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LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

A study of strategies used by Japanese adults to learn English in
New Zealand, with particular reference to perception and
production of difficult phonemes

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Master of Arts in Japanese

At Massey University
Palmerston North
New Zealand

April 2002

Abstract

This thesis is an examination of strategies used for learning English by a number of Japanese adults in Wellington, New Zealand. It reports the participants' own perception of their selection and use of strategies, as well as quantitative and qualitative data which I collected in a structured research programme.

For the more formal questionnaires I mainly used the 50-strategy version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) translated into Japanese by Ban and Shishido in Oxford (1994). English pronunciation tests consisting of two perception and three production tests were administered to look for any relationship between the use of strategies and the proficiency level of the learners. Three independent judges (all native speakers of New Zealand English) assessed the production tests. I personally conducted in Japanese all the one-to-one interviews (which proved to be most productive of unusual facts and original views), and administered all the pronunciation tests in English.

Three of the fifty SILL items were discarded because they were not consistent with the rest of the items in their respective subscales. After the adjustment all six subscales were deemed to be reliable. The scores of the three judges were found to be consistent with each other. The scores of the overall pronunciation test and the adjusted SILL were then analysed using SPSS. The results of the interviews were analysed according to the six subcategories of the SILL.

Analysis of participants' performance in the SILL revealed the low use of memory strategies and high and medium use of all other strategy categories. The English pronunciation total scores were found to distribute fairly symmetrically. Significant relationships were found between proficiency in pronunciation and the use of cognitive strategies. The responses to interviews proved that the participants misunderstood some of the SILL questions and that some of the SILL questions were unsuitable to participants with Japanese language backgrounds.

The principal conclusion of the research is that each learner chooses learning strategies according to the needs and purposes of their current situation, and that past success and failure influence the choice of strategies.

Much of the material may simply reinforce knowledge and experience already widely held, but it is hoped that there may be some facets which may be helpful to those actively engaged as teachers or in research not only in the specific areas of Japanese people learning English in New Zealand but also in the wider context of ESL and EFL.

Declaration

I declare that:

This thesis is the result of my own unaided research, except where otherwise acknowledged.

This thesis has not been presented for any other degree.

This thesis is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any other degree.

Signed *Masako Crawford*

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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor Professor Kiyoharu Ono, for his constructive advice and encouragement throughout the research process.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Professor Paul Nation who provided me with directions in the early stages.

My sincere thanks go to Maria Stubbe for looking at the language tests and making valuable suggestions.

I would like to thank Akira Matsuo and Masahiro Morikawa for their help in getting articles on strategy use in Japan.

I wish to thank Duncan Hedderly for his help and valuable suggestions on statistics matters.

I would like to thank all the participants who shared their language learning experiences for their generosity with time and support.

My sincere thanks go to my colleagues at Massey University for their continuous interest, suggestions, listening, proof reading, encouragement and making audiotapes.

I am grateful to the school for the financial support and time release.

Finally, I would like to thank my family: Jonathan and Alexandra for proof reading, Phyllida for statistical assistance, David for computer problems, Abigail and Orlando for countless walks whenever I needed a break.

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1 Introduction and Overview of the Thesis

This thesis attempts to explore the use of language learning strategies by Japanese learners and how effective these strategies are in relation to their proficiency in English pronunciation. The participants who have provided the data for this thesis are Japanese people living in Wellington, New Zealand.

The circumstances that have led to a significant presence of Japanese people in Wellington are various. A number of Japanese people visit Wellington and usually there are about 700 long-term Japanese residents. Some university students visit Wellington to experience inter-cultural communication in English while staying with a host family for a short period of time as a part of their course. Quite a few students are staying here for an extended period of time attending ESL or mainstream classes.

The English language is a compulsory subject in Japanese high schools, so most of the Japanese visitors have studied English for at least three years. University students will have studied English for seven or eight years prior to coming to New Zealand.

Communication in English in Japan is mainly through written materials such as newspapers, academic books, report and manuals. Consequently for the majority of Japanese learners of English a need for face-to-face communication is not frequent. However, in New Zealand they realise the importance of spoken language; this is the time they feel the necessity of oral communication. In face-to-face communication, good pronunciation is vital. When they come to New Zealand for the first time, some of them find it relatively easy to communicate with New Zealanders whereas others have difficulty in understanding people even after many years of hard work.

For most of the learners who have just started ESL (English as a Second Language) classes this is their first time living in the home of an English speaking host family and thus having to understand how the household is run, explain their needs, and forge personal relationships with them. This necessitates certain adjustments: from EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classes, where the focus is on written language and form, to ESL classes where the functional part of language learning is focused. For those who are in the ESL or mainstream classes, they have to take control of their own learning in student centred classes, as well as set up a social network in a larger non-Japanese speaking community. Long-term

residents seek to nurture their family and actively make a contribution to the larger New Zealand community through good communication skills. One's pronunciation is one of the most clear outward demonstrations of the desire, ability, and flexibility required to be part of the community. They realise that in order to participate more fully in any community outside of Japan, mastering English pronunciation is crucial for communication.

This research will examine the learning strategies of new students coming to New Zealand and those studying, working and living among English speaking people, and their proficiency in English pronunciation. The use of strategies will be examined through an interview and the fifty-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning for learners of ESL/EFL (SILL). Four perception and production of English phoneme tests and a reading of a short passage will measure proficiency in English pronunciation.

The role of learning strategies has been included in many models of second language acquisition and learning (Skehan, 1989; McIntyre, 1994; Ellis, 1994). Skehan (1989) focuses on language learning strategies as one of the most important factors in his good language-learner model. Learning strategies are thought to promote learner autonomy because the appropriate use of strategies enables learners to take greater responsibility for their own learning (Dickinson, 1987; Wenden, 1987a, p. 8).

Some researchers have commented on the need to investigate strategy use in different social contexts such as non-classroom environments (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 224). Lunt (2000) calls for further research that includes qualitative data regarding language learning strategies among immigrant populations from particular cultural and orthographic backgrounds.

This research is concerned about the strategy use of participants in an ESL class, on a tertiary course sector and those living and working in Wellington, New Zealand.

The purpose of this research is to seek answers to the following questions.

1. What is the range of strategies used by Japanese learners?
2. What factors influence the choice of strategies?

3. What is the relative effectiveness of the strategies?

1.1 Collection of data

Data for the current research was collected in the following stages.

1. Biographical data such as education, length of time learning English, enjoyment of English classes, length of time in an English country and so on was collected by a self-report questionnaire.
2. Quantitative data on strategy use was collected using a Japanese translation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1994).
3. Language tests were administered to measure perception and production of four English phonemes and a reading of a short passage.
4. Individual interviews were carried out to collect qualitative data on strategy use. The object of the interview process was two-fold: on one level it sought a verdict on the SILL questionnaire and on a second level it sought further suggestions for improvement. First, interviewees were asked to comment on the SILL and were invited to ask questions of their own. Secondly, they were asked what advice they would give to Japanese learners of English in Wellington, New Zealand.

1.2 Analysis of the data

The analysis of the biographical data, the responses to the SILL and the results of the language tests were interpreted using the statistics package SPSS. The qualitative data was processed according to the SILL topics. The suggestions made by those interviewees were classified into six categories as defined by Oxford's SILL.

2 Review of the literature on language learning strategies

2.1 Introduction

The idea of language learning strategies originates from a series of studies in the 1970s, which came to be known collectively as studies of 'the good language learner'. Many researchers have tried to identify language learning strategies employed by good adult L2 learners but there are few studies on the use of learning strategies by children (Wong-Fillmore, 1979; Chesterfield and Chesterfield, 1985).

During the 1980s and 90s researchers tried to group numbers of specific strategies under broad classes of strategies (Tarone, 1980; Bialystock, 1981; O'Malley et al., 1985a and 1985b; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990)

From the late 1980s there has been a development of studies about factors affecting strategy choice, such as beliefs, learner's personal background, age, gender, motivation, affective states, learning styles and personality (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Ehrman, 1996; Lunt, 2000).

In the 1980s and '90s, many researchers were interested in strategy training and its effects (Cohen and Aphek, 1981; O'Malley et al. 1985b; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Rost and Ross, 1991; Thomson and Rubin, 1996). Dickinson (1995) considers the link between strategy training, autonomy, attitude and motivation. The results are mixed.

This research focuses on the identification and classification of language learning strategies, the factors affecting the choice of strategies and the development and use of strategy instruments specially the SILL in relation to Japanese learners of English in Wellington, New Zealand.

This part of the research deals with an overview of language learning strategies. First, it reports on historical definitions of language learning strategies. Secondly, it presents prior research on the good language learner and classification of strategies and then outlines studies on factors affecting the choice of strategies. Thirdly, it reports on the way SILL was developed, reliability of the SILL and the prior research using the SILL with the special interests of Japanese learners learning English. The final part of the chapter will indicate how the present study relates to the research on language learning strategies.

The following points are addressed in this chapter:

- Defining language strategies
- Studies on the good language learner
- Classification of strategies
- Factors affecting the choice of strategies
- Advantages and Disadvantages of Strategy Instruments other than SILL
- Development and *raison d'être* of the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL)
- Reliability of the SILL
- Prior research using the SILL
- Summary and the present study

2.2 Defining 'language learning strategies'

The concept of 'strategy' is an elusive one. Strategies used by language learners have been referred to in different terms by different researchers.

Oxford (1989b) appears to see them as mainly behaviours, and Weinstein and Mayer (1986) seem to see them as both behaviours (visible) and thoughts (in the head). Stern (1983) distinguishes strategies as 'general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner' and techniques as 'particular forms of observable learning behaviour'. Other researchers use the term 'strategy' to 'refer to both the tendency and kind of behaviours Stern calls techniques. Some researchers use the term 'learner strategies' (Cohen, 1991; Wenden, 1987a; Rubin, 1987) rather than 'learning strategies', referring to the learners' active input in the learning process, not only as a performer, as in audio-lingual methods of teaching, but as an effective communicator. Some researchers see them as conscious and intentional like Chamot (1987) who refers to them as 'deliberate actions', while others do not make distinctions between the conscious and the subconscious (Stern, 1983; Weinstein and Mayer, 1986). Rubin (1987) asserts that language learning strategies have a direct effect on inter-language development.

The term strategy, which primarily refers to military planning from the Greek word *strategia*, has been used in a wide range of fields such as business management, computer science, education, psycholinguistics, and applied linguistics (White, 1993, p. 4).

In applied linguistics many researchers have tried to define language learning strategies. Oxford et al. (1989) defines the language learning strategies as:

...behaviours, steps, operations, or techniques employed by learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information.

(p. 29)

This definition has four actions and four objectives.

Actions	Behaviours	Steps	Operations	Techniques
Objectives	Acquisition	Storage	Retrieval	Use

The Oxford et al.'s (1989) definition successfully identifies the inherent complexity of strategy selection and application. There are four different actions that may be applied to four different objectives. In reality each participant will probably be applying one or more of them simultaneously. The combinations and permutations arising from this matrix lead to the enormous diversity of approach from one learner to another. This in turn complicates the task of a teacher in identifying the best way to help each learner individually. This definition leaves open the possibility that students may not be aware of strategy use, and likewise researchers and teachers may not be aware of all the techniques and actions used by students. Oxford et al.'s (1989) definition here does not define goal, but it is implicitly the same as Cohen's "learning or use of a second or foreign language" stated later in this chapter.

Oxford, R. (1990) defines learning strategies as:

... specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. (p. 8)

This is a comment on the participative qualities of learning strategies, rather than an exhaustive definition.

Cohen (1998) focuses more on the processes of language learning. His definition is as follows:

language learning and language use strategies can be defined as those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall and application of information about that language. (p. 4)

His definition has:

Actions	Process 1/ process 2.....process N
Four objectives	Storage, retention, recall, application
Two goals	Learning or use of a second or foreign language...

The various combinations of these actions and objectives lead to complexities similar to those noted above for the Oxford et al.'s (1989) diagram. It is significant that Cohen directs attention to the conscious and intentional effort by the learner rather than subconscious. Cohen's phrase "*may result in action*" indicates that some strategies are behavioural (observable) and others are mental.

2.3 Studies on the good language learner

Why do some students have serious problems in learning a second or foreign language, while others are outstandingly successful? To answer these questions the "good language learner" study was set up. The researchers observed second language learners in the classroom and in naturalistic situations in order to identify what good language learners do. The hypothesis was that "*it should be possible to help problem learners to improve their approach and in this way to become more effective.*" (Stern, 1975, p. 304)

Using learner diaries and her observations of classes of higher-education language learners in the USA and Hawaii, Rubin (1975) suggested that the good language learner:

1. *is a willing and accurate guesser;*
2. *has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication;*
3. *is often not inhibited; is willing to appear foolish, to make mistakes, to live with a certain degree of ambiguity;*
4. *focuses on form;*
5. *practises and seeks out opportunities to use the language;*
6. *monitors his/her own speech and the speech of others;*
7. *attends to meaning; (pp. 46-47)*

Rubin also suggests that the strategy use will vary depending on the task, the stage of the learner in the learning process, the age, EFL or ESL

situations, individual styles such as auditory, visual or kinaesthetic, and the cultural differences in cognitive learning style.

Stern (1975) researched Rubin's work as well as his own experience as a language teacher and learner and drew up a list of ten features that show contrasts between good and poor learners at elementary and perhaps intermediate stages in an academic study situation. He observed that successful learners are characterised by their constant search for meaning, willingness to practise, an open and relaxed attitude and an active approach to the learning task.

Using semi-directed and directed interviews, Naiman et al. (1996) studied two unsuccessful language learners and 32 successful language learners. This study tried to identify strategies and techniques the learner consciously develops and employs and learner characteristics, which are likely to influence the use of strategies, techniques and learning outcome. Naiman et al. identified five major strategies that describe the overall approach to language learning and appear to be essential to successful language learning: *"an active task approach, realization of language as system, realization of language as means of communication and interaction, management of affective demands, and monitoring of second language performance"* (p. 225).

The work by Naiman et al. in the late 70s is significant because they used multimethod design to collect data on strategy use. Their findings indicated that each language learning career was unique but there were many common experiences and characteristics. One of their findings was that language success appears to be attributed to strong motivation, circumstances and the *"development of learning techniques suitable to the learner's personal needs"* (p. 39).

Studies of learning strategies used by children

Wong-Fillmore (1979) studied how successful younger learners coped when plunged into a new language environment. Because Wong-Fillmore collected her data in play situations, social strategies were emphasized in her study. She found that if children can use some simple patterns to open and close a conversation, take turns and ask for help, they are able to function in the social environment. These skills allow them to join in a group and act as if they understand what is going on, even if they don't, and rely on friends for help. Moreover by participating in activities a learner has more exposure to the target language. Consequently new

materials learned will have a deeper meaning through interesting and memorable activities and usage.

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) conducted a longitudinal study of 14 Mexican-American children in bilingual classrooms (pre-school to the first grade). They found that there is a natural order to the development of second language learning strategies. Children used only receptive and self-contained strategies like repetition and memorization when their grasp of the target language was negligible. They then learned strategies that enabled them to initiate and maintain interaction with others such as *"formulaic expressions and verbal attention getters"* (p. 56). By the end of the first grade only a few students used strategies to monitor grammatical errors or to request clarification. In another words the easier strategies were acquired at the beginning and the more difficult ones were learned and used only later.

Ellis (1994) suggests that there are five major aspects of successful language learning evidenced by studies of the good language learner:

1. *a concern for language form;*
2. *a concern for communication (functional practice);*
3. *an active task approach;*
4. *an awareness of the learning process;*
5. *a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements (p. 546)*

2.4 Classification of Strategies

Tarone (1980) identified three strategies on the basis of the purpose of the strategic behaviours:

1. Production strategies: *"an attempt to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum of effort"*
2. Communication strategies: *"mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared"* (repairing or forestalling communication breakdown)
3. Learning strategies: *"an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language"* (expanding language knowledge) (p. 419)

Bialystok (1981) classified strategies according to two defining parameters - purpose and modality. Modality was oral and written and the purpose was either formal (form focused) or functional (meaning focused). She made these distinctions because she assumed that the effects of the strategies are not generalisable but specific to the particular type of language tasks.

Rubin (1987) suggests that there are three kinds of strategies that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. They are:

1. *Learning strategies*
2. *Communication strategies*
3. *Social strategies* (p. 23)

Within the learning strategies, Rubin distinguishes cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Rubin's taxonomy is important because she split the communication strategies from the learning strategies. The main focus of communication strategies is on the process of keeping the conversation going when faced with some difficulties. Social strategies are those activities learners employ to gain opportunities to be in an environment where practice is possible.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985) classified strategies according to the context they are used in:

1. Classroom behaviours such as saying correct answers to yourself,
2. Learning behaviour in individual study, such as using a dictionary
3. Interacting with others outside the classroom, such as starting a conversation with someone for the purpose of practising English.

Several classifications of strategies have been produced by researchers in the last 20 years. However classifications by O'Malley and his colleagues (O'Malley et al. 1985a and 1985b; O'Malley and Chamot 1990) and Oxford's (1990) classifications are regarded as most useful and significant.

Through classroom observation and structured interviews of high school ESL students O'Malley et al. (1985a, 1985b) identified three categories of language learning strategies: metacognitive, cognitive and social.

O'Malley et al. classified 'questioning for clarification' as Social-affective strategies rather than as cognitive strategies like Rubin because

cognitive strategies are characterized by internal conceptual manipulation or transformation of the material to be learned.

2.4.1 The Classification by O'Malley et al. (1985b)

Following the information-processing model of the cognitive literature (Brown and Palinscar, 1982) O'Malley et al. (1985b) identified three types of strategies: metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective. Metacognitive strategies have a self-management function. Through metacognitive strategies, learners make use of their knowledge about language learning and regulate their language learning processes. They plan before the task, monitor during the task and check the outcomes of their own language learning after completing the task. Cognitive strategies refer to processes and behaviours that learners use to improve their ability to learn or remember something. Cognitive strategies listed by O'Malley et al. (1985b) include 'repetition', 'note-taking', and 'auditory representation' (retention of the sound).

Socioaffective strategies refer to the ways in which learners interact and study together with others. They are 'cooperation' (working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity), and 'questions for clarification' (asking a teacher or other native speakers for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and/or examples).

The work by O'Malley et al. (1985a and 1985b) is significant because:

They used multiple instruments to collect data such as class observation and interviews.

During the interviews they used the learners' native language so that they could collect strategies from beginners.

Their participants were both beginners and intermediate students including good and bad learners.

Their classification is one of the first to focus on the importance of metacognitive strategies.

They incorporated training of strategies in specific tasks with some degree of success.

However their participants were only high school students and there are no specific examples of affective strategies.

2.4.2 Classification of strategies by Oxford (1990)

“Perhaps the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date is that provided by Oxford” (Ellis, 1994, p. 539). The following chart shows Oxford’s classification of learning strategy groups with six subscales, which is a greater number of categories than O’Malley et al.’s. However Oxford accepts that the six categories of strategies overlap and are not always distinct. Oxford makes a distinction between direct and indirect strategies. The direct strategies include three categories: memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Oxford identifies three indirect strategies: metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Oxford builds on the earlier classifications with the aim of subsuming within her taxonomy virtually every strategy previously mentioned in the literature (Ellis, 1994, p. 539).

Table 2.1 Oxford’s Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 17)

Direct Strategies

<i>1. Memory Strategies</i>	<i>A. Creating mental images B. Applying images and sounds C. Reviewing well D. Employing action</i>
<i>2. Cognitive Strategies</i>	<i>A. Practising B. Receiving and sending messages C. Analyzing and reasoning D. Creating structure for input and output</i>
<i>3. Compensation Strategies</i>	<i>A. Guessing intelligently B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing</i>

Indirect Strategies

<i>1. Metacognitive Strategies</i>	<i>A. Centering your learning B. Arranging and planning your learning C. Evaluating your learning</i>
<i>2. Affective Strategies</i>	<i>A. Lowering your anxiety B. Encouraging yourself C. Taking your emotional temperature</i>
<i>3. Social Strategies</i>	<i>A. Asking questions B. Cooperating with others C. Empathizing with others</i>

The subcategories of Oxford's six language learning strategies

Memory strategies are the techniques used to get material into our long-term storage. Memory strategies make sound, image, location, or experiential links.

