, intervention models which accommodate learners' different characteristics, cultural background, and classroom settings (including course objectives), as in Sutter (cited in Oxford et al., 1990), yield better results. Some other positive aspects of the instructional models here described include the connection between language and content areas, and between language learning strategies and different tasks, as in the CALLA model. Another positive aspect has to do with the training of metacognitive strategies, as in the CRAPEL model and in Wenden (1986a). Metacognitive strategies allow learners to define needs, set priorities, and evaluate learning, and they seem to be fundamental to effectiveness in learning. The use of strategies in authentic situations, as those provided by Rubin's videodisk training (cited in Oxford, 1990), also seems to be very effective for language learning, cutting the boundaries of different types of task. Finally, since strategies are part of procedural

knowledge, all the studies would suggest that training has to be continuously recycled and expanded, if it is to be sustainable. The best way to do that is to have teachers as strategy trainers, which would allow for continuity for at least over a semester.

The Culture Variable

Cognitive and affective tendencies displayed by certain cultures have been the subject of debate for many years. Individuals, whenever confronted with a new experience, map it against their knowledge of the world, or schemata, to construct meaning. The structures present in the schemata are provided by life experiences--societal and educational systems such as family, school, government, religion, or simply put, culture. Following this line of reasoning, it is generally accepted that behaviors tend to be culturally loaded. They are said to bear the blueprint of the cultural group in which people grow. In other words, a person who grows up in a tight authoritative society tends to have an imitative approach to education, focusing on memorization as opposed to original, creative work. A person who grows up in a society which stimulates risk-taking tends to be more creative and to engage in higher-order thinking. Maley (1986), for instance, when describing his teaching experience in China, reported that Chinese learners saw the teacher or the textbook as owners of knowledge. Students who were eager to acquire that knowledge had only to commit to memory (folk knowledge says that if one memorizes 300 Tang poems one is able to write poems). Osterloh (1986), in his discussion of intercultural differences and their implications to FL teaching in Islamic countries, described how children grew up dealing with the Koran, a book containing solemn and incontestable truths that were learned by memorization and recitation. These learning behaviors tend to transfer to other learning contexts related to reading, writing, listening or speaking, influencing the way people learn. No wonder

educators have been concerned with the extent to which certain societies exhibit certain cognitive and affective tendencies for so many years. Yet, there are many other instances in which individual characteristics of different kinds (socioeconomic status, field of specialty, age, etc.) surpass group tendencies, making it clear that the issue is very complex, so complex that it has not been fully understood.

Within this framework, generalizations are risky, and it is wise to be cautious. Nevertheless, nobody would deny that there is a tendency to conformity deeply rooted in the necessity to cope with the demands of a particular environment, and it is this tendency that this review intends to explore as relative to language learning strategies. Studies are grouped into those that revealed a tendency to conformity within a cultural group (there are preferred language learning strategies which arise from the base-learning culture), and those which did not (either individual preferences prevailed or the language learning strategies preferred by the cultural group differed from those nurtured by the learning environment). They are also roughly organized into studies conducted in foreign language contexts, and those conducted in second language contexts.

Positive tendency to conformity

To my knowledge, there are very few studies in a *foreign language* context that have examined preferences of strategy use. Huang (1984) and Huang and Van Naerssen (1985), while investigating the learning strategies of sixty Chinese EFLers in oral communication, as well as effects of learning strategies on achievement and learner characteristics, confirmed that the Chinese have a preference for memorization techniques due to the influence of the Chinese traditional concepts of education. Among these memorization techniques are vocabulary lists, and intensive reading which consists of

explicitly studying short texts, word definitions and derivations, collocations, sample sentences, grammar books and dictionaries--very form-oriented strategies. Huang interprets this preference as a way of overcoming the limited exposure to the language. By reading and memorizing, students take the best advantage of what they have. Other results were very similar to those of Bialystok (1981) and others. For example, functional practice, and thinking in English correlated highly with oral proficiency. On the other hand, numbers of years of language experience, a positive indicator of proficiency level in most of the studies reviewed, did not produce a significant difference in the students' oral proficiency as measured by a communicative oriented oral test, probably due to the limited proficiency level of the instructors.

In a slightly different vein, Sutter (in Oxford et al., 1990) also confirmed the tendency to conformity within cultural groups while implementing a training program for refugees studying EFL in Denmark. His Asians and East European students resisted the use of some innovative/creative strategies that research proved beneficial to language acquisition. They adhered rigidly to the old learning techniques acquired in their homeland: memorization of word lists, total attention to form regardless of function, no use of affective strategies ("learning means suffering"), and so on. The instructor creatively led them to use the new strategies under the disguise of familiar techniques (he called it "camouflaged training"), taking advantage of what they brought into the learning experience. For example, students who preferred to work independently and to learn vocabulary by making word lists were asked to form groups to make and publish a dictionary, a glossary, or a cookbook, cooperatively.

Collecting data in both EFL and ESL contexts, Oxford, Hollaway, and Horton-Murillo (1992) investigated one of the factors responsible for differences in learning strategy use (learning styles) as related to culture in tertiary educational settings. They confirmed previous findings related to group tendencies, and added information about Latin American ESLers. In all six case-study examples of cross-cultural conflicts between teachers and students, the Asian subject promoted rote memorization or at least highly structured work, avoiding intuitive compensation strategies, and in two out of three cases was more analytic. The Latin American subject revealed problems with monitoring, planning, and reviewing strategies.

Oxford and Burry (1993), while reporting on the evolution, norming, and psychometric testing of the SILL throughout the world, mentioned some unpublished studies in EFL contexts which revealed trends within cultural groups. For example, they cited Yang who investigated 590 EFLers in Taiwan, finding a preference for metacognitive strategies among Taiwanese learners, which explained 26.1% of the variance out of nine factors indicated by factor analysis. They also cited Watanabe who investigated 255 EFLers in Japan, finding a preference for active, naturalistic language use among Japanese learners, which explained 23.3% of the variance, out of nine factors indicated by factor analysis as well.

Regarding data collected in *second language environments*, research provides more abundant insights. Numerous studies confirm cultural-group tendencies, as well as associate them with prior educational and social experiences. O'Malley (1987), as reported in the effectiveness studies section, found that Asian students in the sample resisted using strategies as imagery and grouping to learn vocabulary definitions, reconfirming results by Sutter (in

Oxford et al. 1990), and Oxford et al. (1992). Those who were in the control group were so successful in using familiar techniques that they even outperformed the treatment group.

Russo and Stewner-Manzanares (1985) further confirmed the Asian students' tendency to rely on memorization and the linguistic code while training USA Army ESLers, being additionally supported by Tyacke and Mendelsohn (1986) who assessed the cognitive and communicative needs of ten ESLers of different ethnic backgrounds in Canada.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985), on their part, endorsed previous findings, further adding that the profile of the "good" language learner might be ethnocentrically biased, because though Asian students in their sample exhibited less of the behaviors expected from the "good" language learners, they outperformed Hispanics in average gains in linguistic competence, and in gains in the discrete-point measure of communicative competence (this test presented a statistically significant difference of Asians over Hispanics). Again, Asians were effective in using the strategies they had. The 37 graduate students investigated included equal numbers of Asians (mainly Japanese) and Hispanics (mainly Latin American). Though Politzer and McGroarty's behavior questionnaire yielded a low internal reliability coefficient (0.52, 0.61, and 0.63 on each of the three sections, respectively), it was successful in distinguishing between the two ethnic groups, and in admonishing caution in the interpretation of quantitative research (Hispanics had higher scores on all the behavior scales: classroom, individual study, and out of classroom interaction, but a non-significant difference over Asians in overall oral proficiency as measured by a communicative competence test developed by Politzer to assess the ability to orally convey information). To a certain extent, these conclusions may also imply that learners are effective in using the strategies they grow up with, which leaves room for addition, but hardly for adaptations. Finally, connecting

these findings with conclusions of Chamot et al.'s (1987), Politzer's (1983), and other effectiveness studies, it is possible to say that all strategies contribute to learning. What qualitatively differentiates them is the fit between use and circumstances.

Work on metacognition by Wenden (1987a; 1987b) also presented evidence for a tendency to conformity as related to the use of language learning strategies among members of the same cultural group. Drawing on her own classroom experience over the years as well as on semi-structured interviews administered to 25 adult language learners in the United States, she matched learners specific beliefs about how to learn a second language (which they bring into the learning experience) against strategies used in different environments and circumstances. Learners' beliefs seemed to influence what they actually did to help themselves learn. In this sense learners who thought they learned the language by using it, tried to learn languages the natural way, engaging in conversation, creating opportunities to talk, listen, and think in the target language (communicative and social strategies); those who thought they had to learn about the language, engaged in grammar and vocabulary learning, focusing on formal aspects, learning from mistakes, and having a mentally active approach to learning (cognitive strategies); finally, those who believed personal factors were important, tried to control their feelings (bashfulness, anxiety, etc.), improve self-confidence, and accept their "supposed" aptitude or lack of aptitude for language learning with resignation (they made more use of affective strategies). As one of Wenden's subjects reported, "I think the improvement of language is due to some inheritance. In my case, I have no personal ability, so I think it will take a long time ... there is no good way to speed up my learning" (1987b, p. 107).

The role of nurtured beliefs and previous schooling has also been emphasized by Abraham and Vann (1987) and Vann and Abraham (1987) in their study of successful and unsuccessful learners. They studied two pairs of students of the same native language background. Deeper insights into the subjects previous schooling and learning philosophies revealed possible explanations for their differentiated performances. Those who had been encouraged to use "knowledge-telling" would not invest in the risky business of "knowledge-producing," progressing slowly in their language acquisition. Convinced of the importance of background variables in the understanding of the strategies used by a particular learner, Abraham and Vann proposed a tentative model of second language learning that comprises three modules: (a) background factors (which affect each one of the factors in (b) and have an indirect effect on degree of success); (b) a *philosophy* of how language is learned; this philosophy guides the approach learners take in learning situations, which in turn is overtly or covertly manifested as strategies; factors in this module directly affect success or failure (see also Wenden, 1987b); and (c) *environment* which involves the type of practice provided by the surroundings--formal/informal instruction, limited exposure, etc.; these factors interact with factors in (b) and may also modify factors in (a), indirectly affecting success or failure.

From a slightly different perspective, Reid (1987) also contributed to the corpus of information on ESLers patterns of learning behaviors. She administered a self-reported questionnaire to 1234 students of more than six different cultural backgrounds, including English native speakers, to identify their learning modalities (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile). Her conclusions parallel and support previous research in that ESLers differ in various ways from native speakers of English in regard to learning styles; and different culture groups present different modes of learning. There is a strong preference for

kinesthetic and tactile learning styles, as well as a negative preference for group learning among ESLers. They prefer to work independently. Specifically, Spanish speakers chose kinesthetic and tactile as major learning styles and group learning as a negative style; Thai and Malay speakers had similar major preferences, but chose visual learning styles as their minor preference; Japanese speakers did not identify any one major learning style and were the least auditory of all; Arabic speakers emerged as auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learners who chose group learning as a minor preference; English native speakers chose auditory learning styles as their major preference, and group learning as a negative preference. Furthermore, Reid noticed that adaptation to the American academic environment tends to occur the longer students live in the USA (their preferences become more auditory, closely resembling those of native speakers of English). Reid's conclusions suggest that it is important to conduct research in foreign language contexts, where the influence of the target language culture would be neutralized, and a clear picture of the overall patterns of behaviors of ESLers would be likely to emerge. Another possible interesting topic for further investigation would be the effects of acculturation on learning styles/strategies characteristics.

Negative tendency to conformity

Contrasting to everything that has been discussed up to now, and to the common sense of most people, three of the studies reviewed did not find a preference for specific learning behaviors within cultural groups (either individual preferences prevailed or the language learning strategies learners reported using the most differed from those nurtured by the base-learning culture). One of the studies actually found a clash between the base-learning culture and the learning styles preferred by the learners. The two first studies were conducted in ESL environments, and the third in an EFL context.

Block (1986) examined the comprehension strategies used by six remedial ESL readers (Spanish and Chinese), comparing them to those of three native speakers of English, also designated as nonproficient readers. Evidence showed differences within ethnic groups (Chinese ESLers differed in the number of strategies they used), as well as a common, stable pattern of behavior between ESLers and native speakers. Chinese, Hispanics, and native English speaking readers had two basic patterns of strategy use: (a) integrators--consistently and effectively monitored their understanding, were aware of text structure, integrated information, and looked for clues; (b) nonintegrators--relied more on their personal experiences to develop new versions of the text, responded more often in the reflexive mode, made fewer attempts to connect information, and focused more on details than on main ideas. Results suggest that learners' knowledge of the reading process is common across cultures. Or still, there may be no difference among the base learning cultures of the students in this situation The six remedial ESL readers and the three native English speaking readers used the same strategies to tackle the task. Another major implication of Block's study reflects findings regarding successful and unsuccessful learners in second language acquisition (see also Abraham and Vann, 1987). All the poor readers in the sample were resourceful. They all developed strategies which could characterize them as independent learners. Nevertheless, only those who applied them consistently and effectively (the integrators) performed well. This fact confirms that having a variety of strategies does not solve all learning problems. In other words, to perform well learners must plan and control their learning, evaluating which strategy fits the task at hand.

The second study which did not find a group tendency among ESLers is Willing's (1988). This large-scale project involved 517 ESLers of thirty ethnic backgrounds in

Australia. It aimed at identifying the learning styles and strategies of adult migrants, as well as making relevant recommendations for assessing and accommodating learner differences in the Adult Migrant Education Service (AMES) English programs. First, he carried out in-depth interviews with 25 current and former AMES clients to get an in depth account of what the individuals thought about the learning process. The same held true for teachers. No generalizations were possible. There was no obvious pattern of correlation between the views on language and learning and biographical factors such as ethnic group, age, educational level, and the like. He noticed though, that nearly all individual learners equated learning with concepts related to their previous schooling experiences. Therefore, a major survey of learning styles/strategies was conducted to further validate these results. Only five groups (Vietnamese, ethnic Chinese, Arabic speakers, South Americans, and Polish/Czech speakers) were large enough to permit analyses having statistical validity. Again, none of the learning differences related to personal variables were statistically significant to allow generalizations about cultural groups. The data suggest that naturalistic language practice is highly valued by ESLers as opposed to "artificial" language practice such as listening to cassettes, films and videos. The most important single finding of the study was that opinions were consistent within ethnic groups. Arabic speakers, for example, stood out for relying on the teacher (77% of the respondents in this group chose this strategy as their preferred learning technique), and studying grammar (65% of the Arabic learners ranked this strategy as the best) to learn the language. South Americans clearly favored error correction (70% of the respondents in this group marked this item as best), and sensorial reinforcement (69% chose hearing and 50% chose seeing as their preferred learning modalities). Some caution is recommended in interpreting Willing's results because three of the five groups consisted of

multiple cultures (for example, South Americans consist of Argentineans, Brazilians, Chileans, etc.).

