STRATEGIC COMPETENCE OF THE ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS AT TAIZ UNIVERSITY

ABSTRACT

THESIS

SUBMITTED FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

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BY

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goal of learning English, the English majors in Yemen face numerous difficulties. They are in terms of using and learning target language. These difficulties are sorted out and discussed to clarify the setting of the study and the environment which surrounds learning English in Yemen.

The study is in two phases. The first phase probes the learning strategies while the second phase deals with the communication strategies. It defines two independent variables that might affect the use of learning strategies: academic level and the type of the teaching program (Arts and Education) and two independent variables that might affect the use of communication strategies: the academic level and the type of the task (spontaneous/interactive and non-spontaneous and non-interactive). For collecting data, various procedures have been adopted to carry out the study. Two instruments are mainly used. The questionnaire of Oxford’s (SILL) is used to identify the learning strategies and an Oral Task for identifying the communication strategies. The participants in the investigation of learning strategies were 300 students while in the investigation of communication strategies there were 80 students. The population of the study was 1500 students studying English in the two faculties of Taiz University: faculty of Education and faculty of Arts.

Three questions were posed to fulfill the main goals of this study. The first question was “how do English majors of Taiz University deploy their strategic competence when they want to achieve their communicative goals, in term of using communication strategies?” The second was “how do English majors manage their strategic competence when they learn new items in English, in terms of using learning strategies?” The third question was “how can learning and
communication strategy training help the English majors at Taiz University to develop their strategic competence?"

For answering the first main question of this study, two statistical questions were formulated:

*Are there any significant differences between the students of faculty of Education and faculty Arts in terms of using learning strategies in general and the use of the various types of learning strategies?*

*Are there any significant differences among the four academic levels of study in terms of the learning strategies in general and the use of the various types thereof?*

Also, to answer the second main question two statistical question were formulated:

*Are there any significant differences between NS/NI group and the S/I group in terms of the use of the various types of communication strategies?*

*Are there any significant differences among the four academic levels of study in terms of the use of the various types of communication strategies?*

The third question tackled the teaching of communication strategies and learning strategies. Two question were formulated:

*Is teaching strategic competence necessary and useful for English language learners?*
What are the difficulties of the Yemeni English language learners in terms of learning and using English language and how can strategy training overcome such difficulties?

Quantitative methods of analysis were employed to answer the first two questions. Descriptive statistics such means and standard deviations were calculated. Then t-tests and ANOVA were use to examine existence of the significant differences in the mean use of the learning strategies, communication and their various types. Scheffe and Tukey HSD post hoc tests were used for executing the multiple comparisons. The SPSS (Version: 10) statistical program was used here for the tabulation and the analysis. The third question was tackled qualitatively without availing of any numerical data since the researcher could not find any information available at the time of performing the fieldwork. So, he relied mainly on the results of this study besides his experience of teaching in the department for a period of four years.

The study has revealed the following results:

The English majors of Taiz University scored a medium level of language learning strategies.

The differences in the two English teaching programs of the two faculties (Arts and Education) had no effect, neither on the general use of learning strategies nor on the types of learning strategies.

Regarding the use of the general learning strategies, level two used significantly more learning strategies. This result indicated that the effect of the academic level can be interpreted not by the higher the more nor
the lower the less but by the newer the learning experiences the more the use of learning strategies.

Meta-cognitive strategies were the most used among the six types of strategies by the English major students of Taiz University while affective strategies were the least used.

Memory, cognitive, meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies were used by level two significantly more than all the other levels.

Compensation strategies were used more by level four but non-significantly except with level one.

The English major students of Taiz University used so many communication strategies that indicated the deficiency in their interlanguage that needed to be consolidated by more oral practice.

Message abandonment was the most strategy used by the English Majors of Taiz University.

The type of the task (Non-spontaneous/ non-interactive and Spontaneous/interactive task) had no effect on the use of message abandonment but had an effect on the use of message replacement strategies in favor of the latter. This highlighted the effect of the planning time to reduce the use of meaning replacement strategies but not the message abandonment strategies.

The type of task had no effect on the use of generalization and paraphrase but had an effect on the use of restructuring strategies. Spontaneous/
interactive used significantly more restructuring strategies than no-spontaneous/ non-interactive. This means that planning time had an effect on reducing the use of restructuring strategies. However, the type of task had an effect on the use of literal translation strategies. Planning time was found to help in reducing the use of this strategy.

Academic level had no effect on the use of message abandonment, message replacement, generalization, restructuring and literal translation strategies but it had an effect on the use of paraphrase in favor of level two which significantly used paraphrase strategies more than level one and level three but non-significantly than level four.

The third question touched the need for teaching learning and communication strategy. Three problems have been echoed in this study in concern of teaching English to the English Majors in Yemen: educational (the illiteracy rate among the society is a serious cause of concern), cultural (communicating in English publicly is not acceptable by most of the Yemeni people) and economical (a huge number of students join the English departments every year despite of the shortage in the necessary expenditure and the teaching staff). These three factors rot the normal environment of learning and using English as a foreign language and negatively affect the development of the learners' communicative competence.

The other important reason behind the necessity of strategy training was based on the results of this study. As a matter of fact, speaking orally perquisite a reasonable amount of vocabulary and rules. The subjects of this study fulfilled this requirement but failed to activate their interlanguage to be used in performing the story-retelling task; they
resorted to reduction strategies more but to achievement strategies less. On the other hand, those who used learning strategies significantly more (active learners) tended to use less reduction strategies and more achievement strategies, regardless of the significance. This made the call for a treatment that was suggested to be achieved by activating autonomy in learning and using language within the English majors.

Thus, this study suggests that encouraging learning and communication strategy use might help in softening the consequences of these problems. It seems to be the best way to encourage language-learning autonomy that cannot be achieved without an activation of the strategic competence of the learners through training. ‘How and when to teach’ strategies were also discussed and it was suggested that teaching the strategies were best to be taught at the time of learning or communication rather than to be taught separately. How best teach’ was referred to the teacher’s background of the learners’ repertoire of the strategies and their characteristics. The teacher is the only one who can take the decision about choosing and applying appropriate teaching strategies.

On the basis of the results of this study, the following recommendations can be made:

The program should enhance the learning material of level three and four by providing them with new linguistic experiences that include new and refreshing items in which the learning process becomes challenging and interesting.
The program should focus upon the use of meta-cognitive strategies by creating more opportunities and learning activities that are almost absent in the plan of the teaching program.

The program should assign a time and identify the necessary material in order to exploit the tendency of the learners to use meta-cognitive strategies by making the necessary learning material accessible and assigning a proper time for that.

The training should include a treatment of the use of reduction strategies with a stress on using learning strategies. Thus, we can summarize that training should focus on three points:

Inviting the attention of the learners and motivating them to adopt the various types of learning strategies that can help them to overcome the difficulties of learning the target language

Encouraging the learners to use the language by paying their attention to the benefit of communication strategies to overcome problems of spontaneous and non-spontaneous communication, instead of concealing their weaknesses.

Urging upon the learners to pay their attention to the importance of using learning strategies directly after the use of communication strategies.
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To Whom It May Concern

This is to certify that Mr. Taha Ahmad Hasan Hezam has completed his research work under my supervision. His thesis entitled “Strategic Competence of the English Major Students at Taiz University” is a product of his own hardwork and extensive reading in the subject area. I find the work worthy of submission for the award of Ph.D. in English.

(Prof. Farhatullah Khan)
Supervisor
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CHAPTER ONE

Theoretical Background

Introduction

Strategic competence is one of the most discussed notions in language acquisition. It has raised many questions and generated various interpretations. The most promising ones are in respect of its role in facilitating the processes of acquisition and learning. A number of studies have targeted the strategic behaviour of foreign language learner and yielded various conclusions accompanied by various methodologies and theoretical perspectives. So far, no consensus has emerged on all these issues: its nature, definition, typology and taxonomy, exercise a deep impact on other competencies and training. However, "studying some aspects of second language learners’ strategic competence, we must never forget that we investigate one small part of an extremely complex and to a large extent mysterious phenomenon."¹

This chapter is going to state and explain briefly the theoretical basis of this study that will be chosen after reviewing the available literature. It will include the definitions of the common terms and the main issues related to the concept of strategic competence. Also, it will present some of the difficulties encountered by Yemeni English language learners in establishing the environment that helps them in learning and using

English as a foreign language. In terms of solving such difficulties, this researcher expects that through developing strategic competence the Yemeni learners can overcome the different types of problems that hinder them from creating a simulation to the natural environment of learning foreign languages. The expectations of this researcher about the role of strategic competence in resolving problems of English language learning will depend mainly on the results of this study and of the previous studies that dealt with the impact of strategic competence on language acquisition and learning. This will lead to the statement of the problem of this study, and then, to the significance of describing how the English Majors in Yemen manage their way to resolve problems in terms of learning and communicating through the medium of English.

**Defining strategic competence**

Since the beginning, most of the definitions of strategic competence have been restricted to compensatory behaviour that the learners resort to overcome their limited linguistic resources in the target language. Afterward, other definitions that are based on the psychological orientation of language production model seem to be prominent and to some extent acceptable but they too remained entangled in the same trap of compensatory behaviour. Recently, a different perspective has emerged that is introduced by Bachman (1990, 1996), which projects a wider view of strategic competence. In Canale and Swain’s definition

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the major role of strategic competence is "to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence". This is not different from that of a previous definition by Tarone (1977, cited in Faerch and Kasper, 1985) "conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome a crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual’s thought". In a later definition, Tarone (1980) focuses on meaning negotiation between two interlocutors, while that of Canale is extendable to all aspects of language use.

From the point of view of Little (1997)

“two problems arise from Canale’s and Swan’s (1980) and Tarone’s, (1980) definitions: (1) there are many communicative situations in which strategic processes play an "offensive" rather than a "defensive" role, (2) a definition of strategic competence that concentrates exclusively on language use may encourage the assumption that there is a psychological disjunction at the strategic level between language use and language learning”.

According to Bachman’s (1990; cited in Brown, 1987) former definition, “strategic competence is a set of general abilities that utilize all

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8 Canale’s and Swan (1980) 30.
9 Tarone, p. 419.
10 Bachman, p. 100.
of the elements of language competence”. In a later definition, Bachman and Palmer (1996) conceive of strategic competence as:

“We conceive of strategic competence as a set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as a higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use, as well as in other cognitive activities. Using language involves the language user’s topical knowledge and affective schemata, as well as all the areas of language knowledge discussed above. What makes language use possible is the integration of all of these components as language users create and interpret discourse in situationally appropriate ways.”

They identify three general areas in which metacognitive components operate: “goal setting, assessment, and planning”. “Those other cognitive activities include language learning in all its ramifications” (Little, 1997). Therefore, they extend the concept of strategic competence to “include all kinds of human activity that underlie human behaviour and operates sometimes below as well as above the threshold of conscious awareness”, (Little 1997).

Bialystok (1990) agrees with the view of Bachman and Palmer:

“Regarding explanations of how strategies work and procedures for training strategies, the most powerful models and most successful programs follow from positing strategies at the highest levels of cognition. Assigning them executive status in explanations of performance lead to the most fruitful results.”

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However, “strategic competence is helpful in various circumstances, particularly at the beginning stages of second language learning” (Canale & Swain, 1980)\textsuperscript{14} or when there are limited chances of using language in a real communication outside the language classroom. At the early stages of language learning, learners aspire for using what they have learnt but they always face difficulties in using their very limited linguistic resources to communicate their ideas in the second language. This can be viewed in that learning processes are accompanied by some mental activities that mainly target enhancing and fostering the ability to acquire language (learning strategies). However, having acquired the language as a linguistic system is not enough if it is not accompanied by developing the ability of applying and using this knowledge in real communicative situations (communication strategies) which in turn uncover the deficiencies of learning and urge for instant solutions and a subsequent treatment. So, some of those who can exploit all what they have learnt in communicating their ideas with other people successfully acquire an extraordinary strategic competence. In addition, they tend to develop their communicative competence since they become more informed about their weaknesses. This increases the chance to learn new items. On the contrary, there are many others who have an acceptable linguistic ability but they fail to express themselves clearly since they do not activate their strategic competence that enables them to exploit all the available resources (verbal or non verbal) to use the language for the purpose of communication either written or spoken. So, this is why strategic competence is very important and a crucial factor in shaping and developing the learners’ communicative competence.

\textsuperscript{14} Canale and Swain, p. 31.
Therefore, the definition of strategic competence should be deduced from the role it plays in the whole system of language use and language learning. Realizing that, Brown (1987) asserts that the definition of strategic competence should not be restricted to the notion of competence strategies:

Actually, definitions of strategic competence, that are limited to the notion of “competence strategies”, fall short of encompassing the full spectrum of the construct.\(^{15}\)

Although, Savignon’s (1983\(^{16}\), cited in Brown, 1987\(^{17}\)) definition of strategic competence was intended to include many things related to communication production, it was merely a paraphrase of Canale’s definition. It entails:

“the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules—or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention.” through “paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style.”\(^{18}\)

Thus, considering strategic competence a component of communicative competence is useful since it shows how we access and use our grammatical, discourse and sociolinguistic competences in the stream of communication. However, the inclusion of strategic competence as a component of communicative competence within a wider framework (as of Bachman and Palmer, 1996) than that of Canale and Swain (1980)

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\(^{15}\) Brown, p. 200.


\(^{17}\) Brown, p. 200.

\(^{18}\) Savignon, pp. 40-41.
will raise the question of the relation of learning strategy and other metacognitive strategies to communicative competence. As a matter of fact, differentiating metacognitive strategies that work on language learning from those that work on language use is not reasonable. In addition, most of the researches on learning strategies such as Oxford (1989 and 1990), Rubin (1987), and Stern (1992) have included compensatory strategies as one of the components of learning strategies. Thus, this will stimulate the proposal of considering strategic competence a multi-fold concept: while one fold works with language input (language learning), another with language output (language use) and the other folds (which represent all other factors which interfere by one way or another) work on the construct of input or output. Similar to this idea, Little (1996) considers “the relation between language learning and language use bidirectional: successful language learning depends in part on language use, but equally, successful language use depends in part on our capacity to update and extend our communicative repertoire by further learning.”

Competence

Since its emergence, the term competence has acquired various implications, and appended revolutionary ideas to the literature of language learning and teaching. However, the definition of this term

remained problematic since Chomsky used it. Here, we are going to present some of the connotations that will serve the purpose of this study. Davies (1989\textsuperscript{24}, cited in North, 1997\textsuperscript{25}) considers competence “as a set of scripts or ritual interchanges, plus individual differences in terms of proficiency as realized in fluency, style and creativity”. This definition seems to be more sophisticated in comparison to the Chomskyan one. He does not consider it a mere knowledge of language but adds to it other personal features that lead to individual differences among people in terms of proficiency as realized in the way one behaves, ideas he creates and their fluency. Besides, it emphasizes the role one intends as a socio-cultural variable. In fact, most of the definitions of competence are associated with either a Chomskyan definition (linguistic knowledge) or that of Hymes’ (communicative competence). However, Widdowson (1983) prefers capacity to refer to the ethno-methodological aspect of the communicative ability as opposed to the ethnographical as used by Hymes. He states:

Hymes’ capability is, then, essentially ethnographic. Capacity, in the sense I intend, is essentially ethnomethodological. That is to say, it is the ability to use knowledge of language as a resource for the creation of meaning, and is concerned not with assessment but interpretation.\textsuperscript{26}

Apart from those connotations, competence is always contrasted with performance. “It refers to the underlying knowledge one has of a system, event, or fact”, (Brown, 1987)\textsuperscript{27}. Since we seek a measurable definition of the term competence, the above connotations will not take us away from

\textsuperscript{27} Brown, p. 24.
the complication that may arise from the difficulty in assessment and identification. So, here the term competence will be equated to the ability one has in accomplishing a given task.

Communication strategy and learning strategy

Up to now, most of those who have dealt with learner strategies have differentiated between two related terms, communication strategies and learning strategies. For example, Tarone (1980)\textsuperscript{28} considers communication strategies completely different from learning strategies and holds that they do not lead to learning. She suggested three definition criteria:\textsuperscript{29}

- A speaker desires to communicate meaning \( x \) to a listener.
- The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate meaning \( x \) is unavailable or is not shared with the listener.
- The speaker chooses to either avoid or attempt alternate means to communicate meaning \( x \).

In her point of view, learning strategies lack one of these criteria. She asserts, “the primary purpose for using a learning strategy is not to communicate but to learn.”\textsuperscript{30} This researcher will follow Bachman and Palmer (1996). Communication strategy and learning strategy will be assumed under the all-encompassing term ‘strategic competence’ for the purposes of this study. Communication strategies will be viewed as the active use of language by language-learners in learning situations where learners have limited chances to use foreign or second language in real

\textsuperscript{29} ibid., p. 423.
\textsuperscript{30} ibid., p. 420.
communications. The expression ‘active use of language’ refers here to the intention of the learners who use their linguistic knowledge in communications that are expected to lead to a kind of consolidation rather than in communication that they have to convey their real proposals.

**Process and strategy**

The aim of this study is not to solve the problem of distinguishing process from strategy. However, the distinction of the term ‘strategy’ from ‘process’ raises many methodological problems. So, this researcher will trace the studies that target the nature of strategy and how it relates to process. This, in fact, will be useful to have a clear view of strategic competence and strategies of communication and learning will be tangible and easier to spot.

According to some scholars, strategies are different from processes. For example: Selinker (1972) identifies five central processes behind second language learners’ errors. Communication strategies and learning strategies are two of them. He implicitly considers strategy “a subclass of process” and “thereby implying an opposition between strategic processes vs. non-strategic processes”, (Faerch and Kasper, 1983). Blum and Levenston (1978) distinguish strategy from process by applying a temporal criterion.

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Processes are inferable from strategies, just as strategies are inferable from spoken and written interlanguage performance. A single form used as a strategy of communication can either disappear from the learner’s speech or becomes fossilized and part of a stable interlanguage.

Referring to the dictionary meaning, they suggest that “strategy should be used when referring to a single usage” while “process presupposes that a number of operations have taken place”. Based on those definitions, they account “strategy refers to the way the learner arrives at certain usage at a specific point in time while process refers to the systematic series of steps by which the learner arrives at the same usage over a period of time”.

This distinction can be useful for differentiating between two types of errors namely: fossilized errors and deviances that are always associated with a communication strategy application.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) hold that process contrasts with product (not with strategy) and that strategy is a subclass of plan. In their view, strategy is a part of the planning and the execution process. Thus, strategies work as solutions for the problems in the planning and the execution processes of language production.

Taking into account the role of strategies in language acquisition, Seliger (1984 cited in Bialystok, 1990) differentiates between strategies and tactics. “Strategies are universal age- and context-independent and when engaged must be assumed to lead to long-term acquisition. Tactics on the

\[\text{\ldots}^{31}\]  
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\[\text{\ldots}^{40}\]

\[\text{\ldots}^{41}\]
other hand are used to meet the immediate demands of situations and are dependent on a wide variety of factors such as environment, age, personality, affective constraints, and first language”.

Brown (1987), however, differentiates among three terms: strategy, process, and style. He defines process as “the most general of the three concepts”. The other term is style. It is defined as “the consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual. Styles are those general characteristics of intellectual functioning and personality type that especially pertain to one as an individual, which differentiate him from someone else”.

Strategy, on the other hand, is defined as “specific method of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. Strategies are conceptualized that might vary from moment to moment or day to day or year to year. Strategies vary intra-individually; each of us has a whole host of possible ways to solve a particular problem and we choose one or several of those in sequence for a given problem”.

In her model of language learning, Bialystok (1978) distinguishes strategy from process by considering the optionality and the obligatory of the event. In Bialystok’s (1990) argument of the criterion of optionality that distinguishes strategy from process, she exposes two systems where strategy is a different entity from process. In the first, she presumes

“The learner’s strategic intervention in the usual processes governing language production leads to observably distinct forms of behaviour.”

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38 Brown, p. 78.
39 ibid., p. 79.
40 ibid.
Thus, an examination of the form of speech produced by a learner should indicate whether or not that speech is the result of normal production processes or has been shaped as well by communication (or other) strategies."

In the second system:

"contrary to the first system in which the level of analysis determined whether the same behaviour should be described as the result of a strategy or process, in this system, the behaviour itself is different if its initiation is attributed to production processes or communication strategies. Strategies, that is, should reliably produce forms of language that are different from those that one would expect to emanate from the autonomous processing system."

Finally, she fails to get a way to distinguish the speech produced by the intervention of strategy from that produced by normal processes. She attributes this failure to the fact that speech production cannot be without any strategic intervention and norm for isolating is not possible. Furthermore, “the presumption that language production under the guidance of strategies is somehow less normal than that under usual processing conditions is incorrect.”

Thus, the definition of Blum and Levenston (1983) is a practical description to distinguish between errors and communication strategy. In addition, Bachman and Cohen (1998) define strategies within the field of language use as “mental operations or processes that learners consciously select and apply when attempting to accomplish language

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42 Bialystok, p. 19.
43 ibid.
44 ibid., p. 20.
tasks”. It seems that both definitions will serve the purpose of this study because they ignore the difference between ‘process’ and ‘strategy’.

**Strategic and non-strategic**

Answering the question, whether this behaviour is strategic or non-strategic gets us right back to the question on the difference between process and strategy. That also urges us to identify clear features of each behaviour in so that it will be easier to identify the strategic type of behaviour that can be a subject of this study. Here, this kind of activity that the second language learners resort to in order to overcome difficulties in communication in second language can be unnoticeable to the observer where the learner uses strategies within a normal production process. Therefore, it seems very difficult to differentiate between normal behaviour and the strategic one. To identify the features of each also adds its own burden on the researcher.

According to Bialystok (1990), there are three characteristics common among the varying definitions and approaches to communication strategies: problematicity, consciousness and intentionality. She argues:

> “While some communicative situations may be described as more problematic than others, it would be impossible to determine a boundary between communication which presents some degree of challenge and communication which entirely unencumbered by problems.”

She adds:

> “Similarly, mental representations which are highly explicit, that is, analyzed, are more amenable to conscious inspection than are those which are less so. But a categorical boundary between processing

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46 Bialystok, p. 136.
which is conscious and that which is not seems not to exist, and so the
use of such a boundary as a criterion for describing a phenomenon is
inevitably ineffectual.”

The third one is the criterion of intentionality on which Bialystok (1990)
notes:

“Were strategy selection intentional, we would expect systematic
choice—certain kinds of learners in certain kinds of situations would be
more likely to choose certain kind of strategies. The general lack of
predictability in choice and absence of pure examples of single
strategies militates against the interpretation that these strategies have
been selected by learners in some intentional way to solve a perceived
problem.”

Following Bialystok strategic behaviour being selective, this researcher
can argue that the strategic behaviour of language learners always
accompanies new learnt items of the language or items that have not been
acquired yet or transferred to their linguistic repertoire. Thus, it is
proposed that the learner himself can decide exactly which of his
behaviour is strategic or non-strategic, because he is more aware of his
linguistic repertoire than the observer. As a matter of fact, on some
occasions the learner cannot differentiate between strategic and non-
strategic but this way has a greater validity than the judgment of the
researcher or that of the observer alone. Therefore, this study will rely on
the “interview technique” with the learners to decide which behaviour is
strategic or non-strategic by examining whether the learner actually
resorts to a specific communication strategy or he just behaves normally
(non strategically). This researcher will take into consideration the fact
that two major difficulties may arise in spotting the communication

47 ibid.
48 ibid.
strategy. First, when the learner commits mistakes and second, the hesitations and pauses that might occur at the time of speaking and in so doing, the following criteria will be followed:

1- If the learner realizes that he makes a slip and he can recall the correct form by self-repairing, then this cannot be considered a communication strategy.

2- If he does not realize that he makes a mistake (i.e. he thinks he produces the correct form) and does not know the correct form then this can be considered a fossilized error.

3- If he is not sure of the correctness of the word or form and he produces the form or the word as a creative use of language then this kind can be considered a communication strategy.

Most of the cases of committing mistakes arise because of ignorance of the correct form but there may at other times be certain other factors such as lapse of memory and communication strategy. Thus, knowing the type of mistake that can be attributed to the application of communication strategy will reduce the effect of other irrelevant factors that cause the learners’ hesitations and pauses at the time of speaking or writing.

1- The type of hesitation that is followed by a correct form is not a communication strategy (taking into account criterion no.1).

2- But the pause or hesitation that is followed by a deviant is a communication strategy if the learner admits the strategic intervention, even if it is due to a failure in memory recalling.

Many researchers relied on a native speaker interlocutor to identify the use of strategy. This researcher argues that having the opinion of one
interlocutor only even if he is a native speaker without taking into consideration the speaker’s own judgment may invalidate the judgment on the use of communication strategy. This is because the learner sometimes has no linguistic problem to overcome but he has a difficulty in recalling a word or phrase that, he thinks, suits the meaning of his cognitive content, so he pauses but finally he succeeds in uttering the right word wished-for. However, sometimes he commits a fossilized error that is not associated with any kind of hesitations. This type of error is very difficult to be identified without the learner’s confession. In these two cases the learner resorts to pausing but after that he does not use any strategy and in the later case he commits an error but without hesitation. In this situation, the pause itself cannot be considered a valid cue to a communication strategy if a learner uses it as a kind of ‘recalling strategy.’

Teaching strategic competence

For teaching strategies, “Wenden (198549, cited in Brown, 198750) outlines the significance of identifying successful learning strategies in students of second languages and she asserts that learner strategies are key to learner autonomy.” Brown comments “teachers, therefore, can benefit from an understanding of what makes learners successful and unsuccessful, and establish in the classroom a milieu for the realization of successful strategies.”51 In a more sophisticated perspective on this matter, Little (1996) suggests:

“to answer the question of the possibility of teaching communication strategy and learning strategy satisfactorily it is necessary to take

50 Brown, p. 94.
account of two separate but related issues: the teachability of strategies and the relation between ‘strategy training’ and the rest of language teaching. The successful deployment of strategies, like the successful deployment of grammatical rules, depends on the gradual development of psychological entities and processes. Pedagogical measures may facilitate but cannot replace this development, which depends crucially on appropriately reflected practice.”

This study is going to deal with the various perspectives on this topic and suggest the possibilities of strategic competence training and its role in the development of learners’ communicative ability. Moreover, the suggestion of the necessity of training will rely on benefits that we can gain to overcome the difficulties of teaching English language to the Yemeni learners.

**Approaches to the study of strategic competence**

There are two general approaches to the study of strategic competence, the interactional and the psycholinguistic. In the former, communication strategies are seen as meaning negotiation in learners’ communications and attempts to achieve conversational maintenance. This approach has been criticized by some scholars such as Bialystok (1990) and Kellerman et al. (1987), in particular, for the validity of the resultant classifications of the types of communication strategies, which focus on the surface description of the language. The latter approach looks at communication strategies as cognitive processes within the mind of the speaker either to

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51 ibid.
52 Little, pp. 96-97.
solve a problem, (Faerch and Kasper, 1983), or to compensate for a missing vocabulary (Kellerman et al. 1987). Still, another alternation of account has resulted in a different classification assumed to describe underlying processes of the language production such as that of Bialystok (1990).

**Problems of English departments in Arab countries**

The problems that the English departments face in most of the Arab countries are mainly in relation to language use and communication. Many researchers (such as Abdul Haq, 1975; Harrison, Prator and Tucker, 1975; Abbad, 1988 and Wahba, 1998; cited in Rababah, 2003) clearly state that the Arab learners of English face problems in both speaking and writing. Abdul Haq (1982 in Rabab’ah, 2003) states “there are general outcries about the continuous deterioration of the level of English proficiency of students among school teachers, university instructors and all who are concerned with English language teaching.”

Rabab’ah (2003) has, also, shed the light on the problems of Arab learners of English in some other Arab countries such as Yemen, Saudi

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58 Rabab’ah, p. 15.
Arabia, Sudan and Egypt. Unfortunately, the learners who join the English Department in those Arab countries must have real challenges due to the heavy duty they have to do in the four academic years of English language learning.

Problems of English departments in Yemen

Teaching foreign languages in a society gets its importance from the role they play in the public life at all levels: political, economic, social and educational. Accordingly, the governments estimate the importance of a specific language and plan to spend on teaching that language according to the expected benefits. English is one of those languages that play an important role in most of the world’s economic and scientific affairs. From that consideration, Yemen government teaches English language as a main subject in schools and as a requirement in the universities.

In Yemen, English is the only foreign language that is taught in schools and universities beside the native language (Arabic). Teaching English starts in public schools from class seven onwards as a compulsory subject. This means that during the period of the first seven years in school the Yemeni student has to build linguistic skills only in his mother tongue, which is the medium of teaching for all courses. Thus, he does not feel within this period of time that his language is influenced by any foreign or second language other than that of his parents and the society around him.

All Yemenis speak only one language “Arabic” except some who speak Somali, Ethiopian, and Hindi but they are few in number and make
limited use of their language even within the same group. Thus, in Yemen English language as foreign language suffers from two problems. First, nobody uses it for communication except for specific purpose and confined to specific places. Second, it is taught in schools late. These two problems have their negative effect on the efficiency of language teaching and on the level of the learners’ achievement.

Regarding the first problem, the negative effect of the limited use comes from the limited chances that the learner has to put the learnt items of the foreign language into practice. Furthermore, speaking a language other than Arabic in public may lead others to make fun of you if you do not belong to one of the non-Yemeni nationals or speak to foreign personnel e.g. a tourist. In that case, where speaking is not fully acceptable in public, learners do not get enough chances of practising speaking the foreign language.

Another reason behind the first problem is educational. The high rate of illiteracy among the people of Yemen adds a bad effect to the process of teaching and learning foreign language. The Yemeni English language learners do not find their parents’ support and encouragement at home so they depend mainly on teaching in the classroom. On the contrary those whose parents can speak another language can get help in practicing that language at home i.e. they will get a chance of learning English from another source, to some extent an informal situation.

The second problem is the late introduction of English in the school curriculum. Despite the fact that it is justified in economic terms, it is bound to reflect adversely on the economy in future. Educational planners think that the government cannot afford the huge expenditure of teaching
English from the first elementary class that the budget cannot afford to spend on the huge number of teaching staff and the required infrastructure. Perhaps this is right because the education in Yemeni schools is free.

To a large extent, this situation affects the level of learning English to the most. Learners at the seventh class feel that learning English is a great burden. Most of them do not cope with this new subject imposed on them at this late stage of study, so they struggle but with poor results. Others achieve some progress although the second language remains at the level of usage not use. Only those of the second category of students are nominated to pursue their higher studies in the scientific fields such as computer, engineering, and medicine, which are of great importance for the development of the economy of the country.

**Statement of the problem of the study**

English is not the medium of instruction even at universities in Yemen, except in Medical colleges, and is not widely used in society at large. So learning second language after leaving public school is either in private institutes, or in English departments at universities. The main disadvantage of learning English in private institutes is that it is quite expensive and learners cannot afford studying all the courses that are usually distributed into four stages at four levels. Thus studying for a short period of time does not, by any means, give the learner sufficient proficiency to speak and communicate in the foreign language. To a large extent, studying in private institutes does not always build tangible communicative development, because the learners just focus only on linguistic items not using the language for communicative purpose.
Then the choice turns towards the English departments in the universities. This really puts a heavy burden on English Departments at the Yemeni universities, where the learners join the university without a certain required level of proficiency in English language except whatever English they have learnt in the secondary schools. English departments at all Yemeni universities receive those students who have the minimum background with a consideration that their poor level will affect the efficiency of the offered courses of the program. Despite that the program starts with an intensive course targeting the four skills and language usage with some preliminary courses in literature in the first two years of study. These procedures, in fact, help to a large extent to offer the learners with the needful skills for being able to cope with the other courses.