Cognitive strategies include practice and repetition, as well as intellectual processing. Cognitive strategies may make use of intellectual, logical constructs to establish a kind of association.

Compensation strategies are those that are used to fill or compensate for gaps in knowledge or skill, such as circumlocution. The need to use compensation strategies often provides experiential associations that greatly enrich the associational network of the language.

Metacognitive strategies have to do with goal setting, planning work, and evaluating it.

Affective strategies are those that are used to manage one's feelings, such as "positive self-talk." Affective strategies link learning with feelings, a powerful influence on storage and retrieval.

Social strategies involve other people. Social strategies bring others into the associational network through group study, getting help, pair-work, and so on. They often activate affective strategies, too. (Ehrman, 1996, p. 182)

Oxford's affective strategies are similar to Naiman et al.'s (4) "*the ability to manage affective demands.*" Oxford divided O'Malley et al's (1985b) socio-affective strategies into two separate groups. She claims that:

the previous inventories of strategies included a severely limited number of items reflecting affective and social strategies and contained a relative overabundance of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Such inventories appeared to emphasize information-processing and executive management aspects of the learner and did not capture the essence of the whole learner (Green and Oxford, 1995, p. 265).

Oxford's memory and cognitive strategies and the classification of cognitive strategies by O'Malley et al. are similar.

The category of compensation is new in Oxford's taxonomy. Ellis (1994) claims that Oxford's inclusion of compensation strategies in direct

strategies is somewhat confusing, because compensation strategies are mainly concentrating on overcoming limitations and not directed at learning a language.

2.5 Factors Affecting the Choice of Strategies

Research has revealed that there is now evidence to suggest that a number of individual learner differences and situational factors are related to strategy use. Several variables such as the target language, age, gender, level of proficiency, cultural background, learning style, learner belief, experience of learning another language, career or participant choice and motivation to strategy use were found to be significant.

2.5.1 Age

There are few longitudinal studies on the use of strategies in relation to the age of learners. Strategy use research has focused on particular age groups. The length of these studies ranges from a few hours to one and a half years.

Pre-school and primary school children

Wong-Fillmore (1979) found that cognitive and social strategies were important to young Mexican children learning English. Successful learners in her study used a social strategy of joining and staying in a group, by learning formulaic sentences and relying on their friends for help.

High-school students

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) interviewed and observed 70 high-school-age students in ESL classes and concluded that beginning level students were able to identify more strategies than intermediate level students. The social and affective strategies were used less frequently than cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

University students

Chamot (1993) carried out a qualitative survey on the reasons why high school and university students used or did not use certain strategies. They were asked to indicate whether or not they used a particular strategy

in and out of the beginner Spanish, Japanese and Russian classes. Chamot found that students used a particular strategy when it was fun, made learning easier, seemed natural, focused attention, helped understand comprehension, helped recall or organized information in the memory, but did not use a strategy when it was not effective or took too much time or effort.

Mature adults in an extra-mural foreign language situation

White (1993) examined the metacognitive, cognitive, social and affective strategy use by foreign language learners who were studying either in classroom situations or at a distance at Massey University, New Zealand. She reports the main influences on strategy use were mode of study and the age of learners. Her research found that students over thirty used more metacognitive self-management strategy than did those who were younger.

Mature immigrants in English as a second language situation

Lunt (2000) used SILL and interviewed immigrant learners attending classes in Melbourne, Australia. Her study using the SILL did not find any significant correlations between age and the use of strategies but it found participants who were between 46 and 50 used more memory strategies. Through a qualitative study she found that students over 35 preferred to study in groups, because in groups they could share the collective memory together. Lunt claims that working in a group brings about a more comfortable learning situation and *“avoids the anxiety of not being able to remember. By organizing themselves to work with others, learners found that they could achieve a ‘collective’ memory and so could overcome ‘individual’ memory shortcomings”* (Lunt, 2000, p. 297).

2.5.2 Gender

Researchers generally agree that females make greater use of strategies than men.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found in their study of 78 participants comprising professional language trainers, native speaker language teachers, and students, that females used significantly more strategies on four SILL factors: general strategies, authentic language use, searching for and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies.

Green and Oxford (1995) used the 50-item SILL and found that females used 14 SILL items significantly more often than men, three of which were of memory, cognitive and social subscales, two of which were metacognitive and affective, and one compensation strategy. However none of the 14 strategies above were regarded as positive in relation to proficiency.

Mochizuki (1999) used an 80-item SILL on first-year students at a university in Japan and concluded that the female students used strategies more frequently than male in all categories of strategies except memory strategies.

However, there are some studies that claim that gender difference is not a determinant. In a study of psychological-type and language learning, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) studied 78 participants and concluded that psychological-type preferences rather than sex differences were influential in strategy use.

Some studies indicate that certain strategies are more effective on males. Such a study was that of Nyikos (1990), which claims that males were superior in vocabulary recall when a spatial coloured picture was used.

2.5.3 Level of Proficiency

Many studies on learners' language proficiency and strategy use report that learners of higher proficiency use a greater and wider variety of strategies. However some researchers say that there are many reasons why some students report a greater number of strategies used than others.

Huang and Naerssen (1987) studied the learning strategies in oral communication employed by 58 (19-25 year old) Chinese English major students in an EFL situation. This study employed a questionnaire and interview questions based on three categories of strategies: formal practice, functional practice and monitoring, derived from Rubin (1975) and Stern's (1975) inventories. The results show that more successful students used functional practices like 'thinking in English' and 'speaking in English with other students, teachers, and native speakers' significantly more often than less successful students. Huang and Naerssen also report that the less successful students tried to adopt specific learning techniques employed by their more successful peers but did not find them very helpful (1987: 296).

This point is debated by MacIntyre (1994), too.

When considering the association between strategy use and proficiency, it is difficult to tease apart the potential contribution of strategies to proficiency from the effect of proficiency on the choice of strategies. In other words, one may ask, "Does the use of certain strategies lead to (cause) improved ability level or does an elevated level of ability lead to the use of different strategies?" (p. 188)

Using a questionnaire Reiss (1981) found that successful learners were explicit in their learning task, always looked for meaning and seemed to understand how to learn and internalise information. On the other hand unsuccessful learners did not seem to be conscious of their learning style and used 'vague' terms when they described their learning.

Wesche (1979) studied learning behaviours of English-speaking Canadian public servants during a 200-hour French oral intensive course. To identify and count the participants' use of learning behaviours, Wesche videotaped students in class. Both the statistical analyses of VTR observation of learning behaviours and the interview findings indicate that there was a greater variety and quantity of language learning behaviours and activities pursued by those who improved most. Moreover, many of the observed learning behaviours co-occurred. Wesche hypothesized that it "*may be complexes of behaviours rather than specific ones that characterize different kinds of learners*" (Wesche, 1979, p. 419).

Park (1997) claims that there is a significant linear relationship between the frequency of the use of language learning strategies and English Language proficiency as measured by the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) scores in listening, writing and reading skills. Park used the Korean translation of the SILL to measure the use of strategies by 332 university students majoring in English in Korea.

Chien and Wei (1998) studied the relationship between the use of strategies and good performance in listening comprehension on recall tasks among 125 university students in Taiwan. To measure the use of strategies, Chien and Wei asked questions on three categories of strategies; linguistic, cognitive and extra-linguistic. They found "*that there is difference in strategy use between better-listening groups and poor-listening groups. The higher-ranking groups are good at using a*

greater number of the three categories of strategies simultaneously.” (Chien and Wei, 1998, p. 66)

A more important issue, relating to all the studies that have examined the effect of proficiency on strategy use, concerns causality. Greater strategy use might lead some students to higher levels of performance. Equally, higher performance might facilitate the use of more strategies (Skehan 1989). Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) argue that proficiency enables the use of more difficult but effective strategies:

Although certain unsuccessful students...attempted to adopt the ...techniques used by their more successful peers, they found that those techniques were not very helpful in their cases. (Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987, p. 293).

Grenfell and Harris (1999) demonstrate the issues at stake in the success, stage, range type and frequency of strategy use by learners in their developing linguistic competence in the Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2 Continua in strategy use (p. 46)

<i>Easy</i>	<i>Hard</i>
<i>Acquired early</i>	<i>Acquired later</i>
<i>Low attainers</i>	<i>High attainers</i>
↓	↓
<i>Less frequent use</i>	<i>More frequent use</i>
<i>Narrow range</i>	<i>Wider range</i>
<i>Less helpful strategies</i>	<i>More helpful strategies</i>
<i>Bottom-up</i>	<i>Bottom – up and top-down</i>
<i>Word for word</i>	<i>Meaning</i>
<i>Translation</i>	<i>Inferencing</i>
<i>Repetition</i>	<i>Applying rules</i>
<i>Formulaic phrases</i>	<i>Monitoring production</i>

Grenfell and Harris have set out continua of declarative and procedural knowledge, metacognitive and cognitive strategies, and knowledge of and about language in general terms. Some strategies are easier to use than others. For example, use of an English-English dictionary is harder than using an English-Japanese dictionary to find out the meaning of a word for Japanese learners of English. This point may also imply that earlier learners acquire easier strategies, and the more difficult ones are learned later (p. 46). The more strategies a learner acquires the more complex his use of strategies becomes. However they do not define how they put a ‘value label’ of less helpful and more helpful strategies.

2.5.4 Cultural Background

Politzer and McGroarty (1985) investigated the relationship between the students' learning behaviours and the students' gains in listening comprehension, grammatical skill and communication ability during an eight-week ESL course. Their participants were 18 mainly Japanese Asians and 19 mainly Latin American Spanish speakers. Politzer and McGroarty (1985) developed the language learning behaviour questionnaire mainly based on strategies of good language learners by Naiman et al. (1996) and Rubin (1981). They report that some of the strategies such as, "*correcting fellow students and asking a teacher all kinds of questions*" in a classroom, are "*clearly more a part of the Western rather than the Asian learning behaviour repertoire*" (Politzer and McGroarty, 1985, pp. 113-114).

In addition, these behaviours may reflect the type of previous English instruction the participants had received. In many Asian educational institutions, where the emphasis in language instruction is placed on rote memorization, translation of texts, or recognition of correct grammatical forms in reading, these interactive second language learning behaviours are not always likely to occur in classroom settings (pp. 113-114).

The researchers on this project had to delete 19 items from the statistics because they had negative correlations with the total scale, and "*did not fit into the overall response pattern*" (p. 109). Skehan valued this study as an exploratory study but questioned the logical merit of some of the questions in this study (Skehan, 1989, p. 86).

In their strategy training of 75 high school ESL students in the United States, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that Asian students stuck to their old strategy of rote and repetition to memorize vocabulary in contrast with Hispanic learners who tried to use the strategies presented in the training.

However the length of this training was relatively short and the students knew that they would be tested on how well they remembered the words. When they knew that they could rely on their own methods of learning new vocabulary, they hesitated to incorporate the new methods, which were unfamiliar to them, as O'Malley suggested (1987, p.142). Moreover Asian languages do not belong to the same language family as English and do not share many word roots, as Spanish does. For Asian students it might be that rote learning was more effective and the strategies

presented in the training might not have been valued in a short span of time.

Using SILL, Grainger (1997) explored the effects of cultural backgrounds in the choice of strategies in learning Japanese at University. Students were from Asian, English and European background but there was little evidence of difference in the frequency of the overall use of strategies. Nonetheless within strategy categories they found significant differences. *“Asian-background students of Japanese are better at managing their affective state, they remember more effectively, and they compensate better than students of English-speaking backgrounds.”* (pp. 382-383).

Through qualitative study, Lunt (2000) found that students from Asian L1 background and European language L1 background perceived difficulty in different areas of learning English and used different strategies to overcome the problems. For example the Asian L1 group in her study used the SILL Strategy 12: I practice the sounds of English often, because they felt their poor pronunciation stopped them from having an effective communication with English speaking people in Australia. On the other hand participants from European language L1 background placed a greater emphasis on other factors such as age, level of proficiency and family support, and consequently did not use the Strategy 12 much.

2.5.5 Belief

Many researchers have focused on students' beliefs about the nature of language learning and the efficacy of the strategies they use. Those studies assume that what students consider to be an effective strategy significantly influences their use of strategies.

Through a case study of two second language learners (one successful and one not very successful) Abraham and Vann (1987) suggested that learners' beliefs of how language is learned guide their approach to specific learning contexts and the use of strategies, and this in turn influences how successful he is in language learning. The more successful learner had *“a belief that language learning requires attention to both function and form. He knew that he had to discover how the forms enable a person to communicate. In contrast the less successful learner appeared to think of language primarily as a set of words and he seemed confident that if he could learn enough of them, he could somehow string them together to communicate.”* (pp. 1987:95)

Through interviews, Wenden (1987b) investigated 25 adult learners who had lived in the United States for less than two years about their language learning activities in and out of the classroom. Wenden found that learners who believed in the importance of using the language reported greater use of communication strategies and attended mainly to meaning and social purpose, and not form, in social interaction. In contrast, those who laid emphasis on learning about the language used more cognitive strategies and were more conscious of form in social settings.

Mori (1999) studied university students' beliefs about general learning and language learning. Through a questionnaire she probed the beliefs of 187 university students who were taking Japanese as a foreign language. Her study suggests that students' beliefs about language learning are very task specific and there are differences between novice and advanced learners. Her findings also suggest that students who are flexible and able to change their beliefs make it into advanced courses. *"If students want to become advanced language learners, they should learn to be flexible in modifying their conceptions about learning in general and language learning in particular"* (p. 409). This research implies the importance of beliefs as a factor influencing the choice of strategies among language learners.

2.5.6 Experience of Learning another Language

Researchers generally agree that multi-linguals have an advantage in learning another language compared with monolinguals, because they can make better use of metacognitive strategies (Nayak, Hansen, Krueger and McLaughlin, 1990; Klein, 1995).

Magiste (1984) investigated the acquisition of a third language among bilingual immigrant students in Sweden. She reports that an immigrant student who always uses Swedish at home but has passive knowledge of his first or home language clearly performs better in English than Swedish monolingual students. These students have acquired the technique of learning another language, which obviously improves the learning of additional languages. However, those who use their home language daily have slightly lower results in English than Swedish monolinguals. She attributes this to language interference. Magiste also suggests that if the target language is similar to the mother tongue, a learner will be able to recognize and understand familiar concepts. This facilitates learning, at least in initial and intermediate stages.

2.5.7 Career or Participant Choice

The study of language learning behaviours by Politzer and McGroarty (1985) mentioned above found that engineering students used less strategies than social science or humanities students. Politzer and McGroarty assumed that this might be because engineering students are more interested in reading technical literature than communication skills. Many of the learning behaviours in their study related to more aural skills. They claimed that the goal of English language study should be considered in any discussion of language learning strategies. This study is inconclusive because the engineering students were mainly Asian students while the social science or humanity students were Hispanic students.

The study of Mochizuki (1999) also found that the difference in major subjects reflected on the choice of strategies. English major students scored higher in all six categories of a SILL survey conducted among university students in Japan.

2.5.8 Motivation

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that of all the factors measured, motivational level had the most significant influence on reported use of language learning strategies. They found that highly motivated students employed strategies more frequently than less motivated students, especially in foreign language classes.

The kind of motivation a language learner has is influenced by his life experience. For many students, positive learning experience may be largely defined in terms of academic success such as good marks in assessments or praise from a teacher. Having a better academic record in English than mathematics or art is likely to motivate the choices regarding further education or a career. Learners who can experience a sense of success in formal language studies in class or communication success through having a pen pal or a successful short stay in an English speaking country are likely to *“feel motivated by the perception that this is what they are good at or what they like, and where their future potential must therefore lie”*(Ushioda, 1996, p. 37).

In a study of 12,000 students taking foreign languages in universities in the United States, Nyikos and Oxford (1993) found that the type of motivation students had influenced the choice of strategies. Students who had a strong instrumental goal of passing the course with a good grade used more formal rule-related practice for assessments and general study strategies rather than strategies, which foster good face-to-face communication. However Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found more use of functional practice strategies among adult learners who were learning foreign languages for career reasons. Their instrumental goal led them to use communication-oriented strategies. Politzer and McGroaty (1985) stressed the importance of language learning goals in deciding strategy use. They stated that the strategy of asking a teacher how an expression is used might be associated with the goal of developing face-to-face communication skills but might not be perceived as relevant for an engineering student whose language learning goal is to develop skill in reading technical literature.

2.6 Advantages and Disadvantages of Strategy Instruments other than SILL

Researchers have used many types of techniques to investigate the language learning behaviours of learners. They all have advantages and disadvantages. To overcome difficulties a combination of instruments is advisable.

Observation can easily be used in and out of the classrooms. However many researchers (Chamot, 1987; Rubin, 1981; Lunt, 2000) found that classroom observation produces limited information because the classes they observed tended to be teacher centred and students had few opportunities to engage in active learning with observable strategies. In the classroom a researcher can observe many of the social strategies such as asking questions for clarification or verification and the use of gestures to convey meaning "*but cannot provide information on unobservable, mental strategies such as reasoning or analyzing*" (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995). Wong-Fillmore (1979) whose findings are mainly in the use of social strategies used this protocol successfully in her longitudinal study of small children in play situations

Interviews seem to reveal personalized information on the use of many types of strategies and have been used by many researchers such as Naiman et al., (1996); O'Malley et al. (1985a, b) and Lunt (2000). Student interviews produced extremely productive accounts of strategy

use. This technique can bring out some unexpected and very interesting information, but it is not easy to classify the ideas together unless it is structured in some way. It requires considerable time and effort from the learners and researchers.

Group discussions can give a general picture of the strategies used by the group as a whole, but would not offer full information about the strategies used by any individual student. When they are carried out in the target language, students' proficiency has to be reasonably advanced to be able to recount detailed facts and processes. Lunt (2000) successfully used group discussion as well as one-to-one interviews.

Language learning diaries and journals "*allow learners to record their thoughts, feelings, achievements, problems, strategies and impressions*" (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, pp. 408). and provide teachers and researchers with detailed and rich data on learning strategies and affective aspects of individuals like anxiety and motivation. However, this protocol requires a lot of commitment from the students unless diary writing becomes a requisite of the course. Because it is often a free form of writing, it is not easy to compile the comparisons between students unless an easy but detailed format is prescribed for the students to follow.

Recollective narratives tie language learning strategies with factors such as motivation and learning style. It provides a big picture of learning process, but students may not remember their strategy use accurately. They sometimes do not remember exactly how often or for how long they used them. They will mention conscious strategy use but they will not mention strategies they use automatically without conscious effort.

Think-aloud protocols are techniques in which students talk about the use of strategies while doing a language task or soon afterward. This protocol offers the most detailed information on how a learner uses his strategies while processing a particular task. However, they can be used only on a one-to-one basis. Moreover it takes a great deal of time to train students to be aware of their strategy use and to be able to report accurately, and for researchers to administer them. Cohen and Scott (1996) claim that if learners have to use their first language to report on the use of strategy but the target language for the task itself, some information might be lost during the translation.

Most of these techniques that measure the use of learning strategies involve learners' self-report. These reports depend on the learners' ability and willingness to be able to report their actual use of the learning

strategies in L2. Not all the learners can fully describe their use of strategies.

Summative rating scales The results of the summative rating scales produce quantifiable information and *“can be statistically analyzed in ANOVA, MANOVA, correlation or regression analysis to compare several mean scores simultaneously and to predict performance on a dependent variable via an independent variable”* (Lunt, 2000, p. 35).

However participants can only answer the questions provided and they cannot comment on strategies they use for the particular learning environment they are in. Participants might misunderstand the statements, or might respond in terms of what they think they should do rather than in terms of what they actually do.

The present study uses summative rating scales but to minimise the above problem participants were told that there were no correct answers. They were also interviewed afterward so that they could make further comments on the questionnaires.

There are many examples of research using summative rating scales to investigate the behaviours of language learners (Bialystock, 1981; Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987).

Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) studied 58 graduating English students at Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute. They used three instruments: an oral test; a questionnaire on learner strategies; an interview with the ten most and the ten least successful students. This study found that reading as a source of input in a foreign language setting was related to the overall oral achievement, especially the role of reading for pleasure. This shows that oral achievement can be influenced by strategies, which are not directly related to pronunciation. This is one of the reasons why the present study included all 50 strategies of the SILL.