The third study was conducted in an EFL environment by Gieve (1991), and it assessed the learning goals and style preferences of 157 female and 75 male university students in Japan while learning English. Gieve based her survey on Willing (1988) survey, and her findings are similar to Watanabe's (cited in Oxford 1993): Japanese learners have a preference for naturalistic, functional language learning. Nevertheless, this preference does not derive from the base-learning culture which nurtures form-oriented, analytical practice. She suggests that there is a reaction to the curriculum offered in Japanese schools because it does not meet students' communicative aspirations. In this sense, students' learning goals are driving their preferred learning styles, not the typical learning behaviors of the learning environment. This finding may also explain why Reid (1987) did not find any major learning style among Japanese learners in her sample.

In a nutshell, based on the evidence of the numerous reviewed studies, nobody would deny that learning strategies have been associated with cultural group membership across studies, pointing towards a tendency to conformity with the learning strategies nurtured by the base-learning culture. The greatest evidence found across studies is that of Asians who tend to prefer memorization techniques. Nevertheless, due to the lack of studies in FL contexts, and considering the likely interference or adaptation to patterns of the target culture over time (the acculturation phenomenon), caution is recommended in interpreting results obtained in ESL environments. Further exploratory research in FL contexts is necessary. Furthermore, all studies indicated individual differences co-existing with cultural group tendencies, and Gieve (1991) showed even more idiosyncratic evidence in the case of

Japanese language learners: There might be a reaction to common practices of the learning environment. Japanese learners, in two different studies, showed preference for naturalistic language practice. It is a very complex issue. In addition, methodological limitations such as non-representative samples (only Reid, 1987, dealt with a sample larger than 100 subjects) must be taken into account. In conclusion, though language learners' strategy use tends to conform with the learning behaviors nurtured by the cultural environment where they grew up and live (in some cases this evidence is systematic across the majority of the studies), the issue has not been fully explored, calling for more research in foreign language contexts around the world.

Summary

Given the limitations of foreign language instruction (among others, restricted exposure to the language, motivational factors, and few opportunities to practice), the benefits of strategy training and the likely tendency members of the same cultural group have to conformity relative to language learning strategies, it is surprising that researchers and teachers have not turned their attention to the investigation of learning strategies in foreign language contexts. Of all the studies reviewed here, only 13 considered a foreign language environment, namely: Chamot et al.(1987), Huang (1984), Politzer (1983), Huang and van Naerssen (1987), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Ely (1989), Green and Oxford (1993), four of the case studies cited in Oxford et al. (1990), and two of the unpublished works in Oxford and Burry (1993). Out of these, only four concern English as a foreign language contexts (Huang, Huang and Naerssen, and two of Oxford et al.'s case studies); the others either deal with the instruction of languages other than English or with mixed populations (ESL / EFL).

The lack of studies in English as a foreign language contexts may have deprived foreign language teachers and learners of information that proved fundamental to the attainment of second language competence and learner self-direction. Strategies assessment may provide EFL teachers with a more transparent picture of their students' habitual learning behaviors and with invaluable insights into how to help their students to be better learners of English. In knowing which strategies learners typically use, teachers will be better equipped to build variety into the classroom, deliberately exposing learners to those strategies which they do not use, and that tend not to be part of their base-learning culture. Teachers will also be able to increase learners' awareness of the link between strategies and specific tasks. Some strategies appear to be most useful to certain tasks. For example, grouping and imagery seem to be appropriate to vocabulary learning. Others, such as functional practice, evaluating and planning, seem to be appropriate across tasks. The two metacognitive strategies apparently allow learners to flexibly choose strategies which fit the task at hand, the learning purpose, and also their personal learning styles. Often, strategy goodness of fit and strategy use do not coincide because of the influence of background factors (c.f. Ellis, 1989). In other words, learners may use learning behaviors that clash with their personal learning styles and the curriculum because these learning behaviors have been nurtured by the base-learning culture. In a nutshell, strategy assessment and training may increase students' awareness of the learning process, thus bringing higher effectiveness into language classrooms.

The next chapters address a study conducted in a foreign language environment (Brazil) to assess the patterns of learning strategies of Brazilians learning English, as well as to check the existence of any preferred learning strategies or tendencies within the group.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This Chapter describes the methodology used to assess the patterns of learning strategies of Brazilians learning English as a foreign language. It characterizes the instrumentation, subjects, environment, procedures, questions, and data analysis involved in the study. The objective of the study is to explore the overall patterns of language learning strategies used by Brazilian learners of English as a foreign language, and to examine if there are any preferred strategies in this ethnic group. In addition, this study will also investigate the influence of variables such as age, gender, and instructional approach on strategy choice.

Instrumentation

The survey was conducted by means of a Portuguese language version of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, or SILL, Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990). The publisher of the inventory, Heinle and Heinle (formerly Newbury House), as well as the author were contacted for permission to use the inventory in its translated form for research purposes. This self-report questionnaire (see Appendix B) consists of a fifty-item, Likert-scaled instrument (from one to five) that elicits the frequency with which the respondents uses a variety of behaviors for foreign language learning. For example, respondents are asked to indicate, on a five point scale, if they "almost always" or "almost never" look for opportunities to speak English. These items are grouped according to the six broad categories in Oxford's (1990) strategy classification system. Items in the first section deal with memory strategies; in

the second with cognitive strategies; in the third with compensation strategies; in the fourth with metacognitive strategies; in the fifth with affective strategies; and in the sixth with social strategies. The averages in each section tell which group of strategies students use most frequently in improving each of the four skills systematically, on a scale from one to five. The overall average tells how often the student makes use of strategies when learning English.

The background questionnaire, adapted from Oxford (1990)--see Appendix A--elicited additional information on students' characteristics to enrich the analysis of factors that might be influencing the choice of strategies. The information elicited included age, gender, number of years of language instruction, self-appraised English proficiency, degree of importance of learning English, reason for learning English, motivation to learn English, and experience in learning other foreign languages.

The SILL has been widely used around the world, and there are versions in Arabic, Chinese, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Spanish, and Ukrainian available from its author, Rebecca Oxford. Content validity of a slightly earlier 121-item version was .95, based on classificatory agreement between two independent raters who matched each of the SILL items with the strategies in Oxford's strategy classification. Internal reliability of the SILL version 7.0 for other similar administrations ranged from .88 to .93 on Cronbach's alpha. The lowest (.88) was for a very mixed sample from three studies of ESL students in the USA. The highest (.93) was from a sample of Taiwanese EFL students (N = 590). Internal reliability for the specific administration used in this study was .89 (N = 315) on Cronbach's alpha, a moderately high coefficient.

Subjects

The subjects of the study were 315 Brazilian students of English as a foreign language from three English language institutes in Rio de Janeiro (N = 213) and Resende (N = 102), in southeastern Brazil. All students involved in the study were native speakers of Portuguese, and had been studying in Brazil under Brazilian instructors. All of them had studied English as a foreign language in regular schools (English teaching is mandated from the 5th grade in Brazil).

The demographic information collected by means of the background questionnaire is displayed in Table 4. The respondents' ages ranged from 11 to 51 (M = 19; SD = 8.3). The number of years they had studied English ranged from 1 to 35 (M = 5.3; SD = 3.5). The sample consisted of 128 males and 186 females; one subject did not report the gender category. On a categorical scale corresponding to poor, fair, good, and excellent, a majority self-reported a good overall proficiency in English (N = 231), and a "fair" overall proficiency compared to native speakers (N=166). As to the importance of learning English, participants reported a high level of importance (N = 231) on a categorical scale corresponding to: not so important, important, and very important. Approximately 90.16% of the participants (N=284) reported enjoying the learning of a language as well as having already studied other languages, such as French, Hebrew, German or Spanish, the other commonly taught foreign languages in Brazil.

Additional information was also collected from the teachers regarding number of instruction-hours, overall socioeconomic status, and proficiency level of the learners. The number of instruction hours per week averaged three (3) hours for approximately 264 participants, and four (4) hours for 51 of them. As to their socioeconomic status, a great

TABLE 4

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

N = 315

VARIABLES	FREQUENCIES			
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	EXCELLENT
REPORTED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY	4	38	231	38
REPORTED PROFICIENCY COMPARED TO NATIVE SPEAKERS	47	166	91	8
	NOT SO IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	
PROFICIENCY IMPORTANCE	1	83	231	
	YES	NO		
ENJOY LANGUAGE LEARNING	284	27		
		M	SD	
AGE		19	8.3	
NUMBER OF YEARS OF ENGLISH STUDY		5.3	3.5	

NOTE: Totals may not add up to 315 due to missing data

majority of the learners belonged to the upper-middle class. Their proficiency level varied from advanced-beginner to advanced, information which corresponded to their self-reported proficiency level. In general, the subjects were comprised of a very heterogeneous group in terms of age, gender, years of language instruction, and knowledge of other foreign languages. Because of its heterogeneity, the sample is very representative of the typical population enrolled in English language institutes in Brazil.

Other demographic information

Subjects' goals. The background questionnaire also elicited information on learning goals by means of six categorical items of the type "I am interested in the language." Subjects were asked to respond by placing check marks in the blanks provided to indicate their responses. In addition, an open-ended category called "other" was provided, and subjects were asked, if they checked the item, to specify the other reason they had in mind. To quantify the responses, the number of students who checked each item was counted. Results indicated that by far, Brazilian learners of EFL in this sample are moved by instrumental motivation (career goals). This option was chosen by 91% of the sample (N=286). The subjects seemed to be more interested in using the language to advance (or hoping to advance) their professional careers than in learning the language for enjoyment or pleasure. Also, these learners demonstrated a moderate to high interest in the English language. This option was chosen by 78% of the sample (N=246). A sizable number of subjects indicated that their interest in or need for travel is a major reason for wanting to learn English. This item was chosen by 64% of the sample (N=200). Table 5 displays the rank-ordered students' goals, frequencies, and percentages of students who checked the item as true of themselves.

TABLE 5

SUBJECTS' LEARNING GOALS

RANK	GOALS	N	%
1	Need English for professional career	286	91%
2	Interested in the language	246	78%
3	Need it for travel purposes	200	64%
4	Required elective	156	50%
5	Interested in he culture	121	38%
6	Have friends who speak English	81	26%
7	Others (list)*	51	16%

* Sample items listed by the respondents: they learn English to learn about the culture, for pleasure, to be able to communicate with people from other cultures, to be able to sing American pop music, to watch movies in English without reading the captions, interest in languages in general, and English is an international language.

Language learning experiences which affected respondents the most. Sample experiences listed by the respondents included finding out that they were able to comprehend and produce language when going abroad, going to a movie theater watch a movie in English, or when dealing with foreigners in their professional lives; being able to listen to American music and understand the lyrics trying to find out whether the lyrics were of questionable quality; and getting a promotion because of acquired language skills. These experiences may trigger or hinder strategy use when learning a language. They explain the learners' approach to language learning. Many of the participants, for example, cited a special teacher who encouraged them to continue, or experiences related to their English courses which discouraged them to go on with their language learning. Some even mentioned the "aptitude" or "lack of aptitude" for language learning which would make them study endlessly without

obtaining good results, impacting their professional careers severely and diminishing their self-confidence.

Environment

English is widely regarded as an international language in Brazil. It is the language of commerce with major trading partners; it is the language identified as an official "foreign language" at national language policy level; and its teaching is mandated from 5th grade on. It is the language a Brazilian is most likely to need when entering the work force, especially in occupations held by educated Brazilians in almost any field. Finally, it is the language most often used in tourism, pop music (the radio stations practically play only American popular music), and international movies in major theaters. In a nutshell, there are strong reasons for including English in the school curriculum as well as a strong reason for learning it, even though it is not immediately used outside of the classroom.

The English taught at regular schools (private and public) focuses on grammar and reading comprehension--the old approach to language teaching and learning (language is still considered as a series of structures and grammar points). Students are faced with a huge amount of content at the very early stages of their learning, and many look to the English language institutes as a remedy to their weak attainment in English at school.

The English language institutes follow a very different approach: "Slow and steady wins the race" is their motto. Learners are gradually moved across the curriculum. Efficient oral and written communication are at the very heart of teaching, even though the methodologies may differ. It is easy to conclude that the remedy learners look for is not always efficient, since there is a clash between grammar-oriented teaching in school and communication-oriented teaching at the institutes. In the present study, the names of the

English Language Institutes are not mentioned to preserve their anonymity as well as to avoid any harm to their businesses. They have been labeled "A," "B," and "C," and a brief description of their methodology, teachers, and size of classes is provided below. All subjects in this study were studying English at one of these institutes at the time the SILL was administered to them.

Institute A contributed with 181 students. Basically, this institute adopts the principles of what is often labeled as the communicative approach: attainment of communicative competence, dealing communicatively with forms and errors, integration of the four language skills, and focus on meaning, context, and authentic language use. In the words of one of the teachers, "we try to take the language to the student's navel," in the sense that information is simplified to the most to facilitate comprehension and retention. Much of the pedagogic material is produced in-house, according to the students' needs. The syllabus is therefore organized around notions (meanings) and functions (social interactions), and real world tasks, and materials are used in instruction. Based on the report of the institute course coordinator, the majority of students ($N \approx 131$) in this group has class twice a week for one and one-and-a-half hours. The others ($N \approx 50$), at a more advanced level, may have three classes per week for one and one-third of an hour per week. Classes are no larger than fifteen students, and teachers are highly proficient in English and teaching techniques, some of them holding BA's in English with considerable experience in teaching and materials development. Some have refined their skills abroad (in either the United States or England). All of them hold certificates of proficiency in English.

Of the 315 subjects in the study, 32 were enrolled in institute B. They are instructed according to a mixture of communicative and affective-humanistic approach: very small

groups (when not on a one on one basis); communication that is meaningful to the learner (if he needs to learn a point relevant to his work, that is what the lesson will cover); self-realization and self-improvement are synonymous with learning a foreign language. In brief, the students have a strong voice in the choice of materials to be used and topics to be discussed--a learner-generated syllabus. Classes are held twice a week for one and one-and-a-half hours. The same comments about teachers' background in the preceding paragraphs apply to Institute C.