Difficulties emerge at the time the learners need to communicate their own ideas in classes other than those which are targeted for language skills, especially in literature classes where a lot of questions need to be asked by students and many ideas need to be formulated in their own foreign language for the purpose of note-taking activities that learners rely on for studying. In fact, in literature courses such as novel, drama and poetry learners are not encouraged to talk while the teachers are lecturing. This is because almost lecture-style of teaching is followed in literature classes. If an interactive method is followed, the teacher finds the time limit as an impediment for completing his task. Therefore, literature courses do not provide sufficient opportunity to the learners to participate and, in turn, develop their language skills.

Remarkably, learners of Taiz University seem to achieve a lot and their communicative competence in general is satisfactory, especially the
students at the fourth level (Hezam, 2000)\(^9\). Besides that, the English language majors of Taiz University try to communicate with their teachers, who are not Arabs, and most of communication turns out to be successful. This phenomenon is interesting to be studied: how the learners develop their communicative skills and express their ideas successfully with those who do not speak their language or share the same culture. This phenomenon has been attributed to the kind of behaviour that enables most foreign language learners to acquire many skills that they have not been introduced to in classrooms and maintain the course of communication though they have not full control over the target language. The kind of ability that facilitates managing and monitoring the processes of developing and using the target language is called strategic competence. Studying some of its aspects and functions definitely will expand our understanding of the second language learning and teaching processes in general.

**Objectives of the study:**

This study will focus on describing aspects of the use of English language by the English major learners of Taiz University. Mainly, it will describe the techniques used by them to communicate their ideas in terms of using multi-verbal strategies to achieve their goals. This researcher will also focus on the other aspect of the learners’ strategic competence: ‘the learning strategies’, describing and investigating the mutual effect of each aspect on developing the other and on facilitating the whole educational system of teaching second language in non-native environment.

This researcher believes there are other variables that have possible relations to the use of communication strategies and learning strategies. This study will try to reveal some aspects of the effect of the academic level, the type of task, and other possible factors.

Questions of the study

This researcher will try to answer the following questions:

1. How do English Majors of Taiz University deploy their strategic competence when they want to achieve their communicative goals, in terms of using communication strategies?

2. How do English majors manage their strategic competence when they learn new items in English, in terms of using learning strategies?

3. How can teaching the strategies of learning and communication help the English major students at Taiz University to develop their strategic competence?

This question will lead us to answer the following secondary questions:

1- Is teaching strategic competence necessary and useful for second language acquisition?

II- What are the difficulties faced by the Yemeni English language learners in terms of learning and practising English language and how can strategic competence overcome such difficulties?
Significance of the study

This is the first study to target the strategic competence of students of Taiz University learning English as a foreign language. As it is mentioned above, English language major learners of Taiz do not live in the helpful environment to improve their ability of using the language for real life situations. This, in fact, will affect their ability to achieve the expected results from the courses offered by the English department’s program. Since, this study has chosen the learner-related factors that tend to be the key for solving those problems, it will look for the solutions of the problems the learners of English face in using and learning the language and the effect of each factor on the other.
CHAPTER TWO

Empirical Studies on Strategic Competence

Introduction

In this chapter, this researcher will review the empirical studies and trace the developments accompanying the research on communication strategy and learning strategy, the results attained by the various studies that covered the various types of strategic behaviours of foreign language learners, and the factors that affect quality and quantity.

I) Empirical Studies on Communication Strategies

Types of strategies

The first systematic study\(^1\) on communication strategy was undertaken by Varadi (1983).\(^2\) He presented a detailed analysis of the strategic behaviour of the foreign language learner that was called “message adjustment”. In that empirical study of communication strategy, Varadi tried to establish a model of inter-language production, which in

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\(^1\) Tamas Varadi, first, presented the study at the 6th Conference of Rumanian-English Linguistics Project, Timisoara; Rumania, in 1973 and it was published in IRAL Vol.: 18/1 pp.59-71 (1980), and then it has been included in the editorial work of Faerch and Kasper (1983).

particular focused on the strategies employed by the foreign language learners while experiencing a difficulty in expressing themselves in the target language. Varadi (1983) argued,

"the question of how close to the target language the foreign language learner comes to, communicating what he wanted to, must not be disregarded in assessing success in foreign language acquisition."

Taking into account the implication of this criterion and the failure of the previous approaches such as error analysis and the contrastive analysis in presenting a clear and expressive picture of the foreign language learners’ ways to express their ideas without having enough resources in comparison to the native language learner, Varadi presented “a schematic view of the communication process of the target language learners”. However she noticed that learners were not assumed necessarily to pass through all these stages in a logical sequence as it was formulated. This model was served only to clarify processes that underlie the strategic behaviour of language learner at the time of producing language despite his low resources of the target language. The first stage of the target language learner’s communication processes was “described as a search for a suitable linguistic form to convey the intended meaning”. That wish by the learner to express himself in a target language was called an optimal message. This optimal message had two forms depending on whether they were considered from the point of view of the native language speaker or target language learner. So, there would be two forms of mental representations of the intended message that in turn would have two target language forms.

3 ibid., p. 80.
4 ibid.
5 ibid., p. 82.
The first form would be proper if the native speaker produced it or if the learner’s mother tongue was matched to that of the target language. In this part of his model, Varadi considers language production a linear process in that the speaker thinks in his native language then produces the linguistic form accordingly. The second form would be the form that the learner selected in the belief that it conveyed his meaning. However, the chosen form would be of two types of optimal meanings and two types of linguistic forms. At that stage, the learner seemed to search for a suitable linguistic form that would convey his intended meaning.

Meanwhile, difficulties emerged since the learner’s approximation system was by definition impoverished, the range of available formal means to express this meaning was much more limited in the target language than in the base language ‘the mother tongue’. Moreover, even the available formal alternatives were presumably less readily accessible. So, two possibilities might arise at that point: “1) the learner might find a satisfactory linguistic form through formal reduction or replacement and having found a viable means to express his meaning”\(^6\) that could be “deviant or even subject to misinterpretation”\(^7\) or a proper form. 2) Also he might fail, “by any means available to him to formulate his optimal meaning so as to bring it within the sphere of his encoding capabilities’’.\(^8\) That adjustment of meaning usually involved sacrifices of the parts of the optimum message; loss of precision or it might lead to complete shift of optimal meaning.

\(^6\) ibid., p. 83.
\(^7\) ibid.
\(^8\) ibid.
That empirical study aimed at investigating some of the aspects of the message adjustment phenomenon. For fulfilling the objective, She carried out a small-scale experiment “to arrive at a preliminary assessment of the validity of the theoretical formulations”\(^9\). She selected two groups of nine and ten adult learners of English at an intermediate level as the subjects of the study. The experiment was conducted in two phases. In the first phase both groups were asked to describe related a series of drawings. Group-One was asked to describe the picture story in English within 45 minutes; Group-Two was asked to describe it in the mother tongue within 30 minutes. Subjects were not allowed to use dictionary in either phase of the experiment. Immediately after finishing the task, they were asked to describe the picture story for the second time in the other language. For a technical reason, the second phase of the experiment was conducted some days later. The subjects were asked to translate the English version to their mother tongue version and vice versa.

With those procedures, Varadi accounted the mother language version to represent the learners’ optimal meaning and the English version to represent the adjusted message arrived at by reconstruction through their actual message whenever the two did not coincide. Thus, it would be possible to attribute the differences between the two versions to the adjustment phenomenon resorted to by the learners under the compelling force of their imperfect competence in Target language. Also, it was important to ascertain, whether the learner was fully aware that the preferred form failed to convey his optimal meaning but was chosen because it provided the closest approximation that his approximative system allowed or whether the learner felt that the chosen form did not

\(^9\) ibid., p. 87.
convey his optimum meaning. In this way, it could be possible to ascertain that the deviant was an indication of the lack of awareness of the difference between the native and target language or that the adjustment had occurred.

The study reveals that the results that ascertained “the general validity of the theoretical presuppositions that presented, in particular, the concept of message adjustment”\(^{10}\). Furthermore, the retranslation of English into Mother tongue often failed to serve the purpose of establishing the distinction between cases of adjustment and unintentional incorrect use of adjustment of Target language elements. Also, there was a variation in the length of the two versions and their state of completion. Those differences were accounted by Varadi to support the view that starting with Mother tongue was easier than to begin with Target language. In addition, significant reduction between the two versions was clearly evident. The English version was a series of simple, isolated statements. The relation between these statements was chronological that was not indicated by any means of linguistic means other than the mere succession of the sentences. The failure to indicate explicitly another type of relationship, causality, was also marked. Another characteristic of the English versions by contrast with the Hungarian versions was extreme stylistic economy and simplicity. However, a distinction between “intensional and extensional”\(^{11}\) reduction was highlighted by the study. Within intensional reduction, Varadi also distinguished between two different cases: 1) generalization that was the use of a super-ordinate term

\(^{10}\) ibid., p. 96.

\(^{11}\) Varadi meant by the “intensional” reduction in meaning, the relaxation of precision caused by selection of forms whose meaning though related to it, fell short of optimal meaning. On the other hand, “extensional” reduction was the elimination of parts of the meaning and manifested in the omission of particular forms.
with reference to its hyponym and 2) the approximation that was roughly defined as an attempt to reconstruct the optimal meaning by explicating. It was noted that if enough of the semantic components “balloon” have been extensionally rendered for the offered form to convey the optimal meaning inherently, it should no longer be regarded as an approximation but rather as a circumlocution.

Factors affecting selection and use of strategies

Exploiting a different classification of communication strategies, Bialystok’s (1983) attempted to examine the issue of implementation of strategies by dealing with three questions ‘who uses which strategy’, and ‘when and with what effect’. The purpose of the study was to locate regularities attributable to any of these factors with respect to the approach by various second-language learners to specific communication problem.

Thus, in order to elicit the use of communication strategies when appropriate target language vocabulary of the learner was deficient, she designed a task to meet three criteria. The task had to stimulate real communication exchange in which one of the interlocutors was a monolingual speaker of the target language. Second the task had to provide an incentive for the learner to attempt to convey difficult information. Third, it was necessary to have control over the items for which the communication strategies were to be examined. The task used

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in that study was picture description in which a subject was asked to
describe a picture, so that a native speaker of that language ‘the
interlocutor’ could accurately reconstruct it.

The subjects in that study were sixteen students in the twelfth class,
learning French in high school, who were divided into two groups 10
regular and 6 advanced students, and a group of fourteen adults learning
French in a civil program. The adults were generally more advanced in
their studies than the students of high school. In addition, all subjects
completed a cloze test to get an individual assessment of proficiency, and
a more difficult test was required for the adult learners than the one for
the twelfth grade students.

As for the first question, ‘who uses which strategy’ the study showed
these results: by considering the two groups of the twelfth grade and the
advanced adult learners separately, there were no differences among the
three groups in their quantitative use of the strategies. A significant
difference in selection emerged, however, by considering the L1-based
and L2-based strategies separately. The twelfth grade used significantly
fewer L1-based strategies. Nonetheless, since they used the same mean
number of strategies per item as the other two groups, they compensated
by a relative increase in L2-based strategies. Individual differences on
these measures obtained through the correlation between proficiency
level -as indicated by the cloze test- and the individual’s strategy use.
Again the average number of strategies used bore no relation to
proficiency, but the blend of these strategies in terms of their base in the
L1 or L2 did. For the adults, there was a significant negative relationship
between the proficiency level and the L1-based strategies used. For the
learners, the relationship was negative but not significant, although when
separated into two groups, it was found that the advanced class, which used L1-based strategies most profusely, displayed a positive non-significant relationship between cloze scores and the proportion of L1-based strategies.

Determining exactly ‘which strategy and when’ was also investigated in the study. The results showed that specific intention to be conveyed had an effect in selecting a particular strategy from those broad categories. In detail, the more advanced learners were more sensitive to the concept to be conveyed in selecting specific strategies. In addition, adult learners modified their strategy selection as a function of the target concept with greater flexibility than the students did.

The study also revealed interesting facts regarding the third question ‘with what effect?’ that the selection and the proficiency variables had an effect on the quality of the chosen strategy. The same strategy seemed to be more effective when the learners who had greater formal control over the target language used it. Answering these three questions, the study concluded that the best strategy was the one based on target language and the best users were those who had formal control over the target language.

**Effect of proficiency on communication strategy use**

Poulisse and Schils (1989)\(^\text{13}\) conducted a study investigating the effect of foreign language learners’ proficiency level on compensatory strategies

used in resolving lexical problems. Besides, the effect of task-related factors on compensatory strategies use was examined. The subjects were three groups of Dutch learners of English at three different proficiency levels. They were tested on three different task levels: picture naming and description, story retell and oral interview with a native speaker of English.

The compensatory strategies in task I, picture naming and description, were identified on the basis of problem indicators such as pauses, repetitions, false starts, a rising intonation, sighs, and laughs. While in tasks II and III, two identification methods were combined to identify the compensatory strategies. Firstly, two independent judges determined where compensatory strategies had occurred on the basis of problem indicators in the data. Secondly, the identification was based on third person’s interpretation of retrospective data, namely, comments that the subjects themselves had given on their performance immediately after having completed the task. Eventually, the criterion for a clear case of compensatory strategies use in tasks II and III was set up as identified by both the judges and on the basis of retrospective comments.

The apparent cases of compensatory strategies were classified by means of a process-oriented taxonomy that distinguished between conceptual and linguistic strategies. In the case of a conceptual strategy, the speaker manipulated the concept and referred to it either by listing some of its defining and characteristic features, or by using the word for a related concept that shared a number of these features. In the first case the approach was analytic; in the second it was holistic. Often analytic strategies include a reference to a related concept that was subsequently modified to enable the listener to identify the intended concept uniquely.
The results revealed that proficiency level is inversely related to the number of compensatory strategies, where the most advanced subjects used fewer compensatory strategies than the least proficient ones did. Also, the type of compensatory strategies chosen by the subjects was not to any large extent related to their proficiency level. Rather the data indicated that task related factors play a large role in that respect. Whereas the subjects predominantly used analytic strategies in the picture naming/description task, they frequently resorted to holistic strategies and transfer strategies in the story retell task and the oral interview.

In addition, Khanji (1996) studied the use of communication strategies by Jordanian learners. He sought whether or not different language proficiency levels of EFL could be characterized by the use of certain type of communication strategy. Khanji followed the criteria that were proposed by Bhaskaran (1988).

The findings of the study showed that the students who used the repetition strategy would usually repeat it in an expanded form in order to gain time for the selection of the next lexical/syntactic items or to improve their executed utterances, “Build up”. Message abandonment was registered when students started to talk about something but were unable to complete the utterance due to lack of knowledge of message structure, which consequently caused a conversation breakdown. In all instances of that strategy use, students became frustrated in the middle of

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an utterance and gave up after frequent long pauses, with no appeal for help from the teacher or conversation partner. Semantic contiguity was noticed when students replaced a lexical item by another one that shared certain semantic features with it. In those cases, students provided an approximate item of the unknown word by using a similar but known lexical item. Transliteration was registered when students used second language lexicon and structure to create a literal transliteration of an item originated in their first language. Topic shift was noted. It was registered when students had to shift immediately to another topic or message after realizing that it was quite difficult to talk about a certain point for which vocabulary or structure items were not known. Code switching was also observed when students inserted a word or phrase in his mother tongue intentionally due to lack of knowledge of the needed language item. It was produced instantly and without much thinking by using quite simple words or phrases which students think of as their English counterparts. The appeal for assistance strategy was registered when students asked for help in English either from their interlocutors or their teachers.

With respect to the proficiency level, high percentage of reduction use among low-level learners was considered an indication of their low proficiency level since it was not resorted to by the advanced-level group and the intermediate-level group. The reduction strategies were repetition and message abandonment. On the other hand, other types of strategies were categorized as achievement strategies. Those strategies were prevalent among the advanced and the intermediate groups. In detail, transliteration, semantic contiguity and code switching were the most prevalent types of strategies used among the intermediate group. Khanji noted that,
it stands to reason that as linguistic competence grows, as seen in the increased use of achievement strategies and the low occurrences of the reduction strategies, speakers are willing to get around the language inadequacy by trying to keep the channel open.”

So the rare use of repetition, message abandonment and appeal for assistance were assumed to indicate that the advanced learners had gained more creativity and flexibility in using language than the low level students, in other words, got more language input at their disposal to be able to talk their way out of difficulty. In the study the advanced learners seemed to have a greater control on their linguistic resources where the topic shift and semantic contiguity appeared to be the most used strategies. These two risk-taking strategies were claimed to require more serious attempts on the part of the learners to come up with an approximate translation of the needed language items and to demand greater lexical and syntactic knowledge.

Also, Paribakht (1985) studied the effect of proficiency level on the use of communication strategies. The subjects were three groups of twenty adults: two groups of Persian ESL students at intermediate and at advanced level, and a group of a native speaker. The task designed for the study was ‘concept-identification’. All the subjects were required to communicate twenty single lexical items comprising concrete as well as abstract concepts to native speakers of English interlocutor in an interview situation.

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17 Ibid., p. 150.
The results revealed that the native speakers and advanced level learners used fewer communication strategies than low proficiency level that was because they did not encounter communicative problems as frequently as low-proficiency learners but when they faced such communicative problems, like the low proficiency learners, they seemed to appeal to the same strategies and drew upon similar knowledge sources for solution.

Rabab’ah (2001)\textsuperscript{19} conducted a study of the strategic competence of Arab English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan. Its main aim was to determine which communication strategies were used by English majors while communicating in L1 Arabic and L2 English. Furthermore, it aimed to examine whether the messages transmitted by the learners were successful and comprehensible or not. Also, it aimed to investigate how and by means of which strategies Arab English majors overcame their communication problems, and which strategies they used in communicating in their native language. The subjects of the study were 30 English majors at Yarmouk University, put into three proficiency levels according to an adapted TOEFL test. The collected data were based on the learners’ performance in three communicative tasks especially designed for the study that represented typical classroom tasks. The subjects' communication strategies were identified from features of their performance such as hesitation, pauses and repeats. The researcher and two of his English colleagues assessed message transmission success on the basis of whether the transmitted messages were comprehensible or not.

\textsuperscript{19} Ghaleb Rabab’ah, “An Investigation into the Strategic Competence of Arab Learners of English at Jordanian Universities,” \textit{Ph.D. Dissertation Abstracts at Linguist List} 2001.\textsuperscript{19}\textsuperscript{20}.
One of the main findings of that study was that English majors made a wide use of communication strategies. These strategies were mostly L2-based strategies. Another finding was that in spite of the learners’ limited linguistic knowledge, English majors managed to communicate their intended meaning by making use of communication strategies. It was also found that the learners’ use of communication strategies was related to their proficiency level, in that L1 based strategies decreased as proficiency improved. One of the most interesting additional findings was the effect of the mother tongue ‘Arabic’, which increased the variety of strategy use. For example, literal translation and word coinage were widely influenced by mother tongue interference. It was found that Arabic speakers used many communication strategies when compared with speakers of other languages in communication strategy research. The subjects’ use of communication strategies was also related to the type of task they were performing. Finally, Arab learners used communication strategies in their native language, but when compared to the communication strategies used in their target language, these were fewer in terms of frequency and varied in terms of type.

**Communication strategy use and culture**

Wongsawang (2001)\(^2\) conducted a study aimed at exploring communication strategy use for culture-specific notions in second language by answering two questions: ‘What kinds of communication strategies will Thai ESL speakers employ to convey these referential

concepts in English? and ‘will there be any patterns that can be observed as different from communication strategy used in other kinds of tasks?’ The subjects were 30 Thai native speakers with intermediate English proficiency. They were asked to perform two tasks that contained culture-specific notions. The analysis focused on 14 concepts that were expected to be problematic.

The results showed that circumlocution and approximation were the most preferred strategies. Patterns of approximation, all-purpose words, and L1 words followed by circumlocution were also seen and found to be similar to the hierarchy of communication strategy found elsewhere in the referential communication strategy research. Finally, the study suggested that the familiarity of the L2 speaker with a concept did not always help them in dealing with communicative problems; rather it was their knowledge of how to talk about it in the L2 that matter more.

**Type of task and communication strategy use**

Poulisse (1990\(^{21}\) in Wongsawang, 2001\(^{22}\)) studied the effect of task-related factors on the use of compensatory strategies. In her study, she found that participants preferred long and informative analytic strategies in a picture description task while short, less informative, holistic, and transfer strategies were found more in a story-retell task and oral interviews. Furthermore, some other factors related to communication features had some important roles in affecting the use of communication strategy such as the mutual knowledge by both interlocutors. Poulisse,


\(^{22}\) Wongsawang, p. 114.
(1990\textsuperscript{23}, cited in Wongsawang, 2001)\textsuperscript{24} argued that the speaker should always take the listener’s knowledge into account in order to make the communication effective. Thus, effective reference use would be achieved if the speaker used referents based on conceptual or linguistic knowledge shared by the interlocutor. She concluded to the fact that not only the type of task but the mutual knowledge had effects on the selection and use of communication strategy.

**Evaluating communicative performance through communication strategy use**

Ellis (1984)\textsuperscript{25} focused only on two general strategies avoidance and paraphrase to show how examining the use of these former strategies can refine the evaluation of the learner’s communicative performance. Two groups of learners were included in the study. One group consisted of six native speakers and the other consisted of six second-language learners studying English in Britain for one year. They were asked to tell a story depicted in three pictures. A number of key information-bits were identified by anticipating what information ought to be included in a notionally ‘good account of the story’.

The results showed that the L1 learners resorted less to avoidance and paraphrase strategies than L2. The analysis suggested that by isolating a number of information-bits relevant to story-telling task, it proved possible to discriminate the overall communicative performance of the

\textsuperscript{23} Poulisse, p. 68.
\textsuperscript{24} Wongsawang, p. 114.
two groups of children on this task. Whereas all learners were able to communicate something about the pictures, L1 were able to communicate more information (i.e. used avoidance less) in language that was considered stylistically acceptable (i.e. used paraphrase less).

II- Empirical Studies on Learning Strategies

Effect of proficiency level on language learning strategy use

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1986) conducted a study to examine the extent to which language learning strategies were used by children of different second language proficiencies in bilingual classroom and the systematicity in the development of such strategies. They hypothesized that there was a natural order to the development of those strategies. The sample of the study comprised fourteen Mexican American children in bilingual classrooms. Spanish language was the principal spoken language spoken at home. Eight of the fourteen learners formed a part of an experimental group. They were tested on measures of language proficiency and observed systematically in the classroom during their preschool year. The remaining six children were part of the comparison group for the evaluation. Again, both groups were tested and observed in their first grade classroom as part of a follow up study on the lasting effect study of the preschool experience. After that, the sample was stratified into three groups, based on their English language proficiency.

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The principal data collection technique was observation. The focus was on those utterances of a target child motivated by an attempt to develop the second language. Twelve categories of the learning strategies employed to spot the occurring strategies within the subject of the study that were based on the framework of Rubin (1981) and supplemented by the work of Bialystok (1981) and Tarone (1983).

The results showed that the use of learning strategies were common among children in bilingual classrooms during the early educational experiences. It was found that in both preschool and first grade a large percentage of the verbal interactions in English involved learning strategies. Though language learning strategies formed a large part of all of the children's discourse in English overtime, there was a consistent progression in the range of strategies used. Through the use of implicational scaling technique, it was shown that at least for young children in bilingual classrooms, there was a natural order to the development of second language learning strategies. However, increasing proficiency in the second language would seem to imply the ability to language learning strategies in more demanding ways. Those with greater language proficiency were found to employ a wider range of strategies than their less proficient peers.

Also focusing on how certain variables, particularly those of proficiency and gender, affect the self-reported use of language learning strategies,

Wharton (2000)\textsuperscript{30} conducted a study that aimed at examining the overall use of learning strategies. The participants in the study included 678 undergraduate university students studying Japanese or French, of whom 72\% were engineering or computer science students, 23\% were accountancy or business students, and 5\% were enrolled in communication studies. The instrument used to collect the data was the ‘SILL questionnaire’, which was developed by Oxford (1990)\textsuperscript{31}. It was accompanied by a background questionnaire designed to elicit information on students major field of study, mother tongue, gender, degree of motivation, languages regularly spoken, proficiency self ratings, the FL and course level currently studied, length of time already spent studying the FL, reasons for taking the FL, and language learning attitude.

The results showed that: a) the mean of overall strategy use was in the medium range of SILL, b) there was a significant difference in means of students of Japanese and those of French “that was attributed to the instrumental motivations that directed their study of FL”, c) the average of frequency of overall strategy use was lower than that found in studies of strategy use in SL settings, d) the learners favor the SILL social strategies more than any other strategy category, e) the degree of motivation had the most significant effect on the use of language learning strategies, f) students with good and fair proficiency self-ratings used SILL strategies in general significantly more often than those with poor proficiency self-ratings, and g) absence of gender overall use of strategies


was found while at specific-item level males used a greater number of strategies significantly more often than females.

**Explicit teaching of learning strategies**

The largest controlled study to date is Cohen, Weaver and Li’s (1996) study. The study used thirty-hour course in strategies-based instruction for training the teachers, who were teaching French and Norwegian classes. It concentrated on three speaking tasks: self-description, story-retelling, and city description. Students completed the SILL and gave evidence in the form of think-aloud protocols. The study compared, in a quasi-experimental design, an experimental group who received the strategies based instruction and a comparison group who did not. There was thus control of input and a direct link between treatment, with or without strategy instruction, and specific language tasks. While the results do not go all the experimental group’s way, the study provides a firm basis for the claim that strategy-based instruction makes a measurable difference in both how students perform (that is, their performance by using strategies and modes of action) and how well they perform (that is, the quality of their performance of the set tasks).

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Effect of learners’ variables on learning strategy use

Purdie and Oliver (1999) investigated the use of strategy by bilingual primary school-aged learners and the effect of learners’ variables (cultural group, place of birth, period of stay in Australia, and whether they had or had not received English as a second language help) on the use of learning strategy. Also, they investigated the effect of students’ language efficacy beliefs and their attitudes to English as a prediction power on the use of language learning strategy. The study was applied on 58 students who came from three different cultural groups: Asian, Arabic, and European. A questionnaire was used to collect data in respect of language learning strategies, while structured interview was used to collect data on learners’ variables, language efficacy beliefs and attitude on the use of language learning strategy.

The results showed that the most frequently used strategies were cognitive strategies and the students used strategies to compensate for missing knowledge more than any other types of cognitive strategy. Furthermore, only one significant difference was found between longer and shorter-term residents of Australia; they differed significantly in their use of cognitive strategies, particularly in students’ use of strategies to help them to remember more effectively. However, the least used strategies were the social strategies that were not significantly related to their beliefs of language efficacy or their attitude to English in the classroom or in the playground. Also, no significant differences were noted in strategy use between groups of students according to place of

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birth, and cultural group. Only writing efficacy had more predictive power than academic efficacy in terms of total strategy use.

Also, Yang (1999)\(^{34}\) investigated the relationship between EFL learners’ beliefs and learning strategy use. Her study, used two questionnaires: Horwitz’s (1987)\(^{35}\) BALLI, to collect data in respect of language learning beliefs and Oxford’s (1990) SILL, to collect data on language learning strategies. The study was applied on five hundred and five university students in Taiwan, who were distributed to four groups: freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors.

The results of that study revealed that language learners’ beliefs of self efficacy and expectation about learning English and perceived value and nature of learning spoken English were strongly related to their use of all types of learning strategies, while the beliefs about foreign language aptitude was connected with only functional practice strategies, cognitive strategies and meta-cognitive strategies. The beliefs about formal structural studies had a negative correlation with functional practice strategies. In other words, when students believed that learning grammar, vocabulary and translation were the most important part of learning a foreign language and felt that language learning involved a lot of memorization, they would be unlikely to seek or create opportunities to use or practise English functionally by trying to write, read, speak, or think in English.

Effect of learning strategy training on language skills

O’Malley et al. (1985) investigated the range of frequency of learning strategy uses by students learning English as a second language and the effect of training on English language skill development. The study was conducted with 70 learners of high school who were classified as either beginning or intermediate level in ESL. First, interview and classes observations were used with both teachers and learners to identify the strategies associated with a range of tasks, typically found in classroom and other settings. Second, in a natural classroom setting, the ESL learners were randomly assigned to receive learning strategies training. Instruction of learning strategies was applied to a range of tasks. Different combinations of meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies were presented during training sessions.

The results of the study revealed that students used a variety of learning strategies. Both intermediate and beginning groups used cognitive strategies far more regularly than the meta-cognitive strategies. The analysis of the effect of training in meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective learning strategies with second language learners in a natural classroom setting produced mixed findings, depending on the language learning strategies and task. In the listening skill tasks, there were indications that the difficulty of the task or the explicitness of directions for using the strategies might both be important determinants of performance, i.e. little help could be gained from using learning strategies with difficult listening tasks. Skills in speaking a second language were

clearly improved through learning strategies training. In general, training of learning strategies was successfully demonstrated in a natural teaching environment with second language speaking and listening tasks.

Also an experimental study conducted by Almaktary (2001) targeted the effectiveness of strategy-based training on developing the Yemeni students’ writing skills. The researcher applied a strategy-training program (STP) on a sample of 100 students (50 students in the control group and 50 students in experimental) who had serious deficiencies in their writing skills. The result showed that significant improvement took place on the subjects’ writing skills and on their repertoire of language learning strategies as compared to their previous performance and to that of the control group.

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CHAPTER THREE

Strategic Competence
(Definitions and Taxonomies)

Introduction

Recently, Bachman and Palmer (1996)\(^1\) have adopted the view that strategic competence can involve all kinds of cognitive activities that work consciously or subconsciously to develop or attain a specific goal within language use or any other discipline. However, most of those who worked on one aspect of strategic competence, in particular, communication strategy put this term to mean the compensation for the missing of knowledge within language production activity. Another discipline in language development emerges to take its position within cognitive learning theory to search for specific kinds of behavior that the learners’ success was accounted for in acquiring language. This kind of research has its beginnings with the successful language learner’s behavior. At later times this kind of research came close to mean strategic competence or strategic behavior to include all parts of the learner abilities (cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-affective).

However, this researcher considers both communication strategies and learning strategies the main components of language learners’ strategic competence. This is because the strategic behavior of language

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production is part of the whole cognitive system, which second language learners can learn from or adopt as learning tools. Also, strategic learning relies mainly on the attainment of success in language production. From this departing point of view, we put both of the two activities: communication strategies and learning strategies in two separate sections, seeking all the details of those previous studies in order to be employed to support the aims of this study, in particular, the types of strategies (learning and communication) used by foreign language learners. This chapter will survey the various definitions and classifications of both learning strategies and communication strategies

(I) Communication Strategies

Beginnings of communication strategies

Selinker (1972)\(^2\), in his paper\(^3\) on interlanguage, used the term “communication strategy” to refer to one of the processes that were supposed to be instrumental in causing interlanguage errors. He defined communication strategy as “an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers”\(^4\). However, the identification of these strategies remained a problem spot in the literature of communication strategy. Subsequent definitions too could not sufficiently resolve those problematic issues. As a matter of fact, Selinker also does not appear to be offering any elaborate viable rules for identifying these strategies pertaining to the communicative performance of the second

\(^3\) An earlier version of this paper was read at the Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics Cambridge University, Sep.1969.
\(^4\) Selinker, p. 217.
language learners except that he attributes those deviants to the behavioural strategies of the learners.

**Approaches underlying the taxonomies of communication strategies**

All the varieties in the invented taxonomies of communication strategies reflect specific conceptions on which researchers based their definitions and classifications. Those varieties in classifications and definitions have led to the implementation of different methodologies that caused inconsistency in the results of the empirical studies that followed. That inconsistency in the results is embodied in the worthlessness of studying such phenomenon for solving the essential problem, which is to promote a better understanding of the process underlying the language development of second language learners. Intuitively, we expect that the field of communication strategy research will be suffering from these inconsistencies and worthlessness if the gap between the methodologies of the ongoing studies and the benefits that can be gained from these investigations is not bridged. Also, the bridging of the gap will not be possible if researchers do not overcome the acute diversity in the perspectives towards this very important phenomenon in language acquisition.