2.7 Development and *raison d'être* of SILL

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was designed to measure the frequency of the use of language learning strategies by students at the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California in 1986. SILL has been modified many times and in 1989 Oxford compiled two versions of the SILL, one for native speakers of English learning

foreign languages (80 items) Version 5.1, and the other for learners of English as a second or foreign language (50 items) Version 7.0.

The 'key reason' why the SILL was developed was the lack of published reliability or validity data of many of the earlier summative rating scales according to Oxford and Burry-Stock.

"If the psychometric properties of reliability and validity have not been explored, it is impossible to know whether we can put faith in the results of the research." (Oxford and Burry-stock, 1995, p. 4)

In the SILL, students answer questions on their language strategy use on the five-point Likert scale

1. *Never or almost never true of me*
2. *Generally not true of me*
3. *Somewhat true of me*
4. *Generally true of me*
5. *Always or almost always true of me* (Oxford, 1990, p. 293)

The SILL has two general distinctions, direct and indirect. Direct strategies consist of strategies that directly involve the target language, while indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning. The SILL version 7.0 consists of six subcategories of strategies and each subcategory has different numbers of items.

Direct Strategies

1. *Memory strategies (9 items)*
2. *Cognitive strategies (14 items)*
3. *Compensation strategies (6 items)*

Indirect strategies

4. *Metacognitive strategies (9 items)*
5. *Affective strategies (6 items)*
6. *Social strategies (6 items)*

2.8 Reliability of the SILL

Using the Cronbach alpha, a measure of internal consistency, to measure the reliability of experiments using the SILL, Oxford claims that the reliability of the SILL has proved to be high. Green and Oxford (1995) claim that the SILL has internal consistency reliability between 0.93-0.98.

Oxford reports that the SILL is more reliable when it is administered in the participants' native language rather than in the target language, because of the error due to the language difficulties (1993, pp. 6-7). The SILL seems to be the only language learning strategy instrument that has been extensively checked for reliability and validated in numerous ways (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1993).

Park (1997) sought the relationship between the fifty-item SILL and the results of TOEFL by Korean students. He reported that the overall reliability coefficient was 0.93. However, when each category was looked at for reliability, the coefficients of the subscales of memory (0.65) and compensation (0.61) were lower.

In the investigation carried out by Lunt (2000) on 154 adult immigrants in ESL classes in Australia, the overall reliability, using the fifty-item English version was 0.86. However Lunt found of six subscales of the English format of the SILL two (metacognitive and affective categories) were unreliable, because the reliability level did not reach her target 0.65. They were 50 participants from several language backgrounds used L1, SILL. The reliability score was higher in three categories when L1 translation was used.

2.9 Prior Research Using the SILL

Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) report that 40 to 50 major studies using the SILL involving 8000-8500 language learners in the world have been carried out. Bedell and Oxford (1996, p. 53) reviewed 14 studies using SILL in many countries in the world including Egypt, China, Thailand, Indonesia, Korea and Japan. Some studies concern students learning various languages as a foreign language while some concern on second language learners.

EFL: Some studies were carried out on EFL learners in non-English speaking countries such as The People's Republic of China (Wen and Johnson, 1997) and Korea (Park, 1997).

ESL: Studies on ESL learners were carried out in English speaking countries including USA and Australia. Lunt (2000) used SILL 7.0 (both English and translation) with 157 immigrants to Australia.

Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) claim that learners in an ESL environment have been shown to make more frequent use of strategies

than EFL learners in non-English speaking communities. There are two possible explanations. The first is that ESL students might need English for immediate survival purposes, but students in an EFL situation might not see the relevance of learning the language. ESL learners are constantly exposed to "*a strong communicative demand from the environment*" (Green and Oxford, 1995, p. 266). The second is the proficiency level of the students in ESL and EFL classes. Proficiency level of the learners in ESL classes might be higher than that of EFL learners.

Researchers have found that the frequency of strategy use depends on factors such as language proficiency, aims of the course, cultural background and gender.

Oxford and Burry-stock call for more information on "*how students from different cultural backgrounds and different countries use language learning strategies...students from different countries utilize different strategies and prioritize common strategies differently*" (p. 19).

2.9.1 Studies using the SILL with Japanese EFL participants

Using modified SILL Noguchi (as cited in Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995) studied high school EFL students in Japan. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) reanalysed Noguchi's data and found that almost all the strategy groups had medium to low use. Social strategies, metacognitive, and affective strategies were not popular, but memory and cognitive strategies were somewhat more popular.

Takeuchi (1993) used SILL Version 7.0 (see appendix) with Japanese university students in EFL classes and the Comprehensive English Language Test. He reports that four strategies (17, 22, 46 and 32) of the SILL were positively related to the listening section of the proficiency tests but three (42, 30 and 47) were negative. It is interesting that the strategies (17, 22 and 32), which have significant relationship to the listening ability, are not particularly related to speaking.

In the preliminary stage of the present research I asked one Japanese high school exchange student to complete the eighty-item SILL. She rated the Strategy 42 low and she explained that she does not use this strategy because she does not need it. She said, "I am not the sort of person who gets nervous." Oxford does not provide scope in the SILL for

distinguishing between those who need the strategy and those who do not need the strategy in the first place.

Mochizuki (1999) used the eighty-item SILL with first and second year university students in Japan. The findings of this study show that the relationship between the use of strategy and proficiency is not totally linear, but the more proficient students use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently than less proficient students. He states that Japanese students use compensation strategies most often and affective ones the least. The strong factors affecting the choice of strategies are motivation and gender. English major students used strategies more frequently than science majors.

This research also suggests that self-evaluation of English proficiency by Japanese university students is not reliable, because some of them are too modest about their results.

2.10 Summary of Literature Review on Language Learning Strategies and the Present Study

The study of strategies used by language learners was originally started in order to list strategies so that researchers and teachers could identify good language learners and teach the strategies used by them to less successful learners.

Through a cognitive theory of information processing, three general types of strategy have been identified by O'Malley et al. (1985b); cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective. Oxford (1990) divided the socio-affective strategies of O'Malley into two separate subcategories; affective and social strategies. Furthermore she separated memory strategies, which are mainly 'techniques' from cognitive strategies and included compensation strategies in direct strategies. This classification of learning strategies is regarded as the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies so far (Ellis, 1994).

The very term language 'learning strategy' is ambiguous and different researchers use different terms to define it. Cohen (1998) directs the attention to the processes, which learners select consciously. Cohen also indicates that some strategies are behavioural and others are mental.

Ellis (1994) questions the labelling of a strategy as either good or bad. He states it may depend on a specific task, the age of the learner and the

learning environment and the focus should be on matching the right learning strategy with the right task. He questions the effectiveness of frequency. He states that when and with what purpose the strategy is used may be more important.

The Present Study

The present study uses interviews to explore the use of strategies relating to pronunciation.

The research is cross-sectional, focused on the use of strategies by a particular group of participants (Japanese learners in Wellington). However it includes participants who have recently made a transition from the EFL to ESL situation, those who have been in long term ESL and mainstream classes learning tertiary subjects through English medium, and those immigrants who have been in Wellington for a long time using the target language daily as parents and professionals. All the long-term residents started learning English in Japan and have been an English student in an English speaking community. It is not a longitudinal study but it includes learners in different stages of learning and in different situations. There are not many studies of strategy use that include Japanese ESL students and very few studies on participants in the mainstream classes or long-term immigrants who have gone through those stages.

The present study also tries to examine factors, which influence the choice of strategies. They include gender, length of stay in an English speaking country, influence of their early English achievements, and length of education in New Zealand.

To examine the effectiveness of strategies five pronunciation tests were administered, because earlier research suggests that 'self-evaluation of English proficiency by Japanese university students is not reliable' (Mochizuki, 1999).

Research shows both advantages and disadvantages of strategy instruments. Ellis (1994) states, "*successful studies have employed multiple data collection procedures*" (1994, p. 535). Thus the present study employs two data collection protocols. One is a questionnaire (SILL) and the other is an interview, which was carried out after a specific task of perception and production of English sounds and reading of a passage.

The instrument SILL was employed by the present study because it appears to have high internal consistency. It is the most widely used summative scale and has been used with participants from many different cultural backgrounds including Japanese participants. The current research sought participants' comments on the questions so that it could examine the validity of the instrument itself.

3 Perception and Production of English by Japanese Learners

Is there any relationship between the use of learning strategies and the proficiency in pronunciation among Japanese learners of English?

This part of the research will investigate the English pronunciation of the learners. English pronunciation proficiency is measured by testing the participants' performance in the perception and production of four English phoneme contrasts and in reading a short passage.

- First, this chapter will investigate the factors that affect the acquisition of pronunciation.
- Secondly, it will review the past studies on the acquisition of English sounds by Japanese learners.
- Thirdly, it will compare the four English phoneme contrasts with Japanese phonemes.
- Finally, it will analyse the results of the tests.

3.1 Factors that Affect the Acquisition of Pronunciation

One of the most important things in learning another language is to master its pronunciation system. Studies of L2 phonology have identified several factors that affect the acquisition of a new sound system. These are:

- age
- motivation and affective factors
- ability to mimic
- extroversion
- the learner's first language
- exposure to the language
- the use of learning strategies.

Each of these is reviewed below:

3.1.1 Age

Many researchers have claimed that there is clear evidence implying a relationship between the age at which a language is learned and the

degree of foreign accent. Thompson (1991) studied 36 Russian immigrants to the USA and found that in naturalistic situations the age at arrival was the factor that best indicated the accuracy of English pronunciation. In her study only those who arrived in the USA before the age of 4 were rated to be free of a foreign accent by all the judges.

Oyama (1976) tested adult Italian immigrants in the USA, whose age at arrival ranged from 5 to 18 years, and found that proficiency in native-like pronunciation correlated inversely with age.

It is generally known that if the learner begins to speak another language after puberty, the learner is likely to have an accent. This however does not apply to everyone. Neufeld (1980) showed that a few adult learners are able to pass as native speakers. In reading a passage, five out of seven adult second language learners were rated native speakers by all the 82 native speakers of English.

Physical Explanation Penfield and Roberts (1959) noticed that while children regain full recovery from brain surgery not all adult patients regain faculties relating to languages after the same operation. They therefore claimed that physical changes in the brain affect the learning of new sound system.

Intellectual Explanation Flege (1981) says that the first language system disrupts learners' perception of a second and later language, because it stabilises and becomes increasingly integrated as learners get older.

Psychological Explanation Through psychological perspectives researchers (Guiora et al., 1972; Stevick, 1978; and Littlewood (1984) say that pronunciation is a part of our ego and as we become older we become more protective of our personality and unwilling to change it. They claim that the way one speaks is associated with one's sense of identity.

Child-adult Difference Fujii (1992) says that adults tend to associate more with peers who speak their native language than children do. For instance, Japanese adults in her study reinforced poor second language pronunciation habits, because the contacts with native speakers were limited. Children, on the other hand, come into contact with teachers and native speaker classmates. Such contacts provide a good accent to model themselves on. Peck (1978) states that children are less tolerant of an accented speech and this adds social pressure to the learning.

However, when the exposure to the second language is relatively short, the relationship between age and good pronunciation is reversed. Older learners with greater maturity in language learning seem to achieve better results. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1982) found that under controlled input conditions, the older participants did better than the younger participants in the ability to imitate Dutch words whose meaning they had not learned, but after about a year of exposure to Dutch the younger participants became better than the older participants at pronouncing some of the sounds. Neufeld (1978) claims that adults show an advantage over children after an intensive 18-hour programme of instruction, which focused on the prosodic and articulatory features of Japanese and Chinese. Some of the adults were mistaken for native speakers of these languages.

Flege (1987) says there is no conclusive empirical basis to support the critical period hypothesis because it does not take into account a variety of perplexing factors, including development, input, motivation, affect, and social influences that typify child-adult differences in learning L2. Stern (1976) says that the emphasis should be on creating an environment in which effective language learning can occur rather than determining when is a good time to start teaching a second language. This is because each age of language learning has its own particular advantages and disadvantages.

3.1.2 Motivation and Affective Factors

Students who valued good pronunciation had higher English pronunciation accuracy scores (Purcell and Suter, 1980). However in natural settings, Oyama (1976) found no correlation between motivation (to improve English) and native-like pronunciation by male Italian immigrants in the USA.

Stern (1976) quotes the British example of starting teaching French to 17,000 eight-year-old school pupils (three years earlier than normal age). When the achievement in French was tested at 16 years old, the early starters did not show any substantial gains in achievement compared with those who started three years later except in listening comprehension. He claims that where the teachers and principals had confidence in the children's ability to learn French, the achievement was consistently higher and attitudes more positive than in the schools where the principal or teacher had less confidence in the children's capacity.

Another important finding in this study was the close association of early success or failure with later achievement and attitude. The successful early starters showed that they were successful later and had positive attitudes toward learning French while children who had early failure were reported to have negative attitude toward learning later and had further failure in learning and many eventually dropped out.

Studies of the relationship between pronunciation accuracy and L2 learners' identification with the L2 community show mixed results. Gatbonton (1978) reported that French-speaking Canadians showed better pronunciation if they identified with English speaking Canadians. Oyama (1976) and Thompson (1991) found no significant relationship between motivation and the pronunciation scores of immigrants to the USA.

3.1.3 Ability to Mimic

The ability to successfully imitate unfamiliar sounds is known to be related to good pronunciation (Purcell and Suter, 1980; Thompson, 1991). However it might be the case that some people have a better ear for mimicry than others. This is something a teacher or a student cannot influence much. People who are good at mimicry might enjoy mimicking native speaker conversation that makes them even more skilful at it.

3.1.4 Extroversion

It is generally believed that an extroverted personality may assist in getting better L2 pronunciation because it provides greater opportunity to practise and receive more input (Naiman et al, 1996; Nakajima, 1998; Thompson, 1991).

However in the study of personality characteristics of 831 adult learners at the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. Department of State, Ehrman (1994) found learning success was not related to extroversion or introversion within the 6 to 22 months intensive training. She advises people to take her findings with caution, because studying in small classes for a short time is different from using the language while working overseas. She did not test learners when they returned from overseas postings.

3.1.5 The Learner's First Language

Purcell and Suter (1980) found the participants' native language to be an especially good predictor of what rating their English speech will be. They found that students from an Indo-European language background such as Persian acquired better pronunciation than Thai or Japanese learners from a non-Indo-European language background. That the learner's first language influences the second language acquisition is evident when "*speakers of the same first language typically pronounce the second language in the same way, making the same kinds of substitutions and patterns of pronunciation*" (Nation, 1995, 64).

3.1.6 Exposure to the Language and Learning Experience

Mackain, Best, and Strange (1981) showed that the amount of exposure to native English speakers affects Japanese participants' perception of /r/ and /l/. They report that Japanese adults with extensive conversational instruction with native English speakers can differentiate synthetic speech instances of 'rock' and 'lock' both in an identification task and in a discrimination task better than participants with little conversational instruction in English.

Taniguchi (1996) studied the relation between perception and production in /l/ and /r/ before and after training by 48 Japanese university students. Her findings are:

- More people improved in production than in perception.
- Good progress was recorded in both production and perception after a short but focused training.
- Production of /l/ improved more than /r/.

In trying to improve the pronunciation of advanced learners of English Acton (1984) used a wide range of factors in designing a course. His approach is a progression of five steps. First, he required the learners to make the best use of their time out of the class to improve their pronunciation in their spontaneous speech by incorporating help from a work colleague. Secondly, he spent a lot of time dealing with their attitudes and feelings. Thirdly, he helped with non-verbal behaviours like facial expression, upper-body movements, gesture, and posture. Fourthly, he helped learners practise daily on problematic sounds and processes. Lastly, the learners were encouraged to make use of written pronunciation guides in dictionaries. He has not produced any statistical

results on the progress, but he reports that even after a short course his students' progress was clearly noticeable to colleagues.

3.1.7 The Use of Learning Strategies

It is known that successful learners employ certain strategies more than less successful learners. Huang and Naerssen (1987) studied the relation between the use of different learning strategies and the scores for oral communication abilities among the 60 graduating English majors in a tertiary level language institute in the People's Republic of China. The results show that the strategy that distinguished successful EFL learners from less successful ones was functional practice such as speaking with others, thinking in English and reading. The use of learning strategies has been described in chapter two.

3.2 Past Studies on the Acquisition of English Sounds by Japanese learners.

It is difficult to learn phonemes not found in one's first language (Hammerly, 1982). English has /θ/ and /s/ contrast, whereas Japanese does not have separate phonemes /s/ and /θ/ but only /s/. So Japanese learners of English will first extend the boundary of /s/ to cover /θ/ and later as they have more exposure to English they will be able to contrast the two sounds. Many researchers have studied the perception and production of /l/-/r/ by Japanese learners of English. Generally they report production precedes perception and difficulties depend on the position in the word.

Goto (1971) studied the relationship between Japanese speakers' perception and production of English words containing /l/ and /r/ and reports that Japanese participants' production was better than auditory perception.

Miyawaki et al. (1975) found that discrimination of speech stimuli of /la/ and /ra/ by Japanese participants with little exposure to native speaker pronunciation was only slightly better than chance. On the other hand for Americans, discrimination of the same stimuli was nearly categorical.

Mochizuki (1981) reports that Japanese adults could identify the final /r/ and /l/ utterances most of the time (98%) but consonant clusters only 64%.

Following Goto's (1971) experiment Sheldon and Strange (1982) did a similar study, using /r/ and /l/ contrasts in four positions: initial, consonant clusters, inter vocalic (medial) and final positions. Their participants were six highly motivated Japanese learners of English who had received a 10-week intensive course in English. These students were highly motivated to improve their English and spent a large proportion of their time conversing in English. They knew, prior to each test, the list of words in the test and the context in which the critical phoneme would occur. Sheldon and Strage's good speakers (five speakers) on average made 1% mistakes in production. There were considerable individual differences in perceptual performance, but on average errors were made in the final position (2%), initial position (11%), medial position (14%) and consonant clusters (17%).

These studies show that the most difficult position was in the consonant clusters, with least errors being made in the final position. Absence of consonant clusters in Japanese appears to compound the difficulty.

3.3 Comparison of English and Japanese Phonemes

Four phoneme contrasts were selected for this research. They are /θ/-/s /, /l/-/r/, /æ/-/ʌ/ and /ɜ:/-/ɑ:/.

- **/θ/ in contrast with /s/**

Notes on /θ/:

Japanese /θ/

There is no /θ/ consonant in Japanese.

English /θ/

The English /θ/, is a voiceless dental fricative (Gimson, 1994, p. 167). Gimson describes /θ/ in detail.

The soft palate being raised and the nasal resonator shut off, the tip and rims of the tongue make a light contact with the edge and inner surface of the upper incisors and a firmer contact with the upper side teeth...The tongue being relatively flat, the aperture through which the air escapes is in the nature of a slit rather than a groove, which produces fricative noise at a lower frequency than that associated with /s, z/. (pp. 67-168)

Notes on /s/:

Japanese /s/

The Japanese /s/ is a voiceless lamino-alveolar fricative (Akamatsu, 1997, p. 93), and followed by /a/, /u/, /e/ or /o/, but not /i/. Some English loan words such as 'city' are pronounced with /ʃi/ rather than /si/.

English /s/

The English /s/ is a voiceless alveolar fricative (Gimson, 1994, p. 169).

Akamatsu (1997) and Catford (1988) claim the articulation of the Japanese /s/ and the English /s/ to be the same. The difference between /θ/ and /s/ is that /s/ is pronounced "*with the tip and blade of the tongue close to the centre of the alveolar ridge and makes a strong friction, whereas /θ/ is made with the tongue tip near the upper teeth and makes much less friction*" (O'Connor, 1980, p. 32).

It can therefore be predicted that Japanese learners of English will have difficulty in perception and production of /θ/ sound in both initial and final positions.

- **/l/ in contrast with /r/**

Notes on /l/:

Japanese /l/

Fujii (1992) claims that the phoneme /l/ is absent in Japanese. However Akamatsu (1997) claims that Japanese has /l/ between /n/ and a vowel. Akamatsu explains that in the articulation of /n/ "*it is necessary for the closure formed between the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth-ridge (i.e. the apico-alveolar closure) to be sustained till the closure for the following consonant ... Thus the sustainable apico-alveolar closure is shared by [n] and /l/*" (p. 114).