Institute C contributed with 102 students. This institute adopts an in-house developed audio-visual method which combines some principles of the communicative approach (focus on meaning, and authentic language use) with some principles of the audio-lingual methodology (insistence on error-free speech, use of drills, and emphasis on listening before speaking and writing). The syllabus is organized around meanings, functions, and grammar points, and lessons typically begin with dialogs. At times, students are involved in total physical response activities, role playing, mimicry, and dialog memorization. Rules are inductively taught, and pronunciation is stressed from the very beginning. Classes are held twice a week for one and one-and-a-half hours. The teachers are highly proficient, and the majority has spent time abroad (either in the United States or England) improving their language skills. Some hold college degrees in addition to the normally required teachers' training course (TTC) and certificate of proficiency in English. Also, institute B trains its teachers to manipulate its in-house developed method, and teachers are required to periodically refine their skills in dealing with the methodology and instructional materials, attending seminars that are developed and administered by the institute.

Procedures

Data collection was conducted with the cooperation of the teachers at the respective institutes and other personnel who work with them in Brazil. It took place during the month of November, 1993. Respondents (N = 600) received uniform instructions to fill out the SILL and the background questionnaire at their leisure and to hand it back when done. Assistance was provided if needed. The majority (N = 420) took the questionnaire home; others (N = 180) completed it at the institutes during their free time. Each one of the respondents received a three-page-questionnaire, plus a separate background profile and worksheet for answering and self-scoring. They also received a brief explanation of the research and were assured that their responses would be kept confidential and would not affect their course grades or evaluations. There was no pressure on them to return the questionnaires. Those who turned it back did so willingly; their participation in this project was totally voluntary. Many of the participants, according to the report of one of the teachers, were very interested in understanding the results. Furthermore, the teachers were instructed to keep the Profile of Results for their own use to avoid bias. In all, the teachers got back 323 questionnaires, of which 8 were later discarded for incompleteness regarding either background information or the body of the questionnaire itself, leaving 315 included in this study.

The entire questionnaire and all other information was presented in Portuguese. A pilot test of the Portuguese version was administered to fifteen Brazilians living in Tulsa, Oklahoma. This group consisted of one high-school student, three middle-school students, eight engineering graduate students, and three persons with college education who were enrolled in ESL classes. None of the participants in this group had any problem in completing

the questionnaire, and most of them did so in 30-35 minutes. After the administration of the survey, an item-by-item discussion was promoted to elicit suggestions of possible words or alternative sentence structures to improve the reading ease of the text while preserving the content of the English version. For example, item 33 in section D was rephrased three times until the shortest and clearest form was obtained, though all of them conveyed the same meaning (*Tento descobrir como ser um melhor aluno de ingles→Procuro ser um melhor aluno de ingles→Procuro ser um bom aluno de ingles* which correspond to "I try to find out how to be a better learner of English"). No content change was done in the Portuguese version.

Research questions

In conducting this study, I was seeking to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What kind of strategies do Brazilians learning English as a foreign language report using?
2. Are there any preferred learning strategies among Brazilian learners of English as a foreign language?
3. What factors on the SILL account for the greatest influence on the choice of learning strategies?
4. What variables (age, gender, and instructional approach) influence the use of these strategies by respondents in the sample?

Data Analysis

The aim of data analysis was to test the applicability of previous findings to the subjects in this study and to add to existing research exploring the overall patterns of learning strategies of Brazilians learning English in Brazil. The data were analyzed by means of

SYSTAT version 5, the statistical software package for Microsoft Windows published by Evanston, Illinois. First of all, descriptive statistics such as frequencies were calculated to obtain the overall patterns of language learning strategies of Brazilians learning English as a foreign language. This procedure analyzed the choice of strategies within the sample and provided answers to research questions one and two. Secondly, factor analysis determined the underlying factors on the SILL using a four-factor Varimax rotation (eigenvalue > 1.0, loading of item ≥ .30). This step provided the answer to research question three. Third, Pearson-Chi-square (χ^2) statistical tests were used to compare frequencies and check the relation between the choice of learning strategies (the dependent variables) and individual characteristics such as age, gender, and instructional approach (the independent variables). These procedures provided the answer for research question four. Ethnicity, native language, and environment (Brazil) were kept constant (control variables). Results were considered statistically significant at the 0.5 level. The results of the above analysis are discussed in detail in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the research outlined in Chapter III, summarizing and interpreting them. Results were analyzed by item, by strategy category, by underlying factors on the SILL, and by variables affecting strategy use.

Missing Data

Some of the subjects from the 315 who participated in this study missed a few questions in the background questionnaire which assessed the independent variables: age (N= 309), and gender (N = 314). In the data analysis, such missing data were excluded from the calculations. In other words, a case was omitted from the calculation when either of the variables being considered was missing.

Strategies reported by Brazilians EFL learners

The data for this study included responses of 315 subjects to the Portuguese version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990). The subjects responded to 50 items related to their learning behaviors on a Likert scale from one to five. These items are grouped according to the six broad categories of Oxford's (1990) strategy classification scheme: (A) memory strategies; (B) cognitive strategies; (C) compensation strategies; (D) metacognitive strategies; (E) affective strategies; (F) social strategies (see Appendix B for details).

Summary of results by item

Table 6 presents the basic statistical data for each item on the SILL as reported by respondents in the sample as a group. The items of the SILL are rank ordered according to the group's overall mean frequency of strategy use for learning English. On a scale from one to five, mean frequencies between 3.5 and 4.4 indicate that the strategy is used frequently (moderately high frequency); mean frequencies between 2.5 to 3.4 indicate that the strategy is sometimes used (moderate frequency); mean frequencies between 1.5 to 2.4 indicate that the strategy is generally not used (moderately low frequency); and mean frequencies between 1.0 to 1.4 indicate that the strategy is never or almost never used (low frequency). There were no items for which mean frequencies between 4.5 and 5.0 were reported ("always use"--high frequency) by the group. The overall average of strategy use tells how often learners as a group make use of strategies when learning English. The broad categories of each item are labeled (A), (B), (C), (D), (E), and (F). All items in the SILL in Table 6 have been abbreviated because of space constraints.

TABLE 6

LEARNING STRATEGIES MOST PREFERRED BY THE SUBJECTS AS A GROUP

(N = 315)

RANK ORDERED

STRATEGY DESCRIPTION	RANK	OVERALL MEAN FREQUENCY	SD
F45 Asking for repetition	1	4.390	0.922
D32 Paying attention	2	4.352	0.920
C29 Paraphrasing	3	4.292	0.943
D38 Thinking about progress	4	4.206	1.073
D31 Using mistakes to learn	5	3.879	1.076
F46 Asking for correction	6	3.787	1.240
E40 Encouraging oneself to speak	7	3.781	1.131
A1 Relating old information to new	8	3.759	1.031

TABLE 6 (Continued)

B15	Watching TV/movies in English	9	3.724	1.268
F49	Asking questions in English	10	3.698	1.208
D33	Trying to be a better learner	11	3.686	1.249
D37	Having clear goals	12	3.683	1.265
E39	Trying to relax	13	3.644	1.328
F48	Asking for help	14	3.606	1.235
A4	Making mental pictures	15	3.489	1.166
D30	Trying to use English	16	3.352	1.186
B18	Skimming before reading	17	3.330	1.407
B16	Reading for pleasure	18	3.302	1.428
D36	Reading as much as possible	18	3.248	1.270
B12	Practicing the sounds of English	19	3.194	1.246
B22	Avoiding translations	20	3.200	1.408
C25	Using gestures	21	3.190	1.255
B11	Imitating native speakers	22	3.175	1.379
A9	Using the "loci" method	23	3.168	1.336
B13	Using words in different ways	24	3.048	1.255
B14	Conversing in English	25	3.038	1.281
A2	Inserting new words in sentences	27	2.968	1.277
A8	Reviewing lessons	26	2.943	1.317
B10	Saying/writing words repeatedly	28	2.841	1.226
A3	Connecting sounds to pictures	29	2.803	1.335
F50	Learning about the target culture	30	2.803	1.383
B19	Using the native language	31	2.787	1.399
C24	Guessing	32	2.781	1.328
D35	Looking for English speakers	33	2.759	1.318
D34	Planning to study English	34	2.746	1.342
E42	Measuring nervous tension	35	2.721	1.539
C26	Creating new words	36	2.711	2.129
B17	Writing in English	37	2.696	1.301
F47	Practicing with peers	39	2.649	1.230
C27	Avoiding to check new words	40	2.644	1.343
B21	Dividing words in parts	41	2.559	1.330
E41	Rewarding oneself	42	2.546	1.387
C28	Guessing what comes next	43	2.540	1.211
B20	Looking for patterns	44	2.522	1.202
E44	Talking about how one feels	45	2.308	1.372
B23	Summarizing information	46	2.152	1.146
A7	Acting out new words	47	1.806	1.102
A6	Using flashcards	48	1.590	0.914
A5	Using rhymes	49	1.546	0.924
E43	Writing feelings on a diary	50	1.419	0.925
	OVERALL AVERAGE		3.061	

The overall average of 3.06 for the fifty items would indicate that Brazilian EFL learners as a group apparently usually use various strategies while learning EFL. The strategy this group of learners reported using the most is (F45) "asking for repetition or for the interlocutor to slow down when there are communication breakdowns" (M = 4.4; SD = 0.92). The second most widely used strategy is (D32) "paying attention when someone is speaking English" (M = 4.4; SD = 0.92). "Paraphrasing" (C29) is the third strategy in the order of preference (M = 4.3; SD = 0.94), followed by "thinking about one's mistakes to refine the linguistic forms" (D38), and "asking for correction while speaking" (F46).

On the other hand, a look at the ranking suggests a reluctance on the part of these learners as a group to use innovative techniques which have been known to promote fluency such as rhymes (A5), flashcards (A6), body movement to memorize words (A7), guessing to compensate lack of competency in English (C28), looking for patterns (B20), summarizing new information (B23), using language learning diaries (E43), and discussing one's feeling and anxieties about learning a language (E43). Form-oriented learning behaviors permeate the center of the ranking: "practicing the sounds of English" (B12), "using words in different ways" (B11), "saying/writing words repeatedly" (B10), or "using the native language" (B19).

Table 7 shows the percentages and raw number of students marking specific items as "always or usually true of me" (high frequency of use), "sometimes true of me" (moderate frequency of use), and "never or generally not true of me" (low frequency of use). Results reported by individual learners are equivalent to those reported by the group as a whole. More than half of the respondents (N > 157) marked strategies such as (F45)

TABLE 7

RESPONDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES (N = 315)

SILL ITEM	FREQUENCY OF USE						SILL ITEM	FREQUENCY OF USE					
	LOW		MODERATE		HIGH			LOW		MODERATE		HIGH	
	N	%	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%	N	%
A1 MEM	31	10.8	88	27.9	196	62.0	C26 COM	162	51.5	54	17.2	98	31.2
A2 MEM	122	39.0	82	26.0	111	35.2	C27 COM	153	48.5	63	20.0	99	31.4
A3 MEM	141	44.8	70	22.2	104	33.0	C28 COM	159	50.5	88	28.0	68	21.6
A4 MEM	63	20.0	74	23.5	178	56.5	C29 COM	18	5.7	35	11.1	262	83.1
A5 MEM	278	88.3	20	6.4	17	5.4	D30 MET	81	25.7	104	33.0	130	41.2
A6 MEM	267	85.0	30	9.5	18	5.71	D31 MET	35	11.1	68	21.6	212	67.3
A7 MEM	248	78.7	37	11.8	30	9.5	D32 MET	14	4.4	37	11.8	264	83.0
A8 MEM	120	38.0	84	27.0	111	35.2	D33 MET	60	19.0	70	22.2	185	59.0
A9 MEM	106	33.7	55	17.3	154	49.0	D34 MET	146	46.3	74	23.5	95	30.1
B10 COG	126	40.0	99	31.4	90	28.6	D35 MET	148	47.0	75	23.8	92	29.2
B11 COG	98	31.1	83	26.4	134	42.5	D36 MET	100	31.1	74	23.5	151	48.0
B12 COG	93	29.5	92	29.2	130	41.2	D37 MET	56	17.7	77	24.4	182	58.0
B13 COG	110	34.9	87	27.6	118	37.5	D38 MET	27	8.4	41	13.0	247	78.4
B14 COG	115	36.5	75	23.8	125	39.6	E39 AFF	69	22.0	56	17.8	190	60.0
B15 COG	58	18.4	62	19.6	195	62.0	E40 AFF	43	13.6	75	23.8	197	62.5
B16 COG	107	33.9	54	17.4	154	48.9	E41 AFF	168	53.3	60	19.0	87	27.6
B17 COG	153	48.6	66	21.0	96	30.5	E42 AFF	159	50.0	45	14.3	111	35.2
B18 COG	102	32.3	46	14.6	167	53.0	E43 AFF	285	90.0	12	3.8	18	5.7
B19 COG	140	44.4	70	22.2	105	33.3	E44 AFF	197	62.5	41	13.0	77	24.4
B20 COG	155	49.2	99	31.4	60	19.0	F45 SOC	18	5.7	24	7.6	273	87.0
B21 COG	164	52.0	64	20.3	87	27.6	F46 SOC	56	17.8	54	17.1	205	65.0
B22 COG	107	34.0	61	19.3	147	46.7	F47 SOC	149	47.3	90	28.5	76	24.1
B23 COG	209	66.3	60	19.0	46	15.0	F48 SOC	59	18.7	80	25.4	176	56.0
C24 COM	138	43.8	79	25.0	98	31.1	F49 SOC	62	19.6	54	17.4	199	63.1
C25 COM	107	34.0	73	23.1	135	42.8	F50 SOC	142	45.0	76	24.1	97	30.7

NOTE: Percentages may not add up to 100 due to rounding.

"asking for repetition," which was chosen by 86.7% of the respondents; (D32) "paying attention," which was chosen by 83.9% of the respondents; (C29) "paraphrasing," which was chosen by 83.1% of the respondents; (D38) "thinking about progress," which was chosen by 78.4% of the respondents; and (D31) "using mistakes to learn," which was chosen by 67.3% of the respondents, as "always or usually true of them". Furthermore, more than half of the respondents reported using strategies such as (E43) "writing feelings on a diary" (N = 285), (A5) "using rhymes" (N = 278), (A6) "using flashcards" (N = 267), (A7) "acting out new words" (N = 248), (B23) "summarizing information" (N = 209), and (E44) "talking about how one feels" (N = 197) with low frequency. Other results relative to learners as individuals were very similar to those reported by learners as a group. Table 8 displays the rank order of the strategies chosen by more than half of the sample as "always or usually true of me" (high frequency of use) and "never or generally not true of me" (low frequency of use).