Generally, there are two approaches, which seem to dominate the communication strategy research. However, within the same approach there are different methods of defining and classifying communication strategy. The early definitions and classifications of communication
strategy were offered by Tarone (1977). In a later definition and classification, she highlighted the interactive aspects of communication strategies and ignored the psycho ones. Furthermore, she considered “meaning negotiation between at least two interlocutors” a distinctive feature of communication strategy that differentiates it from other phenomena in the study of language use such as learning strategy and production strategy. This approach is called an interactional approach. The second approach is called a psycholinguistic approach. Some methods of that approach are based on a model of speech production and highlighted the problems experienced by the learner in speech reception and in the planning and execution of speech production. This method of Faerch and Kasper (1983) does not completely ignore the cooperative nature of communication strategies but it does not consider it a necessary condition. Within this approach, a different conceptualization has emerged to be based on language processing. This innovative method is adopted by the Nijmegen group and Bialystok. Its most important feature is that “the classification of utterances was based on a description of the processes underlying their production”. They criticized the previous approaches claiming, “the problem with such a classification is that the distinctions in the different types of strategies merely reflect differences in referents and differences in the contexts in which the referents are presented”. This approach developed new classifications by considering

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the new criteria of “parsimony, psychological plausibility and generalizability”

Definitions of communication strategies

Varadi (1983) did not offer a definition, rather a framework that was based on a model of speech production and was presented in a schematic diagram in which a second language learner struggled to reach an equivalent utterance to his ‘base language’ mother tongue. Within these processes, the learner was viewed as a captive of his intended meaning that easily could be produced in his mother language. Then the learner looked for the equivalent utterance in target language in the belief that it was the correct form. At the time the learner faced a difficulty in finding the suitable target language utterance, he resorted to communication strategy. Here the strategy is viewed as a struggle in the mind of the learner, that the intended meaning is being adjusted till it reaches a form that is also liable to another replacement and reduction to suit the adjusted meaning. This process is going on till it reaches a target form that exactly conveys the adjusted meaning in the end. After that many definitions have been followed.

Tarone adopted sorts of definitions and classifications that focused on the interactive aspects of communication strategy. She defined communication strategies as “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to

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agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared”\(^{11}\).

Faerch and Kasper (1983) defined communication strategies as “potential conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal”\(^{12}\).

Corder (1983) defined communication strategies as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty”\(^{13}\). Difficulty is explained by Corder to refer uniquely to the speaker’s inadequate command of the language used in the interaction.

Bialystok (1983) defined communication strategy as “all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication”\(^{14}\).

Ellis (1985) defined communication strategies as “psycholinguistic plans that exist as part of the language user’s communicative competence. They are potentially conscious and serve as substitutes for production plans which the learner is unable to implement”\(^{15}\).

\(^{11}\) Tarone (1980): 240.
Bialystok (1990) defined communication strategy as “dynamic interaction of the components of language processing that balance each other in their level of involvement to meet task demand”\(^{16}\).

**Taxonomies and classifications of communication strategies**

**Corder’s taxonomy**

Corder describes the way the learner produces language in second language:

“The learner will sometimes wish to convey messages which his linguistic resources do not permit him to express successfully. When in the course of interaction the learner finds himself faced with this situation, he has only two options open to him. He can either tailor his message to the resources he has available, that is, adjust his ends to his means. These procedures are called message adjustment strategies, or risk avoidance strategies. Or he can attempt to increase his resources by one means or another in order to realize his communicative intentions. These strategies are called resource-expansion strategies. These are clearly “success-oriented” though risk-running strategies.”\(^{17}\)

**Message adjustment strategies**

1-**Topic avoidance**

(*a refusal to enter into or continue a discourse within some field or topic because of a feeling of total linguistic inadequacy*)\(^{18}\)

\(^{16}\) Bialystok, p. 183.


\(^{18}\) ibid.
2-Message abandonment
(trying to communicate the message but finally giving up)\textsuperscript{19}

3-Semantic avoidance
(saying something slightly different from what one intended but still broadly relevant to the topic or discourse)\textsuperscript{20}

4-Message reduction
(saying less or less precisely what one intended to say)\textsuperscript{21}

Resource expansion strategies

All resource expansion strategies are risk-taking where the failure is expected such as misunderstanding or communication breakdown. With these strategies learners exert a great deal of effort on clarifying his intended message to the degree he sometimes repeats the same utterance, avoids using elliptical, focuses on one aspect of the language (often on the content items and ignores the functional ones and ignores grammar) they include four subcategories:

\textsuperscript{19} ibid.
\textsuperscript{20} ibid.
\textsuperscript{21} ibid.
1-Borrowing
(the use of linguistic resources other than the target language, but
they include guessing of more or less informed kind, that is, an
attempt to use invented or borrowed items, all more or less
approximated to the rules of the target language structure as far as
the learner’s interlanguage allows)\textsuperscript{22}

2-Switching
(complete sentence or words in first language)

3-Paraphrase or circumlocution
(getting around your problem with the knowledge you have)\textsuperscript{23}

4-Paralinguistic devices
(typically gesture)\textsuperscript{24}

5-Appeal for help
(from the interlocutor for a word or expression)\textsuperscript{25}

**Varadi’s taxonomy**

The classification of Varadi based on a model of language production in
which the second language learner tries to match his intended meaning to
the linguistic resources. This model is viewed to involve two contrasted
processes: the adjustment of meaning and then the adjustment of form.
Meaning in this classification equates the message while the form equates
the expression either sentence or words. Within these two adjustments
there are two major strategies: replacement and reduction strategies. The
reduction strategies or the replacement strategies at the meaning level

\textsuperscript{22} ibid., p. 18.
\textsuperscript{23} ibid.
\textsuperscript{24} ibid.
\textsuperscript{25} ibid.
come first and result in either a reduction or a replacement in the form. Varadi identifies the adjustment at the meaning level as a translation of the intention (optimal meaning) in a linguistic (L1) form. If the L2 resources are available the process moves to the adjustment at (L1) form. If not, then a series of two processes work: reducing the optimal meaning to a completely different one or replace it with another meaning which is close to the previous one. On the form level also the same two processes work but either reduce or make paraphrasing or a circumlocution to the (L2) form. If the form is reduced then optimal meaning is fully reduced or replaced till the right form, which conveys the adjusted message, becomes available.

Adjusted meaning

1-Reduction (deliberately sacrifice part of the meaning he originally wanted to communicate)²⁶
2-Replacement (manipulation of optimal meaning)²⁷

Adjusted form

1-Reduction (elimination of certain formal target elements or reduction in the range of synonymous target forms, i.e. over use of one form at the expense of the others)²⁸
2-Replacement (changing the form through paraphrasing or circumlocution)²⁹

Thus communication strategies in Varadi’s taxonomy involve various kinds of message adjustment. They are of two main types adjustment

²⁶ Varadi, p. 83.
²⁷ ibid.
²⁸ ibid., p. 85.
²⁹ ibid., p. 84.
strategies: adjustment that leads to reducing of the message (reduction strategies) and that leads to replacing the message with another one (replacement strategies). Within each type, two different strategies are involved. Replacement involves either circumlocution or paraphrase. In the reduction strategy Varadi differentiated between two types intensional that is achieved through generalization and extensional reduction that is achieved through approximation.

**Faerch and Kasper’s taxonomy**

The classification of Faerch and Kasper’s (1983) is based on a model of speech production in which strategic goal is the problem and the product of the execution phase controlled by the strategy is a solution. So, problem orientedness is used as a primary criterion in this taxonomy while consciousness is as a secondary defining criterion. “This taxonomy drew a distinction between two major types of communication strategies: reduction governed by avoidance behavior and achievement governed by achievement behavior.”

**Reduction strategies**

They are mainly of two types:

1. formal reduction strategies
2. functional reduction strategies

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30 Faerch and Kasper, pp. 36-37.
**Formal reduction strategies**

The second language speaker “communicates by means of a ‘reduced’
system, in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by
realizing insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items”\(^{31}\). This
strategy includes four sub-strategies:

- a- Phonological
- b- Morphological
- c- Syntactic
- d- Lexical

**Functional reduction strategies**

The second language learner may “reduce his communicative goal in
order to avoid a problem. The reduction can attain the character of global
reduction, affecting the global goal, or it can be restricted to one or more
local goals (local reduction)”\(^{32}\). This strategy is used with these three
elements of communicative goals:

- a- Actional reduction,
- b- Model reduction,
- c- Reduction of propositional content

**Achievement strategies**

Learner attempts to solve a problem by expanding his communicative
resources:

\(^{31}\) ibid., p. 38.
\(^{32}\) ibid., p. 43.
a- Code switching
b- Transfer
c- Interlanguage-based strategies
d- Co-operative
e- Non-linguistic

Tarone’s typology

The taxonomy of Tarone (19773³, cited in Tarone 19833⁴) is formed of five major strategies. Each of these strategies describes the way a language learner solves the communicative problem. On some occasions the learner stops talking since the communication opens a new topic that seems difficult to be managed. This is because speaking about that topic becomes a risk. Thus, the learner abandons his intent since he feels that he lacks the linguistic resources.

1- Paraphrase

It is “the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction”3⁵. This strategy involves three strategies:

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A - Approximation: (the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker.)

B - Word coinage: (the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept, e.g. air ball for balloon.)

C - Circumlocution: (the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or the action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.)

2- Borrowing

This strategy includes two types:

A - Literal translation: (the learner translates word for word from the native language)

B - Language switch: (the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate)

3- Appeal for assistance

(The learner asks for the correct term)

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36 ibid., p. 62.
37 ibid.
38 ibid.
39 ibid.
40 ibid.
41 ibid.
4- Mime

(The learner uses non-verbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action)\textsuperscript{42}

5- Avoidance

Sometimes learner goes into difficult topics that he cannot manage, so he either tries to avoid some parts of that topic or to drawback the whole topic to another one. Avoidance can be of two types:

\textbf{A- Topic avoidance:} (the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the target item or structure is not known.)\textsuperscript{43}

\textbf{B- Message abandonment:} (the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance.)\textsuperscript{44}

**Bialystok’s taxonomy (1983)**

Bialystok developed a taxonomy that was based mainly on the typology of Tarone (1977) with conceptual reorganization. Its basis was a consideration of the source of the information on which the strategy was based. Bialystok (1983) explained that the information that was incorporated into strategic effort might be derived from “\textit{a) the learners’ source language, or any language other than the target language; b) the target language itself; or c) non-linguistic or contextual information given with the situation}”\textsuperscript{45}. The proposed taxonomy, therefore, that was based on these distinctions were referred to as:

\textsuperscript{42} ibid.

\textsuperscript{43} ibid., p. 63.

\textsuperscript{44} ibid.

\textsuperscript{45} Bialystok, p. 105.
First language-based strategies

**Language switch:** (refers to the insertion of a word or phrase in a language other than the target language, usually the learner’s native language.)\(^46\)

**Foreignizing native language item:** (is the insertion of non-existent or contextually inappropriate target language words by applying target morphology and/or phonology to the native language lexical item.)\(^47\)

**Transliteration:** (reflects the use of target language lexicon and structure to create a, usually non-existent, literal translation of a native language item or phrase.)\(^48\)

Target language-based strategies

**Semantic contiguity:** (is defined as the use of a single lexical item which shares certain semantic features with the target item)\(^49\)

**Description:** (has three sub classifications which indicate the information which has been incorporated into the description. They are)\(^50\).

\(^{46}\) ibid.
\(^{47}\) ibid.
\(^{48}\) ibid.
\(^{49}\) ibid., p. 106.
\(^{50}\) ibid.
**General physical properties:** (refer to universal features of objects, that is, color, size, material, and spatial dimension)\(^51\)

**Specific distinguishing features:** (are usually marked by the surface structure)\(^52\)

**Interactional/functional descriptions:** (indicate the functions of an object and the actions that can be performed with it)\(^53\)

**Word coinage:** (the creation of target lexical item by selecting a conceptual feature of the target item and incorporating it into the target language morphological system)\(^54\).

**Non-linguistic strategies:**

"they refer to the use of non-verbal actions to convey the meaning of a target language item, such as mime"\(^55\)

**Bialystok (1990) classification**

In a study investigating the validity of the previous classifications, Bialystok rejected all the taxonomic approaches and tried to classify communication strategies according to a binary system that takes into consideration the criterion of classifying communication strategies according to the difference in the cognitive processing of the utterances rather than the surface structures. She assigned two strategies:

\(^{51}\) ibid.
\(^{52}\) ibid.
\(^{53}\) ibid.
\(^{54}\) ibid., 107.
\(^{55}\) ibid.
Analysis-based strategy

*(It is an attempt to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features. The strategies from the descriptive taxonomies that are included in the analysis-based strategy are circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, and word coinage where the attempt is to incorporate distinctive features into the expression, and mime where the attempt is to convey important properties.)*

Control-based strategy

*(It is to switch attention away from the linguistic system being used and focus instead on some other symbolic reference system that can achieve the same communicative function)*

Paribakht’s Taxonomy

Paribakht (1985) suggests that there are four approaches which are used to solve the communicative problems: linguistic approach, contextual approach, conceptual approach, and mime.

Linguistic approach

This first major category of communication strategies with which the learner “exploits the semantic features of the target items” that intends to be conveyed.

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*ibid.
*ibid., p. 135.*
**Semantic contiguity:** "the speaker exploits items that semantically relate to the target item"\(^{60}\) at a super-ordinate class, positive comparison 'such as analogy and synonym' or negative comparison 'such as contrast and antonymy'.

**Circumlocution:** This second subcategory of the linguistic approach is "an attempt to describe the characteristics of the concept."\(^{61}\) It includes Physical description, constituent features, locational property, historical property, and functional description.

**Meta-linguistic description:** "the speaker gives meta-linguistic information on the target item."\(^{62}\)

**Contextual approach**

The second major approach is an attempt to "exploit the contextual knowledge about the target item rather than its semantic features."\(^{63}\) There are four subcategories of contextual knowledge:

**Linguistic context** "the speaker provides the interlocutor with the linguistic context of the target item."\(^{64}\)

**Target language idioms and proverbs** "the speaker exploits his knowledge of target idioms or proverbs to refer the interlocutor to a specific and popular context where the target item is used"\(^{65}\)

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\(^{60}\) ibid.
\(^{61}\) ibid., 136.
\(^{62}\) ibid.
\(^{63}\) ibid., 137.
\(^{64}\) ibid.
\(^{65}\) ibid.
Transliteration of first language idioms and proverbs “the
speaker exploits one’s knowledge of target idioms or proverb to
refer the interlocutor to a specific and popular context where the
target item is used.”66

Idiomatic transfer “it involves reference to some semantic feature
of an L1 idiom, as opposed to its actual translation assuming that it
will work the same way in the target language.”67

Conceptual approach
The third major strategy is “an attempt to exploit the speaker’s world
knowledge and of a particular situation.”68 This strategy includes:

Demonstration “creates a concrete context that reflects the target
concept.”69

Exemplification “refers to examples such as certain people,
occasions, or real events that correspond to the target concept.”70

Metonymy refers to “a concept that is represented through a
prototype member of that concept.”71

Mime
The fourth main strategy exploits “the speaker’s knowledge of meaningful
gestures”72 to convey his message nonverbally. This strategy includes
two sub categories:

Replacing verbal output “this strategy is used by the speaker to
substitute for a linguistic output.”73
(II) Language Learning Strategies

Brief History

As a result of the development in the cognitive psychology, which particularly affected language-learning research, a new area of research focused on the learner’s factors has emerged. The first study that targeted the learning strategy was carried out by Carton and Magaud (1966\textsuperscript{75}, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000)\textsuperscript{76}. In the 70s, the learner strategy research led to a remarkable progress in understanding the importance of the learner and his role in the whole learning process. However, at that time the primary concern was on identifying the good language learner’s characteristics, how they learn a second or foreign language. So far, many studies have been commenced aiming at discovering the principles of language learning and the features that are supposed to foster the process of language acquisition.

“Rubin (1975)\textsuperscript{77}, the well-known American socio-linguist, began to pursue the idea of investigating language learning by studying the

\textsuperscript{71} ibid.
\textsuperscript{75} Aaron Carton and Nancy Magaud, \textit{The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study}, (New York: The Research Foundation of the City University of New York, 1966).
strategies of good language learners with the aim once learning strategies were identified, such strategies could be made available to less successful learners. In her study she observed language classes directly, on videotape, elicited observation from second language teacher and observed in language learning situation. On that basis, she established a provisional list of seven learning strategies. Her classification of strategies was in terms of processes contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. In 1975, Stern also proposed a list of ten characteristics that was similar to Rubin’s.

Those early studies marked a new direction in which the focus turned on the learner’s characteristics and needs. Though the focus of such studies was on the characteristics of the good and successful language learner, the main aim was to help unsuccessful language learners. In this respect many propositions were suggested and many studies were commenced that recommended teaching the features of good language learners to those who have difficulties in their language learning. However, still there might be some other factors that always interfere to limit the effect of strategic behavior in learning process; otherwise, such ideas would change so many things and language learning strategies would be the magic prescription for less successful learners to overcome the difficulties in language learning.

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79 Stern, (1983); pp. 405- 406.
Definitions of learning strategies

According to Ellis (1994)\textsuperscript{81} the definition of learning strategies is still ambiguous in the sense that it produces a number of problems. He identifies five problems. The first problem addresses the perception of the learning strategies, “whether they are to be perceived of as behavioral (and therefore observable) or as mental, or as both”\textsuperscript{82}. The second problem centers on the nature of the activities that are considered learning strategies. Ellis announces, “there is a considerable uncertainty”\textsuperscript{83} in accounting some behaviors as strategies or as techniques. Referring to the definition of Stern (1983)

“strategy was best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving learning techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior, more or less consciously employed by learner”\textsuperscript{84}.

The third problem is “whether learning strategies are to be seen as conscious and intentional or as subconscious”\textsuperscript{85}. The fourth problem is “whether learning strategies are seen as having a direct effect on interlanguage development”\textsuperscript{86}. The fifth concerns the differences in the opinions about “what motivates the use of learning strategies”\textsuperscript{87}. Here are some of the definitions of language learning strategies by some scholars:

\textsuperscript{81} Rod Ellis, \textit{The Study of Second Language Acquisition}, (oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994) 531.
\textsuperscript{82} ibid.
\textsuperscript{83} ibid.
\textsuperscript{84} Stern, p. 405.
\textsuperscript{86} ibid., p. 532.
\textsuperscript{87} ibid.
Bialystok (1978) defines learning strategies as “optional methods for exploring available information to increase the proficiency of second language learning”\(^{88}\)

Tarone (1980) defines learning strategies as “attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language”\(^{89}\). Her main emphasis is on differentiating learning strategy from communication strategy.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) stress that a learning strategy “can be conceived of as a process in which the learner gradually develops his interlanguage system by establishing hypothetical rules (hypothesis formation) and by testing them out (hypothesis testing)”\(^{90}\)

Rubin (1987\(^1\); cited in Yutaka, 1996\(^2\)) defines learning strategies as those “strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”

Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) state that learning strategies are “intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so

\(^{90}\) Faerch and Kasper (1983) 53.
as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.\textsuperscript{93}

Scarcella and Oxford (1992\textsuperscript{94}, cited in Oxford, 2003\textsuperscript{95}) define learning strategies “as specific action, behaviors, steps techniques [or thoughts] used by students to enhance their own learning”. Cohen, Weaver, and Li (1996) define learning strategies as “the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by students to facilitate language learning tasks and to personalize the language learning process.”\textsuperscript{96} Alike, Chamot (2004) defines learning strategies as “the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal”\textsuperscript{97}.

Characteristics of good language learners

Brown (1987) observes

“during 1970s teachers and researchers came to realize that no single research finding and no single method of language teaching would usher in an era of utopia of absolute, predictable success in teaching a second language. It was observed that certain learners seemed to be successful in spite of methods or techniques. This led to take into


consideration the importance of the individual variation in language learning. Some learners seemed to have capabilities to succeed; some others lacked those capabilities. That observation led some researchers such as (Rubin, 1975 and Stern 1975) to describe good language learners in terms of their personal characteristics, styles, and strategies”. 98

Rubin (1975, in Brown, 198799) suggests that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers, have a strong drive to communicate, are often uninhibited about their weaknesses in the second language and ready to risk making mistakes, are willing to make mistakes, focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing, take advantage of all practice opportunities, monitor their speech as well as that of others, and pay attention to meaning.

Stern, (1975100, cited in McDonough, 1999101) claimed that his list of ten strategies is nominated as features that mark out good language learning. Thus, “good language learners are those who have their own personal learning styles or positive learning strategies. They are active in approaching the learning task. They tolerate their and others’ mistakes in the target language, sociable and empathetic with its speakers. They consciously tackle a language using technical know-how about how”. They experiment and plan with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and revise this system progressively.

99 Brown, p. 92.
They constantly search for meaning. They have willingness to practice. They have willingness to use the language in real communication. They self-monitor. They have critical sensitivity to language use. They develop the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learn to think in it.

Problems in classifying learning strategies

Taking into consideration the various systems underlying the classification of learning strategies, Oxford (1994) has commented, “an apparent failure in agreement on almost two dozen L2 strategy classification systems have been divided into the following groups: (1) systems related to successful language learners (Rubin, 1975); (2) systems based on psychological functions (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990); (3) linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981) or with communication strategies like paraphrasing or borrowing (Tarone, 1983); (4) systems related to separate language skills (Cohen, 1990); and (5) systems based on different styles or types of learners (Sutter, 1989). The existence of these distinct strategy typologies indicates a major problem in the research area of L2 learning strategies: lack of a coherent, well-accepted system for describing these strategies.”

Taxonomies of language learning strategies

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars such as O’Malley and Chamot 1985, Wenden and Rubin 1987, Oxford 1990

Rubin's classification of learning strategies

Rubin, who pioneered much of the work in the field of strategies, makes the distinction between strategies contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning. According to Rubin (1987, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000), there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are: 1) Learning strategies, 2) Communication strategies, and 3) Social strategies.

Learning strategies
They are two main types of learning strategies that contribute directly to the development of the language system constructed by the learner: cognitive learning strategies and meta-cognitive learning strategies

A- Cognitive learning strategies
They refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identifies six main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: I- Clarification / Verification, II- Guessing / Inductive Inference, III- Deductive Reasoning, IV- Practice, V-Memorization and VI-Monitoring.
B- Meta-cognitive learning strategies

These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as: I- Planning, II- Prioritizing, III- Setting goals, and IV- Self-management.

Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies

Oxford (1990)\(^{103}\) cited in Hismanoglu, 2000) divides language learning strategies into two main classes: direct and indirect. They are further subdivided into six groups. In Oxford's classification, meta-cognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increase interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication. Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies is shown in the following:

1- Direct strategies
   A- Memory
   B- Cognitive
   C- Compensation strategies

2- Indirect strategies
   D- Meta-cognitive strategies
   E- Affective strategies
   F- Social strategies

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

O’Malley’s classification of learning strategies

O’Malley et al. (1985) divides learning strategies into three main subcategories: meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies.

1) Meta-cognitive strategies

“Selective attention: deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.

Self-management: understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.

Directed attention: deciding in advance to attend in general to learning task and ignore irrelevant distraction.

Self-monitoring: correcting one’s speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.

Self-evaluation: checking the outcomes of one’s own language leaning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.

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105 ibid., p. 33.
Delayed production: consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension”.

Advanced organizers: making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity.

Self-evaluation: checking the outcomes of one’s own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.

Self-reinforcement: arranging rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been accomplished successfully.”

II) Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. The following strategies are among the most important cognitive strategies:

Repetition: limiting a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.

Resourcing: using target language reference materials.

Translation: using the first language as a base for understanding and or producing the second language.

Grouping: recording or reclassifying, and perhaps labeling, the material to be learned, based on common attributes.

Note-taking: writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing.

Deduction: consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language.

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106 ibid., pp. 33-34.
Recombination: constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way.

Imagery: relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations.

Auditory representation: retention of the sound or a similar for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence.

Key word: remembering a new word in the second language by a) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word and b) generating easily record images of some relation ship between the new word and familiar word.

Contextualization: placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence.

Elaboration: relating new information to other concepts in memory.

Transfer: using previously acquired linguistic and or conceptual knowledge to facilitate new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

Inferencing: using available information to guess meanings of new items, predicts outcomes, or fills in missing information.

III) Socio mediation strategies\textsuperscript{107}

Cooperation: working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity.

Question for clarification: asking teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and or examples.

\textsuperscript{107} ibid., p. 34.
Stern’s classifications of learning strategies

Stern (1992\textsuperscript{108}, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000) introduced a different classification of learning strategies that are highly based on the new trends in language learning research. Unlike the old one that included ten strategies, this new classification included five main language-learning strategies. They are as follows: management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative - experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies, and affective Strategies.

1-Management and planning strategies

These strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner can take charge of the development of his own program when he is helped by a teacher, whose role is that of an adviser and resource person. That is to say that the learner must: decide what commitment to make to language learning, set himself reasonable goals, decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress, evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern 1992\textsuperscript{109}, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000).

2-Cognitive strategies

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


\textsuperscript{109} ibid., p. 263.
I- clarification verification
II- guessing : inductive inferencing
III- deductive reasoning
IV- practice
V- memorization
VI- monitoring

3- Communicative - experiential strategies

Communication strategies, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication (Stern 1992\textsuperscript{110}, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000).

4- Interpersonal strategies

The learners should monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. They should establish contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. They must become acquainted with the culture of the target language, (Stern 1992\textsuperscript{111}, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000).

5- Affective strategies

It is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. In some

\textsuperscript{110} ibid., p. 256.

\textsuperscript{111} ibid., pp. 265-266.
other cases, second language learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of second language. Good language learners are more or less conscious of these emotional problems. Good language learners try to create associations of positive attitudes towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved (Stern 1992, cited in Hismanoglu, 2000).

\[112\] ibid., p. 266.
Collection of data from second language learners is quite a difficult task because there are certain factors that always interfere in selecting and projecting the situations in which learners are expected to communicate or produce the type of language required for specific purpose. In this chapter this researcher will review some of the methodological strategies used in some previous studies and will try to choose the suitable one that can help in carrying out this study and fulfilling its aims.

**Methods of eliciting communication strategies**

The different perspectives on strategic competence projected diversity in the methodologies used in communication strategy research. This can be noticed in the different ways of eliciting the communication strategies from speech production of the subjects. From the existing literature we can observe two perspectives to communication strategy. The interactional approach supposed that the negotiation of meaning in an interaction between at least two interlocutors is the criterion that should be taken into account. Therefore the right way for collecting data related to communication strategies is through tasks that stimulate interaction between two interlocutors. On the other hand, Psychological approach focuses mainly on the processes involved in producing language rather than on the end product of those processes. However, Faerch and Kasper
(1983)\(^1\) claim that the choice of the strategy relates to the nature of the problem to be solved. Bialystok (1990)\(^2\) believes that the type of elicitation method is important in determining the strategies that will be observed. She explains that learners will adjust the way in which they approach a problem according to their perception of what is relevant. Here are some of the methods of elicitation that were reviewed by Wongsawang, (2001)\(^3\) and Bialystok (1990)\(^4\).

**Picture description**

Picture description is a common task that has been used in some communication strategy studies. Poulisse (1990 in Wongsawang, 20001)\(^5\) used this method in which the English learner participants were asked to describe what objects they saw, so that an English native speaker would be able to identify the object later when listening to recordings of the description. So far, this method is the best one and the easiest to be used for eliciting the communication strategy, but this method may also suffer from some shortcomings that may affect the identification of the strategic behavior. Some time the learners cannot predict what is required by them to do. This is always due to the fact that people differ in their way of reading the pictures. So, the picture to be presented should be clear and known to the learners otherwise the learner’s behavior will be affected by


\(^{4}\) Bialystok, p. 50.

\(^{5}\) Wongsawang, p. 112.
the ambiguity of the objects to be addressed. Also the instructions of the researchers should be precise for the required task to avoid misunderstanding.

**Concept identification task**

This method has been used by Paribakht (1985) and Chen (1990). It was called by Bialystok (1990) “word translation”. In this task, learners are given some lexical items that represent concrete as well as abstract concepts. The abstract concepts lack any visual clues that are expected to place heavy linguistic and cultural burden on the speakers than concrete concepts. Poulisse (1990, cited in Wongsawang) used abstract figure description instead of the lexical ones to increase the linguistic burden on the speaker. The abstract figure description task, in fact, is suitable to be used to compare between the use of communication strategies by the native and the non-native speaker. The shortcoming of concept identification task is the difficulty in verifying whether the concepts are not affected by the speaker’s modifications as a result of personal, educational, and cultural factors.

**Story-telling**

This method is called by Bialystok, (1990) ‘narration’. Story-telling tasks have been used with varying procedures in the studies of

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8 Bialystok, p. 50.
11 Bialystok, p. 50.
communication strategies. In the study of Dechert (1983)\textsuperscript{12}, a story, represented in a cartoon of six scenes. The learners are asked to tell a story from the cartoon pictures without verbal information. In the study of Poulisse (1990, in Wongsawang, 2001)\textsuperscript{13} the participants are asked to retell in English a story read to them once in their first language. In both studies, the content of the stories was manipulated and controlled by the researchers to provide enough problematicity so that communication strategy could be elicited. Where as in Raupach’s (1983)\textsuperscript{14} study the story is presented to the students in a written form in their first language.

This type of tasks was used in this study to identify the communication strategies used by English major students of Taiz University. The task was chosen for its applicability and its suitability for the situation of Yemen due to cultural reasons. Also, it was preferred for it is possible for the learners to generate new ideas by elaborating the details of the story. The story used in this study was in a form of two pictures of a thirsty crow looking for water. The students were given a chance to create their own ideas beside the Arabic explanation, which was offered by the researcher. The Arabic explanation focused on the main elements of the story. They were:

1. a thirsty crow
2. looked for water
3. sat on a branch of a tree
4. saw a jar
5. half-filled
6. could not reach the water
7. saw pebbles near the jar
8. picked up pebbles and
9. dropped them into the jar
10. the level of the water rose high
11. drank
12. flew away.

\textsuperscript{13} Wongsawang, p. 113.
Oral interview

"The most common instrument used to elicit communication strategies is oral interview and conversations". In my opinion, if the issues to be included in the interview are not planned by researcher and learners are not forced to communicate these issues this will initiate a kind of naturalistic environment for language production. In some cases the interviewer can plan the interview with no attention being paid to the learner. In Hastrup and Phillipson’s (1983) study, a conversation between Danish learners and native speakers is used. At the conversation, native speakers and the learners are given a list of topics that they can refer to if needed. Also Poulisse (1990, in Wongsawang, 2001) used oral interviews between participants, non-native speakers and a native speaker of English. Similarly to Hastrup and Phillipson, the topics of the interviews are determined beforehand to assure that unfamiliar concepts are included, forcing the participants to use communication strategies. According to Kasper & Kellerman (1997; in Wongsawang, 2001) the problem with this kind of elicitation is that communication strategy use is less likely to be found due to the fact that what the participants might say is less controlled by the experimenters.

Methods of eliciting learning strategies

Learning strategies research has produced some approaches of discovering the strategic behavior used by second language learners to

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17 Wongsawang, p.114.
18 ibid.
master a second language beside their mother tongue, but most of them are based on the characteristics of good language learner. The common instrument used for the purpose of eliciting the strategies of learning has been through questionnaire that is almost inspired from either psychology of learning or research on good language learners. The other common technique is observation. However, there are also other techniques that have been used by some researchers, which are not widely common, such as: structured interviews, diaries, dialogue journals, and verbal reports. McDonough (1999)\textsuperscript{19} has reviewed some of these methods and according to him none of the methods of collecting information about the strategic behavior of the learners is without problems and there is always a danger that method predetermines the kind of the obtained results.