English /l/

Catford (1988) claims that the English /l/ is an apico-alveolar lateral.

The English /l/ is an apico-alveolar lateral approximant, voiced, except after the voiceless stops /p/ and /k/. In addition to these voiceless (or partly voiceless) allophones there are two principal allophones, [l], a slightly palatalized variety of [l], often called 'clear l' occurring before

vowels as in leaf [li'f]... 'dark l' occurring at the ends of syllables, as in feel [fi:l] field [fi:ld] (p. 207).

In New Zealand "dark [l] may occur in all positions" (Gimson, 1994, p. 184).

Notes on /r/:

Japanese /r/

The Japanese /r/ is "a voiced apico-alveolar tap" (Akamatsu, 1997, p. 105).

In the articulation the tip of the tongue is quickly raised, to poise at a short distance behind the teeth-ridge, then is made to shoot forward and downward to hit, just once, the teeth-ridge (p. 118).

English /r/

In English the initial /r/ is post-alveolar approximant but it is alveolar tap in intervocalic positions. In some consonant sequences such as /pr../, /tr../ or /kr../, /r/ is completely or partially devoiced (Gimson, 1994, pp. 186-187).

O'Connor (1980, p. 57) says that in RP (the sort of English used by educated native speakers in south-east England and often referred to as Received Pronunciation) /r/ only occurs before vowels, never before consonants, so words like "learn, sort, farm" do not contain /r/. This is the same in New Zealand English. For this reason the present research does not include the /l/ and /r/ contrast at the final position.

O'Connor explains the differences between /l/ and /r/ as below.

In /l/ there is a very firm contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge, but for /r/ the tongue-tip does not touch the palate at all - it is purely a gliding sound, with no sudden change (p. 61).

The /l/ and /r/ contrast is a very difficult one for Japanese learners of English. It is because the Japanese /l/, a voiced apico-alveolar lateral, and /r/, a voiced apico-alveolar tap are allophones, and they are not recognised as different (Akamatsu, 1997, p. 107). Moreover /r/ is a hard sound to learn for first language speakers too. It is frequently replaced by /w/ and they do not learn it "until the age of 5.0" (Gimson, 1994, p. 189).

Among native learners it is also important to have “*auditory experience of /l/ and /r/ to be able to produce them*” (Zimmermann et al. p. 192).

Vowels

- /æ/ in contrast with /ʌ/

Notes on /æ/:

Japanese /æ/

Akamatsu's (1997) collection of Japanese vowels does not include this vowel, but Fujii (1992, p. 466) claims that this sound appears in an exclamation such as [kjæ:] (shriek).

English /æ/

This vowel is half way between CV3 (cardinal vowel 3) and CV4 (cardinal vowel 4) and more open than /e/. The English vowel /æ/ is described thus:

The mouth is slightly more open than for /e/; the front of the tongue is raised to a position midway between open and open-mid, with the side rims making a very slight contact with the back upper molars: the lips are neutrally open. (Gimson, 1994, p. 103)

Many younger speakers of RP are said to use a more open realization of this vowel around C4 [a]. Since the vowel /ʌ/ has had a tendency in recent years to move forward towards C4 [a], this may occasionally result in a neutralization of /æ/ and /ʌ/ (Gimson, 1994, p. 103).

However, Yallop (1995, p. 48-49) observes that in New Zealand English /æ/ is relatively high (close to CV 3) and New Zealand “catch” may sound like RP “ketch”. According to Batterham's (as cited in Allan and Starks, 2000) chart, this change is happening to people below 30. Because of these claims, both the reader of word-lists and two of three judges in this study are chosen among people who are 35 or over.

Notes on /ʌ/:

Japanese /a/

Japanese /a/ is articulated in the upper low central position. Akamatsu (1997) explains Japanese /a/ in detail:

The mouth is fairly open, as the jaw is reasonably lowered, hence the Japanese /a/ is an open vowel. Tongue lies low and the highest point of the tongue is on the central part of the tongue. The lips are neutrally held. The Japanese /a/ can be said to being halfway between CV4 (i.e. [a]) and CV 5(i.e. [a]) (p. 34).

English /ʌ/

English /ʌ/ is articulated in the low back area. Gimson (1994) explains English /ʌ/ thus,

/ʌ/ is articulated with a considerable separation of the jaws and with the lips neutrally open; the centre of the tongue (or a part slightly in advance of centre) is raised just above the fully open position, no contrast being made between the tongue and the upper molars (p. 104)

Baker (1982) claims that /æ/ is one of the difficult vowels for Japanese learners and could be confused with /e/ (Baker, 1982, p. 147).

In her study, Fujii (1992) reports that /æ/ is one of the very difficult sounds with 55.6% success in word reading.

Isono (1999) studied the acquisition process of English vowels by Japanese speakers and found that vowels that are very similar to Japanese are learned later than sounds that are different. For example Japanese /a/ and English /ʌ/ are very similar but the Japanese sound system does not have /æ/, so Japanese learners usually use Japanese /a/ for both /æ/ and /ʌ/ at first and then master /æ/ before /ʌ/ and even very advanced speakers do not master the English /ʌ/. His study was carried out using acoustic measurement not a listener's judgement.

- **/ɜ:/ in contrast with /ɑ:/**

Notes on /ɜ:/

Japanese /ɜ:/

Japanese does not have this sound.

English /ɜ:/

According to Gimson (1994):

/ɜ:/ is articulated with the centre of the tongue raised between half-closed and half-open, no firm contact being made between tongue and the upper molars; the lips are naturally spread. The quality is, therefore, remote from all peripheral cardinal vowel values (p. 116).

Notes on /a:/

Japanese /a/

Akamatsu (1997) observes:

The Japanese [a] can be described as being half way between CV4 (i.e. C [a]) and CV5 (i.e. C[a]) (p. 34).

The Japanese double vowel /aa/ is said to be very similar to English /ɑ:/. Kenworthy (1987) states:

The double vowel /aa/ in Japanese can be used as a satisfactory substitute for the English /ɑ:/ as in "hard" (p. 150).

English /ɑ:/

/ɑ:/ retracted near to the quality of C[a] is typical of refined RP. (Gimson, 1994, p. 107)

However, in "New Zealand English this sound has more front/central realizations" (Allan and Starks, 2000, p. 63).

In Fujii's (1992) research /ɜ:/ was found to be the hardest vowel for Japanese speakers, having a success rate of only 30%, and was found to be replaced by /a:/ 23% of the time.

Japanese people have difficulty with /ɜ:/ because this sound is absent from Japanese. One of the ESL lecturers at Massey University commented that the absence of /ɜ:/ from speech is one way to distinguish Japanese speakers from other Asian speakers.

3.4 Results of the phoneme tests

Table 3.1 Results of perception tests contrasting /θ/-/s/

Tests	Sounds	Positions	Correct perception group average
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/θ/-/s/	Initial	82 %
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/θ/-/s/	Final	88 %
Identification by listening	/θ/	Initial	78 %
Identification by listening	/θ/	Final	87 %
Identification by listening	/s/	Initial	78 %
Identification by listening	/s/	Final	77 %

The participants discriminated /θ/-/s/ contrasts in the final position (88%) better than in the initial position (82%). It is surprising that final /θ/ was identified more successfully than /s/.

Table 3.2 Results of production tests contrasting /θ/-/s/

Tests	Sounds	Positions	Correct production group average
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/θ/	Initial	79 %
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/θ/	Final	78 %
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/s/	Initial	89 %
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/s/	Final	79 %
Average mimicking			81%
Reading words from a list	/θ/	Initial	84 %
Reading words from a list	/θ/	Final	80 %
Reading words from a list	/s/	Initial	84 %
Reading words from a list	/s/	Final	92 %
Average reading			85%

It appears that /s/ is produced more accurately than /θ/ by the participants. Reading from the list is more accurate than repeating after a tape (85%-81%).

Table 3.3 Results of perception tests contrasting /l/-/r/

Perception tests	Sounds	Positions	Correct perception group average
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/l/-/r/	Initial	80%
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/l/-/r/	Consonant sequences	80%
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/l/-/r/	Inter-vocalic	77%
Identification by listening	/l/	Initial	62%
Identification by listening	/l/	Consonant sequences	71%
Identification by listening	/l/	Inter-vocalic	78%
Identification by listening	/r/	Initial	78%
Identification by listening	/r/	Consonant sequences	66%
Identification by listening	/r/	Inter-vocalic	78%

The perception of both /l/ and /r/ is difficult. However when participants were just discriminating the two similar sounds they were generally more successful than identifying them in isolation.

Table 3.4 Results of production tests contrasting /l/ and /r/

Production test	Sounds	Positions	Correct production group average
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/l/	Initial	79%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/l/	Consonant sequences	77%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/l/	Inter vocalic	68%
Reading words from a list	/l/	Initial	92%
Reading words from a list	/l/	Consonant sequences	86%
Reading words from a list	/l/	Intervocalic	80%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/r/	Initial	86%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/r/	Consonant sequences	75%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/r/	Inter vocalic	75%
Reading words from a list	/r/	Initial	79%
Reading words from a list	/r/	Consonant sequences	81%
Reading words from a list	/r/	Intervocalic	83%

Production of /l/ and /r/ appears to be superior to their perception with the exception of the inter-vocalic position. The word ‘stalling’ appears to be very difficult and this had an impact on the figures. The judges rated production of /l/ in initial position higher than in consonant sequences or in intervocalic positions. Although the number of participants was very small in the present study this result is the same as both Sheldon and Strange (1982) and Taniguchi’s study (1996).

Table 3.5 Results of perception tests contrasting /æ/-/ʌ/

Perception test	Sounds	Correct perception group average
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/æ/-/ʌ/	72%
Identification by listening	/æ/	72%
Identification by listening	/ʌ/	65%

As expected perception of both /æ/ and /ʌ/ were poor.

Table 3.6 Results of production tests contrasting /æ/-/ʌ/

Production test	Sounds	Correct production group average
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/æ/	86%
Reading words from a list	/æ/	73%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/ʌ/	90%
Reading words from a list	/ʌ/	87%

The results of production were significantly better than that of perception. Mimicking of /æ/ seems more accurate than reading words from the list. It might be because participants could mimic the sounds quite accurately without analysing them in their mind very soon after hearing them, but when they read out the words they have to know the articulation more clearly in their mind. This shows the importance of mimicking of dialogues on DVD (This point will be discussed later in chapter seven.). This is a useful tool, because learners can mimic and feel how the sounds are produced even if they cannot say them later by themselves. However because the number of participants is very small, this remains speculative.

Table 3.7 Results of perception tests contrasting /ɜ:/ - /ɑ:/

Perception test	Sounds	Correct perception group average
Discrimination of minimal pairs	/ɜ:/-/ɑ:/	85%
Identification by listening	/ɜ:/	52%
Identification by listening	/ɑ:/	88%

As expected identifying /ɜ:/ in isolation appears to be very difficult. Some participants commented that they didn't notice this contrast before the test.

Table 3.8 Results of production tests contrasting /ɜ:/ - /ɑ:/

Production tests	Sounds	Correct production group average
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/ɜ:/	88%
Reading words from a list	/ɜ:/	73%
Repeating after a tape (mimicking)	/ɑ:/	91%
Reading words from a list	/ɑ:/	85%

Participants were much better in repeating after a tape than reading words from the list. English pronunciation of vowels and spelling are not always the same and some participants might have been tricked by the spelling. Production was significantly better than perception. The test results show that /ɜ:/ is the least successfully pronounced vowel. However, this is not a difficult sound to teach. After the tests I taught a

few participants the correct pronunciation. Within a short period of time, these students were able to recognise and produce this particular sound.

3.5 The results of the reading passage

The distribution of the marks is shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 **The results of the reading passage**

Mean %	Lowest %	Highest %
70.5	34	100

The reading passage highlighted the wide range of reading ability in the group of participants. Three judges rated the reading of a passage. Although two of the judges wrote very few comments on the answer sheet, one of the judges, an ESL teacher, made a detailed comment on each speaker. She commented on the rhythm, linking, word stresses, speed, pauses, intonation, individual sounds, expression, and the ability to self-correct. This shows that when a native speaker judge was assessing 'reading a passage' she tested not only each individual sound of the English language but also the supra-segmental features. She commented that some participants required careful listening and some had pauses too long. This probably explains the fact in the SPSS this proved to be a more reliable test than mimicking or reading words.

4 Methodology

This chapter describes the methods employed to investigate the themes of this thesis. These themes are: the range of language learning strategies used by Japanese learners of English in New Zealand, the factors affecting the choice of strategy, and the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and the proficiency of English pronunciation by Japanese learners.

This chapter first describes the different ways I used to collect data on the use of language learning strategies. Then it describes how I investigate the range of learning strategies and pronunciation tests. Next this chapter describes the participants, native speaker judges, and finally sets out the schedule for the data collection of the study in detail.

4.1 Applied Linguistics Research

Many researchers in the field of language learning strategies have gathered materials from qualitative data through observation in and out of the classroom, intuition of teachers, students' diaries, think-aloud protocol and interviews with both learners and teaching professionals. (Stern, 1975; Naiman et al., 1996; O'Malley et al., 1985a, 1985b; Grenfell and Harris, 1999). There are also many studies based on quantitative methods using SILL (Green and Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000). Recently however some studies have combined both qualitative and quantitative methods (Lunt, 2000).

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) had a target group of 1,200 university students to report on variables affecting strategy use. "*It is desirable to gain access to a relatively large number of participants particularly when investigating the effect of a number of variables on reported strategy use*" (White, 1993, p. 46). However, the number of the participants in the research into strategy use by language learners is usually not big. (Politzer and McGroarty 1985, N= 90; O'Malley et al. 1985a, N= 70; Huang and Naerssen 1987, N= 58) The number of participants for an in-depth interview is usually quite small (Lunt2000, N= 20). For the correlation study Takeuchi (1993) studied 78 university students. The present research has 59 participants overall for the strategy study and of these 26 had interviews and pronunciation tests, so the nature of the investigation in the present study is no more than a pilot study.

4.2 The Present Study

4.2.1 Collection of Initial Data on Learning Strategies

My initial approach was to ask two Japanese speakers of English who are thought to be good speakers of English (one woman and one man):

‘What advice can you give to Japanese people who want to learn English, especially in pronunciation?’

‘How did you study English?’

I interviewed them separately and took notes as they spoke. I was overwhelmed by the amount of information and strategies they referred to and by the way they actively keep on learning and revising their strategies. One said that she still has lessons in English diction, and the other said he still listens to news on the radio and writes down a summary from time to time. In the two interviews I noticed that there were some strategies both of them used and some similarities in their background.

Learning Strategies

1. They consciously manage their learning according to the situation.
2. They are both very musical and believe that being a musician helped them to grasp English rhythm and intonation.
3. Both talked about a compliment paid to them from someone, and the confidence it gave them to continue with their endeavour.
4. At the beginning they had the radio on all the time while they were in their room to listen to English programmes even when they did not understand the content at all.
5. Both are still actively seeking the ways to improve their English.
6. Both actively seek help from people around them for checking their pronunciation, grammar and collocation.

Background Information

1. They learned English in Japan up to university level.
2. In their English classes teachers did not place importance on pronunciation, and spent most of the time in reading, grammar and vocabulary.
3. Both have jobs requiring daily contact with English speaking people.

4. Both have jobs requiring speaking and reading in front of an audience.

However I realised that these two people had very unique learning situations, family background, materials and strategies and audience. I needed a structured instrument to collect information on the use of strategies and background from a large number of Japanese learners of English.

I trialled the eighty-item SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learners) by Oxford (1990) as an instrument, by asking an AFS exchange student. She needed a dictionary to look up several words and it took over 60 minutes to complete. Her English was exceptionally good for her age and experience, so I realised that the eighty-item questionnaire in English is too demanding. I decided to use the Japanese translation to shorten the time, and to avoid misunderstanding of English statements on the SILL and the emotional demand on the participants.

I used a structured and non-structured questionnaire to find out the range of strategies from 6 Japanese volunteers. I chose 30 statements from the fifty-item SILL, which relate to pronunciation practice and a non-structured question about the times when they felt their English improved most. However responses to the non-structured part of the questionnaire were one or two short sentences. They told me that they were very keen to share their ideas about the language learning strategies with others and to try other people's strategies, and that the interview would trigger more ideas. Talking with the volunteers made me realise that study of pronunciation could not be separated from the general study of English language.

The Japanese translation of the fifty-item SILL for ESL/EFL was chosen for the present study, because it is said to have high reliability (Green and Oxford, 1995; Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1993) and it includes the lists of comprehensive strategies in language learning.

4.2.2 Perception and production of English phonemes and reading a passage:

Pronunciation tests were based on perception and production of 28 minimal pairs of English phonemes and on reading a short passage.

Four phonemes were selected:

- (1) /θ/ in contrast with /s/ (2) /l/ in contrast with /r/
(3) /æ/ in contrast with /ʌ/ (4) /ɜ:/ in contrast with /ɑ:/

Their selection was the outcome of:

- Researching selected books on English pronunciation (Kenworthy 1987 and Baker, 1982);
- Consulting ESL teachers at Massey University Wellington;
- Researching a doctoral thesis by Fujii (1992) on Interlanguage Phonology of Japanese Speakers of English in South Wales.
- Consulting books on New Zealand English (Allan and Starks, 2000);
- Availability of minimal pairs within the basic word-lists for Japanese secondary school students according to Kodansha's New World English-Japanese Dictionary (1972).

4.2.3 Twenty-eight Minimal Pairs

To measure productive competence, participants were asked to read words and phrases from the list and also imitate them from a tape. Naiman et al. (1996) successfully used an imitation task (13 syllables long), when measuring syntactic structures of the participants.

The word lists for testing perception and production of English phonemes were chosen carefully. I only chose words which I thought were familiar to high school students. Fujii's (1992) list included unusual words like 'mare', 'bereave', 'lathe' and so on. I tried to avoid orthographical mistakes, because English pronunciation and spelling do not always correspond. One participant who didn't finish high school in Japan said she did not know some words in the reading passage. I did not test her for the reading to avoid the mispronunciation from the spelling and did not put her in an embarrassing situation.

I chose four minimal pairs for the initial position and four pairs for the final position for /θ/-/s/ combination. Unlike Sheldon and Strange (1982), and Taniguchi (1996) I did not include the final position for /r/ - /l/, because the final /r/ is not pronounced in New Zealand English (O'Connor, 1980).

I only chose minimal pairs for this study, because in this way participants have to rely on the sounds rather than the meaning. Two words, 'certainly' and 'only' were added as distracters.

The 58 words were listed at random for reading and repeating.

Six phrases were added to measure the difference between isolated words and phrases, so that readers could guess the pronunciation from the meaning and the spelling: for example 'traffic light'.

4.2.4 Reading Passage

I tried to find a reading passage, which included all the phonemes I was testing and which was also within the vocabulary range of high school students. It was difficult to choose a passage suitable for all the participants. So I finally wrote a story based on a real experience in a narrative style making it easy to read. It was short but long enough to provide a language sample for assessment. I chose a 'danger-of-death' story so that participants would feel less apprehensive about being tested on difficult sounds or being recorded. Originally I was going to use this passage as a natural lead for the next question about a 'danger-of-death' story. It is important to collect data on different communicative tasks, which reflect different speech styles, e.g., spontaneous conversation, elicitation, oral reading, and grammaticality judgments (Tarone, 1979). However I felt that some participants might feel awkward telling a story in English in front of a Japanese researcher, so I deleted the story telling from this research.

I based the assessment grid for the reading passage based on the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate FCE Speaking Test –Analytical Scales, 1997). I made the scale of one to five so that a non- ESL teacher could manage the assessment.