TABLE 8

ITEMS MARKED AS "ALWAYS/USUALLY TRUE" AND "NEVER/ GENERALLY NOT TRUE" BY THE MAJORITY OF THE LEARNERS

N = 315

ALWAYS /USUALLY TRUE				NEVER/ GENERALLY NOT TRUE			
RANK	SILL ITEM	N	OVERALL %	RANK	SILL ITEM	N	OVERALL %
1	F45 SOC	273	86.7	50	E43 AFF	285	90.0
2	D32 MET	264	84.0	49	A5 MEM	278	88.3
3	C29 COM	262	83.1	48	A6 MEM	267	84.8
4	D38 MET	247	78.4	47	A7 MEM	248	78.7
5	D31 MET	212	67.3	46	B23 COG	209	66.3
6	F46 SOC	205	65.0	45	E44 AFF	197	62.5
7	F49 SOC	199	63.1	44	E41 AFF	168	53.3
8	E40 AFF	197	62.5	43	B21 COG	164	52.0
9	A1 MEM	196	62.0	42	C26 COM	162	51.4

TABLE 8 (Continued)

ALWAYS / USUALLY TRUE				NEVER / GENERALLY NOT TRUE			
RANK	SILL ITEM	N	OVERALL %	RANK	SILL ITEM	N	OVERALL %
10	B15 COG	195	61.9	41	C28 COM	159	50.5
11	E39 AFF	190	60.0	40	E42 AFF	159	50.5
12	D33 MET	185	58.7	39			
13	D37 MET	182	58.0				
14	A4 MEM	178	56.5				
15	F48 SOC	176	55.9				
16	B18 COG	167	53.0				

These Brazilian learners emerge as balanced strategy users with a greater tendency to use functional learning strategies or a tendency to learn by using the language in context as attested to by the sixteen first items in Table 6 and Table 8. Learners, both as a group and as individuals, strive to practice English realistically, and they seem to be aware of their learning process by focusing on their mistakes, paying attention whenever someone is speaking English, and looking for correction.

Summary of results by category of strategies

Data were further analyzed according to the groupings of strategies as reflected in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, as well as in the six different sections of the SILL. Figure 1 illustrates the learners' preferred learning behaviors by category of strategies: memory (A1-A9), cognitive (B10-B23), compensation (C24-C29), metacognitive (D30-D38), affective (E39-E44), and social strategies (F45-F50). Averages in each section tell which group of strategies students use most frequently on a scale from one to five, as a group. The overall average of strategy use across categories is also shown to allow for comparisons. It tells how often students, as a group, make use of strategies when learning English on a scale from one

to five as well. Metacognitive strategies (M = 3.54; SD = 0.80) ranked first among the most frequently used category, closely followed by social strategies (M = 3.49; SD = 0.72). The respondents then reported a moderate frequency of use of compensation strategies (M = 3.0; SD = 0.04), cognitive strategies (M= 2.96; SD = 0.61); affective strategies (M = 2.73; SD = 0.73); and memory strategies (M = 2.6; SD = 0.53).

Furthermore, the overall mean frequency of strategy use across categories was very systematic when compared to the mean frequencies of individual categories. The respondents as a group reported using all six types of strategy categories, with a slight tendency to use metacognitive and social strategies more frequently than other types, and with memory strategies being ranked as the least frequently used group of strategies.

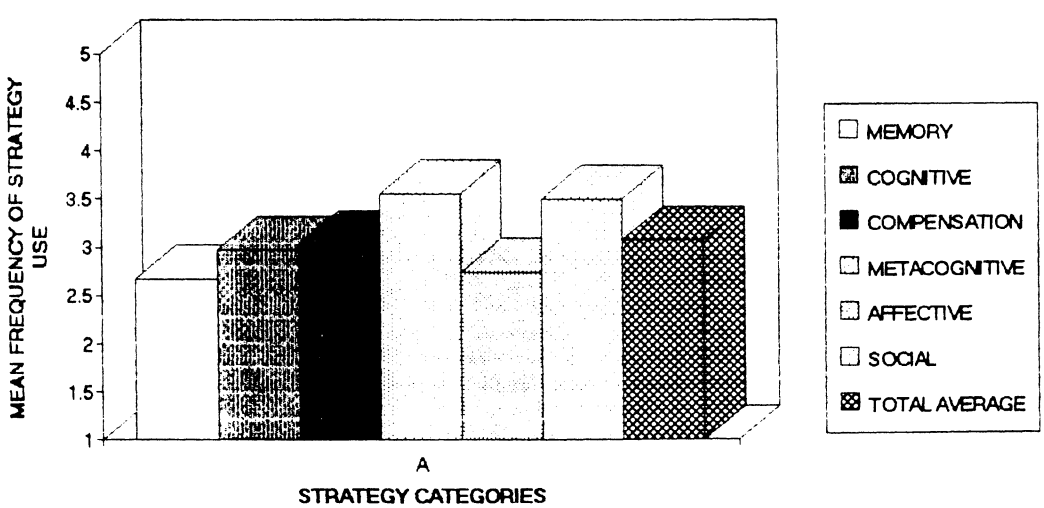

Figure 1. Subjects' preferred learning strategies by strategy category

Factors explaining the greatest amount of variance

To answer research question number three: Which underlying factors on the SILL explain the greatest amount of variance in the choice of strategies by Brazilian learners of English as a foreign language, factor analytic analyses were conducted using a four-factor Varimax rotation (eigenvalue > 1.0, loading of item ≥ .30). The four factors which emerged explained 32.6% of the variance in the choice of language learning strategies, and thoroughly supported the findings of descriptive statistical analyses. Table 9 displays the four factors, and the amount of variance accounted for by each one of them.

TABLE 9

SILL UNDERLYING FACTORS

Factor	Factor Name	% of variance
1	Realistic language practice and management strategies	13.2%
2	Control-confidence boosting strategies	7.0%
3	Self-directed strategies	7.4%
4	Compensatory strategies to overcome gaps in competence	5.0%
	Total variance explained	32.6%

Factor one, *realistic language practice and management strategies,* was the major component explaining the common variance on the SILL: It explained 13.2% of the variance. Some of the strategies which contributed most heavily to factor one were "look for people to talk in English" (D35), "seek ways to use English" (D30), "start conversations in English" (B14), "encourage self to speak" (E40), "paraphrasing when stuck for words"

(C29), and "practice English with other students" (F47). This factor is therefore characterized by strategies for engaging in effective oral language use. It also combined all the metacognitive strategies which put learners in control of their learning. Table 10 displays the items that loaded on factor one and their respective factor weights.

TABLE 10

FACTOR ONE STRATEGY BREAKDOWN

(explained 13.2% of the variance)

SILL ITEMS		FACTOR WEIGHT
D 35	Look for people to talk in English	.70
B 17	Write notes, etc. in English	.68
D 30	Seek many ways to use English	.68
B 14	Start conversations in English	.60
F47	Practice English with other students	.59
D 36	Seek opportunities to read in English	.57
B 16	Read for pleasure in English	.57
B 12	Practice sounds of English	.54
F 50	Try to develop cultural understanding	.53
F 49	Ask questions in English	.51
A 1	Associate new material with already known	.47
D 33	Try to find out about language learning	.47
D 37	Have clear goals for improving skills	.45
B 23	Make summaries of information	.42
B 22	Try not to translate word for word	.42
D 31	Notice my mistakes / try to learn	.41
B 11	Try to talk like native English speakers	.40
B 15	Watch TV or movies in English	.38
E 40	Encourage self to speak when afraid	.35
B 13	Use known words in different ways	.34
D 38	Think about progress in English	.32
C 29	Use circumlocutions or synonyms	.32
D 32	Pay attention when one speaks English	.30

Factor two, *control-confidence boosting strategies*, explained 7.05% of the variance, and included items such as "talk to someone about feelings when learning English"

(E44), "review English lessons often" (A8), "plan schedule to have enough time to study English" (D34), "record feelings in a learning diary" (E43), and "try to find out about language learning" (D33). These strategies help learners gain control over and confidence in their language skills as well as promote comprehension. The items that loaded on factor two and their factor weights are shown in Table 11.

TABLE 11

FACTOR TWO STRATEGY BREAKDOWN

(explained 7% of the variance)

SILL ITEMS		FACTOR WEIGHT
E 44	Talk to someone about feelings	.57
A 8	Review English lessons often	.54
D 34	Plan schedule to have enough time	.51
E 43	Record feelings in learning diary	.48
B 18	Skim, then read carefully	.43
B 10	Say or write new words several times	.40
C 27	{Read without looking up all new words}	-.40
B 23	Make summaries of information	.38
D 33	Try to find out about language learning	.37
A 2	Use new English words in sentences	.36
B 20	Try to find patterns	.31
F 46	Ask to be corrected when talking	.30

Strategies in factor three, *self-directed strategies*, emphasize learner autonomy and a reflective approach to learning. This factor explained 7.4% of the total variance, and included strategies such as "paying attention when someone speaks English" (D32), "asking other person to slow down or repeat" (F45), "noticing mistakes and trying to learn" (D31),

"asking to be corrected when talking" (F46), and "thinking about progress in learning" (D38). Table 12 shows the strategies which loaded on the factor and their factor weights.

TABLE 12

FACTOR THREE STRATEGY BREAKDOWN

(explained 7.3% of the variance)

SILL ITEMS		FACTOR WEIGHT
D32	Pay attention when someone speaks English	.67
F45	Ask other person to slow down or repeat	.61
D31	Notice my mistakes/ try to learn	.56
C29	Use circumlocutions or synonyms	.54
F46	Ask to be corrected when talking	.49
D38	Think about progress in learning	.44
D33	Try to find out about language learning	.43
D37	Have clear goals for improving skills	.38
E40	Encourage self to speak when afraid	.36
E39	Try to relax to speak English	.36
E43	{Record feelings in learning diary}	-.35
F48	Ask for help from English speakers	.33
A7	{Physically act out new words}	-32
A6	{Use flashcards to remember new words}	-30

Factor four, *compensatory strategies to overcome gaps in competence*, explained 5 % of the variance, and comprised strategies such as "seeking L1 words similar to L2 words" (B19), "guessing meanings of unfamiliar words" (C24), "trying to guess what other person will say" (C28), and "using gestures when stuck for words" (C26). These strategies enable learners to practice the language regardless of insufficient vocabulary or grammar knowledge. The items that loaded on factor three with respective factor weights are shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13

FACTOR FOUR STRATEGY BREAKDOWN

(explained 5% of the variance)

SILL ITEMS		FACTOR WEIGHT
B19	Seek L1 words similar to L2 words	.58
C24	Guess meaning of unfamiliar words	.52
C25	Use gestures when stuck for words	.45
A5	Use rhymes to remember new words	.45
B21	Find meanings dividing words into parts	.45
A7	Physically act out new words	.39
C26	Create new words in English	.36
C28	Try to guess what the other person will say	.34
A4	Connect word to mental picture of situation	.32
A3	Connect word sound with image or picture	.30

In brief, the respondents' answers to the questionnaire were explained by four common factors: realistic language practice and management strategies, control-boosting strategies, self-directed strategies, and compensation strategies. Realistic language practice and management strategies contributed more significantly to the total variance.

Variables affecting strategy use

This section examines the influence of individual characteristics (age, gender, and instructional approach)--the independent variables--on the choice of strategies. These variables were assessed by means of the background questionnaire. Comparison of mean frequencies and Pearson-Chi-square (χ^2) tests indicated that instructional approach had the greatest influence on the choice of language learning strategies, that gender and age also played a significant role in the reported use of strategies. In this investigation, highly significant probabilities ($p < 0.0001$) were common, indicating a very low likelihood that the

results could have occurred by chance. Each of the independent variables is examined below, relative to the six strategy categories. In addition, this study also reported findings related to self-perceived motivation and language learning experiences assessed by the background questionnaire.

Age

The effect of age on the choice of learning strategies was examined. For purposes of this analysis, 309 respondents (six learners did not report their ages) were divided into two age groups: Group 1 (N = 190; M = 14.28; SD = 1.22) and group 2 (N = 119; M = 26.95; SD = 8.98). Their ages ranged from 11 to 16 for Group 1, and from 17 to 51 for Group 2. The two age groups were designed to compare teenagers (group 1) with adults (group 2) with regard to their choice of language learning strategies. The differences between the groups were not statistically significant for category A (memory strategies) and category E (affective strategies), as shown in Table 14. Both groups, teenagers and adults, reported a moderate to medium use of these three strategy categories ($2.5 \leq M \leq 3.0$). Specifically, these strategies are sometimes used by both teenagers and adults.

TABLE 14

NO SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRATEGY USE AND AGE
($p > 0.05$)

CATEGORY	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		OBSERVED χ^2
	OVERALL USE		OVERALL USE		
	M	SD	M	SD	
MEMORY	2.61	0.52	2.76	0.54	25.084
COMPENSATION	3.01	0.66	3.01	0.68	20.087
AFFECTIVE	2.67	0.72	2.80	0.75	17.812

NOTE: Chi-square (χ^2) values were computed on frequencies

As to the other categories, the two groups differed highly significantly in their choice for metacognitive ($p < 0.01$) and social strategies ($p < 0.0001$), and significantly ($p < 0.05$) for cognitive strategies as shown in Table 15. These categories of strategies showed very high Chi-squares (χ^2). Brazilian adults seem to use metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies more frequently than teenagers.

TABLE 15

POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STRATEGY USE AND AGE

($p < 0.05$)

CATEGORY	GROUP 1		GROUP 2		OBSERVED χ^2
	OVERALL USE		OVERALL USE		
	M	SD	M	SD	
METACOGNITIVE	3.36	0.81	3.80	0.71	52.136
COGNITIVE	2.90	0.60	3.05	0.60	52.922
SOCIAL	3.37	0.71	3.66	0.70	48.218

NOTE: Chi-square (χ^2) values were computed on frequencies.

Figure 2 reflects these results where (A) stands for memory strategies, (B) for cognitive strategies, (C) for compensation strategies, (D) for metacognitive strategies, (E) for affective strategies, and (F) for social strategies.