**Questionnaire**

Most of the studies conducted in terms of learning strategies employed a set of questions based on previous experience, or previous studies based on observation to be answered by the targeted subjects. In fact, the most common and applicable one is that of Oxford (1990). It is called “SILL” which stands for *Strategy Inventory of Language Learning Strategies*. There are also other questionnaires that have been based on the classification of O’Malley and Chamot (1985).

**Observation**

Observing the behavior of learners while they are carrying out learning activity is one of the techniques used by some researchers. Chesterfield

and Chesterfield (1986) used this technique with Spanish children learning English as a second language. With this technique they provided written field-notes on behavior of each child and audiotaped samples of classroom discourse. Data collection in each instance combined the strategies of time and event sampling, as each child is observed in specific activities (meal-time, small group, large group, independent play, seat work, recess, lunch and opening/dismissal) for the amount of time proportional to the percentage of time devoted to a particular activity in a day. Observation of each child is continued over a number of days until the total amount of observation time approximated that of a normal classroom day.

Identifying communication strategies

Since there is no consensus on the nature of communication strategy, the identification of strategic behavior becomes more complicated. Let us survey the criteria suggested by some researchers such as Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990) and others.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) offer three types of performance features as evidence for strategic intervention: temporal variables, such as rate of articulation pauses, drawl and repeat. The second is self-repairs, such as false starts and new starts. The third one is speech slip, such as lapses and speech errors. The occurrence of temporal variables such as: unfilled and

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filled pauses, lengthening of syllables, false starts and repetitions can shed some light on where interlanguage users experience planning problems and how they go about solving them by means of communication strategies.

Another criteria was proposed by Bhaskaran (1988, in Khanji; 1996) to identify and detect the communication strategies:

1. Noticeable deviant from the native speaker norm in the interlanguage syntax, word, choice or discourse pattern.
2. Apparent obvious desire on the part of the speaker to communicate meaning to listeners as indicated by overt or covert discourse cues.
3. Deviance and sometimes repetitive attempts to seek alternative ways, including repairs and appeals, to communicate and negotiate meaning.
4. Overt pausological, hesitational and other temporal features in the speakers' communicative behavior.
5. Presence of paralinguistic and kinesics features both in lieu of and in support of linguistic inadequacy.

Furthermore, Bialystok (1990) suggested the conditions of the task for which it can be used to elicit the use of communication strategies.

"in order to elicit the use of communication strategies when appropriate target language vocabulary was lacking, a task had to be

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designed to meet three criteria: it had to stimulate real communication exchange in which one of the interlocutors was a monolingual speaker of the target language, second the task had to provide an incentive for the learner to attempt to convey difficult information, and third it was necessary to have control over the items for which the communication strategies were to be examined”.

**Difficulties in analyzing communication strategies**

Faerch and Kasper (1983) clarified the effect of the approach of defining communication strategies on the task of identifying communication strategies.

“One significant difference between the two definitions of communication strategies can be directly identified in performance data according to the interactional definition, where as this is not always the case with strategies defined on the basis of the psycholinguistic definition. In the later case, the analyst is forced to rely on indirect evidence to a very large extent”.

Although, they believe that temporal variables are essential to the analyst in analyzing performance data to get a direct and complete evidence about planning and execution of speech production, it is important “to be supplemented by other techniques for instance by introspection”.

Alike, Raupach (1983) commented, “a satisfactory interpretation of those indicators often requires some introspective comments made by the learner on his own performance”. Thus, without the interpretation of

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26 ibid., p. 235.
27 Raupach, p. 199.
those indicators from the part of the learner there will be confusion between errors and communication strategies. Sometimes the learner does not intend to use communication strategy rather he uses an accessible fossilized error.

Another problem may arise while differentiating repairs from communication strategy. In repairs the learner knows the word/phrase but for many reasons he uses the erroneous phrase/word then he remembers/pauses to use the correct one. However, this can occur inversely where the learner at the beginning uses the correct form then pauses to use the erroneous one. In my point of view, both cases can be considered strategic behavior, even if the result is unsuccessful communication, at the time that learner in both cases are not sure of correct form or function. This will lead us to confirm that the feature of ‘the gap in the linguistic knowledge of the learner is the main stimulus for using communication strategy. At time learner certainly does not know the correct form or function then the behavior cannot be considered a repair but it can be a communication strategy.

The third problem may arise from the difficulty to notice all types of the avoidance strategies. Where it is impossible to guess that the learner does not respond because he lacks linguistic knowledge. Avoidance can be mixed with less comprehension from the part of the learners. Sometimes, the learners stop speaking in a topic or a part of it, because there is no full knowledge about it rather than a lack of linguistic knowledge. This may increase the difficulty in dealing with unseen behavior. Ellis (1984) has attempted to overcome this problem by suggesting a procedure, “a
The fourth problem arises from the strategic behavior that entails an appeal for assistance. This communication strategy has two versions, the first one is ‘a request for recalling a known but forgotten knowledge’ while the second one is ‘a request for missing knowledge’. Some of the researchers do not differentiate between these two types of behaviors. Faerch and Kasper (1983)\textsuperscript{30} consider the retrieval strategy a separate communication strategy within the achievement strategies.

**Procedures of eliciting communication strategies**

Little (1996) differentiated between two types of communicative tasks: communicative task that requires immediate response and that requires a non-immediate response.

“The communicative tasks that require an immediate response are by definition reciprocal and almost oral. In the performance of such task, one typically depends on routinized, automatized plans, and strategic competence operates largely below the threshold of conscious awareness. In such tasks, one typically resorts to communication

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\begin{itemize}
\item[29] ibid., p. 41.
\item[30] Faerch and Kasper, p. 52.
\end{itemize}
}
strategies to make up for deficiencies in their communicative competence. On the other hand, communicative task that requires non-immediate response allows the foreign language learner time for intentional planning. Within the domain of reciprocal communication, intentional planning may entail assessing the linguistic requirement of the task, gathering additional linguistic resources, mentally rehearsing the interaction one is prepared for and trying to anticipate problems.\(^3\)

In his argument, Little (1996)\(^2\) claimed that the immediate reciprocal task contributes indirectly to the development of the learner’s strategic competence, whereas, non-immediate and non-reciprocal task contributes directly to the development of learner’s strategic competence. Thus, this researcher used both types of task to collect data with regards to the use of communication strategies. In particular, the following procedures were followed for eliciting communication strategies:

1. Learners were asked individually to describe two pictures that formed a story, which was written by them in Arabic. They were given an oral explanation to the main elements of the story in Arabic.

2. The learners were asked to tell the story that they had created in English orally. The students of Education were given at least ten minutes for planning. The students of Arts were not given any time for planning.

3. The researcher read the Arabic version of each student before it was told in English.

\(^2\) ibid., p. 96.
4. The students of Education told the story to an assistant of the researcher and it was audio recorded. Each student of Arts told the story to a partner of his level, who did not know anything about the story, and was asked to write the same told story latter on in Arabic.

5. The researcher listened to the story and asked the narrators questions related to the strategic use of some words, the student’s intentions, especially those that were not mentioned in the Arabic version.

**Model of analyzing communication strategies**

This researcher identified the strategies according to the model of Faerch and Kasper (1983). This model was followed because it gave the study a better understanding of the communicative behavior of the students. This model includes two main processes: achievement strategies and reduction strategies. Some of the subcategories were disregarded for not being available in the present data of this study and adopted some other categories from other models to accommodate the findings of this study.

**(I) Reduction strategies**

According to Faerch and Kasper this strategy is called for execution when there is a real challenge in learner’s interlanguage system for communicating his intention. The learner, in planning phase, is trying to set his goals but sometimes he feels that his linguistic resources are not at his disposal so he attempts to tackle the problem directly by altering his
goal in accordance with his linguistic ability (avoidance behavior). There

are two types of reduction strategies:

1. **Formal reduction**: “in order to avoid producing non fluent or incorrect utterances by using insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules items, learners may decide to communicate by means of a reduced system, focusing on stable rules and items which have become reasonably well automatized”[^33]. Formal reduction “should not be taken to imply that a substantial reduction of the system takes place: what happens is that the language user in a specific communicative situation avoids using rules items which he has at his disposal, and which in a different communicative situation would be the most appropriate way of reaching his communicative goal”[^34]. “All areas of LIL system are susceptible to formal reduction”[^35]. It is subclassified according to the source of problem:

- **At the phonological level**: “it is not normally the case that learners can simply communicate by a reduced phonological system”[^36]. Thus it is necessary to compensate the difficulty of avoiding using incorrect phonological items by using other achievement strategies such as “overgeneralization or borrowing a L1 phone”[^37].

- **At the morphological level**: “it is similar to that at the phonological level where the grammatical morphemes are normally obligatory in particular linguistic context that

[^34]: ibid., pp. 39-40.
[^35]: ibid., p. 41.
[^36]: ibid.
[^37]: ibid.
occurs in most communicative situations." So the reduction at this level is often compensated for by the application of other achievement strategies such as substituting for the avoided morphological items syntactic or lexical items.

**At the syntactic level:** at this level, the learner’s decision to use a reduction strategy depends mainly on the optional or obligatory of the structure as he conceives it. If he uses reduction strategy with an obligatory structure it will result in either functional reduction or erroneous utterances. However, using reduction with optional structure by simply ignoring one rule and applying another one may result in a well-formed language. This type of reduction is difficult to detect and the application of the strategy only is shown through the overuse of particular structures.

**At the lexical level:** this type of reduction is very common among the learners of English. “It can be achieved by the application of reduction strategies (such topic avoidance) or achievement strategies (paraphrase).”

2. **Functional reduction:** “Functional reduction can be employed if learners experience problems in the planning phase (due to insufficient linguistic resources) or in the execution phase (retrieval problems), and if their behavior in the actual situation is one of avoidance, rather than achievement. By adopting a functional reduction strategy the learner reduces his communicative goal in order to avoid the problem. Such reduction can attain the character of ‘global reduction’, affecting the global goals, or it can be

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38 ibid.
39 ibid., p. 42.
restricted to one or more local goals 'local reduction'. For obvious reasons, global reduction cannot occur as a result of retrieval problems". This reduction is subclassified into three:

- **Actional reduction**: this type of reduction is related to the learner's problem in performing a specific speech act.

- **Modal reduction**: this type of reduction is related to problems in marking their utterances appropriately for the functions of the speech act.

- **Prepositional reduction**: this type of functional reduction is related to problems in the prepositional content. “It comprises strategies such as topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement (semantic avoidance)”. *Topic avoidance* refers to the strategy of avoiding formulating goals that includes topics that are perceived as problematic to the learner from a linguistic point of view. In topic avoidance the learner says nothing at all about a given topic. “It is used exclusively in connection with problems in the planning phase”. *Message abandonment* is the halt that comes after the initiation of the speech when the learner faces a difficulty with a target language form or rule. In this strategy the learner ignores part of the topic and continues with out an appeal for assistance. *Meaning replacement* is altering the initial goal to one that is easier to be carried out which falls within the intended prepositional content but referring to it by means of

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40 ibid., p. 43.
41 ibid.
42 ibid., p. 44.
43 ibid.
a more general expression. In semantic avoidance the learner says almost what he wants to say about a given topic.

(II) Achievement strategies

Achievement strategies include two types: compensatory strategies and retrieval strategies. They aim at solving problems in the planning phase due to the lack of linguistic resources. The retrieval strategies include five types: waiting for the term to appear, appealing to formal similarity, retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other languages, from learning situation, sensory procedures. The compensatory strategies include the following strategies:

1. Code switching:
   The learner used his first language when the interlocutor seems to share the same language or have some knowledge of it. "When code switching affects one word the strategy is referred to as borrowing." 44

2. Interlingual transfer:
   "Strategies of interlingual transfer result in a combination of linguistic features from the interlanguage and the first language. Interlingual transfer may not only involve the transfer of phonological, morphological, syntactical or lexical features of the interlanguage, but also may occur at the pragmatic and discourse level. If a lexical item is adjusted to IL phonology or morphology sometimes referred to as

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44 ibid., p. 46.
foreignizing, where as adjustment at the lexical level of the IL (e.g. translating compounds or idiomatic expressions from L1 verbatim into L2) is described as literal translation”45.

3. **Inter-/ intralingual transfer:**

“When the learner considers the L2 formally similar to his L1, strategies of inter- intralingual transfer may be applied. The result of the strategy is a generalization of the L1 rule, but the generalization is influenced by the properties of the corresponding L1 structures”46.

4. **Interlanguage based strategies:**

“The learner has various possibilities for coping with communicative problem by using his IL system: he may”47:

(i) **generalize** : this can be found in interlanguage communication where the learner does not have to change his goal rather he uses a general term to mean the same idea he intends.

(ii) **paraphrase** : “it can have the form of descriptions and circumlocutions. The learner focuses on the characteristic properties or functions of the intended referent. Paraphrase can be also an exemplification”48.

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45 ibid., pp. 46-47.  
46 ibid., p. 47.  
47 ibid.  
48 ibid., p. 49.
(iii) **coin new words**: “a word coinage strategy involves the learner in a creative construction of a new word” exploiting the characteristics of the referents.

(iv) **restructure**: “a restructuring strategy is used whenever the learner realizes that he cannot complete a local plan which he has already begun so he develops an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended message without reduction”.

5. **Cooperative strategies:**

When the learner feels that using his own strategies cannot solve the problems he signals the problem to his interlocutor attempting to get it solved by joint efforts.

**Procedures for eliciting the learning strategies**

This researcher has applied the questionnaire technique since it is the easiest and the widely used instrument to collect precise information about the use of learning strategies. Also, for economic reasons, observation needs a long of time to watch the behavior of the learners in real learning situations. Besides, observation is not possible for the subjects of this study since they are college students and they will not behave normally as long as their behaviors are watched. Here is a description of the questionnaire that was used in this study to elicit the learners’ learning strategies.

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49 ibid., p. 50.
50 ibid.
Questionnaire of learning strategy

Questionnaire is a common instrument for collecting data through self-report. Regarding the types of the instrument for assessing the learning strategy use, there are two types: general and a task-based self-report. This study has chosen the former due to some reasons related the characteristics of the subjects (they are from different academic levels) and the aim of the investigation (seeking data of language learning in general, not on specific types of tasks).

SILL questionnaire (Oxford, 1990)

Most of the descriptive studies adopted the SILL as a data-collecting tool. This questionnaire is a recent and comprehensive strategy list of Oxford (1990). It is an attempt to assess the use of strategies in learning a second and foreign language. It is composed of six categories involving fifty items. The main strategies are: A. affective, B. metacognitive, C. cognitive, D. social, E. memory, and F. compensation. Learners are required to complete it on a five-point scale ranging from “Never true of me to almost always true of me”.

A: Affective strategies:

They are the sorts of strategies that manage the learners’ emotions. They include lowering the anxiety, relaxing, rewarding oneself, encouraging, talking to others about oneself feelings, and etc.

Description of affective strategies
1) I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
2) I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.
3) I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
4) I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
5) I write down my feeling in a language-learning diary.
6) I talk to some one else about how I feel when I am learning English.

B. Cognitive strategies

Learning activity requires learners to exploit all their available mental abilities for accomplishing it successfully. Activating all the mental processes for managing the learning processes are termed as cognitive strategies. Oxford (1990) divides cognitive strategies into four groups: 
practising, (such as repeating sounds or writing words, using the new word in various contexts, etc.); receiving and sending messages, (such as reading English newspapers, read stories, write letters or diaries in English, and etc.); analyzing and reasoning, (such as make a link between old word and the new one, finding a rule, dividing word to parts to find its meaning, and not using literal translation); and creating structure for input and output (such as making a summary for all what I read).

Description of cognitive strategies
7) I say or write new English words several times.
8) I try to talk like native English speakers.
9) I practise the sounds of English.
10) I use the English words I know in different ways.
11) I start conversation in English.
12) I watch English language T.V. shows in English or go to the English movies spoken in English, listen to English Radio.
13) I read for pleasure in English.
14) I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
15) I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
16) I look for words in my native language that are similar to new words in English.
17) I try to find patterns in English.
18) I find the meaning of an English word by dividing into parts that I understand.
19) I try not to translate word-for-word.
20) I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

C. Social Strategies

When learning requires interaction, then learning with others is characterized by cooperation, asking questions, understanding cultural aspects of target language.

Description of social strategies

21) If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
22) I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk
23) I practice English with others students
24) I ask for help from English speakers
25) I ask questions in English.
26) I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.
D. Memory strategies

Using memory in learning foreign language is essential for effective achievement. This kind of strategy includes using different techniques that lead to a more effective remembering.

**Description of memory strategies**

27) I think of relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.

28) I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.

29) I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.

30) I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.

31) I use rhymes to remember new English words.

32) I use flashcards to remember new English words.

33) I physically act out new English words.

34) I review English often.

35) I remember new English words or phrase by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

E. Meta-cognitive strategies

It is an indirect learning strategy like social and affective learning strategies. They include techniques that enhance the language learning (non linguistics activities) through planning, organizing and discovering new experiences.

**Description of metacognitive strategies**

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

F. Compensation strategies

Like cognitive and memory strategies, they include activities that mainly depend directly on using language. They have two categories: guessing intelligently in listening and reading and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Description of compensation strategies

45) To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
46) I read English without looking up every new word.
47) I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
48) When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
49) I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
50) If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
CHAPTER FIVE

Analyzing the Learning Strategies of the English Major Students of Taiz University

Introduction

The questionnaire (SILL) of Oxford (1990) version (7.00) for EFL/ESL has been used to examine the strategies that the English majors of Taiz University use to learn English as a foreign language. The researcher has chosen the SILL for the reason that it was widely used as a research tool in defining the learning strategies of the English language learners by many researchers and for its simplicity and high reliability. According to Maktary (2000), it has been used by Arab scholars such as Mahmoud (1996), Dadour (1995), Hanna (1992), Ahmed (1992) and Al-abdan (1993).

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The questionnaire has included two parts: direct strategies and indirect strategies, in terms of its effect on developing the learner’s communicative competence. The direct strategies include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. The indirect strategies include affective, social and meta-cognitive strategies. The participants in this study were 300 English major students of Taiz University in the beginning of the first semester of the academic year (2004-2005).

The sample 20% was randomly selected out of 1500 students from the four levels in the two faculties: Arts and Education. The subjects responded to the questionnaire by choosing one out of five scales ‘always true of me’, ‘usually true of me’, ‘somewhat true of me’, ‘not true of me’ and ‘always not true of me’. The students got written forms of the questionnaire in Arabic language and an optional English version. The researcher read the statements of the questionnaire to the students orally and explained all the raised enquiries on their part. The answers of the questionnaire were decoded to figures that ranges from (1) to (5) and then statistical analysis was performed to get detailed knowledge about the types of learning strategies used by the students of English in both faculties: Arts and Education at the four academic levels of study.

Henceforth, this chapter will display the results of the statistical analysis of strategy inventory language learning questionnaire using means and standard deviation to show the variation in the frequency of use of the learning strategies by the English major students of Taiz University. T-test was used to examine the difference between the two teaching programs in terms of the mean use of learning strategies and each type. Besides, ANOVA tests were performed to find out the significant differences in mean use of learning strategies among the four academic
levels. Post hoc comparisons of Scheffe were performed to identify the significant differences among the four academic levels of study, in terms of using learning strategies by the English major learners of Taiz University.

**Learning strategy use by the English majors of Taiz University**

The results of the survey display very promising results, which indicate that the English major students strive to reach a satisfying level of learning strategy use. Look at the table (5.1) below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Mean Use of Learning Strategies for the English Major Students (Table5.1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that the English major students are at a medium level of learning strategy use. They have scored the mean of (3.01). This mean gives a general impression that the use of learning strategies by the English majors of Taiz University is to some extent acceptable.

However, from the calculated means of the two faculties Arts and Education, we notice that there is a difference in the use of learning strategies. Look at graph No (1) below:
The graph shows that the English major learners of the faculty of Education have scored a higher mean (3.04) than those of the faculty of Arts (2.99). This difference roughly seems to be in favor of the students of the faculty of education. Here, the t-test is used to verify the significance of this difference between the two faculties. Look at table (5.2) below:

**T-Test Statistics of Learning Strategies for the Students of Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education/ Table5.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-Test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>5.698</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>- .937</td>
<td>162.938</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In fact, the comparison between the means of the students of the two faculties shows no significant difference at alpha level < 0.5. This assures that both groups of students use learning strategies at approximately a
similar level. In other words, the two programs of those faculties do not differ in their effect on enhancing the use of learning strategies.

Since there is no significant difference between the two programs of the two departments in the two faculties in terms of learning strategy use, there should be a significant difference among the four academic levels of study. This difference is expected due to the quantity and the quality of the new linguistic items students are required to learn during the various levels of study. Having found such significant differences, then we can advance to verify the differences among the academic levels of each faculty separately. It is hypothesized by this researcher that the academic level has an influence on the strategy use of the English major students; the more advance linguistic items and learning opportunities offered by the program the higher frequency of learning strategy will be used by the learners. This influence is attributed to the variations in the types of skills required by the syllabus of each level. Results gained from the statistical analysis, it is observed that each level has its own mean and there is a clear increase and decrease in learning strategy use. Look at graph (2)

Level one has scored a mean of 2.78, level two 3.36, level three 3.05, and level four 2.90. It is reasonable to check the significance of the variation
in the mean use of learning strategies at the four levels of study. ANOVA is used here. Look at table (5.3) below:

**One-way ANOVA of Learning Strategy For the Four Academic Levels of English Majors (Table5.3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between Groups</strong></td>
<td>15.650</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.217</td>
<td>42.858</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Groups</strong></td>
<td>36.029</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>51.679</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The ANOVA test shows a significant difference among the four academic levels of study at alpha < 0.5. This significant difference leads one to follow the comparisons among the four levels of study at both faculties. The proper test for the multi-comparisons among the four levels is Scheffe.

**Scheffe Test of the Mean Use of Learning Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study of English Majors (Table5. 4)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.5756</td>
<td>0.00523</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.7228 - .4285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.2633</td>
<td>0.00569</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.4235 - .1031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-.1193</td>
<td>0.00569</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>-.2794 0.004093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.5756</td>
<td>0.00523</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.4285 .7228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.3123</td>
<td>0.00595</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.1448 .4799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.4564</td>
<td>0.00595</td>
<td>.2889</td>
<td>.6239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.2633</td>
<td>0.00569</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.1031 .4235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>.3123</td>
<td>0.00595</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.4799 - .1448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.1440</td>
<td>0.00637</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>-.00350 0.3231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.1193</td>
<td>0.00569</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>-0.00409 .2794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.4564</td>
<td>0.00595</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.6239 - .2889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.1440</td>
<td>0.00637</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>-.3231 0.003505</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
The test of multi-comparison shows that there is a significant difference between level one and each of level two and three but there is no significant difference between level one and level four. Also it shows that there is a significant difference between level two and each of level three and four. However there is no significant difference between level three and level four.

The differences in the mean use among the four academic levels of study reveal that the use of learning strategies varies according to the learners’ academic levels. It seems that students of level two who have already completed one full academic year got benefit of the program’s courses, which have been offered to them at level one, to raise the mean use of learning strategies. This is because students of level one, who have just finished their secondary education, got the least mean use of learning strategies. Unexpectedly, level three and four also found to be significantly different in the mean use from level two. If we will refer the differences to the language skill courses then level three should have surpassed level two because they have just completed two years in which eight courses of language skills courses have been offered to them. The results above did not show any significant difference among the students of the two faculties in the mean use of learning strategies. However, the unexpected surpass of level two urges to check the mean use of learning strategies among the four academic levels of each faculty separately.

**Learning strategy use by the English majors of Faculty of Education**

ANOVA test is used to test the existence of any significant difference in the mean use of learning strategies among the four academic levels of study.
The ANOVA test shows a significant difference between at least two academic levels of study in the use of learning strategies. Therefore, Scheffe test will be used to show where the differences lie.

From the multi comparisons of Scheffe test, it is revealed that there is a significant difference between level one and each of level two and three but there is no significant difference between level one and four. This means that the range of learning strategy use of level one does not
significantly differ from that of level four. Students of level two use learning strategies significantly more than all of the other levels. Also, level three does not differ from level four in learning strategy use.

The surpassing of the students of level two in the mean use of learning strategies does not entail that the more advanced the course are given, the more learning strategies are used. This is because level two in the faculty of education still varies significantly from all the other levels.

Learning strategy use by the English majors of Faculty of Arts

To look for the existence of a significant difference in the use of learning strategy among the four levels in faculty of arts, ANOVA test should be used. Look at table (5.7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Between Groups</strong></td>
<td>6.955</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.318</td>
<td>14.078</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Groups</strong></td>
<td>15.810</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>22.765</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In this table we can clearly notice that the significance of the mean difference exists among at least two of the academic levels of study at faculty of arts. This drives us to use Scheffe tests to identify which academic level of study significantly uses more learning strategies.
### Scheffe Test of Learning Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study of Faculty of Arts (Table 5.8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.7079</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-1.0242</td>
<td>-0.3917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.3704</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.014*</td>
<td>-.6867</td>
<td>-5.4170E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-.2587</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>-.5750</td>
<td>5.754E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.7079</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.3917</td>
<td>1.0242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.3375</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>-2.7693E-02</td>
<td>.7027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.4492</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.009*</td>
<td>8.401E-02</td>
<td>.8144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.3704</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.014*</td>
<td>5.4170E-02</td>
<td>.6867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.3375</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>-.7027</td>
<td>2.769E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.1117</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>-.2535</td>
<td>.4769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.2587</td>
<td>.1111</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>-5.7536E-02</td>
<td>.5750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.4492</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.009*</td>
<td>-.8144</td>
<td>-8.4013E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.1117</td>
<td>.1283</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>-.4769</td>
<td>.2535</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

What it is noticed in the multi-comparisons of Scheffe is that there are significant differences between level one and two on one hand and level three on the other, whereas no significant difference is found with level four. That results indicate that level one uses learning strategies significantly less than each of level two and three but similar to level four. In addition, there is a significant difference between level two and four which means that level two uses learning strategies significantly more than level four but similar to level three. Also there is a significant difference between level three and level four which indicates that level three uses learning strategies more than level four.

However, the case with faculty of arts shows that levels two and level three keep the same range of learning strategy use. Only with this result, we may signify the effect of the language skill courses on enhancing the mean use of learning strategies among the students of faculty of Arts. Since there is a general tendency to believe that there is a difference
between the two programs of language teaching in terms of learning strategy use in both faculties. That difference can be attributed to the language skill courses that are offered to the students within the first two years of study. To consolidate that belief, we need to examine differences in the various types of language learning strategies.

Types of learning strategies

It is obvious from above that the students of Arts do not differ from those of faculty of Education in terms of learning strategy use, where as the four levels in each of the faculty of Education and Arts differ significantly from each other in the use of learning strategy. That result clearly indicates that the difference in the academic programs assigned for each level of study in each faculty has an effect on the frequency of learning strategy use while the difference in academic programs in both faculties has no effect.

In terms of the types of learning strategies, we pursue the analysis to specify the differences between the two faculties and among the four academic levels. There are six types of learning strategies: Memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, social and affective. The first three are called direct strategies and the other three are called indirect strategies.

1. Direct strategies

Direct strategies are those activities that are supposed to enhance the development of communicative competence directly since they maintain actions that lead to support the ability of retention and retrieval of the
new learnt items, practicing and applying them naturally, and compensating the missing knowledge. This category involves three processes and helps the learner to cope with the linguistic items at the input and output stages. In the beginning of the career, the learner is confronted with new linguistic items that need a great capability to be stored and to be recalled in the needed situation. This can be achieved by having an effective ways of practicing, through expecting the situations in which they are possible to be used. However, learners cannot learn all the items of the language at one time so they should have the ability to compensate for the items that have not been already learnt.

- Memory strategies

Using t-test to investigate the difference between the two teaching programs in encouraging the learners to activate effective memory strategies while they are learning.

**T-test Statistics of Memory Strategies for Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education (Table5.9)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>13.606</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.581</td>
<td>157.290</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The t-test showed no significant difference in the mean use of memory strategies between the two teaching programs of the two faculties. This
indicates that they are not different in their effect on enhancing the use of memory strategies.

The students of the four academic levels vary in their use of memory strategies. This variation depends mainly on the amount of new vocabulary and new rules the learners have to learn in their courses.

*Number of Students, Mean and Standard Deviation of Memory Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.10)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>2.9200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.5584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>3.2931</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.5100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>2.9333</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.5066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>2.8407</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.4465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.0063</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.5413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears that level two surpasses all the other levels in the mean use of memory strategies. It gets a mean of use ‘3.2’ while level three ‘2.93’, level one ‘2.92’ and four ‘2.84’. So, ANOVA is used to test the significance of the differences among these four academic levels of study.

*(One-way ANOVA of Memory Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.11))*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>9.287</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.096</td>
<td>11.700</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>78.318</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>87.605</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

ANOVA displayed a significant difference between at least two academic levels of study. Therefore, the multi comparisons of Scheffe are used to
identify the differences among the four academic levels of study in terms of memory strategy use.

\textit{Scheffe Test of Memory Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.12)}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.3731</td>
<td>7.716E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.9590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.00132</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>-.2495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>7.926E-02</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.1569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.3731</td>
<td>7.716E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.1561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.3597</td>
<td>8.785E-02</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td>.1127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.4523</td>
<td>8.785E-02</td>
<td></td>
<td>.2053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.1333E-02</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>-.2228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.3597</td>
<td>8.785E-02</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td>-.6067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>.4523</td>
<td>8.785E-02</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.1715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.1333E-02</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.2495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>-.007925</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>-.3154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.009259</td>
<td>9.391E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-.2053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.1333E-02</td>
<td>8.400E-02</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.1569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In Scheffe test, level two appears significantly different from each of level one, two, and three. However, no significant difference is found among all the other three levels. This means that level two uses memory strategies more than the other levels. In regards to the expectations of this researcher, memory strategies are more associated with low levels of study. Level three should have a significant difference with level one and four and also level four from level one. This is because level one has not been introduced to any new items in the English department, at the time of doing the research, except to what they have been taught in the general secondary school, in which the new items in the English syllabus are not sufficient to activate the use of all memory strategies.
• Cognitive strategies

This strategy is also one of the most important strategies that contribute to the development of the learners’ communicative competence. It involves steps taken by the learner to use his mental process to learn effectively. So learners of different levels vary in their experiences of the suitable and effective ways of learning. In this section, we are supposed to look for the differences in the use of the cognitive strategies between the two faculties and among the four academic levels of study.

To check the existence of any significant difference between the two teaching programs of the faculty of education and the faculty of arts in terms of providing the learners with opportunities to activate their mental processes to learn English effectively, we have to use the t-test.

**T-test of Cognitive Strategies for Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education (Table 5.13)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>3.489</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>1.181</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.*

The t-test displays non-significant difference between the two faculties in terms of the mean use of cognitive strategies. This means that all the teaching programs of the two faculties do not vary in the degree of enhancing the learners’ cognitive processes. However, there must be
significant differences among the four academic levels because advanced levels are expected to use more cognitive strategies since they have been introduced to many experiences in their previous courses of study.

*Number of students, Mean and Standard Deviation of Cognitive Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>2.9114</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.4947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>3.6812</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.4283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>3.3607</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.4867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>3.1714</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.4174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.2586</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.5498</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that level two has the highest mean of cognitive strategy use while level one has the least. In fact the table shows differences among the four levels of study but higher levels get a medium mean of use, which indicate that their use of cognitive strategies is acceptable. To check the significance of these differences we will apply ANOVA.