4.3 Participants

The Japanese community in Wellington is not large. There were 686 Japanese nationals registered at the Japanese Embassy in Wellington (October, 2000). Among them there were students at high school, polytechnic or university, in mainstream and ESL courses, people on a working holiday visa, professionals and long term residents and Japanese children born in New Zealand. Some of the ESL students in Wellington stay for a short time (2-3 weeks) as part of their inter-cultural experience

during their summer holiday, others attend ESL classes at high school or public and private language schools for six to 12 months. After that many of them move into mainstream tertiary courses in wide fields such as music, tourism and hospitality, religious studies, social welfare, design and psychology. Most of the professionals and permanent residents go to ESL classes when they first arrive in this country. Most of the long time residents had university education in Japan and they are studying, working or nurturing their families in New Zealand. Most of the long term residents maintain Japanese language at home with their children or with other Japanese friends, but speak English daily with non-Japanese people around them. So one can safely say that ESL students have had the least exposure to English, followed by those who are studying in mainstream tertiary courses while the professionals and permanent residents have the longest exposure to English.

4.3.1 Selection of participants

With a view to finding suitable participants, I explained my research to teachers at Massey University. At Massey University in Wellington participants were contacted through their teachers and received an Information Sheet and Consent Form. When I received the consent form back I gave the SILL questionnaire to the participants. An interview and the pronunciation tests were administered to those who were willing to participate and signed a consent form.

I gave participants the information sheets to give to others who might agree to take part in the study, and they subsequently contacted me. Long-term residents were contacted through a Japanese women's club. In the end most of the people were contacted through a social network of participants. One participant introduced several people through her work and study. Another introduced a number of people through her son's playgroup. The advantage of using this technique was that participants were aware of the purpose of the research and were willing to answer the questionnaire and enthusiastic in discussing their use of strategies at the interview.

However it was difficult to find sufficient volunteers to do the pronunciation tests. Some people felt uneasy at having their reading recorded and doing an identification test. Thus, of the 59 who performed the questionnaires only 26 volunteered to participate in the interview and pronunciation tests.

4.3.2 Characteristics of Participants

The following background information was collected in stage 3 of this research (see appendix B for the background questionnaire).

Age

The participants in the study ranged in age from 15 to 55 with a mean age of 19.

Gender

Out of the 59 participants in the study, 23 (39%) were male and 36(61%) were female.

Age at arrival in New Zealand

The youngest was 14 and the oldest was 54. None of the participants arrived before puberty and only two people arrived after 32.

Length of time living in New Zealand

23 people (39%) had lived in New Zealand less than a month and 29 people (49%) less than a year. 15 people (25%) lived in New Zealand for more than 4 years. The longest period lived in New Zealand was 30 years.

Prior education before coming to New Zealand

Five participants (9%) did not finish high school in Japan. 11 people (19%) had education up to high school in Japan. 36% of the participants are half way through undergraduate non-English classes. 12 people (20%) majored in a non-English subject in a university in Japan. 5 people (9%) had majored in English at a university in Japan.

Table 4.1 Proficiency in English while at junior high school

Scale	1 very poor	2 poor	3 average	4 good	5 excellent
English Proficiency	6 people (10.3 %)	10 people (17.2 %)	24 people (41.4%)	13 people (22.4 %)	5 people (8.6 %)

Table 4.2 Enjoyment of English classes

Scale	1 Really not enjoyable	2 Not enjoyable	3 Ok	4 Enjoyable	5 Very enjoyable
Enjoyment of English classes	12 people (22.4%)	12 people (22.4 %)	22 people (37.9 %)	9 people (15.5 %)	3 people (5.2%)

Only 12 (21%) report some enjoyment of English at school.

Length of time studying in English classes in New Zealand (ESL and mainstream classes)

31 people (53.4%) studied in New Zealand less than a month. 36 people (62.1%) had up to a year in an English class in New Zealand.

Table 4.3 Importance of good pronunciation

	1 not important	2	3	4	5 very important
At high school	31 people (53.4%)	12 people (20.7%)	14 people (24.1%)	6 people (10.3%)	6 people (10.3%)
Now	0 people (0%)	0 people (0%)	9 people (15.5%)	12 people (20.7%)	32 people (55.2%)

There is a notable difference in the rating importance of good pronunciation now and the way in which they perceived it while they were in high school.

Type of practice in Japanese high schools

Participants reported that they mainly did tasks in grammar and reading practice in their English classes and least time was spent in speaking exercises.

4.4 Native Speaker Judges and Instruction

Three native speaker judges (two ESL teachers and one native speaker without ESL training) rated pronunciation tests. All judges were born and educated in New Zealand but have exposure to foreign accents. Two judges spent 15 months to 24 months in Japan teaching English. The other judge has been exposed to some Dutch. Three of them thought that they had normal hearing. To avoid the broad New Zealand dialect I chose three professional people.

4.4.1 Training the Judges

I provided the judges with the information sheet and discussed the aims and methods of rating and how to fill in the marking sheets. They understood the processes. I made sure their listening facilities were adequate. All judges were instructed to have a break between tapes to avoid fatigue.

4.5 Discarding of Responses and the Test Results

One of the SILL responses was discarded because the last page was not completed.

Three participants did not complete pronunciation tests and their test results were not included in the statistics.

4.6 Schedule of Data Collection

The collection of the SILL, background information, English proficiency tests, and qualitative data from the participants was carried out as outlined below:

Stage 1

Making an application and getting approval of the research from the Massey University Ethics Committee;

Stage 2

Making a recording for the discrimination test and the model for word repetition;

Stage 3

The collection of biographical information and responses to the SILL version 7.0 through a questionnaire;

Stage 4

Testing perception and recording of word lists and the reading passage;

Stage 5

The gathering of information through individual interviews;

Stage 1 Making an Application and getting approval of the research plan from the Massey University Ethics Committee

The application included an information sheet, two consent forms (one for the collection of biographical information and SILL and one for the pronunciation tests and interview), word lists, a reading passage, method of selecting participants, requirement of the participants, and the security and disposal of document after the completion of the research. Participants' confidentiality was assured.

I had to reapply to the committee, because the committee wanted me to contact participants through a third party. I changed the content of the questionnaire too. The committee also wanted me to make a payment to the participants. Hence each participant who did stage 4 and 5 received a book token of \$10.00. I think this suggestion was a wise one, because it made it easier to get volunteers for the interview and the tests. The payment, although token in amount, helped the candidates realize that they were assisting with an objective research project, not a potentially embarrassing personal assessment.

Stage 2 Making a Recording for the Discrimination Test and the Model for Repetition

The word list was recorded by a New Zealand born and educated Massey lecturer whose relatively neutral accent had proven to be easily understood. The recording was made in a recording room at Massey University at Wellington. It was then tested for clarity by four native speakers of New Zealand English (two males and two females). Adjustments were made so that there was enough time for the participants to fill in the gaps. Recording was repeated several times until native speaker listeners were happy with the quality of recording and had scored 100% in the discrimination test.

Stage 3 The Collection of Biographical Information and Responses to the SILL version 7.0 through a questionnaire

First all participants were asked to provide biographical information such as age, gender, enjoyment and proficiency of English classes in Japan. (Appendix B: Background Questionnaire). Then all the participants were asked to indicate how often they use particular language learning strategies by using a five-point scale, to a 50 statement questionnaire in Japanese translation (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), (Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL), for Speakers of Other Languages Learning

English) (Oxford, 1990) (see Appendix A). Most of the participants did this stage 3 at home. In the case of students at Massey University the class teachers collected the background information and the SILL questionnaires. Some participants sent the biographic information sheet and the SILL questionnaire back to me at Massey University. Some participants did this stage 3 before the pronunciation test. It took about 30 minutes to complete stage 3, which was considerably shorter than the Lunt's study (2000) where the English version was used.

Stage 4 Testing Perception and Recording of Word Lists and Reading Passage

Out of 59 participants 26 volunteered for stage 4 and stage 5. The microphone was checked for volume.

1. The participants listened to words and phrases (Appendix E (c)) through an earphone and repeated them on another tape using a lapel microphone.
2. The participants read the word list silently once (Appendix E (d)) and recorded them once, with a small gap in between.
3. The participants listened to words on the tape and discriminated them by filling in gaps on an answer sheet. (Appendix E (a))
4. The participants read a passage in English (Appendix E (e)) silently first and when they were ready they recorded the passage once.
5. The participants listened to the same word list and identified the words. (Appendix E (c))

The participant had a short rest between the activities to avoid tiredness. Participants were encouraged to ask if there were any questions about the tests.

Stage 5 The gathering of information through individual interviews

Because the patterns of strategy use are said to change with the development of proficiency in the second language (Green and Oxford, 1995), in this part of the research learners in four groups were included:

Table 4.4 Participants in the individual interviews

Short term ESL students (less than 1 month)	Long term ESL students (more than 1 month)	Students in mainstream courses	Long term residents
5 participants (participants 5,10,16,17,22)	6 participants (participants 2,3,7,14,24,25)	7 participants (participants 1,4,9,12,13,19,20)	8 participants (participants 6,8,11,15,18,21,23,26)

The interview was carried out in Japanese (the participants' and my L 1), thus the interviews were relaxed and informative. Participants of all levels could participate fully and give their account of strategy use.

Interview

The interview was conducted immediately after the pronunciation tests so that participants could think about how they go about learning English. The interviews were recorded on audiotape. I took notes during the interview and after the interview and translated the notes into English while listening to the tape. The length of interview ranged from thirty minutes to four hours depending on the amount of comments the participants made, and the availability of time for both the interviewer and the participants. Some participants had very little to comment on and others showed that they carefully planned, used and evaluated the strategies all the time. Some participants volunteered further interviews so they could talk in more detail. The structure of the interview was as follows:

1. Introduction and get to know you

I explained that the purpose of this part of the study was to improve the strategy instrument and to collect further information on how they learn English.

I tried to make the interview as friendly as possible so that participants could talk freely. The participants were encouraged to talk about their learning experience in general as well as their comments on the SILL.

2. Questions and comments on the SILL

I asked whether the participants had any questions or comments to make about the SILL statements. Participants were encouraged to talk about

the SILL statements so that they could explain in detail how they use these strategies.

3. Advice to beginning students

I asked the participants:

“If you have to give advice to a Japanese person who is going to study English in New Zealand, what would you suggest to them?”

Participants’ anecdotal comments have been used in many studies on learning strategies (Nayak et al. 1990; White, 1993). Some of the disadvantages of these are

- 1 Participants may not report their strategy use accurately. For example they may forget to mention some strategies, which are so automatic and routinized.
- 2 Participants may claim to use strategies they perceive ideal learners do, not what they in fact do. (White, 1993, p. 76)

Garner (1988, p. 70) suggests the following guidelines, which produce more reliable data for interpretation:

- a. Ask learners to report on specific events, not on hypothetical situations
- b. Ask learners what they do and think, not why
- c. Use multi-method assessment

In the present study “*subjects are ... talking about their strategy use to another... who is about to embark on similar tasks...it also allows learners to reflect on the aspects of their strategy use which they consider to be significant*” (White, 1993, pp. 78-79).

5 Analyses of Reliability

5.1 Reliability Analysis of the SILL data

In order to guarantee the reliability of data, SPSS (1996) was used to perform reliability tests (Cronbach alpha for internal consistency and item-total correlation) on:

1. Overall results (internal consistency of 50 SILL questions)
2. Each of the six subscales

The guidelines for acceptable values were as follows:

5.1.1 Reliability Coefficients

In two similar studies (Park, 1997; Lunt, 2000), reliability coefficients for the six SILL subscales ranged from 0.48 to 0.87. In the Lunt study (2000), it was decided that the level of reliability was deemed adequate at a level of 0.65. The selection of an acceptable level is, to a degree, arbitrary and it was decided for the purpose of the present study that values close to 0.65 or higher would be accepted.

5.1.2 Item-total correlations

Further reliability analysis was performed on all subscales to check item-total correlations. Lunt (2000, p. 66) suggests a minimum value of 0.25 but 0.3 has been suggested in other literature (Hughes, 1989). In the present study values at or above 0.25 were deemed to be satisfactory.

5.1.3 Summary of analysis

The overall reliability coefficient of the current instrument was found to be good (0.93). This result was within the range of other researchers (Lunt, 0.86; Green and Oxford, 0.93-0.98).

The Table 5.1 gives the reliability indices for each of the six subscales. The results range from 0.62 to 0.89. Two subscales, Compensation (0.62) and Affective (0.63) did not reach the satisfactory level of 0.65.

Table 5.1 Reliability Index of SILL subscales

Subscale	Cronbach Alpha	> 0.65 Reliability index
A (Memory 9 items)	0.69	
B (Cognitive 14 items)	0.89	
C (Compensation 6 items.)	0.62	x
D (Metacognitive 9 items.)	0.82	
E (Affective 6 items.)	0.63	x
F (Social 6 items.)	0.77	

- Subscale A (Memory)

The reliability index of the Memory subscale was 0.69. This was considered to be satisfactory because it was above the level of 0.65.

On further analysis however, Strategy 6 stood out as being inconsistent with the rest of the subscale. Strategy 6 had an item-total correlation of just 0.0091, which was well below both the desirable level of at least 0.25, and the actual item-total correlations of the other 8 variables in this subscale. It was thus decided to remove Strategy 6 from the subscale, and that raised the Cronbach alpha value from 0.69 to 0.74.

- Subscale B (Cognitive)

The reliability index of the Cognitive subscale was 0.89. All items had item-total correlation of 0.3 or higher. The subscale was deemed to be reliable.

- Subscale C (Compensation)

The reliability index of this subscale was 0.62. However Strategy 26 was the only item out of the six to have item-total correlation less than 0.3 that suggested that the remaining five items might be more cohesive than the current six. Strategy 26 was deleted which raised the Cronbach alpha value of 0.64, which was deemed to be satisfactory.

- Subscale D (Metacognitive)

The overall reliability of this subscale was 0.82 and all items had item-total correlation of 0.3 or higher. The subscale was deemed to be reliable.

- Subscale E (Affective)

The overall reliability of the Subscale E was 0.63. Strategy 43 was the only variable in the subscale to have item-total correlation of less than 0.3 (0.18) and deleting the item raised the overall consistency of the subscale to 0.66. With this modification the subscale was deemed to have attained the required level of consistency.

- Subscale F (Social)

The reliability index for the Social subscale was 0.77 and met the overall reliability requirement. At the item level Strategy 47 was the only item not to have an item-total correlation level above 0.25 (0.24). However, it was decided to retain Strategy 47 in this subscale because;

1. The item-total correlation was close to 0.25, which was judged to be an acceptable level by Lunt.
2. Removal of the item did not increase the Alpha Cronbach value by very much from its already acceptable value of 0.77(increased to 0.80).

5.1.4 Summary of subscale modifications

Table 5.2 Modified SILL subscales and consistency index

Strategy subscales	Removed items	Resulting consistency index
A Memory	Strategy 6	0.74
B Cognitive	No change	0.89
C Compensation	Strategy 26	0.64
D Metacognitive	No change	0.82
E Affective	Strategy 43	0.66
F Social	No change	0.77

All subsequent analysis was performed on the dataset with the above modifications.

5.1.5 Possible Causes of Inconsistencies (strategies 6, 26 and 43)

(Memory) Strategy 6 I use flash cards to remember new English words

Some participants mentioned that they were not sure of the meaning of “*furasshukaado*” ‘flashcards’ but it turned out that their guess was right.

The fact that some of the participants were not sure of the statement's meaning might have influenced their answers.

(Compensation) Strategy 26 I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English

I cannot think of any reasons why the result of this strategy did not relate to other strategies in the compensation subscale.

(Affective) Strategy 43 I write down my feelings in a language learning diary

Two of the past researchers found a low usage of this strategy (Lunt, 2000; Takeuchi, 1993). In Takeuchi's study on Japanese university students this was the least used strategy. In the present study it was surprising to find that participants in the short-term ESL course rated this strategy significantly higher than the other participants. I felt that this was an unexpected behaviour for this group. On talking to one of the teachers of this class it was discovered that keeping a language learning diary was the homework set for this course that was probably why the results were so high. It appears that the results for Strategy 43 reflected the homework that happened to be set for the short term ESL students in the study rather than indicating what strategies the participants would usually employ in self-directed learning. This may have been the reason why this question was inconsistent with the compensation subscale.

After removing the above three strategies the modified questionnaire had 47 remaining questions. A summary of the modified data follows:

5.1.6 Summary Table of Reliability of Subscales (N= 58)

Table 5.3 Summary Table of Reliability of Subscales (N= 58)

Strategy subscales	The number of questions	Modified Cronbach reliability index	Subscale is reliable
A Memory	8	0.74	Yes
B Cognitive	14	0.89	Yes
C Compensation	5	0.64	Yes
D Metacognitive	9	0.82	Yes
E Affective	5	0.66	Yes
F Social	6	0.77	Yes

All subsequent analysis was performed on the above data set.

5.2 Reliability of English pronunciation Tests (Perception and Production of English phonemes and a reading).

Five pronunciation tests were carried out for participants one to twenty six. These tests were in two parts:

The perception tests (see appendix E (a) and (b))

1. phoneme discrimination test
2. identifying phonemes

The production tests (see appendix E (c), (d) and (e))

1. repeating words (mimicking the model on the tape)
2. reading words from a list
3. reading a passage

5.2.1 Overall reliability

An overall reliability test was performed on the five pronunciation tests. The Cronbach alpha value was 0.87, which indicated good internal consistency.

5.2.2 Reliability of the three judges

Three judges marked each of the production tests. The candidates' total scores were taken as the average over the three judges. Some analysis was performed to assess the fairness and consistency of this scoring method.

The scatter plots (see appendix F (a), (b) and (c)) show a pair-wise comparison of the judges' ratings. These indicate that there was generally a strong relationship between the three scores given to each candidate.

A more formal analysis was made by calculating intra-class correlation coefficients (see Everitt (1999) for details). These were calculated from a GLM (General Linear Model) with factors Judge and Participant. There was assumed to be no interaction effect between judge and participant. Essentially the intra-correlation coefficient indicates the proportion of variation due to the underlying factor of interest (in this case the

proficiency of the students). Other sources of variation in the model are assumed to be observation errors and a judge effect. Results:

Table 5.4 Intra-class correlation coefficient of three production tests

Test	Intra-class correlation coefficient
Production test 1 Repeating words test (mimicking)	0.72
Production test 2 Read words test	0.82
Production test 3 Reading passage test	0.85

The reading passage test and read words test show a satisfactory degree of fairness but the repeating test is not so convincing. Causes for the unwanted variation may have been:

1. difficulties in quantifying the level of correctness in a consistent way and
2. a greater range in the tolerance level of the judges.

ESL teachers may be more attuned to the speech patterns of that particular group of learners and therefore be more sympathetic to a fully comprehensible if not entirely native way of speaking. The difference between what could be regarded as a completely natural enunciation and a very good one can be extremely subtle and difficult to distinguish in the context of a single word. It appears that the judges were more in agreement when the candidates were asked to read an entire passage. This was a more exacting test that appeared to separate the candidates into more easily distinguishable ability groups. Factors such as speed, fluency, word groups, stress, rhythm and intonation through a meaningful phrase gave the judges more clues as to the underlying verbal proficiency of the student than a single word.

6 Results of Quantitative Surveys

First, this chapter presents results from the analysis of the SILL responses. Secondly, the SILL data, background information and proficiency tests are used to explore the following relationships:

1. Relationship between SILL usage and the background factors
2. Relationship between SILL usage and proficiency in pronunciation

6.1 Abbreviations used in Chapter six and the Appendix

The following Table shows the abbreviations used. All statistics were calculated as explained in the methodology section.

Table 6.1 Abbreviations

Statistic	Description	Maximum value
SILL_TOTAL	Measure of total SILL score with equal weight given to each subscale	30
S_TOT_5	SILL_TOTAL divided by 6	5
MEM/COG/.../SOC	MEM/COG/.../SOC average with reliability modifications where appropriate (see chapter 4)	5
PROF_TOT	Average of 5 proficiency tests on pronunciation	100

6.2 Analysis of the SILL

Table 6.2 summarises the S_TOT_5 data over 58 participants.

Table 6.2 SILL total mean score

Sill total	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	STD deviation
S_TOT_5	1.3	4.2	3.0	0.60

The box-plot of the S_TOT_5 data (Appendix G (a)) indicates that four low scores were identified as outliers by SPSS. Apart from these outliers the scores were distributed fairly symmetrically. The mean score of the total SILL is 3.0. According to Oxford's (1990) criteria, this is medium use.