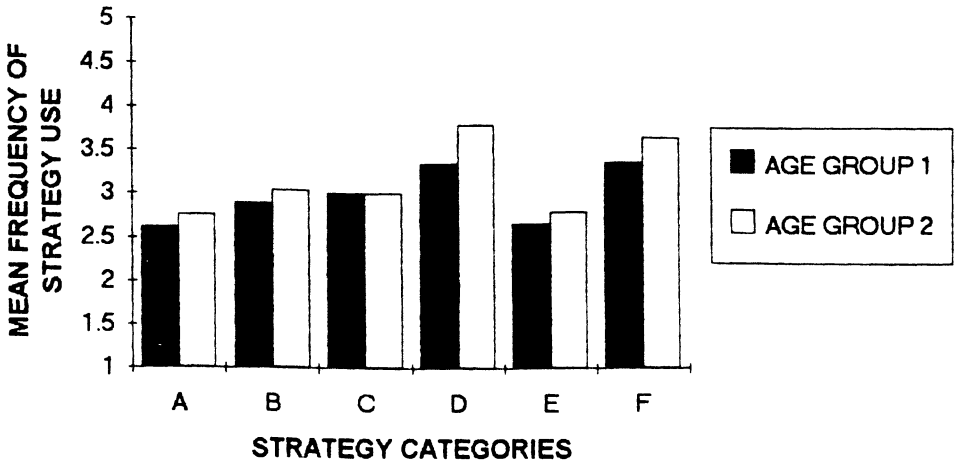

Figure 2. Categories of learning strategies by age

Gender

The data were also analyzed to determine whether there were any significant differences between males and females in their choice of strategies. For this purpose, males were coded Group 1 (N = 128), and females Group 2 (N = 186). One subject did not report gender. The respondents' background profiles by gender are reported in Table 16. Subjects in both groups seem to have some experience in learning languages: A majority reported having learned at least one other language (76.5% of the females and 81.1% of the males) as well as having a good overall English proficiency (71.8% of the females and 74.1% of the males). The group had a mean age of (a) 19.8 years in the case of males; and (b) 18.64 years in the case of females. As for motivation, a slightly greater percentage of females reported considering English learning very important (76.3% of the females contrasted with 68.7% of the males) and enjoying language learning (95.6% of the females compared with 82% of the males).

TABLE 16

BACKGROUND PROFILE BY GENDER

REPORTED INFORMATION	MALES (N = 128)		FEMALES (N = 186)	
	N	%	N	%
GOOD ENGLISH PROFICIENCY	92	71.8	138	74.1
VERY IMPORTANT TO LEARN ENGLISH	88	68.7	142	76.3
ENJOY LEARNING THE LANGUAGE	105	82.0	178	95.6
LEARNED OTHER LANGUAGES	98	76.5	151	81.1
	M	SD	M	SD
AGE	19.8	8.76	18.64	7.90

Though males and females seem to have similar profiles, their language learning behaviors seem to be very different. All 50 items on the SILL yielded very high Chi-squares values, as well as highly significant confidence levels ($p < 0.0001$). The same is true of strategy categories. In other words, males and females in the sample reported different frequencies of strategy use when learning English as a foreign language. For example, females reported significantly more frequent use ($M = 4.54$; $SD = 0.76$) of the strategy "asking people to repeat or slow down" (F45), a social strategy, as well as expressed the desire to be corrected while talking (F46; $M = 3.91$; $SD = 1.15$) more frequently than males ($M = 4.17$; $SD = 1.08$ for F45; and $M = 3.58$; $SD = 1.33$ for F46). A look at the rankings and frequency differences displayed in Table 17 revealed that females reported high to moderate frequency of usage of 35 strategies. The rankings also suggest that females used more than half of the items on the SILL more frequently than males. Males, for their part, reported interest in "watching movies to learn English" (B15) as well as in "asking questions to learn" (F49) more than females did ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 1.27$ in the case of females; and

M = 3.75; SD = 1.27 in the case of males). They reported high to moderate frequency of use of 25 strategies, but their frequencies were significantly lower than those reported by females. In only 15 items on the SILL did they report higher frequency of strategy use than females did, and very surprisingly these strategies are predominantly affective, when females are the ones traditionally noted for their affective tendencies in our society.

The five strategies most frequently used by females were "ask the other person to slow down or repeat" (F45); "pay attention when someone is speaking English" (D32), "think about progress in learning" (D38), "use circumlocution or synonyms" (C29) and "notice mistakes and try to learn" (D31). "Notice mistakes and try to learn" (D31) maintained its ranking (5), though with a lower frequency, in the case of males whose five more frequently used strategies were basically the same as those of females, but with a different rank order and lower frequency. Table 17 summarizes findings related to gender and strategy use. The mean frequencies of females (group A) and males (group B) are listed, as well as the Pearson-Chi-square (χ^2) values relative to the differences. All items yielded high significance levels ($p < 0.0001$). In addition, the table also provides the rank order of the items according to the reported frequencies of males and females in the sample. An asterisk indicates the strategies most used by males.

Both gender groups (males and females) seem to agree as to the least used strategies: (E43) "record feelings in learning diary" (one of the two strategies in which females reported a lower frequency of use than males), (B23) "make summaries of information," (another strategy in which females reported a lower frequency than males), (A7) "physically act out new words," "use rhymes to remember new words," and (C29) "use flashcards to remember new words."

TABLE 17
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY GENDER
critical value of Chi-square ($\chi 2$) = 29.588 (df = 10), $p < 0.0001$

SILL	ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FEMALES (N = 186) OVERALL USE M	SD	RANK	MALES (N = 128) OVERALL USE M	SD	RANK	OBSERVED χ^2
A1	MEM	Associate new material w/ already known	3.81	1.01	7	3.68	1.05	9	159.817
A2	MEM	Use new English words in sentences	3.04	1.26	24	2.85	1.29	26	164.825
A3	MEM	Connect word sound w/ image or picture	2.93	1.33	27	2.61	1.32	35	162.574
A4	MEM	Connect word to mental picture of situation	3.52	1.17	14	3.44	1.15	14	162.805
A5	MEM	Use rhymes to remember new words	1.57	0.91	44	1.50	0.93	46	161.342
A6	MEM	* Use flashcards to remember new words	1.53	0.79	45	1.68	1.06	45	115.992
A7	MEM	* Physically act out new words	1.76	1.06	43	1.85	1.16	44	162.343
A8	MEM	Review English lessons often	3.02	1.31	25	2.81	1.32	28	160.660
A9	MEM	Connect words and location on page, etc.	3.33	1.29	16	2.92	1.36	25	166.100
B10	COG	Say or write new words several times	2.96	1.19	26	2.64	1.24	34	163.746
B11	COG	Try to talk like native English speakers	3.19	1.32	19	3.14	1.45	21	164.080
B12	COG	Practice sounds of English	3.19	1.18	19	3.18	1.34	19	110.707
B13	COG	Use known words in different ways	3.08	1.21	23	3.00	1.31	24	160.892
B14	COG	*Start conversations in English	2.96	1.26	26	3.14	1.30	21	161.749
B15	COG	* Watch TV or movies in English	3.71	1.27	12	3.75	1.27	7	159.920
B16	COG	Read for pleasure in English	3.38	1.39	20	3.17	1.46	20	165.253
B17	COG	Write notes, etc. in English	2.86	1.30	30	2.44	1.26	41	169.093
B18	COG	Skim, then read carefully	3.46	1.32	22	3.12	1.51	22	167.100
B19	COG	Seek L1 words similar to L2 words	2.92	1.42	28	2.58	1.35	37	164.559
B20	COG	Try to find patterns	2.54	1.14	38	2.49	1.29	40	111.918
B21	COG	Find meanings by dividing words into parts	2.58	1.34	36	2.53	1.31	39	107.191
B22	COG	* Try not to translate word-for-word	3.16	1.40	21	3.24	1.14	18	164.971
B23	COG	Make summaries of information	2.21	1.12	42	2.07	1.17	43	109.209
C24	COM	Guess meaning of unfamiliar words	2.81	1.30	32	2.73	1.37	32	159.759
C25	COM	Use gestures when stuck for words	3.28	1.22	17	3.06	1.30	23	164.990
C26	COM	Create new words in English	2.79	2.49	33	2.60	1.45	36	166.446
C27	COM	* Read w/o looking up all new words	2.57	1.34	37	2.75	1.34	31	162.499

*Reported strategies most frequently used by males

TABLE 17 (Continued)

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY GENDER
critical value of Chi-square ($\chi 2$) = 29.588 (df = 10), $p < 0.0001$

SILL	ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FEMALES (N = 186) OVERALL USE M	SD	RANK	MALES (N = 128) OVERALL USE M	SD	RANK	OBSERVED χ^2
C28	COM	* Try to guess what other person will say	2.46	1.16	40	2.64	1.26	34	109.295
C29	COM	Use circumlocutions or synonyms	4.35	0.88	4	4.19	1.02	2	166.232
D30	MET	Seek many ways to use English	3.36	1.16	15	3.35	1.22	16	160.062
D31	MET	Notice my mistakes / try to learn	3.957	1.02	5	3.76	1.14	6	108.353
D32	MET	Pay attention when one speaks English	4.44	0.83	2	4.21	1.01	1	171.102
D33	MET	Try to find out about lang. learning	3.74	1.22	10	3.59	1.28	10	159.374
D34	MET	Plan schedule to have enough time	3.288	1.30	29	2.56	1.37	38	167.469
D35	MET	* Look for people to talk to in English	2.72	1.31	34	2.82	1.32	27	160.821
D36	MET	* Seek opportunities to read in English	3.21	1.19	18	3.28	1.37	17	166.686
D37	MET	Have clear goals for improving skills	3.77	1.19	8	3.53	1.35	12	163.113
D38	MET	Think about progress in learning	4.36	0.93	3	3.97	1.21	4	168.488
E39	AFF	Try to relax to speak English	3.74	1.24	0	3.49	1.43	13	165.746
E40	AFF	* Encourage self to speak when afraid	3.76	1.14	9	3.80	1.11	5	165.248
E41	AFF	* Give self reward for doing well	2.47	1.41	39	2.66	1.34	33	161.518
E42	AFF	* Notice nervous tension when learning	2.26	1.53	5	2.78	1.55	39	158.852
E43	AFF	* Record feelings in learning diary	1.37	0.86	46	1.49	1.01	47	159.786
E44	AFF	* Talk to someone about feelings	2.25	1.33	41	2.36	1.42	42	168.100
F45	AFF	Ask the other person to slow down or repeat	4.54	0.76	1	4.17	1.08	3	174.624
F46	AFF	Ask to be corrected when talking	3.91	1.15	6	3.58	1.33	11	114.257
F47	AFF	Practice English with other students	2.79	1.24	33	2.49	1.20	40	165.925
F48	AFF	Ask for help from English speakers	3.72	1.22	11	3.42	1.22	15	166.143
F49	AFF	* Ask questions in English	3.65	1.20	13	3.76	1.21	8	161.135
F50	AFF	Try to develop cultural understanding	2.82	1.29	31	2.76	1.50	30	173.243

NOTE: Chi-square ($\chi 2$) values for Table 17 were computed on frequencies.

Figure 3 illustrates the patterns of learning behaviors of males and females in all 50 items of the SILL. Their behaviors follow the same patterns or trends, but that the frequencies are different.

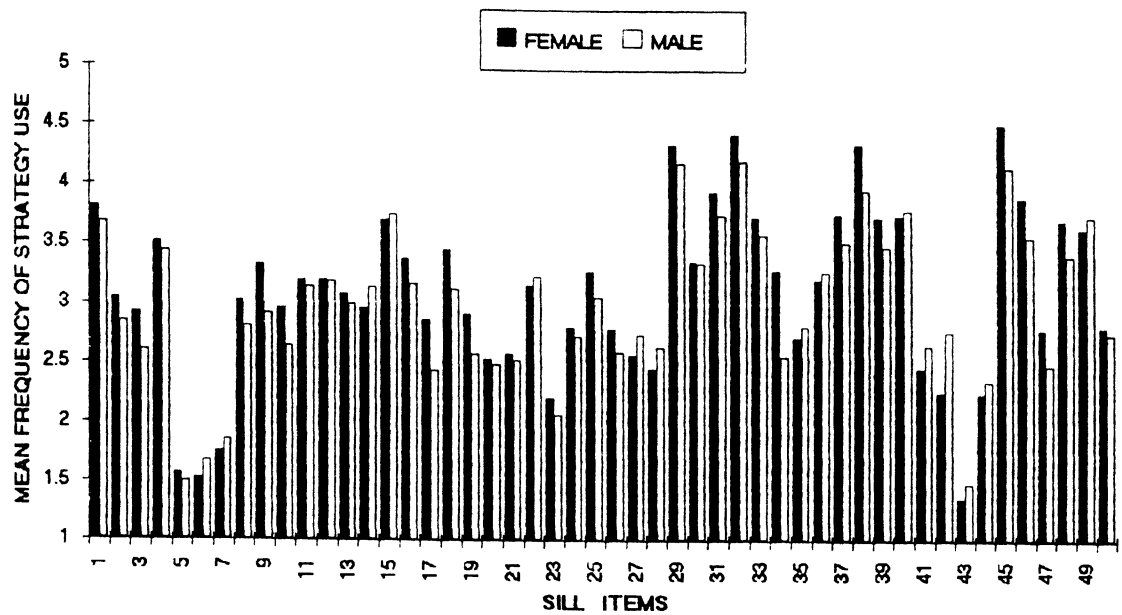

Figure 3. Females' and males' mean frequencies of strategy use

In general, males and females emerged as metacognitive and social learners, reflecting the preference of the group as a whole. Their preferences by category of strategies are displayed in Figure 4. The mean frequencies of use across categories of strategies were slightly different, but statistically significant, yielding high confidence levels as well as

Pearson-Chi-square (χ^2) values. Category A (χ^2 = 188.128; df 56; p< 0.0001) stands for memory strategies; category B (χ^2 = 22.7.059; df = 88; p < 0.0001) stands for cognitive strategies; category C (χ^2 = 189.286; df = 48; p < 0.0001) stands for compensation strategies; category D (χ^2 = 211.924; df = 64; p < 0.0001) stands for metacognitive strategies; category E (χ^2 = 188.508; df = 48; p< 0.0001) represents affective strategies; and category F (χ^2 = 184.860; df = 46; p< 0.0001) represents social strategies.