*One-way ANOVA of Cognitive Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.15)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>27.425</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.142</td>
<td>42.974</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>62.966</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90.391</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

The ANOVA test found a significant difference between at least two levels. To figure out these differences we have to employ the multi-comparisons test of Scheffe.
All the levels differ from each other significantly except level three and level four. The surpassing of level two in the mean use of cognitive strategies is unexpected, but it can be attributed to factors related to the teaching quality or may be to individual differences among the students.

- **Compensation strategies**

At the time of using language, the missing of one word or more should not be the reason behind ceasing the use of language. In other words, it is not a perquisite of using a language to learn all its lexical items. One should start using the language since he has a reasonable amount of vocabulary and some knowledge of the rules but he should be equipped with the means of compensating the missed words or structures that he instantly needs. This will lead the learner to realize his gaps in his interlanguage that needs to be filled by exerting more effort to learn the missing knowledge. Those means, which lead learners to remedy the deficits in their interlanguage, are called compensation strategies.
Having some knowledge of these strategic means, we may be able to predict the amount of using language by the learners. Those learners who do not use such means are of two types: either they do not use the language (passive learners) or they have acquired all the lexical system and structure of the language and they are not in need for such strategic means. In fact the latter case is impossible with the subjects of this study. Using compensation strategies are necessary since the linguistic system of a language learner is underdeveloped. This study targeted these very important means separately in the next chapter and got detailed results from their oral performance. It was found that the subjects of this study used different means of compensation strategies but in various degrees. Here we are supposed to know about the students’ realizations and tendency of using these means. English majors undergo two different teaching programs. We will have to apply the t-test to know about the effect of each program on the mean use of compensation strategies.

### T-test of Compensation Strategies for Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education (Table5.17)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>7.989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>-0.907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
<td>-0.00708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
<td>0.00781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>-0.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>165.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>165.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.00708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
<td>0.00839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
The t-test shows no significance between the two means of using the compensation strategy. This assures that the two programs do not differ significantly in their effect on using this strategy by the students of the two faculties. However, looking at their responses we can notice some variations in the mean use of compensatory strategies among the various levels of study.

Number of Students, Mean and Standard Deviation of Compensation Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.18)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>3.0200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.6558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>3.2896</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.6229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>3.2556</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.6040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>3.3194</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.6093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.1989</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.6377</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variation does not seem very acute among the four academic levels but level four is distinguished from the other levels. These differences need to be tested by using ANOVA.

One-way ANOVA of Compensation Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.19)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>4.923</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.641</td>
<td>4.164</td>
<td>.007*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>116.655</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>121.577</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

ANOVA shows a significant difference between at least two levels. To pinpoint these differences we will use Scheffe multi-comparisons.
Scheffe Test of Compensation Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study

(Table 5.20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig. 95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.2696</td>
<td>9.417E-02</td>
<td>.044* -.5343 -.00482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.2356</td>
<td>.1025</td>
<td>.155 -.5238 5.268E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-.2994</td>
<td>.1025</td>
<td>.038* -.5877 -.00112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.2696</td>
<td>9.417E-02</td>
<td>.044* 4.821E-03 .5343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>3.403E-02</td>
<td>.1072</td>
<td>.992 -.2674 .3355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-0.00298</td>
<td>.1072</td>
<td>.994 -.3313 .2716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.2356</td>
<td>.1025</td>
<td>.155 -.005262 .5238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.00340</td>
<td>.1072</td>
<td>.992 -.3355 .2674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-0.006388</td>
<td>.1146</td>
<td>.958 -.3861 .2584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.2994</td>
<td>.1025</td>
<td>.038* 1.121E-02 .5877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>2.986E-02</td>
<td>.1072</td>
<td>.994 -.2716 .3313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>6.389E-02</td>
<td>.1146</td>
<td>.958 -.2584 .3861</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Scheffe test reveals a significant difference in the mean use of compensation strategies between level one and two. Also level one and four is found significantly different in terms of using the compensation strategy. Level one and level three is found almost similar. However, no significant difference is found among level two, three and four.

2. Indirect strategies

The second category that has been assigned by Oxford is the indirect strategies that are assumed to affect the development of language learning in an indirect way. This is because they are not indulged in the process of learning but they help in maintaining the processes of learning to keep running smoothly and progressively. This category includes three subcategories in which each has its own function: knowing the mental processes, maintaining the emotions, and keeping relations with others. These are important functions since they are the main elements that have their essential contributions in the processes of language learning.
learners should facilitate the existence of these functions to work beside the learning activities.

- **Meta-cognitive strategies**

The knowledge of the mental processes is beneficial to urge one to organize, monitor and evaluate his learning. Meta-cognitive strategies are very crucial in university level because a great mass of knowledge is needed to be apprehended in a short time. Learners who do not use these strategies are always liable to fail in keeping pace with the teaching materials and finally stop learning or they acquire a little. Teaching program should train the students with such skills of organizing, monitoring, and evaluating. Learners come from schools where the syllabus does not encourage the use of meta-cognitive strategies and teachers carry out the job in stead. So, when they come to university, the responsibility for learning becomes a great burden that they are expected to bear. To know about the variation in the effect of each teaching program on the use of meta-cognitive strategies the t-test is used to look for any significant difference between them.

**T-test of Meta-cognitive Strategies for Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education (Table 5.21)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-1.574</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
No significant difference is found between the students of the faculty of education and of the faculty of arts in the mean use of meta-cognitive strategies. This means that both programs are similar in their effect on the use meta-cognitive strategy. Using descriptive statistics we can have a rough understanding of the variation in the mean use of meta-cognitive strategies by the learners of various academic levels.

### Number of Students, Mean and Standard Deviation of Meta-cognitive strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.22)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>3.2167</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.5880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>4.1194</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.4003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>3.6481</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.6355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>3.5333</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.5709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.6070</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.6508</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows a high mean of meta-cognitive strategy use for all the four levels of study in particular level two. It is really unexpected from level one to come to the course with this high mean of meta-cognitive strategy use. However, meta-cognitive strategy use varies among the four academic levels. ANOVA is used to examine the significance of these variations in the mean use of cognitive strategies.

### One-way ANOVA of Meta-cognitive Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.23)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>36.671</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.224</td>
<td>40.223</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>89.953</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>126.625</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level
The ANOVA test shows a significant difference in the mean use of meta-cognitive strategy use. Therefore we can use Scheffe test to compare the mean use of meta-cognitive strategy of the four academic levels with each other.

\[\text{Scheffe Test of Meta-cognitive Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study}\]

\textbf{(Table 5.24)}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-0.9028</td>
<td>8.269E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-1.1353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-0.4315</td>
<td>9.002E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-0.6846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-0.3167</td>
<td>9.002E-02</td>
<td>.007*</td>
<td>-0.5698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>0.9028</td>
<td>8.269E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>0.6703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>0.4713</td>
<td>9.415E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>0.2066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>0.5861</td>
<td>9.415E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>0.3214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>0.4315</td>
<td>9.002E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>0.1784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-0.4713</td>
<td>9.415E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-0.7360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>0.1148</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>-1.1682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>0.3167</td>
<td>9.002E-02</td>
<td>.007*</td>
<td>0.6356E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-0.5861</td>
<td>9.415E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-0.8508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-0.1148</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>-0.3978</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Level one and level two appear to be significantly different from all the other levels. Level three is similar to level four. This leads us realise that the students of level one come to the course with a medium level of meta-cognitive strategy but the new experiences that are confronted in the university level are really too challenging to motivate the learners to use a more meta-cognitive strategies. Despite that the students of level three and four have got medium means of meta-cognitive strategy use and more than level one, they should have, at least, kept the same rate of using this strategy to that of level two.
Affective strategies

The emotional factors are very critical and they indirectly influence the achievement of the learners and the success of the teaching programs. In syllabus design, many educators do not pay attention to the emotional aspects of learning process by imposing tasks without giving hints or any kind of explanations. The difficulty of tasks sometimes increases the feeling of anxiety and drives the learners to a complete distraction. Fresh learners, in particular, always fall in a lot of worries that need some care from the teachers, ensuring them and clearing all the ambiguities that may arise. So learners sometimes remain at the mercy of their teachers to create or relieve their worries.

However, at the university level, students always do not rely entirely on their teachers to reduce the worries that emerge from the learning process. The feeling of inability to cope with the new experiences and the new environment of this stage of education may discourage them from pursuing their study but the learners who use affective strategies effectively tend to be able to control that feeling by restoring self-confidence and reducing the anxiety. The tendency towards using affective strategies varies from one student to another. So, we cannot precisely identify the factors that always accompany the use of these types of strategies.

The students of the two faculties may vary in their use of the affective strategies, which may be reflected on the variation of treatments that each program has imposed on its syllabus to preserve the emotional factors. The t-test is used to find out the significant difference between the two teaching programs.
No significant difference is found between the two teaching programs. This means that the two teaching programs have similar effect on encouraging or discouraging the students from using their affective strategies. The table below shows the mean use of affective strategies by the four levels of study.

Number of Students, Mean, and Standard Deviation of Affective Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.26)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>1.8178</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.3634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>2.1722</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.4168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>1.9630</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.3748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>1.7704</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.3749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.9319</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.4127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean use of affective strategy is considerably very low. This can be attributed either to the nonexistence of any type of worries among the learners or to the ignorance of learners about the ways of controlling their feelings. Also there may be some other reasons that can be referred to the social or cultural factors. However, it seems appropriate to claim that the courses and the testing procedures do not involve any kind of difficulties, which may result in increasing the learners’ anxiety. Also, the teaching
staff seems to pay a great attention to the emotional factors of their learners. For these two reasons, the learners of English do not suffer from the stress that emerges from the learning or the testing activities.

However, learners of the different academic levels vary in the mean use of affective strategies. The ANOVA is used here to find out any significant difference among the four academic levels of study.

| One-way ANOVA of Affective Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|--------|------------------|
|                               | Sum of Squares  | df   | Mean Square | F     | Sig.  .000*      |
| **Between Groups**            | 7.546           | 3    | 2.515        | 17.163|       |
| **Within Groups**             | 43.382          | 296  | .147         |       |       |
| **Total**                     | 50.928          | 299  |               |       |       |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

The ANOVA test finds a significant difference between at least two academic levels of study. So we have to pursue the analysis applying Scheffe post hoc test to identify the significant differences.
The post hoc multi-comparisons reveal significant differences between levels two and all of the other levels. No significant differences are found among level one, three, and four. Accordingly, this result is expected since the students of level two have faced new experiences that motivated them to use more strategies to cope with. While level three and four have realized that their learning experiences do not deserve to worry about, so they go on learning without any fear or any need to activate many of their affective strategies.

- **Social strategies**

Many students acquire their cooperative behavior from the society and the chances that they are offered to them by the educational institutions. The cooperation is really important but it is always ignored for many reasons: the crowd of the students in the classrooms, the inability of the learners to perform cooperative learning perfectly, and the courses do not
apply the cooperative activities. These in fact do not lead the learners astray from trying to use social strategies to learn English.

Interaction is the main basis of communicative language teaching. So learners should have their own strategies to create the suitable opportunities with others to learn English communicatively. In the classroom social strategies are not expected to be use widely. However, outside the classroom the learners can have a lot of cooperative activities that social strategies will play a great role if the learner is keen on doing so. Therefore social strategies entail the initiation of the learners to work with his peers, teachers, and the native speakers.

The course of the two faculties may vary in offering or at least encouraging the learners to use social strategies in learning English. The t-test is used here to look for the difference between the two faculties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The t-test reveals that there is no significant difference between the two courses. This means that the two teaching programs do not differ significantly from each other in terms of social strategy use.
The mean use of social strategies of the four academic levels is displayed in the table below.

**Number of Students, Mean and Standard Deviation of Social Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.30)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one</td>
<td>2.8533</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.6944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level two</td>
<td>3.6375</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>.6098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level three</td>
<td>3.1583</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.6498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level four</td>
<td>2.8194</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>.6808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.1167</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>.7393</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the differences in the mean use of social strategies of the four academic levels. Level two appears to have a higher mean use than all the other levels. Although level three gets lower mean than level two, it gets higher mean than level one and four that have almost the same mean use. To check the significance of these differences, it is appropriate to use ANOVA test.

**One-way ANOVA of Social Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.31)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>34.040</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.347</td>
<td>25.960</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>129.376</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>163.417</td>
<td>299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

The ANOVA test shows that the students of the English majors must have a significant difference between at least two academic levels. To assign the differences among the four academic levels we can use Scheffe test.
### Scheffe Test of Social Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 5.32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) LEVEL</th>
<th>(J) LEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound Upper Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.7842</td>
<td>9.917E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-1.0630 -.5053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.3050</td>
<td>.1080</td>
<td>.048*</td>
<td>-.6085 -.001453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>3.389E-02</td>
<td>.1080</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>-.2697 .3374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.7842</td>
<td>9.917E-02</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.5053 1.0630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.4792</td>
<td>.1129</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td>.1617 .7966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.8181</td>
<td>.1129</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.5006 1.1355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.3050</td>
<td>.1080</td>
<td>.048*</td>
<td>1.453E-03 .6085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.4792</td>
<td>.1129</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td>-.7966 -.1617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.3389</td>
<td>.1207</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>-.004865 .6783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>-.003388</td>
<td>.1080</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>-.3374 .2697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.8181</td>
<td>.1129</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>-1.1355 -.5006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level four</td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>-.3389</td>
<td>.1207</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>-.6783 4.865E-04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Level two appears significantly different from all the other levels in terms of the social strategy use. Level three differs significantly from Level one but does not differ significantly from level four. Also level one and four do not significantly differ from each other.

Finally, we have to conclude that the absence of the significant differences in the mean use of learning strategy and its types among the English majors of the two faculties entails that the two English teaching programs are not distinguished from each other in terms of enhancing students to use learning strategies and their types. Furthermore, the significant differences among the various academic levels of study show that both programs have some effect on encouraging the learners to use some types of learning strategies. However, the higher mean of use of the learning strategies of level two can be recognized as a qualitative jump from the stage of learning English in schools. It assures that the two programs have failed to encourage the students of the other levels to use learning strategies progressively and with a higher rate.
CHAPTER SIX

Analyzing the Oral Strategic Performance of the
English Majors of Taiz University

Introduction

One of the main aims of this study was to explore the types of strategies used by the English major students of Taiz University to communicate their intentions orally in English. However, two different types of tasks were applied: planned and unplanned tasks. Also, two situations of oral performance were taken into consideration in this study: interactive and non-interactive. This study sought the differences in the features of these two types of oral performance, i.e., interactive and spontaneous versus non-interactive and non-spontaneous, in terms of quantity and type of communication strategy use. The types of strategies that were found in this study were: generalization, paraphrase, restructuring, word coinage, interlingual, intralingual, appeal for assistance, gesture, topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement. Some of these strategies were found to be pervading most of the oral performance while the others were limited in the number of use and restricted to specific types of messages.

The task was a story presented to the subjects in the form of two pictures and some Arabic explanation that was given by this researcher for the twelve important items of the story to focus on. It is assumed by this researcher that
a learner should have a clear intention as perquisite of producing an equivalent oral performance in the target language. Therefore the Arabic task was given at the beginning for both groups in order to measure the effect of the linguistic load and neutralize the other intervening factors; the speaker’s attention should be directed only to solve problems relating to language production rather than generating the ideas.

The sample was distributed into two groups. Each one had a different activity. The subjects of the first group (the English majors of Faculty of Education) were given time to read the details of the picture and to write clearly their intentions in Arabic in the form of a story. They were informed of the aim of the study and the type of performance required by them after the Arabic writing task, which was to tell the story orally in English. They were given at least ten minutes to plan their talk according to what they had already written in Arabic. After ensuring that the students stated all the details they could recognize in the pictures, they were asked separately to retell the same story orally in English. This researcher read in advance the Arabic version of the students’ story and then listened to them while they were narrating the story orally in English to an assistant of the researcher. After that the researcher asked questions in relation to their intentions (whether there were alternations or additional information in their intentions), the deviances in the target language or the hesitations, i.e. checking whether the students were applying a communication strategy or making errors. The oral performances of the students were audio recorded for further analysis in which the researcher compared the story in Arabic to that in English in order to see what the learners intended and what form of the target language they used to suit their intentions.
The second group (English students of Faculty of Arts) was divided into two
groups: the first group was asked to listen to the story and the second group
was required to narrate the story orally in English. The group which was to
narrate the story was given two pictures representing the story of the thirsty
crow and they individually wrote in Arabic the story with the help of the
main points presented to them by the researcher orally and in Arabic.
Directly after writing, each subject was asked to narrate the story in English
to a partner of his level who did not know any thing about the story details
and the latter was asked to interact with the narrator for gathering the details
of the story in order to rewrite it in Arabic after the session.

The researcher exploited Faerch’s and Kasper (1983) model and adapted it
to analyze the learners’ oral performance. This model was chosen because it
takes into consideration the point of view of the learner (speaker’s) and not
that of the interlocutor or the analyst in assigning some of the
communication strategies. Also, it has a wide description of the
communication strategies and states clearly the relations among the various
types of strategies. Above all, this model is based on a model of speech
production that was adopted from Leont’ev (1975).

For the analysis method, this researcher attempted to get benefit of both
qualitative and quantitative methods for analyzing the oral performance of
the learners. It focused mainly on the lexical level of the speech. This is

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1 Claus Faerch and Gabriele Kasper, “Plans and Strategies in Foreign language
communication,” in Claus Faerch and Gabriele Kasper (eds.), Strategies in
2 Aleksej Leont’ev, “Psycholinguistische Einheiten und die Erzeugung Sprachlicher
because most of the strategic behavior of the students was found to be prominent within that area.

**Features of the learners’ oral performance**

The results of this part of this study have revealed that the students to some extent were able to convey the meanings of their own intentions successfully. This does not mean that they have done the task perfectly but it means that the students of Taiz University are striving to learn and practice the English language using their possible means. This study has targeted these means of learning and communication. In terms of communication strategies, the oral performance of the learners did not reach the required standards of the English teaching program in these two areas. Although, they used many communication strategies to avoid the lexical deficiencies in their interlanguage, they failed to monitor many deficiencies at the syntactical and discoursal level. They were entirely preoccupied with maintaining the meanings of their intentions disregarding other levels. However, some students used self-repairing to correct the deviances from time to time but many others could not.

From a language learner’s point of view, errors in this study were defined clearly: they are deviants in the language but the students either realize them after or within the performance or they think that they use the right word or structure. Communication strategies are the uses of linguistic items that the learners are doubtful about their correctness but these items reflect their intentions clearly. This includes both the unknown items, which the learners
use to compensate for; and the new items learnt, which the learners use to check their suitability.

The second feature of the speech of these subjects was that some of the learners of English intentionally added some elaborations to the elements of the story, which the task did not compel them to include (it was optional in this study). This, in fact, gives the impression that the students always look for such chances to try out what they have already learnt. This is in fact one of the features that can be found in most of foreign language learners’ speech at the beginning of their career. They tend to probe their ability to use some of their newly acquired linguistic knowledge; to practice and to check whether the new learnt words can convey their intentions.

**Use of communication strategies**

Looking at the number of communication strategies that were used in this study, one may think that the whole speech of the learners was strategic. The total number of communication strategies was 777 that were produced by both groups of subjects: ‘NS/NI group’ of the planned /non-interactive task and ‘S/I group’ of the spontaneous/interactive task. The only reason behind this large number of communication strategy uses is that the learners of English in Yemen have not got sufficient opportunities to use their language in a real communicative practice, where they can consolidate their learning of the target language and build their own reliable interlanguage to get the words ready on their tongues. Therefore, most of the learners used restructuring strategies more than any other strategy, which suggested that the learners were not confident enough that their interlanguage could suffice
to express themselves clearly. The second strategy used was literal translation. This strategy was the safest means for the learners to convey their meaning confidently. The third strategy was the message abandonment, which gave them a kind of shelter from committing errors. They referred to their mother tongue to translate their intentions. The fourth strategy was meaning replacement, by which the learners altered their intentions to communicate the necessary elements of the task, which could not be avoided. Furthermore, there were some differences between the two groups of subjects (Arts and Education) and also among the four academic levels in terms of the type of communication strategy use. This chapter will try to trace these differences and assess their significance, based on the statistical methods.

1) Use of functional reduction strategies

The subjects of this study resorted to reduction as a major strategy. Reduction is the way that students use to minimize their intentions and the skillful avoidance of the difficulties that might lead them to fail in completing their oral task or from committing errors. They used this strategy to avoid many items of the story that were assigned by the researcher but in general they succeeded in conveying many of the main elements, which were imposed by them in the Arabic version.

Reduction strategies were the tactics that the learners resorted to for avoiding committing errors. Three types of functional reduction of the propositional content strategies were found in this study: topic avoidance, message abandonment and meaning replacement. The total number of
reduction strategies used in both tasks was 277. Message abandonment was the most used strategy 166 and topic avoidance was the least 2.

- **Message abandonment**

The students of the Faculty of Education were given sufficient time to plan their oral performance which gave them a kind of self-confidence to participate in the oral phase, except a few who were very reluctant to fail but with a little encouragement they finally agreed. With regard to the use of reduction strategies it was noted that most of the reduction process were applied only on the items that they intended in advance not to include (their own elements) since they knew that they would not be able to produce the English equivalent forms. These cases were hidden message abandonment strategies that the students availed from their prior knowledge of the expected performance and decided to conceal their intentions that were reflected in the Arabic version. This researcher tried to investigate the learners about the elements that they would mention if the task was in Arabic. Some of them revealed more intentions but most of them did not. This researcher included such added intentions to the Arabic versions of the subjects and considered them as message abandonment strategies.

It was noticed that the (NS/NI group) non-interactive and planned group was very keen on advancing the reduction of some items that seemed to them problematic but they were essential to the structure of the story. Here is an example from the transcript of one of the students from (NS/NI group).
4Ed2
This story is about a-a the black bird ===the black bird ===was thirsty and cannot could not a-a no from from where he will have water .so he look for source of water ===so, he it a-a it a-a ===it find it finds it find ===bottom or a-a ===of water that have a-a a little of water in a-a in the bottom of it ===. So he ===over a-a over thinking for a long time a-a how a-a how to find a-a that a-a to find that water in a-a in the bottom. So he a-a he === saw it saw ===rock of stone in a-a in a-a near a-a the bottom and he a-a or it ===take it and throw it in a-a the bottom a-a and the level of the water rise rise up and he a-a and it ===watered it and water water.

In this example, we notice that the student has ignored the existence of the item ‘sitting on a branch of a tree’ in the story. Though this element was very clear in the pictures, it could be ignored without affecting the events of the story. However, she extended her use of message abandonment strategy to ignore one of the most essential elements of the story ‘jar’, which the whole story was about how to drink water from a jar that was half-filled. She dealt with the word ‘jar’ as if it was not important and she referred to the word ‘bottom’ to bypass the word ‘jar’. This is because she was not certain of the right word; therefore, she preferred to resort to message abandonment strategy instead of committing a mistake.

However, the students from I/S group of Faculty of Arts were neither given time to plan their oral performance, nor any hints about the aims of the study beforehand. So, some of them wrote in Arabic many irrelevant details but they faced a difficulty to convey the same meanings in English. This compelled them to resort to message abandonment strategies more than any other strategy. This is an example from the Arabic writings of S/I group.
This situation shows how the birds can rescue from the predicaments, like this crow. If it did not try this trick and used its intelligence, it would not rescue from being thirsty and it would die from being so. Therefore human beings should think like these birds, which are at the highest level of intelligence. Also they should know how to solve their problems that they face and to follow the birds as an example.

These details, which the students included in their writings, were not accounted as communication strategies since they were out of contexts and do not relate to the events of the story. Here we gave this as an example. On the contrary relevant details which the students mentioned in their Arabic writings were considered message abandonment strategies, such as:

- [Regrettably]
- [An idea came into its mind]
- [It decided to knock the jar over]
- [It kept thinking]
- [glanced around]

However, in this study few students forgot to include some of the items that they had intended to, because they were not looking at their writings at the time of narration. Relying on the learner’s point of view, these cases have been taken into consideration at the time of data analysis and were not accounted as reduction strategies.
Quantifying the data, we could realize that among the three types of reduction strategies, the most used strategy was message abandonment by both groups of subjects- 166 cases. The (S/I) spontaneous and interactive group used more message abandonment strategies, 55, than the (NI/NS) non-interactive and non-spontaneous group ‘111’. Checking this significant difference in the mean use of message abandonment strategy between these two groups, we can apply the t-test statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Despite the big difference in the number of use of message abandonment strategy, the t-test showed no statistical significant difference between the means of the two groups in using the message abandonment strategy. This entails that learners of both groups are similar in the use of message abandonment.

However, a significant difference may be found among the four academic levels of study in the mean use of message abandonment. Using ANOVA we can check the effect of academic level on the use of message abandonment strategy.
ANOVA of Functional Reduction of Propositional Content (Message Abandonment) for the Four Academic Levels (Table 6.2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>16.600</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.533</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td>.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>404.133</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>7.217</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420.733</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Here, ANOVA also showed no significant difference in the mean use of message abandonment strategy by the four academic level of study. This result assures that it is not a matter of academy level, which drives learners of English to resort to use message abandonment and all students have the tendency to use this strategy.

- **Replacement strategies**

Students of English in Taiz University resorted to another strategy, which seemed a little bit difficult to be managed successfully specially at the time of speaking. Non-spontaneous group were expected to resort to meaning replacement strategy, because they had time to give up their advanced intentions and to replace them by others that gave different meanings but without affecting the final meaning of the story. Successfully, many subjects altered some events of the story to conceal their ignorance of the required vocabulary but some few others did not, because the new invented items spoiled the meaning of the events like the examples below:
The learner who resorts to replacement strategy should find out a similar item, which shares some functions of the replaced one, maintaining the whole aim of the story, otherwise, it will spoil the meaning of the task. In the first two examples, there were no comparisons between what they intended and what they said. This strategy was used here only to save the speaker from declaring his failure. On the other hand, in the last two examples some functions can be found to share ‘a jar’ and ‘a crow’. This strategy is acceptable and will serve the meaning of the task. Therefore, interactive/spontaneous group is liable to create more spoiled meaning replacement strategies but non-interactive/non-spontaneous group has time to use proper replacement strategies or to resort to another strategy.

However, most of the replacement strategies were found not to affect the main events of the story rather the imposed details that were added by the learners themselves. Both groups used meaning replacement ‘69’ times. The NS/NI group was more successful than S/I group specially when they dealt with the main events of the story and unexpectedly used fewer meaning replacement strategies than S/I group did. Here are some of the successful replacement strategies that have been employed in the task. We can recognize that the learner said something which was different from what he intended but it shared a lot with his intended target form.
The water in the bottom (the level of water was low)

Because == the water a-a some a-a a little in the jar (the water was at the bottom)

When he he sta..he (it) stand for a while (it puzzled for a while)

In figures, it was found that both groups used (69) meaning replacement strategies. The S/I group used (35) meaning replacement strategies, with a mean of (1.75) while the NS/NI group used (34), with a mean of (0.85). However, the t-test statistics shows how much the difference in the mean use is significant.

T-test of the Meaning Replacement Strategies for (I/S) and (NI/NS) Groups (Table 6.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>5.461</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The t-test showed a significant difference in the mean use of meaning replacement strategies in favor of S/I group. This means that there is a tendency towards using replacement strategies by the English majors at the time of speaking.
Also we can use ANOVA to check the availability of mean difference among the four academic levels of study in terms of the use of meaning replacement strategies.

**One-way ANOVA of Functional Reduction of Propositional Content (Meaning Replacement) for the Four Academic Level (Table 6.4)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.783</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>.417</td>
<td>.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>79.867</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>1.426</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>81.650</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The academic level was found not to affect the mean use of meaning replacement strategies. This suggests that the students of all academic levels tend to use this strategy similarly.

- **Topic avoidance strategies**

Topic avoidance strategy is the most harmful strategy if students get addicted to it. In this study two students resorted to topic avoidance strategy, one from NS/NI group and one from S/I. The student of S/I started talking and gave up in the mid of the task, while the student of the NS/NI agreed to participate but he gave up talking at the beginning of the task itself.
2) Use of interlanguage strategies

The interlanguage strategy is very important for developing the learner’s communicative competence, since it relies mainly on exploiting the available interlanguage resources, that have been already acquired, to be applied in situations that seem to be problematic. Many of the learners of English as well as first language speakers refer to such strategies to express their intentions when words fail them. It is a very common strategy that most of the people use but with various degrees. Learners also use such strategies when they feel that they are deficient in vocabulary.

Three strategies of this category were found prominent in the corpus of the English majors of Taiz University. The most used strategy was found to be restructuring and the least was paraphrasing.

- Use of generalization strategies

Generalization strategy is the most common strategy with which the speaker uses general terms as well as synonyms to refer a particular item when his memory fails him to recall the exact word or he lacks it. Most of the learners used this strategy for the second reason but only few for the first. The results revealed that some of the learners intended to use this strategy but they could not cope with it well. They used very general terms that distorted the events of the story and such instances were accounted as replacement strategies instead. Also, most of the generalization strategies found in the corpus, were to compensate for very limited terms such as:
- Stones *{pebbles}* 
- Rocks *{pebbles}* 
- A raven *{a crow}* 
- A bird *{a crow}* 
- Still looking for *{kept looking for}* 

Both groups NS/NI and S/I resorted to generalization in the same way. This, in fact, suggests that the learners have not acquired sufficient number of synonyms that will revive and expand their linguistic resources enabling them to compensate for a missing vocabulary in any oral task. Also, the use of the wide general terms suggests that the learners tend to use a bilingual dictionary to look up new words which in many cases the offered meanings are deceptive and learners take them as synonyms without looking up a monolingual dictionary, in which one can get the right use with accurate meaning.

However, the total sum of instances that the English major students used generalization strategy was ‘73’. The NS/NI used ‘46’ with a mean of use for each subject ‘1.15’ where as the S/I group used ‘27’ with a mean of use ‘1.35’. Using t-test, we can check the significant difference in the mean use of generalization strategies between the two groups.
The t-test showed no significance in the use of generalization strategy, which explained that all students were unable to use synonyms or general terms to express themselves in better ways. Even NS/NI group could not get benefit from their planning time to compensate for their ignorance of the needed words.

The ANOVA was used to test the significance of mean difference among the four academic levels in terms of using the generalization strategy.

**One-way ANOVA of Interlanguage Strategies (Generalization Strategy) for the Four Academic Levels (Table6.6)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2.583</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>59.600</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>1.064</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62.183</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
The ANOVA revealed no significant difference in the mean use of generalization strategy. This means that the four academic levels use this strategy with the same rate and same manner. As a matter of fact, advance levels tend to have more linguistic resources than the lowest level. This should give them the capability to behave more strategically in learning and communication. This was not so due to the lack of significance in the mean use of this strategy among the four levels of study.

- **Use of paraphrase strategies**

  The second common strategy is paraphrase. It is always presented in interactive situations where a speaker has to explain to his interlocutor terms that appear to him unavailable. In everyday language, paraphrase seems too necessary to make one clearer in his speech. Language learners also resort to such strategy when they talk with their teachers and their partners. However, the main reason behind using paraphrase strategy by the learners with their teachers is often for seeking help to find a term that he lacks. In this study the two groups used paraphrase strategy but it was extremely restricted to specific words such as:

  - *Black bird* `{crow}`
  - *Small stones* `{pebbles}`
  - *A kind of bird who is flying* `{a crow}`
  - *A thing where we put water in* `{a jar}`
  - *With a small amount of water* `{a little of water}`
Though these uses were quite restricted, they were employed successfully by the learners to explain their intentions. The noticeable behavior in the interactive and the spontaneous situation was that the subjects of both groups did not tend to request a help or offer a kind of help by using the structure ‘do you mean a bird which...’’. This was due the fact that both the interlocutor and the speaker lacked the right structure of paraphrase strategy; otherwise the action of help would be there.