Box-plots of the SILL scores for each subscale are shown in Appendix G (b). There is some overlap between all the box-plots, which suggests that the subscale scores were not dissimilar. From this initial analysis it appeared that the COMP (compensation strategies) were generally higher than the rest. The SOC (social strategies) subscale has the greatest number of outliers (three). These fall both above and below the outermost values of around 1.5 and 4.6. All the subscales appear to be reasonably symmetrical about their medians.

The SILL subscale data is summarised in Table 6. 3 (58 participants).

Table 6. 3 The SILL subscale data

	Mean	Std deviation
Memory	2.5	0.70
Cognitive	3.0	0.80
Compensation	3.6	0.73
Metacognitive	2.8	0.75
Affective	2.9	0.83
Social	3.2	0.87

According to Oxford's (1990) criteria, the results show high use of the compensation subscale. The memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social categories are classed as having medium use.

In Table 6. 3 this result is compared with the similar studies of Japanese university students (see 2.9.1) learning English.

Table 6. 4 Comparison of the present SILL scales with other studies

	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
1	2.5	3.0	3.6	2.8	2.9	3.2
2	2.4	2.6	3.0	2.6	1.9	2.6
3	2.6	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.1

1. Present study 2. Mochizuki's study (1999) 3. Takeuchi's study (1993)

Table 6. 4 shows that in all three studies the subscale with the highest reported use was compensation. With the exception of memory, participants in this study reported a higher use of strategies in all categories than the EFL students in Mochizuki's and Takeuchi's studies.

When learners use English for face-to-face communication they have to use more social and compensation strategies. Demands and opportunities of studies in ESL and mainstream classes require more cognitive strategies to practise in a natural way. When learners come from teacher-centered classes to learner-centered classes they have to manage their

own learning (metacognitive strategies). They would also face successes and breakdowns in communication that are more memorable to them so that they report to others or give rewards to themselves (affective strategies).

In this study the memory strategies had the lowest reported use. It may be that they use the memory strategies automatically and that is why they were not reported.

The reported rank order of the 47 strategy statements which remained after discarding three statements (6, 26 and 43) is shown in Appendix G(c).

6.3 Relationships between SILL and Background Data

Biographical information was collected from the participants. Based on their responses participants were assigned a score from 1 to 5 in various categories. I focused on the following factors as being of interest with respect to strategy usage.

- gender (gen)
- age (age)
- length of time studying in English classes in New Zealand (edu_nz)
- proficiency in English at junior high school and SILL total
- importance of good pronunciation in New Zealand (imp_pro_n)
- importance of good pronunciation in Japan (imp_pro_j)

I wished to examine possible relationships between each of these background variables and the total SILL score (SILL_TOTAL).

6.3.1 Gender effect on strategy use

I decided not to attempt a test for significant gender effect as the two populations were very differently characterised with respect to other background factors. For example members of the male population were generally younger than their female counterparts and were less educated in New Zealand. Both these factors were found to be significantly correlated with SILL (see below) and could have masked or enhanced any gender effect.

6.3.2 Correlations analysis

Spearman and Pearson correlations were calculated between the SILL_TOTAL and the remaining five background factors. Significant correlations were found by SPSS between:

(1% significance level)

- length of time studying in English classes in New Zealand and SILL total
- proficiency in English at junior high school and SILL total
- importance of good pronunciation in New Zealand and SILL total

(5% significance level)

- age and SILL total

These results are discussed below.

Length of time studying in English classes in New Zealand and SILL total

SPSS found a significant correlation at the 1% level between the SILL total scores and the length of education in New Zealand in ESL and mainstream classes. Most participants attended ESL classes when they arrived in New Zealand with some of them going on to mainstream classes. It could be speculated that in the mainstream classes the expectation and demand of the courses becomes greater and more complex. The participants realised the need to improve their pronunciation more so that they could communicate with non-ESL teachers and other students. This may have led them to use more learning strategies.

Most of the ESL students on a short intercultural experience were here not only for the English study but also for the inter-cultural experience. These students came here as part of a group. The rest of the participants were in New Zealand on their own and had to develop and experiment with their own learning strategies to cope with the academic demands of their classes. These strategies were also vital for them to build up their social network among other students and people in wider English speaking community.

Proficiency in English while at junior high school and SILL total

The reason for this correlation is probably that those who were good at English while at high school had an experience of success in this subject. This may have encouraged them to keep on learning the language and to try harder. They probably have a more positive attitude to learning English and feel more confident that they can make something of learning English and communicating with others. As a result they use the strategies more frequently than those who had less success.

Importance of good pronunciation in New Zealand and SILL total

This result is not surprising at all. Those who regard pronunciation as important have stronger motivation to improve their pronunciation, which results in more frequent use of strategies.

Age

A weaker correlation was found between age and the SILL total (5% significance level). This may have been because the older people in this research are those who had more exposure to English, more education in New Zealand and longer education in Japan. This result may be due to these other factors.

6.4 Relationships between SILL and Proficiency test data

The results of the pronunciation proficiency tests over the 23 participants is summarised in table 6.5.

Table 6.5 The results of pronunciation proficiency tests

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
PROF_TOT	49	97	75.3	13.95

A box-plot of this data (see appendix H 1) shows that the PROF_TOT scores were distributed fairly symmetrically and no outliers were identified by SPSS.

For the purpose of exploring relationships between proficiency and strategy usage the participants were divided into three proficiency levels –low, med, high – on the basis of their PROF_TOT scores. The division of the groups is shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6. 6 Three proficiency levels of participants

	Range	Number of participants
LOW	49-69	8
MED	70-84	7
HIGH	85-100	8

Box plots were made to summarise the above proficiency groupings (see appendix H 2).

Scatter plots were made to check visually for any relationships between the SILL results (total and subscale) and the proficiency data (see appendix I (a)-(g)).

No striking relationships were apparent from the scatter plots. It was thought however that there might be a weak correlation evident between COG and proficiency level. Correlation analysis was made to clarify this speculation. Before doing so it was decided to remove participant number 16 from further study because this participant stood out in most of the graphs as having consistently and significantly lower scores than the other candidates. It was felt that participant 16's scores might skew the correlation results.

Both Pearson and Spearman correlations between the SILL scores (total and subscale) and the proficiency level were calculated. A significant correlation (5%, two-tailed) was found between the cognitive strategies and proficiency level. No other significant correlations were found between any SILL score and the proficiency level.

7 Results of Qualitative Survey

This chapter deals with the qualitative data gathered during the one-to-one interviews in stage 5. First, the chapter describes the misunderstandings and problems in answering the SILL. Secondly, it discusses the comments made by the participants on the SILL. Thirdly, it reports the non-SILL strategies suggested by the participants.

7.1 Misunderstandings and Difficulties in Answering the SILL

Through the interviews some misunderstanding of the SILL statements was revealed even though I used the Japanese translation of the SILL to avoid a “*confounding language effect*” (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

The participants misunderstood the following five statements in the SILL.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Strategy 22 I try not to translate word-for-word

Strategy 25 When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures

More detail on the difficulties with each strategy is given below.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Out of twenty-two people who commented on the Strategy 5 fourteen (63.6%) revealed that they did not understand the meaning of the Japanese word “*in*”(rhyme). They thought the meaning to be rhythm, pronunciation, Japanese words with similar sounds, accent and metaphor. Only 2 people out of 22 could explain the meaning of “*in*” with examples. Participant 14 (a Japanese language teacher) explained “*in*” in terms of grammatical suffixes such as ...ing /...ful / in English and present tense verbs ending “*..iru*” in Japanese like “*miru, kiru, okiru*”.

Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words

Six people asked me to clarify the meaning of 'flash cards' at the interview, but it turned out that all of them guessed the meaning correctly.

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Twenty participants out of twenty-six made a comment on Strategy 19. Seven participants (participants 7, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22 and 23) thought that the statement referred to "katakana" words that are similar to the new English word. Loan words from European languages including English are written in "Katakana" in Japanese. Japanese and English do not belong to the same language family and "katakana" words could be the only words that are similar.

A different group of seven participants (3, 8, 9, 10, 11, 20 and 26) said that the meaning of Strategy 19 was:

"I look for Japanese words which completely fit the meaning of the new English words."

The difference between the first and the second group of participants reflects differences in view among learned writers. Lunt (2000, 228 et seq.) takes the same view as the first group, while Watanabe (1990, p. Appendix page 4) shares the same view as the second group.

Participant 14 said,

"I look for Japanese words which sound the same as the new English words such as, "oniisan" and "knee".

Participants 4 and 6 reported,

"I look for a Japanese equivalent of new slang young people use."

Two participants (2 and 24) said that they did not understand the statement."

Strategy 22 I try not to translate word-for-word

Eight participants (1,9,10,12,17,23, 24, and 25) said that they were not sure about the meaning of “*chikugoyaku*” in the Japanese translation. But when they were told about the meaning of Strategy 22, some of them said that they guessed “*chikugoyaku*” to be ‘translate word-for-word’. However some did misunderstand the meaning. For example participant 9 asked me to change the rating from 1 to 5 when he understood the meaning.

Strategy 25 When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures

Strategy 25 is one of the high frequency compensation strategies in the present study. Four of the fluent speakers (participants 1, 11, 18 and 26) reported that they use it frequently, however during the interview they revealed that they do not use it as a compensation strategy at all. In their opinion the use of gesture is one of the characteristics of communication with English speaking people. They said that they do not use gestures to compensate for their poor English. If they cannot find a word in a conversation, they will use other words or phrases to explain.

Perhaps these learners didn't read the first part of the Strategy 25.

Participant 11 said:

“I don't use gestures much when I speak Japanese, but I do when I speak English like Kiwis around me. I think using gesture is a part of English communication.”

On the other hand ESL students rated the Strategy 25 high. They use this technique to compensate for the lack of vocabulary.

Participant 12, an ESL student, said:

“When I can't think of a word I use gestures and act out the situation to people. I try anything.”

Summary of misunderstandings of the SILL

Although the questionnaire was administered in Japanese, some misunderstandings of the questionnaire were found through the interview afterward. It shows the importance of pre-testing and interviewing the participants to check whether they understood the questions. One

participant (participant 2) revealed that she always rated 1 in the scale of 5 when she did not understand the meaning of the statement. In the memory category many people misunderstood Strategy 5 and 6. That is 2 statements out of 9. I recommend the use of “I do not understanding the question.” in the questionnaires.

7.2 Analysis of Comments Made by Participants on SILL

During the interview participants made comments on the SILL statements. Some comments were made by many participants, but others were made only by one or two participants. I have included them, because I thought that they were important observations.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words

Strategy 7 I physically act out new English words

Strategy 10 I say or write new English words several times

Strategy 12 I practise the sounds of English

Strategy 15 I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or movies spoken in English

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Strategy 22 I try not to translate word-for-word

Strategy 32 I pay attention when someone is speaking English

Strategy 39 I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English

Strategy 41 I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English

Strategy 48 I ask for help from English speakers

Each of these strategies is discussed below.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

As mentioned above, not many participants understood this strategy. Once the learners understood the meaning it was clear that they did not use the strategy at all. They thought it is too hard to think of rhyming words. Participant 11 said:

“My knowledge of English is too poor to make use of this strategy. My teacher used to use this strategy in class. She worked out difficult sounds for each of us and wrote many sentences with many words with similar sounds. These sentences were fun. I was having difficulty with these sounds so it was useful and enjoyable. But I don’t use this strategy when I’m by myself, because I can’t find words which will rhyme with the word I want to remember.”

Summary of Strategy 5

It may be that Japanese speakers do not use this strategy because they do not use rhyme in their own language. It is not easy for a learner to collect rhyming words together on his/her own. This might be an area where a teacher can help students.

Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words

Table 7.1 Reported use of flashcards at high school and now

	Reported use of flashcards	Reported non-use of flashcards
At high school	12 participants	6 participants
Now	0 participants	18 participants

Twelve participants said that they used to use the Strategy 6 while they were at high school but not now. Participant 25 reported that her teacher recommended it to her and used flashcards in class but she never tried it herself.

Participants reported that they used to write meaning, pronunciation, accent and collocation on flashcards.

Two learners reported benefits of using flashcards:

"I learned spelling and meaning by using flashcards." (Participants 3 and 23)

The reasons for not using the flashcards any more:

"It takes too much time." (Participants 8 and 23)

"I can't remember words, even if I make cards." (Participants 14 and 24)

"I forget words quickly even if I learn them." (Participant 3)

"Spelling is no longer an issue." (Participants 19 and 23)

"It's too mechanical and boring." (Participant 24)

"Just knowing the meaning and the spelling in isolation does not help me use the words." (Participants 19 and 23)

Some learners (participants 5, 8, 19, 21, 23) reported that they found better strategies, including:

"I read more on the same topic, like Time or a newspaper."
(Participants 19 and 23)

"I carry a vocabulary book I bought, because it has all the words I need. It's easy to carry and I don't have to make cards or word lists myself." (Participant 5)

"I make a mark on the words in my dictionary, I try harder when three marks are on a word." (Participant 21)

"I could learn words by just making the list and reading them silently." (Participant 21)

Two participants (15 and 20) who rated 4 on Strategy 6 did not make any comment at the interview, and I did not pursue the point.

Summary of Strategy 6

Many of the learners in the present study reported the use of the Strategy 6 earlier at high school where translation from English to Japanese and spelling were important parts of assessments. However learning words in a mechanical and isolated way is no longer regarded as useful by them in New Zealand. They report this strategy as being useless and boring. They prefer the functional practices, such as reading articles or watching TV on the same topic so that they come across the same new words many times in a meaningful and memorable way. They reported that they could remember the context where the new word was used before.

The number of participants in this study is too small to make any conclusive claims, but it might be that Strategy 6 is a strategy more often used by beginning students or by students facing an examination.

Strategy 7 I physically act out new English words

Strategy 7 was not used much by the present group of learners. In other studies (Takeuchi, 1993 and Lunt, 2000) this was one of the least used strategies by Japanese university students (Takeuchi, 1993) and immigrants to Australia (Lunt, 2000). Some of the comments made by the group during the interview are as follows

"I don't use this strategy, because I'm trying to learn English through words." (Participant 3)

"I don't know how to act out words." (Participant 4)

"At the beginning of learning English I used this strategy with shapes and sizes of things." (Participant 9)

"I don't use this for memory." (Participant 10)

"There are so many words which are difficult to physically act out." (Participant 20)

Summary of Strategy 7

Contrary to these findings in my beginners ESOL classes, some students were observed to be physically acting out some verbs and names of parts of body. It may be that learners use this strategy unconsciously and that is why they do not report the use of it. I recommend removing this strategy from the inventory, because students are generally uncomfortable with acting out a single vocabulary item. Role-play is more suitable for whole phrases or situations.

Strategy 10 I say or write new English words several times

Participants reported that Strategy 10 helps them remember meaning, spelling, and pronunciation of a new word.

Meaning

Saying the same word several times reminds some learners of the previous occasions when they came across that word. Once they remember the context, they can identify the meaning of the word.

Participants 5, 7 and 23 said:

"By saying a new word several times I can recall where I came across it before, and then the situation in which it was used reminds me of the meaning of the word".

Short term ESL Participant 16 reported that he copies the whole text into his notebook and then finds out the meaning of words and sentences. Finally he translates from English to Japanese many times. He said,

"I copy a few pages from my textbook to my notebook. Then I check all the words I do not know with an English-Japanese dictionary, I write the Japanese meaning next to new words. Finally I translate the whole passage. I translate sentences into Japanese many times."

Spelling

Ten participants (2, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 20 and 26) said that they could remember the spelling of a new word by reading it first and then copying it several times while saying it aloud.

Participants 14 and 20 said that they look at a new word, copy it down while reading it aloud. Participant 20 remembers being taught this strategy at high school in Japan.

When I had opportunity to meet the Japanese university lecturer who had taught participants 10, 16 and 17, she confirmed that she had instructed her students to use Strategy 10 and that in her view it is one of the most effective ways to learn English.

However participants 11 and 25 said that Strategy 10 was useful while they were at school in Japan preparing for a test, because learning to spell correctly and translating a passage were important for the English tests then. Now they would ask a friend or a family member to say a new word a couple of times then they could remember the pronunciation and meaning. They think spelling is not so important now.

Pronunciation

Participants 3, 12, 13 and 26 said that saying a new word a few times helps pronunciation. Participant 12 said that it reminds her of her teacher's mouth. She said.

“When I need to use a word like ‘burn’ or ‘bird’, I say it a few times, then I remember the time when my teacher stopped the whole class to show the contrast between the ‘heart’ and ‘hurt’ by repeating them a few times and told us to look at her mouth. I forgot about that the first time she said it, but she corrected us again later. Now when I want to say words like them, I remember what she did with her mouth. It helps me to say it correctly.”

However writing and saying a new word are only helpful if the spelling and the pronunciation correspond with each other. Participant 12 said:

“I write a new word and say it aloud up to ten times. Usually I can remember it. But if the pronunciation is different from the spelling, I have a problem remembering the sounds.”

Use of a familiar writing system

Participant 14 reported that she remembers a word better if she writes it with a familiar writing style. She said:

“If I write with italic letters I can remember but if I use block letters I can’t remember, because I have been using italic letters to write English for a long time. At a New Zealand school, I have to write with block letters and it does not help me.”

Summary of Strategy 10

Many of the learners reported the processes and how the technique “write and say a new word several times” helps their learning. It showed individual students have different reasons for using this strategy. Some participants mentioned that spelling was a very important part of English lessons in Japan but they do not find it vital in New Zealand. Too much time and energy might be spent in Japanese schools on spelling and that might be one of the reasons why some participants in the present research did not like studying English.

Strategy 12 I practise the sounds of English

The Japanese translation of this statement used “*hatsuon*” (pronunciation), so most of the learners referred to pronunciation practice

in general rather than just the sounds. Twenty people said they practise the pronunciation of English.

Using or not using a dictionary for pronunciation

Nine people said that they check a dictionary when they do not know the pronunciation of a word. Out of nine, three reported that they make use of “*katakana*” and six reported the use of ‘phonetic alphabets.

- Use of a dictionary for pronunciation

Participant 23 said that she relies on the phonetic symbols in a dictionary, because by just listening to people she might overlook some features.

Participants 20 and 25 said that they learned how to use phonetic symbols when they were at high school and it helped them to use a dictionary for pronunciation.

- Non-use of dictionary for pronunciation

Learners who do not rely on a dictionary said that it was because they have difficulty decoding phonetic alphabets or do not feel confident to use “*katakana*” sounds for a new word. They reported that they prefer to hear the word before saying it.

Participant 12 reports that she can’t use phonetic symbols and does not feel comfortable to say words by looking at “*katakana*” either. Dictionaries do not help her remember new words because she cannot be sure whether her pronunciation is correct or not. She relies on her home stay family to say a word for her.

Participant 16 says that he does not read the pronunciation in a dictionary. He listens to his teacher or a song on a tape. He then writes down the sentences with the new word in it and reads them aloud. He also makes sure he knows the meaning of the new words.

Participant 11 says that a teacher tried to explain phonetic symbols to her at high school, but his explanation was not clear and she could not hear different phonemes when he demonstrated them. She did not have confidence in him. She mimics English tapes and teachers rather than using a dictionary for pronunciation.

Participant 18 reported that she does not use her dictionary for pronunciation, but she usually asks her colleagues to say a new word for her.

Reading aloud to practise pronunciation

Participants 21 and 26 said that they read their textbooks aloud. Participant 21 said,

"I used to read the textbook after a teacher in the classroom. At home I read aloud many times again, then without trying I learned the whole text by heart. I did that for six years. I used to love hearing myself reading. When I think of a word, I could remember the sentence it was from, and I could remember idiomatic phrases, too."

Participant 26 said:

"I used to read textbooks aloud at home, because I liked listening to my voice. It was fun. By reading the textbook many times, I learned all the text at high school. It helped my pronunciation and fluency. Without much effort, I realised that I learned all the phrases by heart. I liked English lessons very much."

Participants 10 and 26 reported that they copy a sentence from a textbook and then they read aloud what they have copied with their eyes following the words as they read. Participant 24 said that he used to do this while he was in Japan, but now he learns pronunciation by listening.