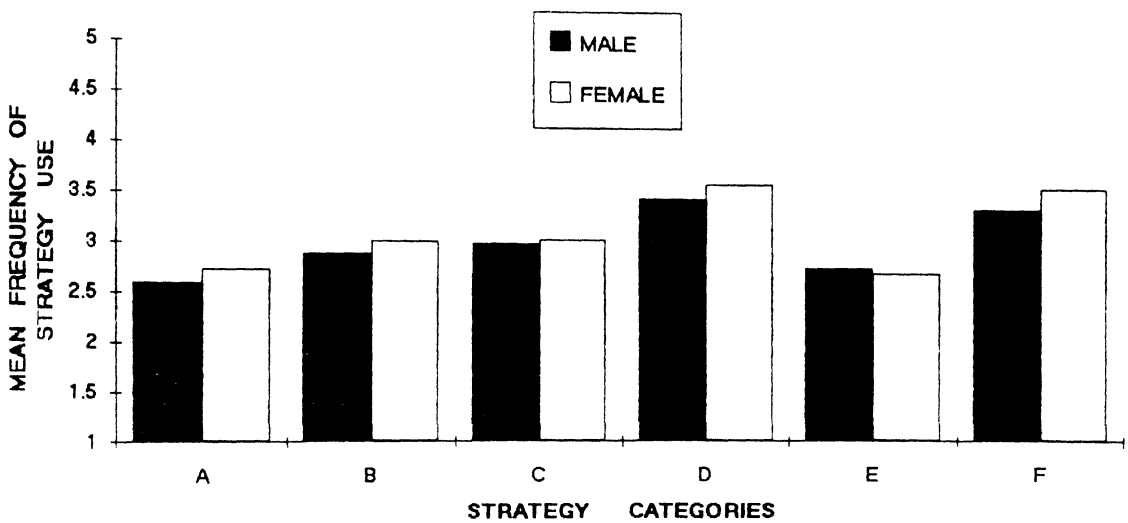

Figure 4. Categories of learning strategies by gender

Instructional approach

Data obtained from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning were also used to find out if there were any significant differences in terms of use of language learning strategies between the groups varying in the instructional approach used at the English language

institutes the participants were enrolled in. In doing so, the sample was divided into three groups: group A, B and C, according to the three language institutes in which the survey was conducted. Their instructional approaches have been described in Chapter III under the environment section. A note is in order relative to the validity of results reported by group B: Because of the small size of the sample (N = 32), the results reported for this group must be viewed with caution.

Commonalities in the profile of these three groups include the frequency of classes (classes are predominantly held twice a week for one and one-and-a-half hours) and are taught by teachers highly proficient in the English language. The majority of these teachers had spent time abroad (either in the United States or England) improving their language skills. Some hold college degrees in addition to the normally required teachers' training course (TTC) certificate and certificate of proficiency in English.

Chi-square statistical tests were conducted to examine how different the frequencies were in each item on the SILL as well as in the six major strategy categories among the three groups. Like other studies, this one showed that the instructional approach has a strong effect on the selection of language learning strategies, the most significant found by this study. Table 18 displays the mean frequencies of strategy use, SD's, rank relative to mean frequencies of use among the three groups (A, B, and C) and Pearson Chi-square values (χ^2) for each item of the SILL.

In comparing the mean frequencies of the three groups, Group A, for example, reported using strategies such as (C24) "guessing for meaning" (M=2.97; SD=1.36) more frequently than the other two groups (M=2.59; SD=1.16 for group B, and M=2.49; SD=1.25 for group C), and was second in terms of frequency of reported strategy use in SILL items

TABLE 18 (Continued)

SILL ITEM DESCRIPTION		GROUP A (N = 181)			GROUP B (N = 32)			GROUP C (N = 102)			OBSERVED
		OVERALL USE			OVERALL USE			OVERALL USE			χ^2
		M	SD	RANK	M	SD	RANK	M	SD	RANK	
C26 COM	Create new words in English	2.76	1.45	2	3.21	5.21	1	2.45	1.35	3	332.561
C27 COM	Read w/o looking up all new words	2.81	1.37	2	2.87	1.26	1	2.26	1.24	3	330.226
C28 COM	Try to guess what comes next	2.58	1.18	1	2.37	1.26	3	2.51	1.24	2	212.706
C29 COM	Use circumlocutions or synonyms	4.19	1.03	3	4.46	0.67	1	4.40	0.82	2	324.386
D30 MET	Seek many ways to use English	3.28	1.16	2	3.12	1.12	3	3.54	1.23	1	322.282
D31 MET	Notice my mistakes/try to learn	3.67	1.15	3	3.93	0.84	2	4.22	0.88	1	236.862
D32 MET	Pay attention when one speaks	4.21	0.99	3	4.62	0.55	1	4.51	0.82	2	328.310
D33 MET	Try to find out about language learning	3.38	1.28	3	4.25	0.91	1	4.03	1.13	2	342.528
D34 MET	Plan schedule to have enough time	2.39	1.27	3	2.93	1.34	2	3.31	1.25	1	350.201
D35 MET	Look for people to talk to in English	2.55	1.26	3	3.06	1.45	1	3.02	1.30	2	330.641
D36 MET	Seek opportunities to read in English	2.95	1.28	3	3.68	0.96	1	3.62	1.19	2	343.494
D37 MET	Have clear goals for improving skills	3.51	1.30	3	3.81	1.12	2	3.94	1.20	1	325.879
D38 MET	Think about progress in learning	3.93	1.17	3	4.53	0.67	2	4.57	0.83	1	353.340
D39 AFF	Try to relax to speak English	3.68	1.30	1	3.50	1.39	3	3.61	1.35	2	325.490
E40 AFF	Encourage self to speak when afraid	3.60	1.19	3	4.0	0.91	2	4.02	1.02	1	335.730
E41 AFF	Give self reward for doing well	2.47	1.34	2	2.15	1.37	3	2.79	1.43	1	327.217
E42 AFF	Notice nervous tension when learning	2.60	1.52	3	2.78	1.5	2	2.91	1.55	1	326.031
E 43 AFF	Record feelings in learning diary	1.44	0.97	1	1.18	0.47	2	1.44	0.93	1	318.352
E44 AFF	Talk to someone about feelings	2.01	1.24	3	3.06	1.41	1	2.58	1.44	2	318.352
F45 AFF	Ask other person to slow down/repeat	4.20	1.05	3	4.59	0.61	2	4.65	0.63	1	336.080
F46 AFF	Ask to be corrected when talking	3.60	1.27	3	4.31	0.89	1	3.94	1.20	2	223.688
F47 AFF	Practice English with other students	2.53	1.21	3	2.65	1.26	2	2.92	1.22	1	326.444
F48 AFF	Ask for help from English speakers	3.44	1.24	3	3.78	1.07	2	3.83	1.24	1	327.318
F49 AFF	Ask questions in English	3.66	1.21	2	3.46	1.13	3	3.82	1.21	1	325.092
F50 AFF	Try to develop cultural understanding	2.69	1.34	2	2.43	1.24	3	3.10	1.44	1	329.753

NOTE: Chi-square (χ^2) values were computed on frequencies

TABLE 18

LEARNING STRATEGIES RELATIVE TO INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH

Critical value of Chi-square (χ^2) = 37.697 (df = 15), $p < 0.0001$

SILL ITEM DESCRIPTION	GROUP A (N = 181)			GROUP B (N = 32)			GROUP C (N = 102)			OBSERVED
	OVERALL USE			OVERALL USE			OVERALL USE			χ^2
	M	SD	RANK	M	SD	RANK	M	SD	RANK	
A1 MEM Associate new to old information	3.64	1.05	3	3.84	0.95	2	3.94	0.98	1	322.125
A2 MEM Use new English words in sentences	2.84	1.23	3	3.32	1.14	1	3.07	1.36	2	327.788
A3 MEM Connect word sound to image	2.70	1.29	2	2.62	1.20	3	3.03	1.36	1	330.331
A4 MEM Connect word to mental picture	3.29	1.17	2	3.15	1.16	3	3.94	1.01	1	345.696
A5 MEM Use rhymes to remember new words	1.58	0.96	1	1.50	0.71	2	1.50	0.90	2	320.861
A6 MEM Use flashcards to remember new words	1.61	0.95	1	1.46	0.80	3	1.57	0.88	2	211.508
A7 MEM Physically act out new words	1.73	1.01	3	1.75	1.21	2	1.95	1.20	1	325.897
A8 MEM Review English lessons often	2.63	1.32	3	3.43	1.26	1	3.34	1.17	2	344.715
A9 MEM Connect words and location on page	3.00	1.29	3	3.18	1.20	2	3.45	1.40	1	334.268
B10 COG Say or write new words several times	2.65	1.20	3	3.21	1.21	1	3.05	1.21	2	332.366
B11 COG Try to talk like native Engl. speakers	3.01	1.29	3	3.34	1.47	2	3.41	1.47	1	336.369
B12 COG Practice the sounds of English	2.97	1.26	3	3.68	1.03	1	3.42	1.18	2	231.594
B13 COG Use known words in different ways	3.00	1.28	3	3.31	1.09	1	3.03	1.25	2	321.628
B14 COG Start conversations in English	3.03	1.26	2	2.90	1.22	3	3.07	1.33	1	319.908
B15 COG Watch TV or movies in English	3.76	1.26	1	3.46	1.36	3	3.72	1.25	1	326.462
B16 COG Read for pleasure in English	3.00	1.41	3	3.31	1.44	2	3.83	1.29	1	342.242
B17 COG Write notes, etc. in English	2.56	1.29	3	2.62	1.18	2	2.93	1.32	1	323.211
B18 COG Skim, then read carefully	3.11	1.44	3	4.00	1.13	1	3.50	1.33	2	324.341
B19 COG Seek L1 words similar to L2 words	2.75	1.40	3	2.93	1.34	1	2.79	1.41	2	323.098
B20 COG Try to find patterns	2.39	1.17	3	3.18	1.30	1	2.53	1.15	2	332.729
B21 COG Find meanings dividing words in parts	2.60	1,38	2	2.75	1.07	1	2.42	1.29	3	221.479
B22 COG Try not to translate word-for-word	3.05	1.42	3	3.40	1.16	1	3.39	1.14	2	327.288
B23 COG Make summaries of information	2.14	1.19	2	2.34	1.20	1	2.09	1.03	3	220.810
C24 COM Guess meaning of unfamiliar words	2.97	1.36	1	2.59	1.16	2	2.49	1.25	3	332.985
C25 COM Use gestures when stuck for words	3.12	1.23	3	3.15	1.11	2	3.32	1.32	1	322.661

such as (A4) "connect word to mental picture" (M=3.29; SD=1.17), (C26) "create new words in English" (M=2.76; SD=1.45), and (C27) "read without looking up all new words" (M=2.81; SD=1.37). Among the strategies which group A used less frequently than the other two groups are (D33) "trying to find out about language learning" (M=3.38; SD=1.28), (D34) "planning for time to study English" (M=2.39; SD=1.27), (A9) "connecting words and location on page" (M=3.0; SD-1.29), (B11) "trying to talk like native English speakers" (3.01; SD=1.29), (B20) "finding patterns" (M=2.39; SD=1.17), and (A8) "reviewing lessons" (M=2.63; SD=1.32).

Participants in Group B, for their part, reported using strategies such as (A8) "reviewing lessons" (M=3.43; SD=1.26), (B20) "finding patterns" (M=3.18; SD=1.30), (D36) "seeking opportunities to read in English" (M=3.68; SD=0.96), (D33) "finding out about language learning" (M=4.25; SD=0.91), (C26) "creating new words in English" (M=3.21; SD=5.21), and (C27) "reading without looking up all new words" (M=2.87; SD=1.26) more frequently than the other two groups. Group B was second in regard to frequency of reported strategy use on SILL items such as (D34) "plan schedule to have enough time" (M=2.93; SD=1.34), (D38) "think about progress in English" (M=4.53; SD=0.67), (B11) "try to talk like a native speaker" (M=3.34; SD=1.47), (B16) "read for pleasure in English" (M=3.31; SD=1.44), and (C24) "guess meaning of unfamiliar words" (M=2.59; SD=1.16). The strategies Group B used the least are (A3) "connecting word sound to image" (M=2.62; SD=1.20), and (A4) "connecting word to mental picture" (M=3.29; SD=1.17).

As for Group C, the strategies participants reported using most frequently are (A3) "connect word sound to image" (M=3.03; SD=1.36), (A4) "connect word to mental picture"

(M=3.94; SD=1.01), (A9) "connect words and location on page" (M=3.45; SD=1.40), (B11) "try to talk like native English speakers" (M=3.41; SD=1.47), (B16) "read for pleasure in English" (M=3.83; SD=1.29), (D34) "plan schedule to have enough time" (M=3.31; SD=1.25), and (D38) "think about progress in learning" (M=4.57; SD=0.83). Group C was second relative to frequency of reported strategy use on SILL items such as (A8) "review English lessons often" (M=3.34; SD=1.17), (B10) "say or write new words several times" (M=3.05; SD=1.21), (B20) "try to find patterns" (M=2.53; SD=1.15), (D33) "try to find out about language learning" (M=4.03; SD=1.13), and (D36) "seek opportunities to read in English" (M=3.62; SD=1.19). Among the strategies group C used the least were (C27) "reading without looking up all new words" (2.26; SD=1.24), (C26) "creating new words in English" (M=2.45; SD=1.35), and (C24) "guessing meaning of unfamiliar words" (M=2.49; SD=1.25).

The six major categories of strategies were also examined relative to the instructional approach. Results were similar to those for individual SILL items, yielding high Chi-square (χ^2) values and very significant levels of probability ($p < 0.0001$). Figure 5 displays the learning strategy categories reported by the respondents relative to instructional approach. Respondents from institute A, except for compensation strategies in which they ranked second in terms of frequency of strategy use, used strategies in all categories less frequently than the other two groups. These are the results for institute A by category: memory strategies (M=2.56; SD=0.50); cognitive strategies (M=2.86; SD=0.50); compensation strategies (M=3.07; SD=0.71); Metacognitive strategies (M=3.32; SD=0.80); memory strategies (M=2.63; SD=0.74); and social strategies (M=3.35; SD=0.71).

Respondents from institute B reported greater use of cognitive, compensation, and social strategies than the other two groups. These are the results for institute B by category: memory strategies (M=2.69; SD=0.49); cognitive strategies (M=3.17; SD=0.58); compensation strategies (M=3.11; SD=1.04); metacognitive strategies (M=3.77; SD=0.63); affective strategies (M=4.16; SD=0.68); and social strategies (M=4.83; SD= 3.54). Respondents from institute C reported use of metacognitive (M=3.84; SD=0.72), and memory strategies (M=2.86; SD=0.55), in that order, the most frequently. Other results include cognitive (M=3.08; SD=0.62); compensation (M=2.90; SD=0.60); affective (M=2.89; SD=0.70) and social (M=3.71; SD=0.71) strategies, in which it ranked second. Figure 5 displays the learning strategy categories reported by the respondents relative to the instructional approach.