However, this strategy is difficult for the learners because it needs an amount of controlling the structure of the paraphrasing language, with some skill in imagining the related features of the term. Above all, it is more difficult especially when dealing with abstract items. The difficulty in using this strategy was apparent with both groups where in the first situation (NS/NI) group told the story to a teacher who was supposed to give help if the learner requested using the request structure. In the second situation where interactive environment existed, neither the speaker nor the interlocutor did offer or asked for help.

The learners of both groups used this strategy 39 times. The NS/NI used it 25 times with a mean of use 0.62 and the S/I group used it 14 times with a mean of use ‘0.70’. Checking the significance in the mean use of the paraphrase strategy between the two groups, we will use the t-test statistics.
The t-test did not signify the difference in the mean use of paraphrase strategy between the two groups. This revealed that both groups ‘interactive and non-interactive’ used this strategy similarly. They failed to extend the use of paraphrase to their repertoire availing from the opportunities that they had to use paraphrase strategy for seeking help as well as a strategy to explain unknown terms.

We also need to investigate whether the academic levels enhance the use of paraphrase strategy, because this strategy mainly requires an advanced linguistic ability to be mastered. Comparing the mean use of the four academic levels by using ANOVA we can verify such claim.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-.367</td>
<td>40.053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
One-way ANOVA of Interlanguage Strategies (Generalization Strategy) for the Four Academic Levels (Table 6.8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>5.383</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.794</td>
<td>3.555</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>28.267</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33.650</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The t-test revealed a significant difference in the mean use of paraphrase strategy. Level one had a mean of ‘0.400’, level two ‘1.13’, level three 0.40’ and level four ‘0.65’. Level two got the highest mean and level three and one got the least. We need therefore to investigate where the significance lies among these differences in the mean use of paraphrase strategy. We have chosen the ‘Tukey HSD’ to perform the multiple comparisons among the four academic levels.

Tukey HSD of Paraphrase Strategies for the Four Academic Levels of Study (Table 6.9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) ACDLEVEL</th>
<th>(J) ACDLEVEL</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Upper Bound Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level one</td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.7333</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.032*</td>
<td>-1.4203 -4.6399E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.6869 .6869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-.2667</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td>-.9536 .4203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level two</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.7333</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.032*</td>
<td>4.640E-02 1.4203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level three</td>
<td>.7333</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.032*</td>
<td>4.640E-02 1.4203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>.4667</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.285</td>
<td>-.2203 1.1536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level three</td>
<td>level one</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.6869 .6869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level two</td>
<td>-.7333</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.032*</td>
<td>-1.4203 -4.6399E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>level four</td>
<td>-.2667</td>
<td>.2594</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td>-.9536 .4203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
# Does not use Harmonic Mean of Sample Size

160
In Tukey HSD multiple comparisons, we notice that level one differs significantly from level two and level two differs significantly from three. That means level two students significantly used more paraphrase than level one and three. However, level four does not significantly differ from level one or two. Unfortunately, the test of Scheffe does not show any significant difference among the four academic levels in the mean use of paraphrase. This last test seems reliable in the sense that it takes more rigid procedures in assigning the significance of difference and uses the harmonic mean samples size. Despite that, level two showed a higher mean of use and this can be referred to factors related to the language learning strategies.

- **Use of restructuring strategies**

Restructuring is the easiest strategy that gives the learner a kind of relief of giving the exact equivalent form to his intentions. So most of the learners in both groups used this strategy more than any other strategy. This gives the impression that the English major students of Taiz University strive for using English, although, they learn English language in a very frustrating environment. With restructuring strategy, the subjects of this study avoided the difficulty in producing the intended message by exploiting the flexibility features of the language such as negation or the opposite, the antonyms, ignoring details, exploiting similarity in the use or the features of the term, and twisting the semantic features to suit the intended meaning.

- *It wasn’t full of water* [it was half-filled]
- *But ==he (it) can’t ==drink from that ==water* [it was difficult to drink]
- *near the a-a the well ok* [beside]
- He wants water [looked for water]
- He reach to a solution [an idea came into its mind]
- he hurried to this jar [it flew to it quickly]
- After the==water ==rise and a-a drink from water [when the level of water rose high it drank]
- with water [contained water]
- I went to watch him [I approach it]
- Because the jar was not full [at the bottom]

As we can notice most of the strategies were used to avoid using one form of target language that seems problematic to the learner. In fact, according to Faerch and Kasper some of these uses can be categorized as formal reduction strategies but this researcher preferred to call them restructuring strategies because none of the learners has acknowledged that they have been avoiding rather they have been struggling to find the suitable structure for their message. Some other researchers called some of these uses a simplification strategy (such as Blum–Kulka and Levenston, 1983). But in fact those who originally lack the proper structure cannot apply simplification to the target language.

Restructuring seemed to be the most usable strategy among the learners of English majors of Taiz University. One of the reasons for this could be that most of the teachers are not Yemeni and they use simple structures to simplify their language in the classrooms. Learners of English language tend to imitate their teachers who sometimes have to use the simplified language.

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only to explain difficult language, especially in literature classes, to suit their learners’ linguistic level. Also, most of the Yemeni learners are very cautious of committing a lexical mistake, so they prefer to use what they are sure of to what they are not.

The number of the instances, the restructuring strategy was used, was ‘220’. The S/I group used it ‘92’ times with a mean of use ‘4.60’ and the NS/NI used it ‘128’ times with a mean of use 3.20. Finding out the mean difference between these groups will highlight the effect of planning and the interactiveness of the task on producing more restructuring strategies. The t-test was used to check the significance of the difference in the mean use of restructuring strategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>-2.758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.008*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The t-test showed a significant difference in the mean use of restructuring strategies. This means that the S/I groups used this strategy more than NS/NI group. This pinpoints the effect of non-planning situation in encouraging the learners to use more restructuring strategies. This result is expected because the subjects of the S/I group were trying to tell the story in a very clear
manner to prevent any kind of ambiguity. This was not the case with the NS/NI group where they were trying to avoid committing a mistake before the researcher. In fact we cannot claim that the effect of interactiveness is not the only factor but other intervening factors may have some effect, in particular, the non-genuine environment of the conversation. However, we can claim that planning may reduce the reliance on restructuring strategies. This is because the time is a crucial factor in recalling the exact words to suit the intended message.

We also need to find out the effect of academic level on the mean difference of using restructuring strategies. We used ANOVA to compare the means of using restructuring strategy among the four academic levels of study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>4.311</td>
<td>1.137</td>
<td>.342</td>
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<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>212.400</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.793</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>225.333</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

No significant difference was found among the four academic levels. This assures that the academic level had no effect on using the restructuring strategies. All the subjects of this study used this strategy almost in a similar way.
3- Use of interlingual strategies

Interlingual strategies are of two types: literal translation strategies and borrowing. The former strategies were one of the most used strategies that were found to solve problems related to lexical level of language while the second were limited and solved problems at the syntactical level. In this study we will focus on the first type of interlingual strategies, which were used profusely by the students to overcome inability to produce messages that they did use before. Learners have so many intuition and intentions that the target language equivalents are not at their disposal to be formed. For the reason that the learners have already acquired their own linguistic system that is almost well developed, so they will naturally resort to this developed system to solve the problems that emerge in their oral production of the target language. This activity has some advantages and disadvantages that may affect the quality of the oral product. When literal translation strategy is used the oral production may sometimes sound odd if it is intended to communicate with a native speaker. But if it is used to communicate with a person of the same language, the only advantage is that the speaker’s message will be recognized.

In this study, the subjects used this strategy widely in their oral performance. This researcher noticed that the students to some extent felt that they were translating literally from their language. This feeling, in my opinion, was good because if learners could realize the oddity of the utterance they would exert efforts to get the target like utterance at their course of study. However, English teaching program should regularly study this very important phenomenon in order to activate the suitable treatments that will help the
students easily to find out the target-like forms that emulate their own intentions. Otherwise learners will consolidate such learning and it will become part of their interlanguage.

- **Use of literal translation strategies**

The learners used literal translation as a strategy for getting the target form that could convey the messages they intended. It has been noticed that the learners were trying to avoid allowing the interference from their mother tongue but they were driven by the task. So the interference of the mother tongue was inevitable and it was apparent with both low levels and advanced levels and with the S/I group and NS/NI group. The subjects of this study almost faced the same problems that concerned some messages and they solved them using this very reliable strategy, in their point of view to avoid committing a mistake.

- *To throw* (**to drop**)
- *To take* (**to pick up**)

These two examples from the corpus were noticed in many of the subjects’ oral performance. They relied heavily on their own language ‘colloquial’ *RAMA* and *AKHADA*. These two words are having different connotations in the standard language and they are not equivalent to *ASQADA* and *ELTAQADA*. The students when they refer to a bilingual dictionary they do not focus on the various connotations of the standard language but they take the meanings in a colloquial language. The other reason can be attributed to their way of cognitive analysis, where the action of ‘throwing’ is involved in the action of
‘dropping’ in which one uses his hand to catch an object and either to let it move through the air (to throw) or to let it fall into something (to drop). The same cognitive process was used for compensating (take) for (picked up). As a result of following that kind of analysis therefore, the literal translation was inevitable.

Other uses of literal translation can be referred to some other kinds of cognitive analysis but in general the use of colloquial language of the learner to translate to the target language is the common cause for the literal translation strategies.

- The water was so far {the level of water was too low to reach}
- Below to drink {flew down to drink}
- In down {at the bottom}
- Until the rise the rise the water {until the level of water rose}
- Flew plus flew {kept flying}
- There found a raven [there was a crow]
- It was difficult to arrive ==um [he couldn’t reach the water]
- He went on a branch of a tree [flew to sit on a branch of a tree]
- Stand on a branch {it sat}
- He saw a-a it saw on the a-a on the jar [it looked into the jar]

Studying these utterances, we can distinguish between two groups. The first is result of the interference of the colloquial Arabic language of the subjects. The second can be referred to the fact that the standard Arabic language has options in using one word for both meanings or two words for one meaning. In the first five utterances the subjects focused on the surface meaning of the target form that suited some connotations in their colloquial language. While
in the last five utterances for example the word ‘look’ and ‘saw’ though in standard Arabic they are different but they are used interchangeably when the informal language is used, but with some syntactical adaptations: “NAZAR ELA AL-ENA-A” it looked into the jar, “RAA ALMA-A FI AL-ENAA”‘it saw the water in the jar’. Also, the intercultural criterion is crucial for selecting a word from two possible options. For example the use of the word “WAQAFA” {stood} is always used in Arabic with birds while in English {sat} “JALASA” is always used. So in this utterance the learner were driven by that criterion to choose the equivalent of the word used in their mother tongue. Different from these two examples, while in English there are two forms reach and arrive, in Arabic there is one form {WASALA}. The learners clearly chose one of the target forms since both are the same in Arabic. We can claim that the strategy of literal translation resulted from an interference of the first language, either colloquial or standard.

However, the learners used this strategy 148 times, which made it the second in the rank of using the other types of communication strategies. The S/I group used it 80 times with a mean of use reached 4.0 while the NS/NI group used it 104 with a mean of use 2.6. This shows that planning may have some effect on reducing the instances in which learners can resort to this strategy to solve problems in forming the target forms. So the proper statistics is the t-test that will be used to compare the means of the two groups.
The t-test showed a significant difference between the two groups in terms of using this strategy. So we can say the time that was given to the subjects reduced the tendency to use literal translation strategy. So planning time is crucial in increasing and decreasing the use of this strategy.

Since there were differences between the two groups, we may also find a difference related to the academic level. It is expected that those of low level may have a tendency towards using this strategy more than the advanced learners due to their underdeveloped linguistic competence.
The ANOVA test did not show any significant difference between at least two academic levels at the use of literal translation strategies. This means that all the levels are similar in their tendency to use the literal translation strategy to solve the linguistic problems.
Introduction

One of the most negotiable issues in strategic competence research is the teachability of communication for language learners. This particular phase of strategy studies has suffered from many shortcomings and misinterpretations that posited the study of strategic competence in a position that has no value in regard to its impact on the learner’s learning behavior and performance. There are three assumptions which have dominated the literature of strategic behavior: the strategic competence is like intelligence or aptitude that we just can recognize but cannot modify, the strategic competence can be learnt and taught, and the strategic competence can be taught and learnt but through task-based activities (not in an abstract manner. This diversity in assumptions was created in the literature due to some factors.

Firstly, it is because of the lack of consensus on the nature of communication strategies. As a matter of fact, the diversity in the views towards the learner’s language has enriched the study of strategic competence and the ensuing results have led to reveal some issues in regard to understanding the language learner’s behavior and the underlying cognitive processes that have been the core of the language acquisition studies. In studies of language acquisition, researchers have admitted that
strategic competence is a reason behind the surpassing of some learners in achieving good results in language learning and the failure of others who undergo the same program. Bialystok (1978)\(^1\) was aware of that and declared

“It is always the case that some individuals are more successful than others in mastering the language, even though the language experience has in all cases been ostensibly identical.”

Thus, strategies seem to be the main reason but researchers still have contradictory views in the issue of teaching strategic competence. This contradiction centers on whether strategies are part of the learners’ cognitive system and thus strategies maintain themselves according to the proficiency in language or they are distinct entities of communications and learning that learners’ need to have experience in communication and learning situations to get an acceptable control over deploying them in their communicative and learning activities.

The second reason arose as a result of the difficulty in depicting a clear picture for the relation between communication strategies to learning strategies. That, in fact, is due to the isolation of studying the phenomenon of communication strategies from its right developmental sides. As a result of that isolation, those who considered communication strategies pure problem-solving processes could not see any relation between communication strategies and learning strategies. They limited the use of communication strategies to the existence of a communicative failure or breakdown in conveying the intended meaning; speaker or learner resorts to

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communication strategy by any means available to him to avoid the breakdown of communication. Furthermore, learning strategies are mere techniques used to have a further progress in language attainment. In fact every individual has only one cognitive system that organizes the processes of learning and communication. What needed is the activation of this cognitive system to work on the specific task (either on a learning task or a communicative one).

Thirdly, it is due to mystifying relation between communication strategies and errors. Selinker (1972)\(^2\) has claimed that the errors, which are committed by the language learners, result from an application of communication strategies. Also, most of the researchers consider errors of language learners a normal process in terms of language development. So, in language acquisition literature errors suggest a sign of language development. This entails the use of a deviant language by a child or a language learner that is highlighted in terms of active learning. Thus, communication strategies are not excluded. But some of the researchers do not differentiate between these strategies and errors. According to Selinker, deviant language that is produced as a result of a successful application of communication strategy is not much different from deviances produced as a result of a failure of using communication strategy. So, it is worthwhile to differentiate between communication strategy and communication failure. Otherwise, teaching communication strategies will not be more than the way of teaching learners how to use deviant language rather than using alternative means of expressing the same idea. Henceforth, A communication strategy is almost a

good language (target-like structure) not completely deviant one, in the sense that it gives almost a similar meaning with, sometimes, unconventional alternatives. In addition, it can be considered, a trial (hypothesis testing) from the learner to convey unknown term or structure, which he is not sure of, in the target language. It is used mainly to avoid committing errors or non-fluent communication. The negative aspect of communication strategy is when the learner avoids the whole topic or part of it. On the other hand errors, which can sometimes result from a failure of communication strategy, can be distinguished from communication strategy in that the used utterance besides violating the conventional rules of a language, does not convey the same meaning of the intended idea.

The learners who commit the fossilized errors often do not know that they produce a deviant language. Monitoring-related errors are common among learners who lack the experience in communication. The learners, who commit those errors, realize their errors as soon as they produce them or after sometime. Fossilized errors cannot, by any means, be considered communication strategies but the latter can be the result of a failure in applying the right communication strategies. This failure can be attributed to many factors either related to the learners or to the task.

The last and the most important reason, is whether strategic competence is transferable ability from the first language. The contradiction in views arose from the comparison between the strategies used in the first language and in the second language. The study that was conducted by Bongaerts and
Poulisse (1989) has showed that non-native speakers use the same strategies native speakers use. In fact this is not a convincing reason to abolish the need for teaching strategies due to the fact that not all students have the ability to transfer their experiences of learning and using their first language to learn and use the second language. Likewise, the ability to communicate in one’s mother tongue does not entail the ability to communicate in the foreign language where the strategies that are used to learn one’s first language relied mainly on a full and long term of exposure. Also producing and communicating in first language can be easier as it relies on concrete and wide resources rather than abstract and limited resources, as in the case of the foreign language communication. The type of feedback accompanying learning first language is different in quality and quantity from learning a foreign language. The most important difference is that the parents activate strategies that are used with learning the first language while in the situation of learning a foreign language teachers seem to just teach the language and they leave the matter of strategies to be tackled by the learners themselves.

However, there are still many issues which need to be explained in order to reach a clear perspective of the strategy phenomenon. These issues are summarized by McDonough (1999)

“Many question remain unanswered. We do not have an adequate theory of strategic behavior to which all the results can be related. The relationship between strategy use and proficiency is very complicated: issues such as frequency and quality of strategy use do not bear a

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simple linear relationship to achievement in a second language. The role of strategies as an explanation of learning contrasts with the conception of strategies as an aid to learning".  

Also, in relation to the issue of strategy training, the conclusion, that has been arrived at by McDonough (1999) is that "teaching strategies is not universally successful, but the latest research is showing that, in certain circumstances and modes, particularly when incorporated into teacher’s normal classroom behavior, and thus involving teacher training as well as learner training, success is demonstrable".  

**Importance of teaching communication and learning strategies**  

Teaching strategies is an essential activity and any language-learning program should equip the learners with all kinds of strategies that might enhance learning activities and language performance. The necessity of teaching strategies is based on the fact that language learners use different kinds of strategies in their language production and language learning. Those strategies are to some extent responsible for the progress in the language attainment and production. In her theoretical model of second language learning, Bialystok (1978) attributed the individual variations in achievement and differences in skill development to the extent to which various language learners use the learning strategies.

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5 McDonough, 13.

6 Bialystok, (1978) 82.
Chamot (1998) mentioned some of the reasons behind the importance of teaching learning strategies:

"the intent of learning strategies instruction is to help all students become better language learners. When students begin to understand their own learning processes and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self-knowledge and skill is regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of good learners."\(^7\)

However, the matter of teaching strategy is still a controversial one. Here it is useful to have further information about the role of strategies in the educational system to identify the kind of intervention that is needed for the teaching of strategies.

**Continuity of learning and production**

A change in performance is not the only effect of using communication strategies or learning strategies. The other benefit that may surpass the quality of the performance is the continuity of production and learning. Learners who feel difficulty in comprehending the new knowledge may halt and reject the learning task. This is the expected behavior from the learners who have a poor strategic competence or do not activate it. This behavior is common among the beginner learners who keep silent for a long period and

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do not involve themselves in any kind of conversation since they are haunted with the feeling that they will produce erroneous language that will draw the attention of their instructors to their weaknesses. If they are stuck to such feelings those learners will never learn or at least learning will take a long time.

In this study the researcher faced a great difficulty in convincing the learners to participate in the study. They were afraid of speaking where each subject needed about five to ten minutes before speaking to be encouraged. Also the researcher explained to them how their speech would be necessary for this researcher to complete his study. In fact this fear is reasonable since the learners do not have any experience in speaking except casual talks with their teachers or fully planned ones in the classrooms. The greatest difficulty this researcher faced was with the subjects of the faculty of arts who were asked to speak spontaneously after writing the task in Arabic. It was very hard to convince the learners to tell the story in English and so that it could be recorded. They were asking questions about the research while they were seeking time for planning the task. That in fact frustrated the researcher and he had to cancel some of the sessions to avoid violating the conditions of the task.

Success of oral production is the real motivation

Although, planning and preparing a real topic task by the teacher seems very difficult, it is very important for language learner to do meaningful practice of language. In the same way, a learner who is involved in real communication has to address unexpected issues that he has never addressed
before or practised. So the use of communication strategies helps a lot in attaining a feeling of success that in turn can be a motivation for future learning. In addition, strategies will be a learning tool through which learners plan their learning and language use. Planning can be by recalling all the knowledge related to one’s communicative intention or needed by the learning activity.

**Strategic intervention and performance quality**

To highlight the importance of strategic competence it seems very important to show the effect of strategic competence on the quality of the learners’ performance i.e. whether the use of conscious strategies can yield a quality of language that surpasses the type of language produced without using any kind of strategies. It seems that the use of strategies is inevitable in normal language production. However, using some kinds of strategies consciously in producing a chunk of language may yield a better version of that chunk. This is always noticed in producing written language, where the writer plans, writes, revises, rewrites, revises again and produces the final draft. By no means, writing only one draft by the same person on the same topic will not result in better quality. Therefore, the use of strategies in producing language can improve its quality.

However the quality here is a relative feature, for example: language learners sometimes are liable to a linguistic deficiency or memory failure during the communication. So, they have two options: either to halt speaking or using other alternatives even if they are not conventional. This entails that the use of communication strategies to reveal the intended meanings in the
second language is by no means better than to keep silent or to produce fully erroneous and non-fluent language. The feeling of a complete failure will kill the self-confidence of the learner and may drive him to reject learning forever. On the contrary, the feeling of a success will call for a progress in learning process and will affect the quality of performance in future.

**Types of strategies and good quality of performance**

Accepting the idea that strategic intervention leads to improved performance from that of the non-strategic behavior, we have to explore what are the strategies that encourage the learners to produce a good quality of performance. In fact, it is not only a matter of ‘which’ but also a matter of ‘when’ and ‘how’ these strategies should be used. Therefore, the type of strategy and its proper use may assign whether the resulted performance is of a good quality or the opposite. If it fulfills the aim of its use then it will be considered a good quality performance, but if it does not then it will be a bad one. Only this may mark the difference between the two behaviors.

Reduction strategy may in some cases be considered necessary. The type of task necessitates the learner to resort to avoiding some details which learners cannot control. Taking a decision for that action requires the learner to take up in advance the main elements of the task that are needed to be available and the optional ones that will not affect the whole topic. This should be restricted to the situations where the fluency and correct language production is required or when misunderstanding is not tolerated. However, in some situations a learner finds himself tackling unnecessary details that are not required by the task. This is due to the learner’s active processing of
the semantic elements which can be guided by thinking in his mother tongue. In many cases, learners in this study indulged themselves in describing some details which did not add any new information “creative elements” to the story but (regardless of failure or success) generated more linguistic load on them which affected badly the fluency and the accuracy of their performance, such as in controlling the right tense and pronouns.

Therefore, teaching learners how to manage their tasks and how to maintain fluency of their speech we should focus on how to balance between the two types of strategies, achievement and reduction.

**Types of strategies that lead to learning**

Most of those strategies that are called achievement strategies are really hidden avoidance behaviors. Many educators do not recommend them if they do not lead to learning. My point here is that all strategies must have similar functions in terms of their role in maintaining language accuracy/fluency and language development. So, using any type of communication strategies by learners will not lead to learning unless they activate the use of learning strategies.

However, there are some types of communication strategies which are assumed to lead to upgrade the learners’ interlanguage. Faerch and Kasper (1983) explain when communication strategies can lead to learning and assign achievement strategies rather than reduction strategies which lead to language learning:
“A basic condition for communication strategies to have a potential learning effect is that they are governed by achievement rather than avoidance, behavior. If learners avoid developing a plan and change the goal instead so that it can be reached by means of the communicative resources they already posses in their interlanguage, no hypothesis formation takes place and their interlanguage system remains unaffected (although the automatization of the system may hereby be increased in general due to practice similarly, if learners avoid using a particular interlanguage item because of uncertainty about its correctness (formal reduction), this clearly does not lead to automatization of the relevant item but again, possibly, to consolidation of some other aspect of the system”⁸.

Corder (1983) similarly suggests that learning can potentially occur when L2 learners use resource expansion strategies

“These are clearly success oriented though risk running strategies, if one wishes at this stage of the art to consider the pedagogical implications of studying communicative strategies, then clearly it is part of good language teaching to encourage resource expansion strategies and, as we have seen, successful strategies of communication may eventually lead to language learning”⁹.

If such hypothetical difference between achievement and avoidance strategies can be true then teaching language will maintain teaching the language learners how to deploy achievement strategies in their communication and discarding the use of avoidance strategies. As a matter of fact human behavior tends to avoid harmful and unpleasant situations and

resort to a kind of strategy that gives him a secure feeling. It is right that learning process is not always pleasant and expects the learner to face the difficulties and overcome them; otherwise he will remain around the same point without attaining any kind of progress. However, in some situations learners need that secure and pleasant feeling for the purpose of maintaining high motivation level and self-confidence, which is essential for the learning process to keep going on. Avoidance strategies can afford those conditions. So all types of communication strategies, in my point of view, have their constructive role in the learning process.

**Principles of learning strategy training**

Based on strategy training research Oxford (1994)\(^\text{10}\) has suggested several principles on which any strategy training should be accounted for:

1. L2 strategy training should be based clearly on students' attitudes, beliefs, and stated needs.
2. Strategies should be chosen so that they mesh with and support each other and so that they fit the requirements of the language task, the learners' goals, and the learners' style of learning.
3. Training should, if possible, be integrated into regular L2 activities over a long period of time rather than taught as a separate, short intervention.
4. Students should have plenty of opportunities for strategy training during language classes.

5. Strategy training should include explanations, handouts, activities, brainstorming, and materials for reference and home study.

6. Affective issues such as anxiety, motivation, beliefs, and interests -- all of which influence strategy choice -- should be directly addressed by L2 strategy training.

7. Strategy training should be explicit, overt, and relevant and should provide plenty of practice with varied L2 tasks involving authentic materials.

8. Strategy training should not be solely tied to the class at hand; it should provide strategies that are transferable to future language tasks beyond a given class.

9. Strategy training should be somewhat individualized, as different students prefer or need certain strategies for particular tasks.

10. Strategy training should provide students with a mechanism to evaluate their own progress and to evaluate the success of the training and the value of the strategies in multiple tasks.

Though these principles are subject to further investigation according to Oxford, they are very crucial to be deployed by any language learning training program, either in the area of communication or learning, to achieve the desired success.

**Teaching communication strategies**

Due to the fact that learners always deploy communication strategies whenever they realize that they cannot complete their tasks, teaching communication strategies does not entail only encouraging learners how to
maneuver to complete their task successfully but also to resort to a specific type of strategy. Taking into account when strategy use is harmful to the learning process, communication strategies should not be the shelter for not to learn but a shelter for protecting the learner from the feeling of failure. In other words, teaching the learners how to plan, how to carry out their communicative goals and providing them with wide resources are what any reasonable method should be based on.

In addition, teaching communication strategies should not be restricted to teach the learners only the type of strategies that are needed for using the various types of communicative situations as some scholars propose it. Teaching strategies need more than presenting specific types of strategies to be taught in an abstract manner but to be incorporated in the learners’ behavior by training them how and when to resort to a specific type of strategy.

So, any method of enhancing the learners’ strategic behavior should take into consideration all issues; otherwise we will find ourselves either teaching learners how to commit deviant language or to learn pieces of language that are required for using these strategies. Besides, we will not make a great deal of a change in the educational system and we will not have the great impact of strategic competence on teaching or learning practices. The success of any strategy instruction should be through supporting the learners with tools of planning, management and execution. Planning their learning, managing their ideas and verbalizing them without being afraid of committing errors, always having in mind that no learning can take place without trials and errors. Learners should be guided when they have to conceal some of their
intentions, when they have to declare them, and how to express them and by which means. They need to have opportunities for speaking in the classroom with their peers and in groups. They have to learn how to control their oral production in interactive and in non-interactive activities. So teaching methods should rely on both oral and written practice to fulfill these aims. Teaching methods need to exploit the use of communication strategies to respond to them either spontaneously by helping in shaping the messages of the learners or to assign the teaching materials that will be based on the real linguistic needs of the learner.

As a matter of fact teachers have the most important role in stimulating the learners to follow a specific type of learning or communication strategy. So the teaching strategy, which is employed by the teachers, should be compatible with the type of strategies we intend to develop in the learners. The learners always are very sensitive to their teachers’ behavior. They try to respond according to their expectations. Teachers who expect their learners to memorize make them rely on memory strategies. Then the balance that is needed in strategy use will be violated. The teacher should present different types of tasks that encourage them to implement balanced strategic activities.

How the English majors can benefit from strategy training

Building an acceptable strategic competence can be achieved by changing the role of the teacher from being a source of language to that of a guide. Learners of Taiz University, as in most of the Arab countries, consider the teacher the source of information. This, in fact, makes the learner passive in
their learning. A condition for leaning to occur depends mainly on the learners’ activities rather than on teachers’ activities. The role of teacher is to discover the needs of the learner and to respond to their urgent ones in the classroom and to direct them to the proper resources of the target language and to advice them how to work on them through using the suitable types of strategies.

Having trained the learners in the ways of mastering the rules of learning management we can direct them to the learning autonomy. Teacher cannot be the only source of knowledge; if so then learners will not learn anything because the time assigned to the teacher is limited by the lesson time and in the remaining time learners will be occupied by recalling “rote learning” the linguistic items which have been presented by the teacher. Learners should learn many other skills as a perquisite for managing the knowledge to be apprehended by them. For example, learning new words requires the learner to learn how to get their meanings by seeking help either from teachers or look them up in the monolingual as well as bilingual dictionaries, guessing their meaning from the context, etc. all these skills are needed to be taught. In this study, it was found that some students resorted to a literal translation strategy but failed to give a similar meaning of their intentions. It is because of they are not skilled in using the bilingual dictionary. For example, the word ‘even’ and ‘until’ have only one word in Arabic; the student who was supposed to use ‘until’ used “even” instead.

Also, what is the use of knowing a large number of words if learners do not know how to use them in their real communication? Learners of level four, for example, have been exposed in the various courses to a number of
vocabulary items but in this study, they failed to recall some of them to complete the story telling task. This is expected because learners are programmed by the teaching system to be stimulated by some question in literature or linguistics evaluative tasks to produce only the type of language required for answering that question. Learners of Taiz University have been learning for six years in schools and they are now in the English department but they remain at the same level. This is because they have not been taught how to manage their learning and how to make maximum gain from the prescribed syllabus. Making a progress in the quality of teaching in the English Departments of Yemen necessitates a change in the role of the teacher and to give the learners a chance to be responsible for their learning. Furthermore, a serious training in learning and communication strategies also should accompany this.

However, all English departments in Yemen lack a detailed syllabus for teaching, except some very broad guidelines for courses. Teachers in the English departments in the Yemeni universities teach the courses according to their intuition. They prepare the syllabus and assign the content of the syllabus guided by the global aim and they teach accordingly. Therefore, a deliberate and detailed syllabus is becoming a need in most of the English departments for the teachers to know what to teach. This syllabus should be built on a full knowledge of the reality of the level of the learners and the expectations that we have from them. It should be flexible to take into consideration the real needs of the learners in the classrooms and outside the classroom. It should be built to shape their behavior of learning performance by presenting the types of tasks that compel them to adopt various types of strategies of learning and communicating. In my opinion, strategic
competence should be the main element to account for in the syllabus due to its great impact on learning process.

Moreover, the number of the students in the English departments in Yemen is really a great challenge. The great number of the students necessitates an increase of the teaching staff and the teaching halls because teaching English is not like teaching any other theoretical subject. It is based on a lot of practical lessons that need suitable places for all the learners to get equal and enough chances of practice. A group should not exceed twenty students; otherwise the practice sessions will not be possible. Furthermore, we have to take into consideration that the students do not practice English outside the classroom (for the reasons mentioned in chapter one). Strategy use can have some effect on softening the problem to some extent, encouraging the learners to work on communicative task as a compulsory activity outside the classroom and then to be presented in a discussion group. The students should be encouraged to look for the material by themselves from a well-prepared library for such activities. These and many other activities can keep the learners in a good position to activate their strategic competence.
CHAPTER EIGHT

Conclusion and Recommendation

Introduction

This study attempts to investigate the ways the English major students of Taiz University use their strategic competence to learn and communicate in English; it mainly deals with learning and communication strategies. The study poses three questions to realize the main goals of this study: (i) “how do English majors of Taiz University deploy their strategic competence when they want to achieve their communicative goals, in terms of using communication strategies?” (ii) “how do English majors manage their strategic competence when they learn new items in English, in terms of using learning strategies?” (iii) “how can teaching the learning and communication strategies help the English majors at Taiz University to develop their strategic competence?”