Long time resident participant 6 reported that she reads a newspaper aloud to her husband, and if he notices mistakes he corrects her. She mimics his pronunciation. She reads to her daughter, aged 8 in bed. When her daughter does not understand the story, she says, "What was that?" and checks the book and reads the word for her. She repeats the word after her daughter.

Use of audiovisual equipment

Participants 3, 9, 19, 24 and 25 reported using a tape, radio programme, video, and DVD for pronunciation practice.

Participant 9 mimics movies on DVD, by echoing dialogues while watching. He learns phrases and sentences (chunks) together. He tries to get the rhythm and intonation rather than individual words. He does not look at the subtitles, unless he has to. If he is not sure of the meaning or if he cannot mimic properly after a few trials he stops the machine and rewinds the tape to the frame. Participants 19, 24 and 25 use songs, movies, especially animation to practise their pronunciation. Participant 3 used to do dictations of radio programmes for EFL students in Japan.

The influence of tests on the way learners study pronunciation

Participant 4 said that she studied English sounds and accent because they were part of the entrance examination in Japan. But she did not study intonation or sentence stress because they were not included in the test.

Flexible choice of learning strategies

Five subjects (14, 17, 21, 22 and 24) said that they adjusted their ways of practising pronunciation according to the environment they were in.

Participant 21 said:

“Up to high school I mainly used reading textbooks to practise pronunciation. In university I learned business English. Native speakers delivered many of the lectures in English. I used to write business words I didn’t know on to my notebook. I could learn new words by saying them silently. When I got a job with an American airline I went to USA for training. I found that my English was too polite and bookish. Other girls on the training course didn’t understand me. I wanted to learn colloquial speech. I threw away all my methods of learning English. I decided to listen to my colleagues and learn their pronunciation by ear. Several years later I got a new job in Japan as a secretary. They required British English and I had to drop what I learned in the USA. I tried to remember the way my teachers at university were speaking. When I got married to my Kiwi husband and came to New Zealand, I had to change again to New Zealand ways of speaking.”

Participant 24 used to write and say a new word many times to learn pronunciation, meaning and spelling in Japan. In New Zealand he learns a new word by listening to other speakers or watching DVD.

Participants 17, 22 and 14 changed their ways of learning pronunciation when they came to New Zealand. Before, they copied their teachers or read out loud many times what they wrote down but now they usually ask native speakers such as their host family or a teacher to say a word for them so that they can mimic.

For the sake of my family

Participant 26 felt embarrassed and horrified when her son's friend criticised his pronunciation. She felt the need to pay more attention to her own English sounds.

Participant 26 who is one of the most proficient speakers of English in the present study reported:

"The other day my son (3 years old) was playing with a neighbour's daughter (3 years old) in the next room. She could not understand my son, because he said, "Prease" instead of "Please". When she worked out the problem, she told him off and made him say "please" not "prease". I felt sorry for him. I've got to be more careful with my pronunciation for his sake. I practise pronunciation (the sounds of English) so that my children will not have a bad habit from me. In fact I'm trying harder to speak good English since I had children. We tried to bring up our children bilingual, but my son's speech came very slow because of that. I'm not speaking too much Japanese to him just now."

However some parents speak to their children in Japanese at home for the sake of their children. Participant 23 speaks Japanese with her children and her husband speaks to them in English. She herself studied ESL and gained a professional qualification in New Zealand. She said,

"I want to speak Japanese at home with my children so that they will be bilingual. My children want to speak in Japanese with me too. If I don't speak to them in Japanese they will lose Japanese, because they now go to New Zealand school. My English does not improve because of it, but it can't be helped."

Summary of Strategy 12

It is evident that learners are flexible in using Strategy 12. They adjust and readjust their ways of practising the sounds of English according to their specific goals, situations and stages of learning.

Learners mimic teachers, native speakers and voices on audiovisual systems. They make use of dictionaries, texts, native speakers and subtitles to practise and check their pronunciation. Small numbers of learners (participant 24, 25, and 26) report the effectiveness of echoing and mimicking dialogues on movies. I think mimicking and echoing helps learners develop prosodic features of English language, because they try to remember chunks together rather than each word or sound. The pronunciation test shows that mimicking words is more accurate than reading words from a list.

Contents of important examinations in Japan have a bearing on how students think about and practise pronunciation. It appears that segmental features and the positions of accent are included in these tests. This point is also evident from the fact that “sounds of English” in the SILL has been translated into Japanese as “*hatsuon*” (pronunciation). In the present study many Japanese learners mentioned individual sounds of English but little on sentence stresses, rhythm and intonation. Only one of the participants mentioned intonation and sentence stresses, but the native speaker judges commented on lack of sentence stresses and wrong pauses placed by learners in their reading of the passage of the pronunciation test.

Some immigrant parents feel the need of acquiring good pronunciation in English when they realise that their children learn a bad model from them and get embarrassed by other children in a play situation. They try to provide their children with a good model. Other parents try to speak Japanese at home so that their children will learn Japanese from them not English. Both sets of parents try to do something for the sake of children but with different goals.

Strategy 15 I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or movies spoken in English

This strategy was the second most frequently used cognitive strategies among the learners in the present study. In Lunt's (2000, p. 188) study this was the highest of the fourteen cognitive strategies. In his research on Japanese learners attending private language schools in the Auckland area, Tanaka (1997) found that students classed television and video

viewing the second most useful strategy after host family interaction. However in Takeuchi's (1993) study strategy 15 is of medium use among Japanese university students.

To gain further insight into the use of Strategy 15, the three broad aspects of participants' use of this strategy employed by Lunt (2000) were used:

- the amount of TV watched
- the types of programmes watched
- the reasons for watching

Amount of TV watched

Twenty-two out of twenty-six participants said that they watch TV daily. However all six short time ESL students and one long time ESL student (participant 25) said they hardly watch TV, because they do not understand the content.

"I don't understand TV programmes in English at all. Just watching the pictures is boring." (Participant 25)

Some of the students in mainstream classes (participants 13 and 20) and long time residents (participants 21 and 23) do not watch TV much either, but for different reasons. They reported they watch only news, because there is no time.

Types of programmes watched

Out of 22 people who commented on this strategy, 8 do not have the right to choose the channel, because they do not possess their own TV. They watch what others are watching. News, movies and animation are programmes watched by many.

1. News

Nineteen out of twenty-two people said they watch daily news. All the participants except one said that they did not understand the news at all when they first arrived in New Zealand. Participant 18 said it took two years for her to understand about 60% of the news and then it became interesting. Participant 3 talked about the 'current affairs class' for which she had to choose a topic and report it to the class. At first she did not understand the news readers but by focussing on a few news items, watching them on TV, reading them in the newspaper and studying the

backgrounds of each story in the class made it possible to get meaning out of some news after 6 weeks. Watching TV became a habit after the course.

2. Movies and animation

Most of the participants reported watching movies and animations. Participants 24 and 25 who are ESL students use animations for children, because the language is clear and dialogues are easy to understand. Participants 6, 18, and 15 reported their preference for home dramas, detective stories and comedies (in that order).

3. Quiz

Only two reported watching quiz programmes. Those who do not watch them said that quiz programmes are too difficult to enjoy, because they do not know the past sports people, history, geography and culture of New Zealand. It is not only the language but also the lack of information about this country and lack of shared culture makes quiz programmes difficult to enjoy for Japanese learners.

4. The video and DVD

Eight participants talked about watching videos. They watch a video many times until they get the meaning clear. Participant 9 said that he likes mimicking dialogues on the movies:

"I try to repeat the chunks together without dividing them into words. I rewind the video many times until I can mimic the dialogues easily. I pay attention to intonation and rhythm of the language. I usually watch without subtitles but at times I have to look at them, because I just can't get the words. I use Australian, English and American films for this. Through this exercise I have come to appreciate different English dialects. When I started to hear the differences between English accents I got hooked. I'm a jazz musician. I want to be able to sing with clear diction so that people can hear me well."

In a similar way participant 24 listens and repeats the dialogues in children's animation on DVD. He likes the DVD system because he can get subtitles on and off easily.

Reasons for watching TV, DVD and video

- **Linguistic reasons**

Participants reported reasons for watching TV, video and radio programmes.

*"It is possible to listen to the same sentence many times.
I can choose which movie I watch."*

These reasons were reported by those who watch movies on video.

Vocabulary

Participants 3 and 19 pick up vocabulary by watching TV. Participant 19 picks up interesting expressions and phrases. First he tries to guess from the context. Then he looks them up in a dictionary. If he cannot find a right meaning in a dictionary he asks his homestay host mother. She helps him with the meaning and the pronunciation. He can remember these words well afterward. Participants 6, 16 and 19 talked about coming across the same new words by watching the same TV news and dramas.

Pronunciation

Participant 19 watched pronunciation tapes on video while he was in Japan. He said that the tape had lessons on English phonemes with tongue positions and example words and sentences. He did the exercises on the video for two weeks, but after a while he found himself too conscious of his mouth and not thinking about the big picture, sentences and meaning. He felt he became too conscious.

Listening comprehension

Participants 2, 4, and 6 used TV for speeding up the listening process and improving comprehension.

Discussing the content of the movies with others

Many participants talked about discussing the content of the movie with others and telling others about the movie they have seen.

- **Non-linguistic benefits**

Relaxation

Participants 8, 10 and 17 report that they watch English movies for pleasure and relaxation rather than for learning English. Participant 8 said he had the radio on all day to relax, as well as getting English rhythm.

Keeping up with the current affairs and information

Watching TV is one way to keeping up with the current affairs and having a shared culture with English speaking community.

Participant 4 said,

“I watch TV often, because people often talk about current affairs. I do not want to talk about small talk all the time with friends. I need to have detailed information so that I can make a contribution in conversation.”

Summary of Strategy 15

The findings of this study confirm the importance of the Strategy 15 suggested by other studies. However this study found that short time ESL students watch TV but they do not get much out of it. Since they cannot choose what they watch, they join in with the family activities of watching TV. Long-term ESL students who get more information about current affairs at school benefit from familiarity with topics, vocabulary and situations by learning and reading about the background of news. They also get into the habit of watching news.

To teach metacognitive and cognitive strategies Thompson and Rubin (1996) used segments from authentic TV programmes. They talked about the difficulties of using authentic TV programmes for their third year Russian students in USA. They found segments containing inter-actional encounters and conversational language, such as movie scenes, was easier than passages with little or no interaction, such as news reports. Likewise learners in the current study prefer home dramas to news, quiz, or documentaries.

This study shows that it is not only TV but also video and DVD which facilitate repetition, and that subtitles are useful tools for the learners.

Learners can choose movies and animation to suit their level and choose the time when they can watch them. DVD has good tracking facilities, which makes going back to the right place easy while watching. If learners can use subtitles and the language as they like they can take control of the input through video and DVD, which will promote their motivation, too.

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Seven learners said that they thought this strategy was referring to “*katakana*” words. After the Second World War significant numbers of foreign words have been borrowed into Japanese and are written in “*katakana*”. Nakayama(1998) identified and classified all the loan words written in “*katakana*” in three days’ issues of “*Asahi Shimbun*” daily newspaper. She found an average 815 “*katakana*” words per day in articles without advertisement, radio TV programmes and share market reports.

Three people reported bad experiences of using “*katakana*” words in conversation with an English speaker.

Bad experiences using “*katakana*” words

Not all “*katakana*” words come from English. Participant 23 used a nursing term in “*katakana*” then realised it was German not English.

Participants report bad experiences using “*katakana*” words and that triggered a desire to practise English more. Pronunciation and meanings of “*katakana*” words are sometimes different from the original word. Because “*katakana*” does not distinguish phoneme contrasts such as /l/-/r/, /s/-/θ/, /b/-/v/ and so on, English speakers sometimes do not understand them. For example, participant 23 said the word “*kaaten*” (curtain) to an English speaker and was not understood. This experience made her join an English class.

Participant 25 reported that she felt the need to improve her pronunciation because she said “*chaachi*” (church) to an English speaker, and was not understood by her. This experience made her feel that she had to do something about her pronunciation. She decided to create situations where she has to use difficult sounds. She started to order ‘Earl Gray tea’

in a restaurant when she went out so that she could practise two sounds /ɜ:/ and /r/. When a waitress gets her order right, she is encouraged.

Participant 24 said that he does not use the Strategy 19, because if he relies on “*katakana*” words he will not gain English like pronunciation.

Good experiences using “*katakana*” words

Two learners reported successful experiences using “*katakana*” words in the Strategy 19.

Participants 7 and 19 found that there are many borrowed words from English in information technology, and they are written in “*katakana*”. When he comes across one of these words, he checks the meaning in the dictionary, then the meaning of the “*katakana*” word becomes clearer and the English word becomes more memorable.

“*Katakana*” can be used to describe English words when one is not sure of the spelling. Participant 9 said that he used to jot down words in “*katakana*” when he was in a hurry and did not know the spelling, but later he decided to write words in English as well as he could. This made it possible for him to find the proper spelling and the meaning afterwards.

“*Katakana*” can be used to highlight important messages. Participant 13 said that she writes important information in “*katakana*” while she sums up an article in English. When she reads the note later “*katakana*” words stand out and that helps her memory.

Summary of Strategy 19

In the interview the responses of learners are mixed about Strategy 19. Because Japanese is a very distant language from English it does not have many words in common except among loan words. Unfortunately loan words proved to be misleading in many ways. However this negative input from others triggers desire to learn pronunciation of English. Only three learners found benefits from using Strategy 19. The Strategy 19 might be a useful strategy for students from Indo-European language background but not for Japanese students.

Strategy 22 I try not to translate word-for-word

As stated before some participants did not understand the Japanese translation of “*chikugoyaku*” (word-for-word). Learners’ response to

Strategy 22 is mixed. They indicated that the answers depend on how difficult the article is and the purpose of the reading.

Participant 12 said,

"It depends on the article I am reading. If there are too many words I do not know, I will translate word-for-word first and then try to see what it really means the second time. If there are not many new words, I do not translate word-for-word, because I can guess."

Summary of Strategy 22

Not many people commented on this strategy, so the response does not give clear evidence, but I recommend this strategy may be stated better as:

"I use different techniques when I translate depending on the purpose and the difficulty of the article."

Strategy 32 I pay attention when someone is speaking English

This is the most important strategy among meta-cognitive strategies and used by both beginning and proficient learners.

ESL students seem to pay attention when they are being spoken to.

Participant 22 said,

"I pay attention when people are talking to me. People talk faster and use difficult words when they don't talk to me, so I don't understand them and I don't pay attention then."

Participant 25 said,

" I sometimes ask my friends what they were talking about later."

Participant 2 said,

"When I talk with English speaking friends in town, I pay attention."

Long time residents also reported that they pay attention when someone is speaking English.

Participant 26 who is a proficient speaker and has been in New Zealand for nearly 10 years said,

"I pay more attention when someone is talking to me in English."

Participant 18 who is a proficient speaker and had been in New Zealand for nearly 5 years said,

"I pay attention so that I don't overlook anything."

In her study of the use of strategies among immigrants to Australia, Lunt found 'paying attention' was not crucial to those learners who had EFL experience before coming to Australia and people who had been exposed to the English speaking community for more than two years. Lunt (2000) hypothesized that:

"Q32 is a strategy particularly relevant to those in the first two years of exposure to English. Beyond that time, and with an increasing level of proficiency, it is possible that 'paying attention when someone is speaking English' becomes a less conscious, and so less reported, strategy. More research with a greater number of learners in both ESL and EFL situations could inform on the generalisability of these findings." (Lunt, 2000, p. 248)

However in the current study, 'paying attention' is still an important technique for proficient speakers and long time residents.

Strategy 39 I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English

The response to this strategy is a mixed one. Many participants reported that they do not use this strategy because they do not need to relax. Some learners have techniques to relax and calm themselves.

Participant 1 said,

"I don't need to relax. I don't get tense speaking in English."

Participant 9 said,

"I don't get nervous speaking in English. It's the same as speaking in Japanese."

One learner said he does not mind getting tense.

Participant 22 said,

"I am in New Zealand only for a month. I am trying to get as much English as possible. I don't mind getting tense. I do not feel like relaxing."

Some learners have worked out techniques when they get nervous.

Participant 11 said,

"When I know I'm nervous, I'll try to have a moment of nothingness in my head, and then I will start again."

Participant 18 said,

"I sometimes have to deal with passengers who are angry or distressed at the airport. When I do not understand what they are complaining about, I say to myself, 'It's alright, calm down'."

Participant 21 said,

"If I get nervous I take my eyes away from the speaker and try to listen with my right ear, because I think my reaction gets quicker in this way. I also try to have more space between my eyebrows."

Participant 3 said,

"I get nervous speaking in English, so I prepare well before I report something to class, and I try to speak slowly."

Participant 6 said,

"If I get nervous I can not make myself understood, so I calm myself and choose words carefully."

Summary of Strategy 39

Oxford does not distinguish between learners who get nervous and those who do not get nervous. Perhaps those who report that they do not get nervous have not stepped outside of their comfort zone. The results of the present quantitative study show significantly increased use of affective strategies by present participants compared to Japanese EFL students in Mochizuki (1999) and Tekeuchi's (1993) researches.

Some of the short-term ESL students said that they were better than what they expected. It might be that these students were prepared for much worse situations in speaking in English.

This Strategy 39 calls for more research because very proficient speakers like 18 and 21 who have been in an English speaking country for more than four years and deal with English speakers who do not make allowance for non-native speakers, need to have techniques to suit their individual situations.

Strategy 41 I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English

Lunt (2000) indicated that the relationship between the use or otherwise of Strategy 41 was culturally based. This may not be appropriate to learners of Chinese cultural background and may call for further qualitative research with larger numbers of Chinese learners, as well as learners from other cultural groups. Three of Lunt's (2000) Chinese participants said that in Chinese culture it is not appropriate to give a reward to oneself and people do not express self-congratulatory feelings but rather keep them to themselves.

By contrast, Japanese participants in the present study reported that they do give rewards to themselves when they do well. This strategy was the most popular strategy among the affective strategies. Examples of rewarding or treats:

Tell a friend or a family about it

Five participants (1, 2, 6, 24 and 25) reported that they would report the success to close friends and family members. For example participant 1 rang her parents when she passed her professional examination in tourism.

Tell themselves, “dekita, dekita” (Well done!)

Participants (4, 8, 9, 17, 18, and 26) said that they reward themselves by saying something congratulatory. For example participant 4 said,

“When I manage to get my self understood by an English speaker, I say to myself, “Ah, yokattah.” (Well done.)”

Keep it to themselves

Four participants (5, 11, 12, 17) give themselves a reward but keep it to themselves.

Don’t do anything

One participant (13) said, *“I don’t do anything.”*

Summary of Strategy 41

This strategy is culturally safe as far as Japanese learners on the present research are concerned, unlike Chinese learners in Lunt’s (2000) study. In the current study, apart from one participant who does not do anything, all the participants who made a comment said, *“I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.”*

Strategy 48 I ask for help from English speakers

Many learners have commented on the help they ask for and receive from English speakers.

Table 7.2 Who do learners get help from?

	Short stay ESL students	ESL students	Students in main stream courses	Long time residents
Home-stay family	☺	☺		
Teachers	☺	☺		
Classmates	☺	☺	☺	☺
Colleagues				☺
Friends outside school			☺	☺
Spouse				☺
Children				☺
Strangers		☺		

The learners reported that they get help from people around them. For example ESL students reported that they get help from home-stay family members especially home-stay mothers, teachers, and classmates. Participant 24 reported he hardly ever speaks English with fluent English speakers except teachers.

"I'm staying in a university hostel but people do not mix. People in mainstream classes seem busy among themselves. Among ESL students, different nationalities seem to get together. There are not many Japanese so I tend to mix with people from Korea, China, and Taiwan. I have difficulty understanding Chinese people's English. We have different problems. I ask for help from teachers at school and my classmates".

In a country where students do not have a wide circle of support systems, help from home-stay families is invaluable.

Students in mainstream classes get help from flatmates and classmates.

Some learners do not expect teachers to correct their English pronunciation. Participant 4 who is studying toward a diploma in Social Welfare said that she does not get correction from her teacher in English. She said,

"Teachers do not correct my English because they are professionals."