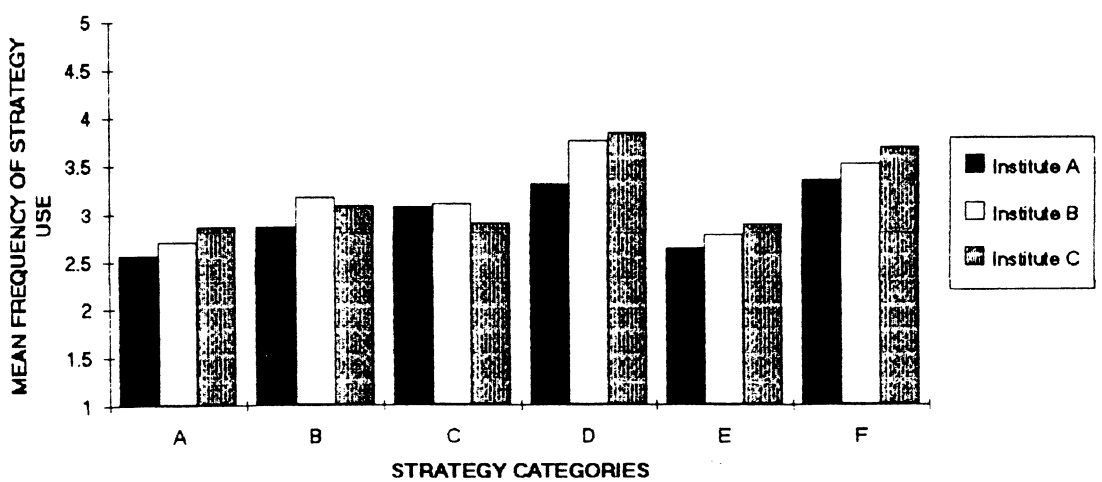

Figure 5. Language learning strategies relative to the instructional approach

Summary of findings and discussion

Summary. In this study, the overall patterns of strategies of Brazilians learning English as a foreign language were examined, as well as the influence of variables such as age, gender, and instructional approach. Brazilians seem to be balanced strategy users when learning English as a foreign language with a greater tendency to learn by using the language in context, realistically. Metacognitive and social strategies (in that order) were reported to be more frequently used. The particular strategy the respondents reported using the most was "asking for repetition" (F45), followed by "paying attention" (D32), "using circumlocutions and synonyms" (C29), and "thinking about progress" (D38). Four underlying factors were indicated by factor analyses, explaining 32.6% of the variance on the respondents' answers to the self-reported questionnaire. The factor that explained the greatest amount of variance (13.2%) was realistic language practice and language learning management strategies. The least used strategies were memory and affective strategies, in that order. Age, gender, and instructional approach were found to be significantly associated with the choice of learning strategies by respondents in this sample, the instructional approach exerting the highest influence of all. Females reported higher frequency of use across strategy categories in 34 of the SILL items, demonstrating greater tendency to choose among strategies that foster functional practice as well as among those that manipulate the language analytically. Adults seemed to prefer more complex strategies, i.e., metacognitive and social strategies, while both age groups, teenagers and adults, seemed to choose less cognitively demanding strategies, i.e., affective and memory strategies, equally.

Discussion. These findings are consistent with the environment in which respondents live, learn, and work. As noted earlier, English is regarded as an international

language in Brazil. It is the official "foreign language" at national language policy level and the language of commerce. People who know English, even if they are not as well educated as others, have good job opportunities and have a better chance to advance in their professional careers. These strong environmental stimuli to learn English were also reflected in the respondents' answers to the background questionnaire. A majority of the participants indicated professional reasons for wanting to study English. Therefore, it was expected that functional practice would show as their preferred way of learning. Knowing how to function in English in Brazil has become synonymous with success, and Brazilian learners of English as a foreign language apparently draw on all the available tools to do so, given the restrictions of foreign language instruction.

Furthermore, these findings seem to confirm those of Willing (1988) when analyzing learning modes most preferred by the five ethnic groups in his sample. Willing's mixed group of South Americans, among whom Brazilians are included, favored some of the same strategies chosen by Brazilian learners in this study as their preferred ways of learning. That is learning from mistakes and learning by engaging in social interaction.

The least used strategies (memory-affective strategies) are probably related to the effect of instruction and, ultimately, of the base-learning culture. The majority of the memory-affective strategies are not modeled nor nurtured by the Brazilian educational system and the general learning environment as reflected in the responses of students in this sample. My own personal experience as a Brazilian as well as an English as a foreign language learner and teacher provides evidence for the low frequency of use of some of these strategies such as the use of flashcards and learning diaries. There has not been much time since I first heard of flashcards and their application to the language classroom. The same holds true of learning

diaries. It seems that these techniques would build upon the respondents' repertoire of learning strategies, adding to the learning tools they already bring into the language learning experience.

Only occasionally respondents reported drawing on strategies which manipulate the language cognitively, suggesting that they consider these strategies a support, and not an end, keeping their focus on oral, communicative practice.

As to the four factors indicated by factor analysis, factor one, "realistic language practice and management strategies," met the learners' needs to function in English in the Brazilian foreign language environment. Respondents in the sample seem to seek opportunities to practice English, asking to be corrected, and using conversational strategies to elicit input. The strategies which loaded on the other three factors ("control-confidence boosting strategies," "self-directed strategies" and "compensatory strategies to overcome gaps in competence") seem to function as support or guarantee to learners' communicative interests revealed by factor one.

Also, strategies present in factor one when compared to results found in the analyses of variables affecting strategy choice would suggest this factor is related to age, gender, and the instructional approach used by a given institute. Of the items present in factor one 14 were used more frequently by females, suggesting that the factor is gender related. Furthermore, except for two affective strategies, and one memory strategy, all other strategies were reported to be most frequently used by adults.

Findings related to age lent support to the few studies which have explored the effect of age on choice of language learning strategies (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989). Adults seem to prefer more complex strategies (such as those in factor one). This is understandable, given

their maturity and cognitive development. On the other hand, both teenagers and adults seem to equally draw upon compensation, memory and affective strategies. These strategies are less cognitively demanding and allow respondents in both age groups to easily join social groups of native speakers, giving them instant feedback of success as far as communication is concerned. In addition, the interaction of age with motivation is an important factor to be considered given the strong instrumental motivation of the group. In other words, the choice of learning strategies might be related to motivation, not age, because teenagers tend to be less instrumentally motivated than adults. The interaction between motivation and age on the choice of strategies also needs to be examined.

Results by gender revealed females to be more likely than males to report using individual strategies in all six categories more frequently. Memory and affective strategies, the least frequently reported strategies by the group as a whole, are the only ones which show males reporting a higher frequency of use than females, a fact that goes against the popular stereotyped image of the Latin "macho man." Males in this sample reported drawing on affective strategies, and more than females did. It is also interesting to note that males reported watching movies and/or TV in English more frequently than females, a tendency that, similar to Green and Oxford's (1993) interpretation of the same evidence found when investigating the patterns of learning strategies of Puerto Rican language learners, is probably due to the fact that cable TV programs in Brazil meet the preferences of males, covering mostly sports, news, and music, while Brazilian television networks are internationally known for their popular *novelas* or soap operas, the favorites of the female population. In addition, findings concerning females highest frequency of use of help-seeking strategies (social) and realistic language practice strategies confirm the sparse findings of research on language

learning strategies as related to gender. Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Green and Oxford (1993), Politzer (1983), and Ehrman and Oxford (1989) have found similar results in their studies. This difference between males and females might be associated with women's stronger social orientation and greater need for approval in our society according to work developed by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) on gender differences. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also mentioned women's stronger verbal skills as a possible reason for gender differences in strategy choice. Furthermore, females' concern with form (analytical manipulation of the language) might also be linked to the need of coping with an environment that sadly has exceptionally high expectations of women if they are to succeed.

Finally, results by the instructional approach seem to reveal that students do what they are taught. Instruction is effective. Institute A, for example, ranked first in few strategies, reflecting the variety of teaching techniques to which the students are exposed as a result of having a needs-oriented instruction which aims at simplifying language as much as possible for the students assimilation. Teachers in this institute are more in control of the learning process than learners. They strive to make the language palatable, and students simply have to digest it. Also, it is Group A which reported the highest frequency of use of flashcards to enhance memory (my personal conversation with teachers from the three institutes indicated that institute A seemed to be the only one to use flashcards). Furthermore, the frequencies of use of strategies such as "read for pleasure," "plan to learn," "try to find about language learning," or "thinking about progress" in language acquisition skills reflect the developmental age of this group which fits, in its majority, into age Group 1 (M=14.28; SD=1.22), that of teenagers.

Group B, on the other hand, ranked higher than the other two groups relative to the SILL items which required analytical manipulation of the language, practice of the sounds of English, making summaries of information, as well as a reflective approach about learning. The results of this group, though of suspect validity due to the small size of the sample, reflect the emphasis instruction places on putting learners in control of their learning and letting them choose the learning behaviors which fit their needs. These learners practice how to make oral presentations, how to write business letters or business proposals, and how to appropriately answer a phone or meet a fellow executive from other companies (all the respondents in this group are studying English for professional reasons) intensively. It is also important to observe the likely age effect in this group's choice of strategy. The respondents are all in age Group 2 (M=26.9; SD=8.9), that of adults, and an analytical approach to learning is typical of the developmental stage of the respondents.

In regard to institute C, respondents emerged as highly visual and auditory learners. Their reported mean frequencies of strategies related to repeating, practicing sounds, using rhymes, relating sounds to image and imitating native speakers were significantly higher than those reported by the other two groups. In this case, the effect of instruction seems to be even more significant than for the other two groups. These respondents learn the language by watching movies in English, repeating and memorizing the dialogues in these movies, modeling after and transferring the dialogues to other real life situations and drilling on sentence structures. Teachers place high emphasis on native-like pronunciation, and structure correction. Again, these students are doing what they are taught.

Findings by Politzer (1983), and Oxford and Nyikos (1989) show that language learning strategies are a reflex of the learning environment. Research in general academic

learning outside the field also confirms the relationship between instruction and students' learning behaviors (see J. Harste's [1988] guidelines for the effective teaching of reading comprehension strategies in American schools). The strong correlation between the instructional approach and language learning strategies in this study provides full support to these previous findings. It also suggests that the base-learning culture, understood as educational and societal experiences, plays an important role in determining the choice of language learning strategies by EFL students. Many individuals spend their lives being taught according to some culture-specific techniques that had been developed to enable learners to cope with the demands of their learning environment. These techniques are internalized as learning behaviors, naturally becoming part of learners' schemata, and transferring to new learning tasks.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This chapter closes the body of this study, discussing implications of this research for English as a second and foreign language teachers and learners, and suggesting possible topics for further study.

Implications

In the light of the importance of learning strategies to the attainment of competence in language learning and given the language-exposure restrictions faced by foreign language learners, the results of this study have several implications. First, it is clear that foreign language teachers ought to be aware of the types of strategies their students use in order to be able to help them succeed in their language learning quest. Unfortunately, most language teachers are not aware of the importance of language learning strategies to language learning. Most teachers may not even be aware of the power their own teaching techniques exert over students' learning behaviors and of the environmental influences over learning behaviors reflected in students' beliefs about the learning process. Learning strategies assessment, training, and modeling can lead to improvement in the sad picture of unsuccessful language learners in foreign language environments.

Why not draw on existing instruments to elicit language learners' learning strategies, further building variety into the classroom? If language teachers find out about their students' learning behaviors, it will be possible for them to provide students with learning tools other than those typically favored by their own individual preferences as well as by the base-learning

culture. This does not means that every student needs to use every strategy; rather, they should be acquainted with a variety of possibilities to choose from according to their personal learning styles, the task at hand as well as the learning goals. On top of that, knowledge of currently used learning strategies allows for the use of these strategies to the learners' advantage by means of creative and realistic tasks such as simulations, discussions, and writing to learn. These techniques may serve as a bridge to the training of learners in learning strategies they are not acquainted with. Previous intervention studies (Oxford et al., 1990, O'Malley et al., 1985b, and Russo and Stewner-Manzanares, 1985) have proved that students are effective in using the strategies they grow up with, leaving room for addition, but hardly for adaptations. This means that learners are ready to add information to their existing schemata, but they resist to changing or reorganizing their learning structures.

Second, the results of this study as well as of other studies reviewed in Chapter II seem to suggest that foreign language teachers should resort to completely informed strategy training, relying heavily on the modeling of strategies. As noted before, the influence of instruction on students' learning behaviors proved to be highly significant. Apparently, students tend to do what they are taught.

Third, the need for extensive exposure to the target language seems to be a common ground among various studies across cultures. This study reinforced the knowledge that functional, realistic language use is the primary factor underlying foreign language learning behaviors. There are several teaching techniques which can allow for this type of exposure. Role-play is one of them; writing to learn is another possibility; cooperative learning could also help, as well as open discussions, games, and content area teaching.

Fourth, it is important to increase foreign language teachers' awareness of the role learning strategies play in helping students keep what they have got. In other words, language learning strategies have proved to be effective tools for the maintenance of acquired linguistic forms in a foreign language, which, in my opinion, is the most pervasive problem of foreign language teaching. There are numerous cases of foreign language learners who spend almost a lifetime in-and-out of language learning institutes without getting even close to what we call communicative competence. Language forms are acquired and lost with the same ease. Training in language learning strategies can provide these learners with insights into how to keep their language skills autonomously and in spite of the teacher.

As far as Brazilian foreign language learners are concerned, this study suggests that Brazilians EFL teachers should take advantage of their learners' tendency to use functional practice and management strategies by assigning them, for example, writing-to-learn tasks in which they are encouraged to discuss their own language learning behaviors and experiences, possibly following the model suggested by Wenden (1986a). In doing so, teachers would be exposing learners to one of the learning behaviors they have reported using the least and which is not fostered by the Brazilian learning environment--use of language learning diaries--in a realistic and meaningful way. At the same time, teachers would be reinforcing learners' communicative and reflective behaviors. In addition, given the role memory plays in language learning (Thompson, 1987), it seems advisable to include completely-informed memory strategies training in the curriculum. Memory strategies will allow for the storage, retrieval, and use of language forms, boosting learners' self-confidence when they engage in functional practice, their primary goal. The use of flashcards, different mnemonic devices and rhymes could also be proven to have a good effect. Finally, Brazilian students also seem to need to be

exposed to affective strategies. This type of strategy may give them the assuredness necessary to perform well in a language which is not their first, lowering their "affective filter," and allowing more input to become intake, as Krashen (1987) would say.

These steps are suggestions which, as mentioned earlier, aim at providing variety. Learners need to be made aware of an array of possible learning strategies, but at the same time, they also need to find out if a specific strategy meets their personal characteristics, the requirements of the curriculum and the task at hand. If learners are uncomfortable with using a learning diary there is no use forcing them to do so.