For answering the first main question of this study, two statistical questions were formulated:

Are there any significant differences between the students of the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Arts in terms of using learning strategies in general and the use of the various types of learning strategies?

Are there any significant differences among the four academic levels of study in terms of using the learning strategies in general and the use of the various types thereof?
Also, to answer the second main question two statistical questions were formulated:

Are there any significant differences between NS/NI group and the S/I group in terms of the use of the various types of communication strategies?

Are there any significant differences among the four academic levels of study in terms of the use of the various types of communication strategies?

In order to deal with the teaching of communication strategies and learning strategies, i.e., the subject matter of the third question as mentioned above two corresponding questions were formulated:

Is teaching strategic competence necessary and useful for English language learners?

What are the difficulties the Yemeni English language learners face in terms of learning and using English language and how can strategy training overcome such difficulties?

This study targeted the students of all academic levels at Faculty of Education and Arts, Taiz University. The study adopted the SILL questionnaire of Oxford (1990). The subjects participated in this questionnaire were 300 students and 80 students participated in the oral task (10 students from each level of the two faculties) selected randomly from the total strength enrolled. The latter were divided into two groups. Both were asked to retell a story in English orally with the help of two pictures representing the main events. Also, the story was narrated to them in Arabic by the researcher. Both groups were asked to write the
story in Arabic before performing the oral task. However, one group was informed of the aims of the study and the required behavior expected from them. The other group was not informed of the required behavior expected from them after writing the story.

Quantitative methods of analysis were employed to answer the first two questions. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations were calculated. Then t-tests and ANOVA were used to examine the existence of the significant differences in the mean use of the learning strategies, communication strategies and their various types. Scheffe and Tukey HSD \textit{post hoc} tests were used for executing the multiple comparisons. The SPSS (Version: 10) statistical program was used here for the tabulation and the analysis. The third question was tackled qualitatively without availing of any numerical data since the researcher could not find any information available at the time of performing this fieldwork. So, he relied mainly on the results of this study and his experience of teaching in the department for a period of four years.

**Issues on the notion of strategic competence**

The review of the previous literature in this study has focused on two important issues: the definition and classification and the factors affecting the strategic behavior. Clearly, most of the early studies of communication strategies, which investigated the problem of classification, produced roughly similar taxonomies. The mere difference among the recent studies was the claim that the classification should be based on the cognitive processes of language production rather than on the utterances that were produced. Also, the learning strategy
classification had no radical variations because most of the researchers based their taxonomies on similar processes, namely: cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-affective.

However, most of the studies that studied strategic competence isolated its components according to the area on which each component worked. This, in my opinion, has increased the gap between the theory and practice. Strategies stem from the same cognitive system and studying each component separately does not imply any new practical knowledge to understand the language learning process and its relation to the communicative behavior of the language learners.

**Unhelpful environment of learning and using English**

A knowledge of the environment surrounding the process of learning is very important to predict the effect of the teaching program on the learners’ behavior. This entails the factors that obstacle the learning process. Some of these obstacles are inevitable in the sense that they are related to the external reasons, that the teaching program cannot control or overcome. Here, the study investigates the extent to which the English majors in Yemen strive to learn a foreign language in unhelpful environment. This study has revealed that the students used a lot of strategies, regardless of their effectiveness in learning and using English. Therefore, resorting to use strategies of learning is considered an active learning behavior to overcome the embedding factors that associate English language learning process.
The English Departments in the Yemeni universities know that they receive learners with poor background and consequently try hard to improve their communicative ability by focusing on language skills in the first two years of the teaching program. In fact, this is not enough to overcome some other factors that affect badly the learners’ communicative competence. These factors are: educational (the illiteracy rate among the society is a serious cause of concern), cultural (communicating in English is not acceptable by most of the Yemeni people) and economical (a huge number of students join the English departments every year despite the shortage of necessary funds and teaching staff). These three factors rot the normal environment of learning and using English as a foreign language and negatively affect the development of the learners’ communicative competence. Therefore, this study suggests that the learners’ role should be taken into consideration to enhance the effectiveness of the English teaching program.

Learning strategy use

The analysis of the learning strategy use targeted the overall strategy use (that dealt with the difference between the four academic levels, the difference between the two teaching programs and the differences among the four academic levels) and the use of the various types of strategies (that dealt with the direct strategies and the indirect strategies of the four academic levels of each faculty).

Differences in the overall learning strategies

The results of the analysis have showed that the overall learning strategy use of the English major learners of Taiz University is at a moderate
level. The analysis also has sought the difference in the overall strategy use between the two faculties and has found no significant difference. Though the two faculties offer different programs for teaching English, this result clearly indicates that the difference in the two teaching programs has no significant effect on the overall learning strategy use.

However, the differences in the mean of the learning strategy use lie among the four academic levels of both faculties. Comparing the mean use of language learning strategy of the four levels has showed that level one differs significantly from level two and three but non-significantly from level four. At the time of doing this study the students of level one had already left secondary school and had acquired no serious experience of learning English. Level two, on the other hand, has had a real experience of language learning for one year in the English department. Therefore, this difference in the mean use indicates a drastic change in the means of learning English has occurred. Interestingly, level four, which has completed three years of study in the department of English, uses more strategies than level one but that difference is not significant.

Here, we can assume that the new experiences, which are offered by the learning materials to level four, are not challenging. Consequently, they do not feel any need for the use of learning strategies to cope with those experiences. Another assumption can be considered valid is that the learners at level four cease using all kinds of strategies and focusing only on some specific types of strategies. This second assumption can be valid since the new experiences might differ qualitatively from those of the lower levels and accordingly strategy use might also change.
This researcher has investigated the differences in the mean use of leaning strategies of the four academic levels within each faculty to probe the effect of the difference in the two teaching programs. Though the difference is not significant, the result has showed that level two still differ significantly from the other levels except level three of faculty of Arts. This confirms that the students of level two can be described as active learners, regardless of the type of the teaching program. However, this has also motivated the researcher to investigate the differences in the types of learning strategies since the type of the experiences are qualitatively different within each level of the academic study.

**Differences in types of learning strategies**

As it was claimed above, each academic level might have a qualitative difference of the experiences from those of the lower ones. This researcher has analyzed the differences among the four academic levels in the six types of learning strategies and the following results have emerged:

**Memory strategies**

Learners resort to various strategies to cope with the new linguistic items. Beginners are more liable to use memory strategies than those of the higher levels, because they face difficulty at the beginning of their study to memorize a vast number of new linguistic items. Reasonably higher levels might have acquired the necessary vocabulary and they do not face much difficulty in mastering additional new ones because they already have been exposed widely to the target language. In school, the English
syllabus offers the students a great deal of the basic vocabulary but because they do not get any kind of consolidation after the lessons, they just memorize to forget after the test or the final examination. Here, the results show that level two differs significantly from all the other levels. This result can be attributed to the great tendency of the students who join the department of English to master the newly presented vocabulary and other structural components of language in order to cope with the academic study of English that differs significantly from the study of English in school. However, the non-significant difference of memory strategies between level one and each of level three and four sheds some light on the students’ tendency to either rely on other strategies to learn English or a lack of enthusiasm. This lack of enthusiasm can be attributed to a weakness in the learning materials.

Cognitive strategies

The result indicates that level two uses cognitive strategies to learn English significantly more than the other levels. Here, level three and four differ significantly from level one. This confirms the fact that the students of level three and four actually use other strategies to learn English that differs significantly from that of the learners in school. Though level three gets higher mean than level four, the difference is not significant. The rise and the fall of the line of the graph gives the impression that there must be some flaw with either the students’ tendency to learn English or the learning materials.
Compensation strategies

The result shows that the means of use of the compensation strategies by all levels are similar. Level four gets the highest mean that differs significantly from only level one but non-significantly from level two and three. Level two got the second highest mean in using compensation strategy that also significantly differs from level one but non-significantly from level three. This result indicates that when the students of level four face difficulty in learning they resort to compensation strategies. It reveals some of the reasons behind the low means in the use of the memory and the cognitive strategies; for example, instead of looking up the new words in the dictionary they make guesses. These alternative ways of learning English cause a decrease in the tendency of using the other strategies. The higher the level of the learners the more the tendency to use compensation strategy. Resort to compensation strategies with ignorance of memory strategies and cognitive strategies may reveal a fault in the students’ strategic learning behavior rather than a flaw in the learning material of the teaching program. There should be a balance in the preferences of using strategies. The result of this study shows that there is a kind of balance between these strategies; the use of memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies tend to be similar not less than 3.00. This will lead to attribute the significant difference between level two and four to the learners’ preferences rather than to factors related the learning materials. However, this result does not completely abandon the responsibility of the teaching program on affecting the students’ preferences of using some specific types of strategies more than others. In particular, we can claim that the teaching program lacks a serious treatment for encouraging the learners to use cognitive and memory strategy more than adopting the alternative ways
of learning, i.e. compensation strategies. This claim does not imply that compensation strategies should not be used at all but to the degree not affecting the quality and the progress of learning.

**Metacognitive strategies**

The use of these strategies of learning depends mainly on the awareness of the learner of his learning behavior, but they are always triggered by further learning activities imposed on the learners inside and outside the classrooms. The results show that level two uses this strategy significantly more than all the other levels. And Level three differs non-significantly from level four. However, level one uses this strategy significantly less than all the other levels. This result raises the effect of the academic courses on the use of learning strategies. The learners of level two use this strategy since they find that learning in the English department completely differs from that in the schools. So they try to cope with that new situation by exerting a lot of meta-cognitive strategies with which they can speed up their learning achievement and pace up with requirements of English learning at the college level. Here, we can notice that, at the time the student passes a stage of study he starts to give up some of these strategies. This researcher claims that meta-cognitive strategies are the learners' responsibility but the program can avail from that tendency of level two to keep the same level of meta-cognitive strategy use by provoking more learning activities and opportunities. However, this should be based on the level and the need of the learners as well as on the requirements of the program. This will ensure the active participation of the learner in the proposed learning activities. What is
needed is that the program should assign a time and the necessary material should be accessible.

**Affective strategies**

The learners who cannot control their affective strategies must suffer from many irregularities in their course of study. As it is the case of controlling the cognitive activities by enhancing the meta-cognitive strategies, the whole learning process is affected by the emotional elements imposed by the learner in the learning process. Unfortunately, the use of affective strategies is very low which indicates that the learners are exerting lot of efforts to learn but they do not know how to control the emotional side of learning. This might happen due to cultural and social factors. As the results show, it seems that the Yemeni learners pay attention to the cognitive elements of learning, by using a lot of meta-cognitive strategies, more than to the affective ones. Another assumption can be acceptable is that the courses of study do not involve any procedures that may create confusion among the learners. This is not always right since a little of confusion might stimulate a great effort on the part of the learners which in turn affects the quantity and quality of the linguistic input and output.

**Social strategies**

The use of social strategy by the students of Taiz University does not appear to be as expected where the students of level four use this kind of social strategies lesser than even level one. This result is an indication of the complexity of the environment of learning English in Yemen. The
students who should use the language as soon as they graduate in vocational situations, they stop using proper strategies to practise what they have already learnt outside the classrooms. The students of level two use these strategies significantly more than all the other levels. Level one and level four use this strategy at an almost similar rate. The results can be attributed to psychological reasons. The students of level four stop talking and interacting with each other even for a learning purpose, due to the feeling that they will not be able to speak fluently and accurately. This behavior can be explained in that the self-confidence for talking to others has not been ensured well by the learners themselves. Ensuring self-confidence can only be attained after a long and real use of the target language. This again assures the absence of practice to use the Target language inside as well as outside the English department.

*Communication strategy use*

The communicative behavior of the English Major students is characterized by using many types of strategies. The results show the use of the following types of strategies: functional reduction strategies (message abandonment, replacement and topic avoidance strategies), interlanguage strategies (generalization, paraphrase, restructuring) and interlingual strategies (literal translation). The generalization of these results should take into consideration the absence of a rigid practice of the target language by the students inside and outside the classroom.
**Functional reduction strategies**

The results show that the students of Taiz University resort to three types of functional reduction strategies: message abandonment, meaning replacement and topic avoidance.

**Message abandonment**

In this study the subjects use message abandonment as a way of overcoming the problem of using the exact or the equivalent word/phrase for encoding the intended message. The results show no significant differences in the use of message abandonment strategies between NS/NI and the S/I groups. This means that the planning time does not affect the type of strategies. Furthermore, the result shows that the (NI/NS) group advances the use of the message abandonment to the essential elements of the story. On the other hand, the extra details that have been added by the students are easier to be managed without any kind of reduction. This can highlight two things. First, the students can communicate easily if they manage their own genuine intentions. Second, the students do not get benefit of planning to decrease the use of message abandonment.

**Replacement strategies**

The result shows that the S/I group uses more replacement strategies than the NS/NI group. Besides the NS/NI extends the message abandonment to the necessary details, which means that the amount of time has an effect on the quality as well as reducing the quantity of the meaning replacement strategy use. This is because the comparison finds a
significant difference between the two groups, in favor of the S/I group. So, we can attribute the effect of the spontaneous task on the use of replacement strategies to the interactive situation in which the subjects have to convey the intended meaning without resorting to any kind of enquiry from his partner. However, the comparisons among the four academic levels show no significant differences in the use of replacement strategies, which means that the effect of academic level does not affect the use of this strategy.

**Topic avoidance**

Two cases found in this study one from the NS/NI group and the other from S/I group, reveal that resorting to this strategy is attributed to the factor of self-confidence rather than to academic level or the type of the task. This was observed by the researcher but the learners did not give any reason for their behavior.

**Interlanguage strategies**

The results show that the students of Taiz University resort to three types of interlanguage strategies: generalization, paraphrase and restructuring.

**Generalization**

Most of the instances of generalization strategies are used due to the failure of memory to recall a particular word or term. This gives an impression that the learners are not in a position to apply what they have
already learnt in the previous courses in real communicative situation. Furthermore, the comparisons among the learners in the use of generalization reveal that no significant differences are found among the four academic levels and between the NS/NI and S/I groups. This result means that all students of different academic levels and of different types of tasks use this strategy quantitatively and qualitatively in a similar way. This can be attributed to the unskilful use of synonyms due to the fact that the learners are accustomed to stick to the exact equivalent of their intentions to the words of the target language when they communicate.

**Paraphrase strategies**

The students try hard to avoid paraphrase strategy as they find it quite difficult. Even in the interactive task, the learners also seem not to seek the help from the interlocutor to avoid the difficulty in using paraphrase strategies. This is apparent from the comparison between the two groups NS/NI and S/I that reveals no significant differences. However, the effect of the academic level on the use of paraphrase seems to exist. There are significant differences between level two and each of level one and three but all in favor of level two. Also, level two uses more strategies than level four but the difference is not significant. So, this result does not completely eliminate the effect of the proficiency in the use of paraphrasing strategy. However, it is possible, particularly in this study, to refer this result to the active learning behavior, as in the case of level two which uses more learning strategies.
Restructuring

In this study, most of the learners resort to restructuring strategies due to its easiness or as a failure to use generalization. This heavy reliance on restructuring strategies by the learners can be attributed to the teaching method that the teachers follow as a technique to explain the difficult terms, in particular, in the literature classes, by exploiting the simplification strategy. However, the comparison between the two groups NS/NI and S/I shows a significant difference in favor of the S/I group. This result clarifies how the learners exploit the planning time to reduce reliance on restructuring strategies. Regarding the effect of the academic level, there is not any significant difference. Therefore, all learners of different proficiency levels tend to use the easiest strategies to communicate in the target language.

Interlingual strategies

The results show that only one strategy of the interlingual strategies is found to be largely used. Literal translation is a prominently used strategy by the English Major students of Taiz University.

Literal translation

Similar to restructuring strategy, this strategy gets the second prominent rank among the other communication strategies because it is easy to manage and safe to convey the message to a partner who shares the same language. Generally, the interactive situation might have an effect to encourage the learner to use the literal translation strategy. However, the
results show that the S/I group uses this strategy significantly more than the NS/NI. This result explains that planning time is very important in avoiding the literal translation in target language communication but this is not the only factor since the interlocutor who shares the same language may also have some effect on the use of literal translation. On the other hand, the academic level has no effect on the use of literal translation strategies because no significant difference is found among the four academic levels of study. This result can be attributed to the type of the oral performance that occurs among the students who have the same language.

**Defect in the teaching program**

In this study, two problems have emerged in relation to the defects in the teaching program. The first is the poor oral practice the students are getting in their courses of study. The second is in relation to the blurry syllabus. The first problem is due to economical reasons but still the program has to do a lot by exploiting the strategic competence of the learners to enhance the tendency of the learners to learn English effectively and enthusiastically. It seems that learners need to be activated by stimulating them to use the language in different situations. If the learners do not feel that they get benefit of their learning efforts, they will cease learning and they will be stimulated only by grades they get in the exams that do not take into consideration the use of language in the evaluation process.

However, the second problem touches the most important part of learning process; it is the department’s curriculum. In fact, relying on the
description of the broad lines of the syllabus will not be practical to meet the requirements of the final aims of teaching English. Many necessary elements of the curriculum have been ignored such as: the settings, the surrounding environment, the proficiency level, the teaching materials, the possible teaching methods, the characteristics of the evaluation procedures, the needs of the learners, the expectations from them. All these are still unclear and are not specified.

**Strategy training**

The importance of strategic competence in the developmental processes of language learning supports the call for strategy training. Furthermore, as a result of the rare opportunities of using English widely inside and outside the classroom, the training of strategies becomes a necessity for English major students. This at least will encourage the learners to take the initiative to use the Target language in their communication with teachers or their partners. From this study the learners try hard to stick to what should be more than to what is available. They hesitate a lot to compensate. By using a similar term, they think that they commit a mistake rather than using a compensation strategy. They think that there are only specific terms that can suffice the intended message in the target language. Being aware of the alternative ways to convey the meaning of their indented message will help a lot to enhance the autonomy of language learning.

This can be achieved by teaching the various ways of conveying messages in the target language. Assigning one method of teaching, it seems that the teacher can decide how to teach communication and learning strategies. However, there are two prevailing ways of teaching...
strategies: implicitly or explicitly. Adopting one of these two methods depends on the learners’ characteristics and repertoire of the strategic behavior. Additionally, it is worth mentioning that the training can be useful if it is synchronized with learning and speaking difficulties. Certainly, this will help the learners to get rid of the feeling of failure that seems responsible for halting the process of active learning.

Relation of learning strategies to communication strategies

The results reveal that the active learners are more liable to behave strategically. This researcher argues that not only the achievement strategies are always good strategies but also the reduction strategies can be good in situations that the learners need to resort to as a shelter from the feeling of failure. However, the over use of reduction strategies might imply a fault in the affective strategies.

In this study, the participants suffered from a feeling of failure. This factor is deduced from their learning strategies profile where all the students got the lowest means in the affective strategies. This clearly points out that English majors of Taiz University suffer from their inability to control their emotional behavior at the time of learning. Lack of self-confidence in applying what they have learnt in new situations is one of its symptoms. In conclusion, studying the learners’ strategies can be useful if they are investigated in combination rather than in isolation. Studying the effect of each strategy on the other and their relations to learning strategies might increase our understanding of the developmental process of language learning and consequently present a clear picture of the learning behavior.
The mutual effect of communication and learning strategies

On the basis of the results of this study it can be concluded that the students of level two are active learners, in the sense they use a lot of learning strategies, that in turn affects the use of achievement strategies more than reduction strategies. Notably, the rise in the mean use of learning strategies does not show an overall rise in the mean use of communication strategies but at least there is a significant difference in the use of paraphrase strategies that seem very difficult for all the students. This result is attributed to the poor oral practice that all the English major student suffer from in their course of study as a result of many reasons such as the unhelpful environment of language learning. However, level four and three, which are expected to use more achievement strategies, tend to use more reduction strategies. Advanced levels are more sensitive to their failure of producing correct language. This behavior is normal because they feel that they should not make mistakes and consequently, they tend to conceal their weaknesses. Their awareness of the fact that with communication strategies they can overcome some of their weaknesses might enhance the use of achievement strategies. However, this is not enough if they are not aware that learning strategies must be used as well.

Recommendations

On the basis of the results of this study, this researcher recommends the following:
The program should enhance the learning material of level three and four by providing them with new linguistic experiences that include new and refreshing items in which the learning process becomes challenging and interesting.

The program should focus upon the use of meta-cognitive strategies by creating more opportunities and learning activities that are almost absent in the plan of the teaching program.

The program should assign a time and identify the necessary material in order to exploit the tendency of the learners to use meta-cognitive strategies by making the necessary learning material accessible and assigning time for that.

The training should include a treatment of the use of reduction strategies with a stress on using learning strategies. Thus, we can summarize that training should focus on three points:

Inviting the attention of the learners and motivating them to adopt the various types of learning strategies that can help them to overcome the difficulties of learning the target language.

Encouraging the learners to use the language by paying their attention to the benefit of communication strategies to overcome problems of spontaneous and non-spontaneous communication, instead of concealing their weaknesses.

Urging upon the learners to pay their attention to the importance of using learning strategies directly after the use of communication strategies.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Appendix (A)

The SILL Questionnaire version "7" of Oxford 1990
(Arabic and English)

حالة استماع حول استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية

الاسم: .................................................................
المستوى: ............................................................
الكلية: .........................................................................

تعليمات هامة

أجب عن أسئلة هذا الاستماعا بما تراه ينطبق على ما تقوم به من أفعال أثناء تعلمك اللغة الإنجليزية و ليس ما يجب عليك فعله أو ما يفعله الآخرون.

ليس في إجابات الأسئلة خطا أو صواب.

true

أجب عن الأسئلة بدقة بوضع إشارة على إحدى العبارات المقابلة للسؤال:

1- (اعترض بشدة) يعني أن هذا لا ينطبق عليك إطلاقا.
2- (اعترض) يعني أن هذا لا ينطبق عليك غالبا.
3- (لا اعتراض ولا أوافق) يعني أن هذا ينطبق عليك احيانا ولا ينطبق احيانا أخرى.
4- (أوافق) يعني أن هذا ينطبق عليك غالبا.
5- (أوافق بشدة) يعني إن هذا ينطبق عليك دائما وأبدا.

1- أضع في عين الاعتبار العلاقة بين ما أتعلماه في الماضي وما قد تعلمه في الماضي.

- اعتراض بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق أدوات للغة للأطفال.

2- استخدم الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة في جمل لكي تتمكن من استذكارها.

- اعتراض بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق أدوات للغة للأطفال.

3- أربط ما بين نطق الكلمة الجديدة بشكل لكي تتمكن من استذكارها.

- اعتراض بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق أدوات للغة للأطفال.
4- استذكر الكلمة الجديدة بتحليل الموقف الذي يحتمل أن تستخدم فيه.

5- استخدم التلحين والإنشاد لحفظ الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة.

6- استخدم البطاقات لحفظ الكلمات الجديدة.

7- أقوم بداء الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة.

8- أكتب استعراض عن ما درسته.

9- استذكر الكلمات الجديدة بواسطة استحضار مكان ووجودها.

10- أردد أو أكتب الكلمات الجديدة عدة مرات.

11- أحاول التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.

12- أتمم على النطق باللغة الإنجليزية.

13- استخدم مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية بعدة طرق.

14- عند المحادثة، أبدأ التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.

15- استمع وأشاهد البرامج والقنوات الإذاعية باللغة الإنجليزية.

16- أقرأ باللغة الإنجليزية للاستمتاع.

17- أكتب ملاحظات ورسائل وتقارير باللغة الإنجليزية.

18- عندما أقرأ قطعة باللغة الإنجليزية أبداً بالقراءة السريعة ثم أقرأا قراءة مركز.

19- ابحث عن معاني الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة باللغة العربية.
20- أحاول أن أجد معاني الكلمات الإنجليزية الجديدة بتحليلها إلى أجزاء.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
21- أحاول البحث عن نماذج أو أمثلة أو أنماط باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
22- أحاول أن لا يترجم ترجمة حرفية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
23- أعمل ملخصات للمعلومات المسموعة والمكتوبة باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
24- ألجأ إلى التخمين لكي أستطيع فهم الكلمات الغير معروفة.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
25- إذا لم أستطيع أن أقول كلمة باللغة الإنجليزية أثناء المحادثة أشرحها بالإشارات.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
26- إذا لم أستطيع أن أقول كلمة باللغة الإنجليزية أثناء المحادثة أختار كلمة.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
27- لا أبحث عن معاني كل الكلمات الجديدة عندما أقرأ باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
28- إذا تحدث معي شخص أحاول أن أخمن ما سيقوله المتحدث بعد ذلك مباشرة.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
29- إذا لم أستطيع أن أقول كلمة باللغة الإنجليزية استخدم كلمة أخرى لها نفس المعنى.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
30- أحاول جاهدا البحث عن عدة طرق لاستخدام لغتي الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
31- لا ألاحظ ما ارتكبه من أخطاء واستفيد منها لتحسين الأداء في المستقبل.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوافق بشده
32- اركز انتباهي عندما يتحدث شخص آخر باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوفق بشده
33- أحاول جاهدا البحث عن كيفية رفع مستواي إلى الأفضل.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوفق بشده
34- أعمل جدول لتنظيم وقتني لكي أجد زمن كافي لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوفق بشده
35- أحاول أن أجد أشخاص أتحدث معهم باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعترض بشده اعترض لا اعترض ولا أوافق أوفق بشده

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36- حاول أن أجد فرص لقراءة أكبر قدر باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
37- لدي أهداف واضحة تؤدي إلى تحسين مهاراتي باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
38- أفكر دائماً بمدى التحسن في مستوى تعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
39- أحاول الاسترخاء كلما أحسست بالخوف من استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
40- أشجع نفسي للتحدث باللغة الإنجليزية عند الشعور بالخوف من ارتكاب الأخطاء.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
41- أعطى نفسي مكافأة عندما أحسن الأداءة باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوافق بشدة
42- الاحظ فيما إذا كنت متوتراً أو عصبياً أثناء درس أو التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوافق بشدة
43- أكون ملاحظاً على شعور في مذكرات تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوافق بشدة
44- أتحدث مع شخص آخر حول إحساسي وشعوري عند تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوفق بشدة
45- إذا لم أفهم شيء باللغة الإنجليزية أطلب من المدرس أو المتحدث أن يعيد أو يبطئ.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوفق بشدة
46- أطلب من المتحدث الإنجليزي أن يصحح أخطأتي عند الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية.
اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوفق بشدة
47- حاول أن أتعلم على اللغة الإنجليزية مع شخص آخر.
 اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوفق بشدة
48- أطلب دائماً المساعدة من المتحدثين باللغة الإنجليزية.
 اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوفق أوفق بشدة
49- عندما أسأل استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية.
 اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
50- حاول أن أفهم و أتعلم ثقافة المتحدثين باللغة الإنجليزية.
 اعتبرت بشده اعتراض لا اعتراض ولا أوافق أوافق بشدة
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 new English words 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 phrase by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.
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.
15. I watch English language T.V. shows spoken in English or go to the 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 native language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing into parts that I understand.
21. I try to find patterns in English.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I cannot 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 cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use 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.
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 mistakes.
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 feeling in a language learning diary.
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.
48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.
APPENDIX (B)

Arabic Writings and Transcripts of the Oral Performance of the English Majors

1Ed1

في أحداث الأيام وبينما الجو حارا كان هناك غرابا عطشان وافق على غصن شجرة و كان متعب أجاجته تحت الشجرة جرة بها ماء حاول أن يشرب إلا أن الماء كان بعيدا فلا يجد الوصول إلى الماء وكانت هناك حصى مرمية بالقرب من الجرة فأخذها ورمى بها إلى داخل الجرة فأرتقى الماء واستطاع أن يشرب وهو في غاية السرور

One upon one upon a day where the weather was hot there was raven it was very thirsty it stand on the branch when he was so tired he saw jar under the tree he tried to drink form this jar but he cannot because the water was so far then he saw small stone and a behind the jar so he take the stone and put it in the jar and the water up on the water go up so he drink it was very happy.

2Ed1

بينما كان غرابا يطير في الهواء.. اخذ يبحث عن الماء حتى يوجد جرة وقف على فمها ليشرب لكن الماء كان في قاعها فلم يستطيع أن يصل إليه. فأخذ يرمي الحصى إلى داخل الجرة. و عند ارتفاع مستوى الماء تمكَّن من أن يشرب.

There was a black bird in air a look for in water look for in water flew plus a flew sit on a drinks I saw on la in down water and throw throw to and sit in stones until the rise the rise the water drink.

3Ed1

في أحد الأيام بينما كان هناك غرابا عطشان يبحث عن الماء ليروي عطشه وإذا به يجد جرة كان الماء في قفرها حاول الوصول إلى الماء فلم يل могу.. فخطرت له فكرة ذكية إذ قام بأخذ الحصى ورميها في الجرة. ارتفع مستوى الماء حتى وصل إلى الفوهة وشرب حتى ارتؤى.

One day there was /hada kan/ he was a very thirsty and a he was finding a to drink some water and a while he was flying a in the sky he find a found a jar and a there was water little in it and he can not reach it and he saw he thought he get a good idea to throw some stones in a this

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large and a-a when he was a-a throwing the stones he the the water was rising in the a-a in the jar get to the top of the jar and he drink he feel happy.

4Ed1

In one day I saw the a-a raven in on the tree and a-a and the raven who is very thirsty and he find the jar jar and a-a he saw it saw on the a-a on the jar the water is very way and he throw to a-a-a-a some stones in d.. in the jar a-a so the so the water rise and the raven drink the water.

5Ed1

In the shining day when the sky is a-a clear and the sun is shining there found a raven it's very very thirsty and he go to the the b.. a-a to the to the and stand up in this and go to to find a water and saw a /jak/ it's found the water and he can’t drink it a-a the water is not complete in this he go to get some stones and throw it into the /jak/ and the water go up and he is drink and g.. after he drink into the /jak/ go out and go away and thanks his God.

6Ed1

One day there was bird a-a is flew to look for about water while it’s flew a-a it’s found on la.. water it below to drink but he it can not because the water low it took stones a-a from earth a-a and a-a threw a-a b.. throw in on la the water a-a rise a level and drink.
There was a crow fly in the air doesn’t find the water and below to drink the water a-a found the water in the bin take small stones and a-a throw to the bin rises the water so the crow drink.

Gave up talking after some trials.

In one day I saw a raven on the tree a-a it was very thirsty and to drink but the water was very a-a so it think to take to took a-a a way took some stone a-a and a-a throw throw in the jar the water go up and he to drink a-a very it was very glad very happy.

This story talk about a bird he is first it’s thirsty one day one day is hot a-a in the morning a-a went the bird want to the === went to the desert he looked for to feed he continue looking for the food until painful thirsty he went to look for water he doesn’t didn’t find water suddenly ===he find === bottle he find bottle thrown the in the valley === find it water he brittle he brittle towards it to to thirst from it he drink until while full afterwards continue the bird continue his his flight in looking for food a-a he went then away then way he absent and he absent from my see him I don’t see him I don’t know where he went.
Once upon a time there was a black bird standing on a try he was so thirsty. Suddenly he glanced at a jar of water. He decided to drink from this jar so he flew to this jar and he wanted to drink from it but he couldn’t. It's gap was very narrow. So he decided to collect some rocks to fill in the jar after that he could drink from it by clever way.

Once upon a time there was a black bird on a tree. It was very thirsty and he was thinking about something. Suddenly he glanced at a bottle. He decided to collect some rocks to fill in the bottle after that he could drink from it by clever way.
have reached to the theme that there is no nothing will be done without thinking deep thinking.