Training in evaluation and executive-control learning strategies seems, thus, fundamental. In learning how to choose among strategies, learners are likely to achieve their language learning goals, so to speak, communicative competence. Effectiveness studies by Chamot et al. (1988) and by Chamot and Kupper (1989) seem to fully endorse this suggestion.

Conclusion. What this study has perhaps shown most clearly is that Brazilian learners of English as a foreign language are active learners. They moderately use a variety of strategies when engaged in language learning tasks, focusing mainly on functional practice and learning management strategies. They also do what their teachers tell them to do, a fact that indicates that teachers should be careful and mindful of their behavior in class, and that learning behaviors are not exclusively a matter of individual preferences or learning style, but also an extension of the base-learning culture.

Recommendations for further study

Much has been learned about learning strategies in Second Language Acquisition in the last 20 years. Nevertheless, though there are signs of an emergent theory of learning

strategies, there is still a lot to be accomplished. To begin with, it appears to me the research in the field would benefit enormously if researchers could concentrate on using instruments which have proved to be valid and reliable, replicating existing studies. This would facilitate comparisons and the observation of commonalities as well as differences across studies. Second, my review of the literature seems to indicate that research in the use of learning strategies in foreign language contexts has been extremely neglected. Further research on language learning strategies across countries would allow for valuable insights into how students from different cultures go about learning a foreign language. Research in EFL contexts would also clarify information on certain group tendencies obtained in ESL situations, building sensitivity into cultural issues not yet known to ESL teachers (the effect of acculturation on language learning strategies, for example). Third, given the strong association between instruction and learners' learning strategies found in this study, it appears to me that further research on the issue could build on the existing knowledge of what goes on in the foreign language classroom. Finally, more strategy training studies would also add to information available on the teachability of identified strategies and their effect on learning.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

ENGLISH VERSION

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Age _____ 2. Sex _____ 3. Mother tongue _____
4. Language(s) you speak at home _____
5. How long have you been studying English? _____
6. How do you rate your overall proficiency in English as compared with the proficiency of other students in your class? (Circle one)
   Excellent Good Fair Poor

7. How do you rate your overall proficiency in English as compared with the proficiency of native speakers of the language? (Circle one)
   Excellent Good Fair Poor

8. How important is it for you to become proficient in English? (Circle one)

   Very important Important Not so important

9. Why do you want to learn English? (Check all that apply)
   _____interested in the language
   _____interested in the cultures
   _____have friends who speak the language
   _____required to take a language course to graduate
   _____need it for my professional career
   _____need it for travel
   _____other (list):
   _____
   _____
   _____

10. Do you enjoy language learning? (Circle one) YES NO
11. What other languages have you studied?
    _____
    _____

12. What has been your favorite experience in language learning?
    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

APPENDIX B

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

PORTUGUESE VERSION

DADOS PESSOAIS

1 Idade _____ 2 Sexo _____ 3 Língua nativa _____
4 Língua(s) que fala em casa _____
_____

5 Há quanto tempo está aprendendo inglês? _____
6 Como você classifica o seu desempenho geral em inglês quando comparado ao de outros alunos em sua classe? (marque uma resposta)

Excelente Bom Regular Insatisfatório

7 Como classifica o seu desempenho geral em inglês se comparado com o de nativos da língua? (marque uma resposta)

Excelente Bom Regular Insatisfatório

8 O quanto é importante para você se tornar competente em inglês?

Muito importante Importante Pouco importante

9 Por que você quer aprender inglês? (Marque todas as respostas apropriadas).
_____ porque me interesso pela língua.
_____ porque me interesso pela cultura.
_____ porque tenho amigos que falam inglês.
_____ porque preciso saber uma língua estrangeira para me formar.
_____ porque é importante para a minha carreira profissional.
_____ porque preciso do inglês quando viajo.
_____ porque (liste outras razões) _____
_____

10 Você gosta de aprender línguas estrangeiras? SIM NÃO
11 Quais outras línguas estrangeiras já estudou? _____
_____

12 Durante o seu aprendizado de línguas estrangeiras, qual foi a experiência que mais lhe marcou? _____
_____
_____
_____

APPENDIX C

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES VERSION 7.0 - ENGLISH VERSION

STRATEGIES INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

VERSION 7.0 - ENGLISH VERSION

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING
VERSION FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES LEARNING ENGLISH

Directions

This survey is designed to gather information about HOW you learn English. 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.

Your name will not be identified in any way in either providing, examining, or reporting the results of this study. The data will be used strictly for the purposes mentioned above.

Participation is completely voluntary. Complete the questionnaire at your leisure and hand it back to the instructor or any other person in the language institute.

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 you.
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 *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.

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 and 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.

PART B

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

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.
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.

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 C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
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 bout the culture of English speakers.

WORKSHEET

1. Write your response to each item (that is, write, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
2. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.
3. 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.
4. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMS for the different parts of the survey. Then divide by 50.
5. Copy your averages (for each part and for the whole survey) from the Worksheet to the profile.

PART A	PART B	PART C	PART D	PART E	PART F	TOTAL
1. _____	10._____	24. _____	30. _____	39. _____	45. _____	sum A___
2. _____	11. _____	25. _____	31. _____	40. _____	46. _____	sum B___
3. _____	12. _____	26. _____	32. _____	41. _____	47. _____	sum C___
4. _____	13. _____	27. _____	33 _____	42. _____	48. _____	sum D___
5. _____	14. _____	28. _____	34. _____	43. _____	49. _____	sum E___
6. _____	15. _____	29. _____	35. _____	44. _____	50. _____	sum F___
7. _____	16. _____	36. _____				
8. _____	17. _____	37. _____				
9. _____	18. _____	38. _____				
	19. _____					
	20. _____					
	21. _____					
	22. _____					
	23. _____					

SUM_____	SUM_____	SUM_____	SUMP	SUM_____	SUM _____	SUM___
÷ 9 = _____	÷ 14 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 9 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 50 =____

(TOTAL AVERAGE)

APPENDIX D

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES VERSION 7.0 - VERSION IN PORTUGUESE

INVENTÁRIO DE ESTRATÉGIAS PARA O APRENDIZADO DE LÍNGUA ESTRANGEIRA

VERSÃO EM PORTUGUÊS

Instruções

Este questionário foi preparado para investigar as diferentes estratégias utilizadas por você no seu aprendizado de inglês -- descobrir **COMO** você aprende. Ele consiste de várias afirmações. Leia cada uma delas cuidadosamente e marque suas respostas (1, 2, 3, 4 ou 5) no formulário de resposta, de acordo com o grau de veracidade das afirmações:

1. Nunca ou quase nunca verdadeiro sobre mim.
2. Normalmente não é verdadeiro sobre mim.
3. De certa forma é verdadeiro sobre mim.
4. Normalmente é verdadeiro sobre mim.
5. É sempre verdadeiro sobre mim.

NUNCA OU QUASE NUNCA VERDADEIRO significa que a afirmação **muito raramente** é verdadeira no que diz respeito a você.
NORMALMENTE NÃO É VERDADEIRO significa que a afirmação é verdadeira **menos que metade do tempo**.
DE CERTA FORMA VERDADEIRO significa que a afirmação é verdadeira **a metade do tempo.**
NORMALMENTE VERDADEIRO significa que a afirmação é verdadeira **mais que a metade to tempo.**
SEMPRE OU QUASE SEMPRE VERDADEIRO significa que a afirmação é verdadeira **quase sempre.**

Responda considerando **o quanto a afirmação se aproxima de você. Não há resposta certa ou errada.** Por favor não marque suas respostas no questionário. Use o formulário de resposta. Trabalhe tão rapidamente quanto for possível, sem ser descuidado. Em média, o questionário é preenchido em 20-30 minutos. Caso tenha dúvida, fale imediatamente com a professora.

Exemplo

1. Nunca ou quase nunca verdadeiro sobre mim.
2. Normalmente não é verdadeiro sobre mim.
3. De certa forma é verdadeiro sobre mim.
4. Normalmente é verdadeiro sobre mim.
5. É sempre verdadeiro sobre mim.

Leia a afirmação abaixo, escolha a resposta que melhor descreve você (1, 2, 3, 4 ou 5) e escreva-a no espaço que se segue.

Eu procuro intensamente oportunidades de falar com pessoas que falam inglês. ----------

Você acabou de completar o exemplo. Agora, responda o questionário usando o formulário de resposta.

SEÇÃO A

1. Associo o que é novo com o quê já sei quando aprendo inglês.
2. Coloco palavras novas dentro de frases para poder lembrá-las.
3. Relaciono o som de uma palavra nova em inglês com uma imagem ou representação (figura) da palavra que me ajude a lembrá-la.
4. Eu consigo me lembrar de uma palavra nova em inglês se imaginar uma situação na qual ela possa ser usada.
5. Eu uso rima para me lembrar de palavras novas em inglês.
6. Eu uso *flashcards* para aprender palavras novas em inglês.
7. Eu uso expressão corporal para representar palavras novas em inglês.
8. Eu sempre revejo minhas lições de inglês.
9. Eu me lembro de palavras ou frases novas em inglês lembrando da localização delas na página, no quadro-negro, ou em cartazes.

SEÇÃO B

1. Nunca ou quase nunca verdadeiro sobre mim.
2. Normalmente não é verdadeiro sobre mim.
3. De certa forma é verdadeiro sobre mim.
4. Normalmente é verdadeiro sobre mim.
5. É sempre verdadeiro sobre mim.

10. Falo ou escrevo palavras novas em inglês várias vezes.
11. Tento imitar nativos da língua inglesa.
12. Pratico os sons da língua inglesa.
13. Uso as palavras que já sei em inglês de formas diferentes.
14. Tomo a iniciativa de conversar em inglês.
15. Assisto programas de TV, ou filmes, em inglês.
16. Leio em inglês por prazer.
17. Escrevo bilhetes, mensagens, cartas, ou relatórios em inglês.
18. Ao ler em inglês, primeiro passo os olhos rapidamente pelo texto, depois leio-o com cuidado.
19. Procuro encontrar palavras em português que sejam parecidas com as palavras novas em inglês.
20. Tento encontrar seqüências que se repetem (padrões) em inglês.
21. Descubro o significado de uma palavra em inglês dividindo-a em partes que posso compreender.
22. Tento não traduzir palavra por palavra.
23. Faço resumos (sinopses) de textos que escuto ou leio em inglês.

SEÇÃO C

1. Nunca ou quase nunca verdadeiro sobre mim.
2. Normalmente não é verdadeiro sobre mim.
3. De certa forma é verdadeiro sobre mim.
4. Normalmente é verdadeiro sobre mim.
5. É sempre verdadeiro sobre mim.

24. Para compreender palavras desconhecidas, procuro advinhar.
25. Quando não consigo me lembrar de uma palavra durante uma conversa em inglês, uso gestos (expressão corporal).
26. Eu crio palavras novas quando não sei as corretas em inglês.
27. Leio em inglês sem pesquisar cada palavra nova que aparece.
28. Tento advinhar o que a outra pessoa vai responder em inglês.
29. Se não consigo me lembrar de uma palavra em inglês, uso uma outra palavra ou frase que signifique a mesma coisa.

SEÇÃO D

30. Procuro as mais diversas oportunidades de usar o meu inglês.
31. Percebo os meus erros em inglês e uso essa informaçao para melhorar o meu aprendizado.
32. Presto atenção quando alguém está falando inglês.
33. Tento descobrir como aprender melhor em inglês.
34. Planejo o meu tempo de forma que tenha tempo suficiente para estudar inglês.
35. Procuro encontrar pessoas com quem possa falar inglês.
36. Procuro oportunidades de ler, quanto for possível, em inglês.
37. Tenho objetivos claros que requerem o aperfeiçoamento de minhas habilidades em inglês.
38. Penso sobre o meu progresso no aprendizado de inglês.

SEÇÃO E

1. Nunca ou quase nunca verdadeiro sobre mim.
2. Normalmente não é verdadeiro sobre mim.
3. De certa forma é verdadeiro sobre mim.
4. Normalmente é verdadeiro sobre mim.
5. E sempre verdadeiro sobre mim.

39. Tento relaxar toda vez que fico nervoso por ter que falar inglês.
40. Tento me incentivar a falar inglês mesmo quando estou com medo de cometer erros.
41. Presenteio-me com um agrado qualquer quando me saio bem.
42. Percebo se estou tenso ou nervoso quando estou estudando inglês.
43. Anoto as minhas inseguranças no aprendizado de inglês num diário.
44. Converso com outras pessoas sobre como me sinto quando estou aprendendo inglês.

SEÇÃO F

45. Quando não entendo alguma coisa em inglês, peço a outra pessoa para falar mais devagar ou repetir.
46. Peço a pessoas que falam inglês para me corrigir quando cometo erros.
47. Pratico inglês com os meus amigos.
48. Peço ajuda a pessoas que falam inglês.
49. Não me envergonho de fazer perguntas em inglês.
50. Procuro aprender sobre a cultura de nativos da língua inglesa.

FORMULÁRIO DE RESPOSTA

1. Escreva a resposta de cada item (isto e, 1, 2, 3, 4, ou 5) nos espaços em branco.
2. Some cada coluna. Coloque o resultado na linha que indica SOMA.
3. Divida pelo número indicado para obter as médias em cada coluna. Arredonde esta média até a primeira casa decimal (como por exemplo em 3.4).
4. Calcule sua média geral. Para isto, adicione as somas em cada seção do questionário, e depois, divida o total encontrado por 50.
5. Copie suas médias (em cada secao e no geral) da folha de resposta para a folha que descreve o resultado.

SEÇÃO A	SEÇÃO B	SEÇÃO C	SEÇÃO D	SEÇÃO E	SEÇÃO F	TOTAL
1. _____	10._____	24. _____	30. _____	39. _____	45. _____	soma A___
2. _____	11. _____	25. _____	31. _____	40. _____	46. _____	soma B___
3. _____	12. _____	26. _____	32. _____	41. _____	47. _____	soma C___
4. _____	13. _____	27. _____	33 _____	42. _____	48. _____	soma D___
5. _____	14. _____	28. _____	34. _____	43. _____	49. _____	soma E___
6. _____	15. _____	29. _____	35. _____	44. _____	50. _____	soma F___
7. _____	16. _____	36. _____				
8. _____	17. _____	37. _____				
9. _____	18. _____	38. _____				
	19. _____					
	20. _____					
	21. _____					
	22. _____					
	23. _____					

SOMA_____	SOMA_____	SOMA_____	SOMA____	_SOMA_____	SOMA _____	SOMA___
÷ 9 = _____	÷ 14 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 9 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 6 = _____	÷ 50 =____

(MÉDIA GERAL)

VITA

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