At once there was a black bird standing on a branch of a tree and he was about to die by thirst. He suddenly found a jar in front of him and there was a little of water in it. The black bird stood on this jar and he tried to drink some water but he couldn’t because the water was deep in it. Suddenly a good idea passed in his mind that he should take a small stone to put it in the jar after that the water will go up and he will be able to drink after that he did this plan. When he did this plan correctly. It was successful and he could to drink by his thinking and clever trick.

This story is about the black bird was thirsty and could not find a source of water. So, he it a it a it find it finds it find bottom or of water that have a little of water in the bottom of it. So he over a over thinking for a long time how to find that water in the bottom. So he saw it saw rock of stone in a near the bottom and he or it
This is a story a-a happens to us in every time and it is it talk about intelligent and =-how the hu.. the human must to understood or understand the nature around him. I will tell you about this story in birds she is it human human story that I will tell you in birds. Because maybe because the the bird sometimes is more =-more expression than human. This started when-a-a bird a-a stood on a branch of a tree he it a-a it a-a it thirsty it a-a it search about water a-a and while a-a while he see around him a-a he found a-a a bottle and there was water in it. But but the water is more degree a-a or more dep and he can’t arrived in it and he a-a he searched a-a find way a-a to a-a he wa..he thinking more and more even to arrive in a-a in the water =-he thinking more and more and a-a there is some idea a-a cross in in his mind =-he think he will =-he =-he conbey he convey some stones in in the in the bottle a-a even the the water a-a up up to the top a-a of the bottle even =-any way the water the water up to the top of the a-a bottle and he he could to to reach in a-a to reach in =-and a-a because he is a patient and he and by his work =-he a-a can he can achieve his end. This story about this casual =-taught the human many many many beautiful meanings he must to =-to convey in his moral =-and this /moiz/ amazing patience and and a-a will and achieve to achieve his aims even it is difficult or a unless it is not it is not impossible.
It is a small story about black bird who is very thirsty. One day in a hot weather and this bird is looking for some food to feed his children so then he felt thirsty and he wanted to drink any water suddenly when he stand on a branch he saw a bottle of water so he felt very happy then he fell down to drink the water in this bottle but he is very sad when he saw that this bottle is very large and the water was in the bottom of it. So he think about any idea to drink water. He saw some small stones next to this bottle and he pick up and threw them in the bottle in order to throw this small stone into this bottle. So the water was arise and he can drink this water.

In a hot day there is a black bird it is thirsty very thirsty and he is stay in a branch of a tree it a (request help but no help) (said IN ARABIC) it saw one bottle a there is water in the bottom of the jar a he think and think how then he take some stone from the land and from the land and take one by one and put in the jar even the water (request help high to the high and it a (request help) and it drank and then it fly.
First of all let us tell you about this story once upon a time a-a ===there is a- a there was ===/====(asking help but no word avoidance {the crow was puzzled}) it is very thirsty a-a and ===it have a ===it have found ===a big a-a bottle. It is a-a contain a-a wa.. water and a-a the bottle has a-a narrow a-a narrow a-a narrow to to it it was a ===/===in Arabic puzzled) how a-a mainly drink after that he think ===that she that it ===to throw the a-a small stone a-a into a-a bottle in order to a-a ===it a-a drink and he succeed in his in it a-a in his plan. After that he a-a he could to drink a-a and he a-a and it bless Allah.

Once day there arc there was jar was very thirsty. They want to drink some water but they did not find anything a-a of water in the a-a in her in her in its place. So he a-a so in this sun day he found a small bottle under a-a under a-a the tree a-a he a-a who try to drink this bottle but a surprise he do.. he found only a few of this water. A-a after after he think how how a-a what’s ===how can a-a how can it’s do to to reach for this water he saw small stone he pe.. he pick a-a a small stone and put in this a-a bottle once after once ===one after one a-a when he reach a-a under until the === until the water reach a-a increase a-a the a-a ===until water reach he can drink he she a-a he drink this water and after that he fly.

في إحدى الأيام كان هناك غراب يطير عاليًا في الصحراء فعطش فراح يبحث عن الماء لشرب فلم يجد و استمر في بحثه عن الماء فوجد جرة فيها ماء لكنه لم يتمكن من الوصول إليه لآن مستوى الماء كان منخفضًا في الجرة. شعر بالحزن ففكر بطريقة يرفع مستوى الماء إليه. فوجد مجموعة من الحصى على الأرض فالتقطها و رمياها إلى داخل الجرة واحدة بعد الأخرى حتى ارتفع مستوى الماء فشرب و حماده الذي رفعه و طار.
There is a one day one someday there is a bird fly up of the desert but a he look for the about some thing water to drink but a he founded anything but he still to to find a to find something to drink he still a he still to find he still to find to find the water but finally he he found a jar he found he found inside some water but he a he can’t reached a reached to it to it because a because the a because the water some a little in the in the a jar in the jar he feel a agr.. he feel angry he feel angry a to to find a to find this but he a thinking to thinking a to find a to find some idea to reach a to reach a to reach to the water he found some rocks small rocks a and thinking to to find fi.. to fall this in the jar until to to reach to reach. The water a to him he a and he a take the small rocks and put a put a it in the a in the jar one by one a until the water a reach in the in the up a the jar a he reach he he drink the water and thank Allah to give him a and fly.

In a hot day one black bird he is it is very thirsty he try find some water but he a doesn’t find anything. He fly a lot of time and look for the water but in a day in a in a lot of time he notice he notice some water in the he notice some water in the jar. He notice some water in the jar he try to drink this water but it is very difficult a because yes because he try drink this water but it is very difficult because the water not full in the jar. It is a half the jar so he it think what to do he it think. It think what what a what to do it is difficult to drink this water but after he think he notice the some stones so he took it these stones and full on in the jar so when the jar a the water is go up so the black bird can drink water.

so we learn from this story how the a we find always the solve when we think. So think and u find the solution for any problem.
Once upon a time was a crow who was very thirsty as long as he travels for a long distance. So while he was flying he saw a jar so, he was very happy to see this jar but when he come to a-a when he tried to a-a when he tried to drink he couldn’t drink as a-a the water as a-a and at at in a low level in the jar he couldn’t a-a couldn’t drink any thing but when he he stand for a while sss a-a see and saw some some ro.. some stones so he tried to a-a to find the way to a-a to get the water and take so he takes this stones one by one he put a-a that stones inside the jar and then gradually the a-a the water the levele of the water become rise so he a-a he drink as he want and an and the need just fly the way.
One day a thirsty crow a-a was seeking an a-a water and after a-a after a-a big time long time a-a of a-a after of a long time of seeking he find he found a jar but the water in the jar was a-a wasn’t a-a low the water was very low was very little a-a he founds he f... he fo... he found some a-a some rocks near the jar a-a he th... he thought that he he the only the only way to to drink from this water to put a-a this a-a this stones in the jar so after a-a after his tries trying a-a he a-a his plan succeeded and drink.

It was thought that there is a raven who is flying a long a long distant and suddenly he felt thirsty for his long a-a flying so he decided to put a-a on a-a tree a-a a leaf of the tree .

Suddenly when a-a he is he saw a-a a jar so he decided to see a-a into it to see whether it is a-a full of water or not in order a-a to squeezed his thirsty so he jumped over the this this jar and so a-a and look a deep in to the jar so he saw that the jar is a-a half water so he was so depressed that he could not a-a couldn’t drink from it because it was half the jar so he flew over the tree again a-a and he was thinking for a while so when he a-a saw a little stone on the on the ground near the jar he decided. An idea just struck on his mind suddenly. So he started pick up the stones and throw by its beak into the jar. The water just come up while he was throwing stone after stone. So he a-a squeered his thirsty.

There was a raven that was enjoying in the sky he was delightful in his a-a journey he stood a-a on a-a tree. The he feel a-a he felt a-a thirsty. He wanted to a-a to drink he wanted to drink but he stay he stayed some minutes to thought. He found he find a-a an amazing device for this because at f... because at first he saw a jar on the air a-a he a-a started to flow down to drink but sorry for it he couldn’t because jar was very narrow he couldn’t a-a
enter his pick into the jar then he started thought and thought a-a then he get amazing device to drink he a-a began to collect a-a === stones and thought throw it into the jar a-a till a-a the water rise he began to a-a drink then he a-a he k .. he drink.

On that day ===the crow a-a was a-a-a sitting on the on the tree === looking for a-a water in order to drink from a-a it. But a-a an a-a in in that case when he was looking for a-a about a-a water to drink === fin.. find a-a jar jar a-a next to the tree but a-a the water was a-a under a-a the water the water is the so that a-a it a-a can’t a-a drink from a-a that jar but === it looking for === stone to put the stone a-a to put a-a the stone into the jar into the jar in order to drink from it. a-a the a-a it a-a drop a-a then it take a-a that the sss.. stone a-a and a-a drop it into the jar in order the water go up in in in that case a-a be able be able suck bubble.

One day there is {asking for help } a crow a-a there is a crow a-a === don’t found water the water a-a he is a-a sr.. search searched for the top the bird .. a-a ===the bottle the bottle he found bottle water bottle little water the the crow happy was happy after that a-a he stand on the === {asking for help} rim stand on the rim the bottle because he he want to drink water after that a-a he can’t it can’t a-a reach water it can’t drink water a-a === he thought it thought a-a === it thought === because he didn’t it didn’t a-a-a === it didn’t drink after that it fall stone stone stone in the bottle because a-a he a-a it a-a drink water a-a after that it fa.. it full a-a it fall the bottle in the drink water it drink water.
Once upon a time there was a thirsty bird and he looked for a water for a period of time but he came across a bottle and in this bottle there is half the level of the water is half and he couldn't enter his beak to the bottle but he hit upon the answer for the bottle and he too... he took stones and thought to throw them to the bottle until the level of the water became higher and he drank water.

It is narrated that when the raven was thirsty because of the hotness of the weather. He was drive to find out water. Suddenly he find the jar. The jar is there some water in the jar but he tried a to think how to get water from this jar he start to think and suddenly he heard a sound behind him Oh... Oh kind raven you must throw several stones in this jar until you can get the water. He looked behind him he saw a bird then he did he did a at the a the a bird told him. He threw some stones in the jar and when he throw some stones the level of the the level of the water risen is rising up then he a drinks water after that he thanks the small bird.
There was a crow in old days or old times flying for place looking for food and water. Suddenly he feels very hot and thirsty. He was looking for water but it was not found any water suddenly he saw a jar. He thinks that the jar contains water. He went and saw into this jar. He saw a little water in it. He couldn’t drink this water because the distance from the top of the jar into the bottom was too far. Suddenly he got an idea. He brought some stones and threw them into the jar in order to raise the water level. He could drink this water now.

One day there was a black bird stood on a jar to water. He couldn’t drink water from that jar. He thought to bring some stones and throw them into the jar in order to raise the water level. He found that the water level got up and he and the black bird went to the zoo.
Once upon a time there was a bird and that bird was very thirsty. He was looking for water in some place. When he was looking for water, he found some water in some place. He tried to drink from this water, but the water was too low. He thought of an idea or a trick to reach the water. He threw a rock into the water in order to raise the water to his mouth. When he did this trick, he could drink and he started to his place.

In one day there was a stork. He was looking for water to drink and found a jar which contained water. He couldn't drink from the jar because the water was too low. He also threw a stone into the jar and the stork could drink the water.

One day under the sun rise rays there was a black bird. It was bit he was looking for water in order to put out his thirst and suddenly after a
long time he found a clay he try to drink from it he can’t drink from it because the water was in the deep of that clay he after that he try to get small stones in order he put it in that clay he put all stones and when the water go up he drink it and thanks his God.

One day there was he it he was a dying of thirst. He search in everywhere for the water and fortunately he find a vase. There was was a water in this vase. He tried to enter his neck beak in it to drink but this water was at the bottom of this vase.

(help) This crow think and think to how to drink this water and finally he find an idea he start to take some stones from the ground from the vase with some with these stones. Then the water became up and up and finally he could become he can drink from this vase.

One day when the sun was hot there is a black a black bird and that bird was very tired from the flying from tree to other and he was very thirsty he go to a search for a water he see a bottle he go to it to take to drink water but he can reach to the water because the water was the rest in the rest of the bottle a clever black bird think for a minute and after a few minute he go and put some rocks he put some rocks in the bottle and that a-a and the water started to up and up the black bird in this way can reach the water and drink it.

6Ed4

كان هناك في يوم من الأيام غراب بلقيس من العطش. يبحث في كل مكان عن الماء، وحسن حظه وجد جرة فيها ماء. إلا أنه كان قليلًا. فكر حتى ابتعد إلى طريقه بأخذ الحصى بمنقاره وميلا بها الجرة فصعد مستوى الماء إلى الأعلى وتمكن من الشرب وروى ضماه.

One day there was he it he was a dying of thirst. He search in everywhere for the water and fortunately he find a vase. There was was a water in this vase. He tried to enter his neck beak in it to drink but this water was at the bottom of this vase.

(help) This crow think and think to how to drink this water and finally he find an idea he start to take some stones from the ground from the floor with his pick and he full the vase with some with these stones. Then the water became up and up and finally he could become he can drink from this vase.

7Ed4

في يوم من أيام الشمس الحارة كان هناك غراب قد تعب من طول التحلق في السماء، وبينما كان ينتقل من شجرة إلى شجرة باحثًا عن الماء. وجد جرة فيها ولما أراد أن يشرب كان الماء في قاع الجرة ولم يستطع الوصول إليه.

فكر الغراب مليًا. وبعد فترة من الزمن أخذ الغراب يأخذ بعض الحصى ويضعها في الجرة. فأخذ مستوى الماء ورتفع حتى تمكن الغراب بذكائه من الحصول على الماء وشربه.

One day when the sun was hot there is a black a black bird and that bird was very tired from the flying from tree to other and he was very thirsty he go to a search for a water he see a bottle he go to it to take to drink water but he can reach to the water because the water was the rest in the rest of the bottle a clever black bird think for a minute and after a few minute he go and put some rocks he put some rocks in the bottle and that a-a and the water started to up and up the black bird in this way can reach the water and drink it.
a-a one a-a black bird a-a was very thirsty a-a he wants to drink a-a but a-a and he saw that a-a bottle a-a there is a bottle a-a he thought a-a he thought that there is enough water to drink but when he fall and see a-a there is a little a-a of water he can’t and he can’t reach to this water a-a he put some stone in this a-a in this bottle a-a and a-a to make and to make this water a-a come up a-a finally a-a he drink a-a he a-a the water come up and he drink this water.

The story was a bout a bird who was so thirsty. He was looking he was looking for a-a a water to drink. So suddenly he saw a jar. The water in this jar was so low and the hole in the a-a of this jar is so narrow. So he thought a a-a how to reach the water in this jar. He thought and he thought while he while get an idea. The crow was throw stones in this jar while make water come up. He throw stones after stone and fill the low till the water come up a-a so at the end he drink and he is happy, it was no......

I want to narrate the story of a-a b.. the black and who which he a-a thirsty this bird was a-a very very thirsty and a-a he is it was seeking or searching for water and after a period or after sometimes after trying to find this water. He find jar jarrah jarror and a-a the water in it was very low and he
and could not reach a-a to a-a take some drops .. a-a he thought he think it
think of a-a a-a === a practical way to a-a-a-a === pour the water a..d or
to to drink the water he pick up small stone and then he drop it in the jarrah
and the water rise up rise up very ... rise up and then ... He this b b .. drink
.. the.......

N: Once upon a time, there was a raven. In a-a in a particular place and this
raven was === thirsty. It came to /find/ === a water to === to drink some
water but he couldn’t but eventually === he find it shortly inside of a /pot/
or an urn. While he a-a he saw it but it was difficult to /arrive/ to arrive to to
=== to urn because the urn wasn’t full of water. There is only a little. But
she think === he tried to to to to arrive to the water how. He went to to bring
some a-a small stones and put the some stones into the a-a this into this urn
and a-a and then it became easy to him drink. It show me it was when he put
the urn it was to him a-a it was easy to him to drink and this === it knows
that this a a the the black bird a a raven if you === is he use his intelligence
intelligence===.
L: a-a he put the stone in the urn because the water up up.
N: yeah yes to make the water or to a a to make it easy to arrive to draw the
water and suck it up or ??????.

2Art1S

في يوم من الأيام كان هناك غراب عطشان في يوم مشمس فيبحث عن ماء و لم يجده إلا في الأخير
عندما وقف على غصن شجرة حيث وجدته في جرة ولكنها لم تكون مليئة حتى يستطيع أن يصل إلى
الماء فوقف جارجو، فأخذ بعض الحصى لكي يضعها في الجرة حتى استطاع الوصول إلى الماء فهذا
يدل على ذكاء الغراب.
N: Once a day three was a c..===there was a crow a look looking for a water
because she he is very very ang.. thirsty ===/=== that he he go out in the
morning == he go out in the early morning for looking ===for looking to
any a-a any a-a any a-a amount of a-a water. Any a-a but a-a he he couldn’t
a-a find anything a-a ad.. when the a-a the a-a the sun a-a got to

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when the sun got down he went on a branch of a tree a-a he went to a branch of a tree to relax in it. While he was in the branches he see a pot or a ban of pot with a small of water in a-a at the bottom but he couldn’t know how a-a how he get the water. He loked for he looking for some stones and put them on the in that pot to the water to rise up by.

L: Again
N: he looked for some stones he looked for some stones because he was very very thirsty the w.. when he put the stone the water raise up and he have the water drink the water.
L: Why he was looking f. about the water?
N: because he was thirsty.
L: what he did when he was thirsty.
N:He go out her his house.
L: Yes.
N: He go out from his house to look for some water.
L: a-a he couldn’t a-a reach to the water what happen?
N: He go to on a brast a branch of a tree to relax in it. When he was on the branch he saw a pot a-a with a small amount of water at the bottom but he couldn’t a-a reach to the water. He look for some stone to put it in the pot to raise up the water. When the water raise up he couldn’t drink the water.

The story is talking about a crow in a day of summer. There was a crow. He was very thirsty because the sun was shinning and the weather was hot. He found suddenly he found pot with water. He come to stand to the edge of the pot he saw the water. But he can’t he can’t drink from the water, because it is down a-a on the
he think a lot -- he thought a lot -- he thought a lot. And
suddenly he found some stones. He he had he had an idea. He take a-a the
stones and throw it in the /pot/ and a-a the water go up and then he === drank
the water a-a go back home.

4Art1S

There was one day a-a one day there was a-a a raven flying in the sky and
he was very thirsty. This raven did not find a-a water to drink but when he
was flying in the sky he saw a jar.

L: it is jar?
N: this jar there was water on the bottom ‘’ of this jar. There was ‘’ water in
the bottom of the jar
L: what is the jar? I do not know.
N: Jar jar you can say a bottle
L: a bottle yah
N: ok?
L: O.K.
N: and when ‘’ the raven’’ saw this jar ‘’he flied to ‘’ o.k. the jar and he ‘’
did not ===see ‘’ the water but because the water was on the bottom of the
jar for example this is the jar. And he saw ===
L: I know I know
N: o.k. he saw the water on the bottom o.k. So if he === come a-a if he ‘’ get
down a-a to the jar he will die. O.k. ===but ‘’ he was looking for a trick.
How can he === he ‘’ get the water === how can he ‘’ drink .how can a-a
put off thirsty. So ‘’ when he was a-a flying he was he was thinking ok the
raven was ‘’ thinking o.k. the raven was thinking and === he said how can I
ger to the water but ‘’ he found ‘’ small ‘’ stones maybe pieces of stones ok
small stones and he tried ‘’ to ‘’ pick ‘‘ the stones up and ‘’ put them ‘’ throw
them into the jar.
L: ss-------
N: stones
L: stones a a the big a a

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N: Stones pieces of stones.
L: Yes I know ok
N: And then ‘’ he ‘’ took he pick the stones ‘’ up and ‘’ throw them into the jar. When he throw them ‘’ into ‘’ the jar ok. The water was === up o.k. raise === raised and he ‘’ drank the water. When drank the water ok when he drank the water he become === off so ‘’ he ‘’ flies ‘’ up.

N: in sunny day === the sky is shinning
L: shine
N: Yes a-a there a-a there is c. cow crow a-a a kind of bird ok a-a on the tree ok he look a-a he
L: what do you mean by tree?
N: Tree tree (she points to the window where there are tree out side the room)
L: ok
N: and === the sun is very very hot ok a-a the weather ok === the crow the crow a-a bird a-a === is very very thirsty a-a he want
L: thirsty ok
N: he want to drink a-a water. He look a bottle ===
L: Bottle?
N: a bottle === there is some a-a water in the bottom ok a-a he looked it a-a when he go to a-a to a-a drink === the water in the in the bottle in the bottom.
L: after down in the bottle drink?
N: No no in the bottom water under bottle ok but a-a oo he he catch some stone === stone and === put him put it in a-a a bottle ok. The water is up ok and ===/=== it drink. This story ===/=== address of the story a-a crow is clever === bird.
I want to tell a short story about a thirsty crow. Once upon a time there was a crow very thirsty. He was looking for water because he was so thirsty and he went to look for the water and by chance while he was fly above I mean in the forest. He saw a jar of water and he and he stood in the bush a of the tree. And when he stood above the jar he saw he saw stones. Small stones beside it. Beside the jar and he went to drink water before he picked up the stones and fill the jar. With the stones up to until the water, the level of water raised up he quenched and flew away.

In sun day in sunny day there was a a rock there is thirsty. It looking for a for water then it it it stood on a tree then it a a look under the tree and suddenly a there was a jar for a a it it had ...

L: there was what?
N: jar it had a a little of water. Then it can’t a-a flew reach to the water then a-a start to a-a thinks how can a-a reach to the water. Then ss... a-a it saw a-a some stones round the jar it start to a-a throw a-a some a-a stones to the jar then the water start to rise
L: rise
N: rise, then a-a it can a-a start to a-a drink.
The story is talking about a raven or a bird a black bird or raven who is so thirsty and he didn’t find any kind of water the weather was so sunny and that day and he want to drink some water but he couldn’t find any thing but finally he search and search and he find a small cup of water but he couldn’t drink because his peck couldn’t get the water so he throw some of stone from his beak so at that time the water is raises and so he could drink and he doesn’t feel thirsty gain.

L: where did he get the cup the cup of water?
N: he find it in the road.
L: why didn’t he because he’s flying why didn’t he search for a river to drink of?
N: Actually he search and search but he couldn’t find anything of that but he find just this small cup.

N: In summer day. Crown /crow/ a top a on branch on tree and she saw /jar/ a full of water. She a think he wants she’s very thirsty and she wants to drink from this jar. So he think how a can drink from this jar. Because she think harm the water half this jar and he want a to drink he was sink in this jar. After that he start thinking how can he drink from this jar. He saw stone beside the bus and he started think if he move a and transferred a by his beak this stone to this jar. He the water was a full of the jar and she is he can a drink from this jar. So he started practice this idea and he pass in successful way and she she can a she can a drink from this jar.
L: you said crown you said crown what crown or what? What is crown?
N: it is black a-a animal, a black bird with beak.
L: what a-a what did he do to drink from from that jar?
N: to drink
L: what did this crown did do to dink from that jar?
N: =====
L: what the idea that he think of to drink from that jar?
N: because he was a-a very thirsty?
L: but how how did this crown ===try a-a to a-a drink from that jar? What was his idea?
N: his idea === to throw the stones then a s throw the stones ===the stones a-a ==push the water up . So he can drink?
L: Aha OK.

There was once once day there was a /crow/ ===there wa...=== he was very thirsty. Would like to drink some water, so he go ==/>/ he go to the === he go to the ===a-a we can say some thing a-a we put water, the water come out from it at much. It is a hole ==it is a hole. Water out of it. Natural water. Not made not by you==hole. Water come out from it by natural ==
L: not understanding but saying (yes).
N: ok he go there ==to seek water. he ==he find==
L: he found
N: he find a-a carpenter a-a so y==yes=====
L: he find a tools?
N: (gives up talking)

In a sunny day one in sunny day there is a-a there is a-a black a-a a black bird standing on the tree a-a looking for some water . His research for a-a his
research for water === because he is thirsty === because he’s thirsty, so he ===found a-a bottle of a-a water. But the water is a-a at the a-a the ===/=== he can’t reach the water because a-a the there is a little a-a of water. So he he looks a-a he he it a-a ===/=== it takes some a-a some ===some a-a some rocks into this bottle to ===/===
L: what do u mean by bottle?
N: bottle of water not bottle some thing we put in it water.
L: a-a === (in Arabic) what do u mean b.. by bottle?
N: thing ===thing a-a which we put water in it. Pot of water.
L: big bottle or small.
N: pot. Quite small a little. a-a so it takes some rocks to this bottle to rise water to alt.. he sucks water and leave.

Once day when I wa.. when I was walking in the street that I saw I have seen a-a a crow stand on the /branch/ of the a-a of the tree a-a then a-a there was a-a a jar I think a jar behind the trees and ===this bottom of this jar ===wa..contans water and the crow wants to a-a drink from this water but he can’t a-a arrive to this water a-a and he thinking how how he can ===arrive to this water. He tr..he thinking and after that he a-a decide to arrive this water a-a he start to throw these stones to this /jar/ this jar to ===to arrive this water and after he drink this water ===/=== and story ===it indicated in to intelligent of this a-a crow.
L: (not understanding)
N: the story indicated to the crow’s intelligence.
L: so you mean jar some something where we put water in I mean som something it contains water?
N: yes, he throw few stones.
L: because a === I mean because the face where the water comes from is not wide or clear?
N: no no narrow
L: narrow?
N: is something like the bottle something ===small
L: not wide like ….o.k
In a sunny day in one of the green gardens there was a thirsty sparrow. He was standing on tree while he was standing on tree he was also looking for water to drink. He found a big jar this big jar contains water. He can’t reach it or the water can’t reach to the sparrow. The sparrow looked around then and found many stones. Sparrow thought and thrown these stones into the jar. During his throwing the stones into the jar the water rose. Finally the clever sparrow with his cleverness he could drink the water so easily.
N: I saw a jar full of water and that it want to drink that is why the crow was standing on the bus and the most important thing which took my attention towards that a-a crow is his marvelous way and it is I think the talent from god to that a-a crow when tried to drink water from that jar but he couldn’t because the was not full.
L: toward for our god I think even our god give talent to that crow.
N: the most important thing what took my attention towards the crow is his its marvelous cleverness when pick picked up some stones from the ground and throw them into that jar in order to make the water go up side and then drink from that jar easily that is my story.

في أحد الأيام المشمسة وقف غراب على أحد الأغصان يتبثت و قد أنهكه شدة العطش و ظل يبحث عن الماء و لكن بلا فائدة. و بينما كان يقف محتيا أقد الأغصان رأى جرة ماء و هرع إليها مسرعا ليروي عطشه و وصل إليها ووقف على فتحتها رأى الماء قابعا في قفر تلك الجرة فقد الأمل من جديد و بقي حائرا كيف يمكنه الوصول إلى ذلك الماء و فجأة أفسدها فكرة لحص الابتكار على ذلك الماء. فأسرع مهولا لالتقاط الحصى و بدلا بها تلك الجرة و ظل يمري حجر تلو الآخر إلى أن امتلأت الجرة بالحجارة و أرتفع معها الماء فشرب.

N: the story is starting the story starting a-a one day a-a sunny day a-a when the a-a a black crow was flying.
L: who?
N: a black crow.
L: what’s the meaning of black crow?
N: it is a kind of bird it is called black bird. black crow who was flying was very thirsty looking for water but in vain could find any water in any place a-a he still looking for water in any place to drink but couldn’t find. Suddenly a-a he a-a
L: when he st..
N: stand on the branch of one of the trees. He looked out and find the jar. this jar in it jar the a-a there is a bottle. He went to drink he hurried to this jar and stand a-a in it’s a-a opening and a-a wants to drink but he failed because the water was in the bottom of the jar. he becomes hopeless and started to think how he can reach this water. So he he think a-a he find a way to drink from this water by catching some stones small stones and throw it into this jar stone by stone by stone the jar a-a is full of the stones and the water is the a-a raise with the with these stones and he can reach the a-a water and drink from it.
Once in a summer morning. The sun was rising the weather is fine, there are lots of green grasses and there was on the branches there is a black crow. It was so thirsty. Once he found a jar. Do you know what a jar inside it? there is a water, but as he as it lays and stand on it, this is it is difficult to drink from the jar. the water was just lay in it the water is little and the crow cannot drink from the jar. So it thinks about an idea and finally it discovers that by throwing some stones inside the jar the water will raise and we can say comes up. And then he it gets the ability to drink.

Once a day there was a black bird in a winter season the black bird was very thirsty there was no water and along time to search of water. Finally it hid a water in a cup. But he cannot drink from that water, and a long time he think about how can drink from the bottom reach it. stones ground from the earth and throw it in the cup after the water rise and a-a drink from the water.

 ذات يوم شمس شديد الحر كان هناك غراب شديد العطش. بحث في الصحراء حيث الحرارة شديدة فلم يجد الماء، ولكنه بعد مدة وجد ماء في جرة الماء كان في قاع الجرة. شعر الغراب بالأسى لكنه فكر كيف ينقذ نفسه. بعد هذا ابتكر فكرة. فجمع الحصى ووضعها في الجرة وبهذا صعد الماء.
Once day, it was very sunning day and there was crow. The black a-a black bird. This a-a bird was very thirsty and there was very sunny. He was in the desert he lived. He never found any water finally he found a bottle with a little water at a-a at the bottom at the bottom. He felt frustrated and then he thought about how to help himself to save his soul. After a while, he collected some stones he used those stones to throw it into the bottle by the time the water was rising up. By this way he succeeded in getting the water he wanted to drink. This story taught us that there is always hope there is nothing impossible if you can realize what you have in mind that you can create new idea to help your self in any situation.

The story is about a bird in crow. The black bird. The black bird is very thirsty. He was in the desert. He never found any water finally he found a bottle with a little water at the bottom. He felt frustrated and then he thought about how to help himself to save his soul. After a while, he collected some stones he used those stones to throw it into the bottle by the time the water was rising up. By this way he succeeded in getting the water he wanted to drink. This story taught us that there is always hope there is nothing impossible if you can realize what you have in mind that you can create new idea to help your self in any situation.

N: The story is about "a bird in crow" crow bird crow black bird.
L: about what?
N: about bird about bird crow "omen of b.. bad omen
L: women?
N: a crow. Do you know a crow? A black bird flying in the sky? A crow?
L: (gestures of understanding)
N: it is black bird===once this black bird o.k. went to seek a water. Was very thirsty. It was seeking for water. He wants water a-a once ok he went to a-a a well. Do you know a well?
L: Yeah.
N: the well of there was no water in the well. The well was was deep. So the bird=== thinks how to get this water out of this well. So that he can drink. It thinks of a way by which bringing the water out of this well and drink o.k. . He saw. It sees the bird ‘sees’ some stones ‘’ near the a-a the well ok. It takes these stones into the well ok the water get out at this time’’ the bird becomes able to drink.
The story talks about what..
L: about what? N: a /bird/ who seeks about which seeks for a-a water because it is it’s thirsty.
N: this story tells you about don’t be disappointment even if you face difficulties in life. Go on searching for a-a go on ===and a-a face difficulties/ courageously/ o.k. Don’t be disappointment. Even if you can’t do some do not think that I am nothing. Think that I have a-a /potential/ around me. So that I can achieve what I want. This story teaches you what? What you want to do ‘’ is in your hand. It is in your hand if you are determined by determination you can achieve your goal ok.
## APPENDIX (C)

### Mean Scores of the Six Types of Learning Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Level of academic level</th>
<th>No. of cases</th>
<th>Memory strategies</th>
<th>Cognitive strategies</th>
<th>Compensatory strategies</th>
<th>Meta-cognitive strategies</th>
<th>Affective strategies</th>
<th>Social strategies</th>
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