This is a somewhat disturbing comment, implying the participant's view that she does not expect professional teachers to give one-on-one help. It is to be hoped that this view in the extreme form stated is not widely held by students or teachers. The probable origin of this view is experience in a class where the teacher is allowing all errors to pass uncorrected for the sake of increasing fluency and confidence. While that is generally a good practice, participant 4's remark serves as a caution against applying it absolutely. Students should be given to understand clearly that there will be some times when they are given constructive criticism and other times when they are encouraged to speak freely without interruption. I did not ask participant 4 why she thinks this way. It might be that she thinks that teachers are more used to foreign accent than others.

Participant 19, who is a mainstream student said,

“When I was at a language school teachers seemed to understand my English but my home-stay mother did not understand me. At dinner if she did not understand any word I said, she stopped everything until I got the word right. I thought teachers are used to hearing learners’ English and do not correct me, but in real life people do not understand me.”

Long time residents on the other hand reported that they have some help from the wider English speaking community, but spouses, colleagues and friends who are very close to them are the ones they mostly seek help from. They are careful from whom they ask for help.

Participant 21 said,

“I don’t ask people to correct my English, because some people had a condescending attitude toward me when I did and I couldn’t have an equal relationship with them anymore. I ask my husband and my son to correct my English.”

Participant 4 reported that she asked her flatmates to correct her English when she first joined in the flat. One flatmate who became a friend spends time with her and corrects her English.

Some learners indicate how they want to be corrected.

Participant 9 reported that he asked his classmates to correct his pronunciation. He reported saying to them,

“Even if you understand what I mean, please correct my pronunciation. I really want to speak like people around me.”

How do learners get help?

To set up a support system is one of the important strategies for ESL students. Participant 1 talked about how she went about setting up a network of support among her host family and at school. This is not something everyone can do, but she did.

“I decided to use my bedroom just for sleeping. I always stayed with my home-stay family. I started conversation with my new classmates just the way children would approach a

situation like that. I said, "Hello. What are you up to?" I hoped that they would say something back to me. I tried to smile a lot, because then people would think, "She is a happy girl." Japanese students who come to New Zealand as an exchange for a year seem to stick to themselves and don't try to communicate with other students in the class. They are isolating themselves by putting up a barrier."

Two learners reported that they created semi-natural situations to get help from strangers.

Participant 8:

"I used to ask people the way to the railway station on the street everyday. In fact I was not going to the railway station, but it gave me confidence to talk to a native speaker. Each day I asked for direction at a different spot. Because I knew the answer, I could concentrate on the rhythm of the language".

Participant 25:

"I drink "Earl Gray" tea when I am out, so that I can practise two sounds I have trouble with. (/ɜ:l and /r/)."

In what area do learners get help?

Participant 22 said,

"When I repeated a word I was not sure of, my host mother repeated the word a few times until I got it right."

Learners do not seem to ask for help unless they understand most of what is going on. Short-term ESL students reported that people volunteer help. Some of them indicated that they ask help for the basic requirements of living but news items on TV are usually beyond them, so they just listen to the sounds and do not pay attention to the words or the meaning. They do not ask anyone for help, but some home-stay families try to help them. Out of four short-term ESL students three reported occasions when home-stay families helped them without soliciting. For example, on 11 September 2001 participant 17 and his host father were in the car on their way to school. The car radio was reporting news. Participant 17 realised

something big had happened, but didn't know what. Then his host father explained about the event in New York and said Wellington was safe.

What type of help do learners receive?

All new ESL students interviewed reported that their host mother asked about their day. While they spoke she corrected their pronunciation. It may be that learners at this stage are not confident enough to ask for help beyond home.

Participant 2 said,

"My host mother asks me, "How was school?" every day after dinner. I tell her every thing I can think of. Sometimes I say to her, 'It's ok'."

The same participant said it is important to tell her host mother what is going on at school.

ESL students reported getting help in pronunciation, spelling, writing, collocation, and vocabulary. One participant talked about non-linguistic help her host mother gives her. Participant 3 said her home-stay family does not correct her pronunciation or grammar but gives her praise, which she finds helpful.

Mainstream students reported varieties of help given to them from their friends and flatmates. They get help in pronunciation, vocabulary, essay writing, and grammar. Participant 13 said,

"I ask my flatmate to make sentences when I come across a new word and then I write them down. I write a report and he checks it and changes the wording. I tell him my ideas and he says it in less clumsy ways."

Participant 10 reported that he sometimes just has a chat about his English with his classmates when he has a meal with them.

Long time residents reported having varieties of help in practical matters like grammar, pronunciation, collocations, finding words, and filling in gaps on what has been said on TV. Some of them reported that their family, friends and colleagues do not volunteer to correct their pronunciation or grammar as long as the meaning is clear. When they cannot distinguish the sounds of minimal pairs, they ask for spelling.

Some reported that they need assurance in wording when they write and speak, but they have to take the initiative themselves to ask.

Are they sensitive about correcting or asking for help?

Some people correct pronunciation on the spot and others try to avoid embarrassment and pick a right moment to do so.

Participant 17 reported that one day her husband corrected her pronunciation in private quite a long time after she had spoken. She said,

“He must have been thinking about it and had been waiting for the right moment to say it.”

Participant 26 whom judges rated highest in the pronunciation test said that now she appreciates her husband for correcting her English over the years and now she is used to being corrected any time anywhere. However she used to feel it was too much, because she was aware of it herself as soon as she had said it. Sometimes she felt awkward being corrected in front of other people. Sometimes other people who were present said “Don’t correct her. We understand her perfectly.”

Participant 20 who did a BA in New Zealand and is currently studying for a post graduate diploma reported that she does not get help from her classmates when they are busy:

“When I’m in need of help urgently I know my classmates are also busy with their assignment. I don’t want to be a nuisance and I don’t disturb them. Unfortunately there is hardly a time to ask for help freely.”

Participant 18 said that if she misses a punch line while watching TV, she waits until the ads or the end of the programme so as not to disturb the viewers.

Summary of Strategy 48

Strategy 48 I ask for help from English speakers is an essential strategy used by all levels of learners and speakers of English. There are a few important findings relating to the use of this strategy.

- Learners of all levels ask for and receive help from people whom they are very close to. ESL students get help mainly from home-

stay families and teachers. Students in mainstream classes reported getting help from flatmates and friends. Even when their proficiency level is higher, long time residents reported that they still require help from families, friends and colleagues.

- Home-stay experience helps with the linguistic and affective needs of a student. The host families correct pronunciation and provide functional practice daily. They give learners praise to assure them that they are doing well. The family give the student the confidence of knowing that the family is attentive to the student's daily activities. If students do not stay with home-stay families, their 'help from English speakers' tends to be limited to English teachers and other learners of English at school.
- ESL learners appear to get help in speaking (pronunciation). Mainstream students and residents need help in many areas of English, especially as a sounding board.
- When the meaning is reasonably clear people do not correct unless they are asked to do so, because English speakers are sensitive about correcting.
- Some learners create semi natural occasions to get help.
- Lunt (2000) reports the importance of help from children, but participants in the present research report that they receive help mainly from spouses, flatmates and friends. In Lunt's (2000) study none of the participants have a native speaker spouse.

7.3 Non SILL Strategies Suggested by Learners

This section deals with strategies not in the SILL version 7.0 (ESL/EFL), for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English (Oxford, 1990) and suggested by learners during the qualitative studies.

In Stage 5 I asked the learners to give advice to other Japanese people who are going to study English in New Zealand. I analysed these strategies following the six subscales (Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social) in the SILL.

Table 7.3 Non-SILL Strategies suggested by learners

	Classification	Description	Non-SILL Strategy number
1	Memory	None	
2	Cognitive	I use a dictionary. (20 participants)	1
		I listen to English and write down what I hear. (5 participants)	2
		I watch English movies and mimic the dialogues on DVD. (3 participants)	3
		I take singing lessons. (1 participant)	4
		I read English aloud. (3 participants)	5
		I watch and listen to the same program many times. (3 participants)	6
3	Compensation	When I don't know how to say difficult consonants in English I think of their spelling. (14 participants)	7
4	Meta-cognitive	I organize my life so that I have constant exposure to English. (8 participants)	8
		I take risks. (4 participants)	9
		I concentrate in my study until I get to a certain level. (5 participants)	10
		I seek specialists' advice to explain how English is pronounced. (2 participants)	11
5	Affective	I regard learning English as my hobby.(5 participants)	12
		I make my listeners relaxed. (2 participants)	13
6	Social	I confirm my pronunciation with a native speaker.(12 participants)	14
		I join in a conversation. (2 participants)	15

A variety of strategies were reported, but some were recommended by only one or two participants. I have selected the following strategies for closer analysis for two reasons:

- 1 They are used by many learners
- 2 They are reported by good learners

Non-SILL 1 I use a dictionary

Out of 21 people interviewed about the use of a dictionary 20 commented on using a dictionary. However participant 1 reported that she used to use a dictionary in Japan but does not use it at all in New Zealand. When she comes across a word she does not know, she will either guess the meaning from the context or ask someone around her such as her classmates, host family or flatmates. At present she does not feel the

need for a dictionary. She said her decision to stay in New Zealand is solely to improve her spoken English and academic subjects were not her priority. However she might have to use a dictionary to pursue further studies in the future.

Two topics relating to the use of dictionary are discussed below.-

- types of dictionaries used and their benefits
- reasons and benefits of using a dictionary in general

- **Types of dictionaries used and their benefits**

Japanese learners interviewed reported using English-Japanese, Japanese-English, and English-English dictionaries. Three people reported that they have a small portable electronic dictionary and one said that he uses a dictionary on his computer.

Participants 3, 14 and 19 had an experience of shortcoming of an English-Japanese dictionary at school during the project working with non-Japanese students without a teacher. They knew the meaning of a word in Japanese but could not explain it to others. The need to explain a word in English to someone seems to be the trigger for starting to use an English-English dictionary. Creating a need in the mind of a student might be the starting point of strategy training. None of the short time ESL students use an English-English dictionary and one of them, participant 16 said, *"I have never been told to use an English-English dictionary."* Participants 3, 14 and 23 mentioned that they learned how to use an English-English dictionary in an ESL class.

- **English-English dictionaries**

Some learners prefer to use an English-English dictionary and when they are not happy with the explanation or when they have words they do not understand in the explanation they use an English-Japanese dictionary. Eleven people commented on using an English-English dictionary. Learners' English-English Dictionaries are used by participants 3, 13, 14, 19, 20 and 24 regularly. They reported the benefit of using an English – English dictionary:

"I can get a clear picture of meaning." (Participants 3 and 14)

*"It takes longer but I can remember words better.
(Participant 24)*

*"I read my English-English dictionary in my spare time."
(Participant 14)*

"When I made a presentation to the class on my project and a classmate asked me to clarify an English word, I couldn't explain it to her. I knew the meaning of the word well in Japanese but not in English, so I realised that I have to use an English-English dictionary." (Participants 3 and 14)

*"I need to sum up reference materials often when I am writing essays. I use an English-English dictionary at these times because it gives me synonyms and explanations in English. I have to avoid plagiarism too. Using an English-English dictionary was time consuming to start with. In fact it took me about three months, before I got faster."
(Participants 20 and 21)*

"Using an English-English dictionary extends my vocabulary. I can remember new words better. I try to memorise example sentences not just new words." (Participant 19)

Using an English-English dictionary is difficult for lower level learners. Because they cannot get a clear picture of the meaning of new words, they cannot remember them.

- **English –Japanese dictionary**

Participants 11, 20, and 21 reported that they usually go for an English-Japanese dictionary and if they cannot find a suitable meaning for the context they change to an English-English dictionary.

Participants 18, 23 and 24 said that they can scan an English-Japanese dictionary faster than an English-English dictionary and can get the meaning faster.

Participant 23 reported that once she gets the meaning of an English word in Japanese she could remember the word more easily than looking it up in an English-English dictionary. She saw the word 'exhume' several times on the newspaper and on TV in the week before the interview. She realised 'exhume' was the key word of the news and guessed the meaning

to be something to do with the dead body. When she looked the word in an English-Japanese dictionary it was "*itaihakkutsu*". The next time she saw the same news item, she could understand the news because she remembered the word with a clear definition in her mind.

- **Japanese –English dictionaries**

Only two people commented on using a Japanese-English dictionary. They mentioned that they use a Japanese-English dictionary when they know the English word but are not sure of the spelling. Participant 14 uses a Japanese-English dictionary when she prepares her Japanese lessons to English speaking children.

- **Multiple dictionaries**

Participants 8 and 21 reported that they have different dictionaries for different topics and purposes. They decide which dictionary to use depending on the audience, purpose and the topic. Before using a dictionary they decide which dictionary will give them a satisfactory answer. If they think the meaning in a dictionary does not fit the context they will try with another dictionary.

Reasons and benefits of using a dictionary in general

- **To check pronunciation**

Seven learners reported that they check the pronunciation of a word when they look up a new word. For the phonetic transcription most of the ESL students use "*katakana*" and others use phonetic alphabets. Four learners reported that they were trained in phonetic alphabets and comfortable using them. Short time ESL Participants 2, 5 and 10 use "*katakana*" for the transcription of pronunciation.

However some learners do not use dictionaries for pronunciation. Participant 16 who is a short term ESL student said he does not use dictionaries for pronunciation. He only listens to teachers' models. Participants 9, 11 and 18 said they read the phonetic transcripts but check the pronunciation with an English speaker.

- **To extend vocabulary**

Participant 19 said that when he first started to read Time magazine, he chose the same topics in each edition and looked up all the words he did

not know. At first he had to look up many words but soon he found that his vocabulary power had improved and he had less to look up. Then the whole exercise became more enjoyable.

Participants 5 and 21 reported using a dictionary to increase their vocabulary and they put a mark next to a word in the dictionary each time they looked up something. Participant 21 said when she looks up a word with more than three marks, she tries harder to remember it and it works.

Languages in the Indo-European group have many words in common especially among academic vocabulary. Learners from European language background can depend on their knowledge of L1 as they progress to higher courses. On the other hand the Japanese language is further away from the Indo-European languages so Japanese students do not have the same benefit. Lunt (2000) found greater use of a dictionary among people of Asian, and in particular Chinese, background than those of European L1 background. Lunt says that the use of a dictionary is an important strategy "*particularly perhaps for learners of English whose proficiency is not high*". However this study found that the use of a dictionary is important for Japanese learners at all stages of learning if they move into a new academic area of study, because they need to extend vocabulary.

- **To find out synonyms**

Participant 21 and 26 reported using a dictionary to get synonyms when they are writing an essay so that they can use a variety of examples to enrich their thesis and avoid plagiarism.

- **To check the collocation**

Participants 14, 19, 20 and 26 check collocation in the dictionary.

- **To read a dictionary for pleasure and learn sample sentences**

Participant 14 reported reading a learner English-English dictionary, and occasionally memorises sample sentences.

- **Flexible use of a dictionary**

More proficient learners seem to assess the situation before using a dictionary. First they decide whether to use a dictionary or not. If they can guess from the context they do not use a dictionary. If they are just

getting the main points from the article they do not use a dictionary. If they can get more satisfactory information from other means such as asking colleagues they do not use a dictionary.

Participants 20 and 21 report that they usually try to guess the meaning from the context. But when they read articles for study they take different steps.

Participant 20 said,

“I know teachers say that I shouldn’t translate word-for-word, but when I am trying to read books for an assignment I check all the new words in a dictionary otherwise I don’t understand the content and then I can’t remember it.”

Participant 21 said,

“When I read articles for an assignment, the first time, I read just to get the big picture so I do not use a dictionary. The second time I read them, I read and make sure I know every single word in it. The third time I read it, I analyse and summarise the article.”

Summary of Non-SILL Strategy 1

Participants of all levels reported various benefits and reasons for using a dictionary. For example the benefits reported include pronunciation, meaning, extension of vocabulary and collocation. More proficient learners manage their use of the dictionary according to their purpose and need at the time. They don’t use a dictionary when they have better alternatives and they choose the kind of dictionary to suit the purpose. Most of the participants who use an English-English dictionary were encouraged by their ESL teachers to do so and many sought the teachers’ advice in choosing a suitable dictionary. The genuine need to explain words to non-Japanese speakers and the requirement of writing essays and reports in English were the reasons for starting to use them.

Non-SILL 2 I listen to English and write down what I hear

Participants 3 and 8 reported taking notes while listening to English lessons on the radio in Japan. Participant 3 said,

"I used to listen to the English lessons every day. While I listened I tried to write down dialogues, and because I could not do it in one go, I taped the lessons. I did not buy the text nor the tapes because that forced me to listen to it every day and I could not stop and listen again the first time. I had to listen to the tape many times until the dialogues made sense to me. In a few weeks my English marks had gone up a lot. This gave me confidence and I started to like English."

Participant 8 sometimes listens to and writes down the conversation on talk back shows on the radio. Participant 25 watches and writes down 'Winnie the Pooh' stories. When she finishes the dictation she checks the dictation with the subtitles.

Participant 15 reported dictating the lyrics of songs she liked with the help of her host family when she was in an ESL class. She then listened to the songs and practised singing, which she thinks was very helpful to her study. Participant 18 chose a band she liked and wrote down their songs by ear.

A Japanese lecturer who accompanied participants 10, 16 and 17 to Massey University told me about her experience of dictation. She said:

"I used to listen to English news on the radio and spent about 30 minutes each day to transcribe one of the news items. One day after three months I noticed that English words were so clear that they were coming toward me. I was not consciously listening to it but my brain was processing the content automatically."

Six learners reported that doing dictation helped their pronunciation very much. Participant 3 has been in an ESL class for a relatively short time but her average proficiency test score is very high.

Participant 8 who gained one of the highest results in production of the minimal pairs of the proficiency test still does dictation from time to time to practise his English.

It is important to notice that many of them choose something they like to dictate.

Non-SILL 3 I watch English movies and mimic the dialogues on DVD (3 participants)

Participants 9, 24 and 25 reported that they try to mimic the dialogues of movies. Participant 9 said,

“I like to mimic dialogues on the movies. I try to mimic phrases and sentences, rather than thinking about them as separate words. I try to copy exactly the way they are said. I pay attention to how they speak especially stress, intonation and rhythm. I rewind and repeat until I’m comfortable saying them.”

Participant 24 mimics animations, because the dialogues are slow and clear.

Only three participants (one mainstream and two ESL students) reported mimicking the dialogues in a movie with DVD. This is an important strategy, because in mimicking learners learn prosodic as well as segmental features of pronunciation.

Non-SILL 7 When I don’t know how to distinguish or say difficult sounds in English I think of their spelling

It was observed when participants were trying to work out the phonemes, some participants were writing down the spelling with their forefinger on the desk. Participant 4 said,

“When I have to say words with // or /r/ I think of the spelling, then I know I am saying the right sound. When I listen to people I guess the words from the context, so I don’t have to distinguish the sounds too carefully.”

Participant 18 said,

“When I have to say or write down someone’s name or street names, I can’t tell whether it is // or /r/ by just listening to people, so I make sure that I ask them the spelling on the spot. If they spell the name for me, I am confident in my pronunciation. I don’t want to be rude by calling someone with a wrong name.”

Participant 4 said,

"It is easier to repeat sounds in a phrase, because I can guess the spelling from the context."

Participants who are new to New Zealand did not say that they used this strategy. Fourteen participants commented on the fact that they rely on the English spelling when they are not sure of the sounds. They are more conscious about these sounds in someone's name, because they cannot guess from the context.

When participants have more time to process they think of spelling. Participant 20 said,

"When I have time I think about the spelling and say a word, but if I don't have time I tend to use /r/ for both /l/ and /r/."
(Participant 20)

When participants were asked how they distinguished the four phonemes in the pronunciation tests, more proficient speakers were confident about their decision and they showed that they have their own ways to perceive and produce the phonemes in relation to their spellings. Participants explained the following sound contrasts.

'mouse-mouth'

"English /s/ sounds the same as Japanese /s/". (Participant 24)
"/s/ has more air passing through than /th/". (Participant 26)

'river-liver'

"This is /r/, because it sounds like /ur/" (participant 19)"
"I think it is /r/, because the sound comes from deeper in the mouth." (Participant 26)

'hat-hut'

"I say 'hat' more slowly than 'hut'." (Participant 3)

'heart-hurt'

“‘heart’ sounds like ‘haa’ in Japanese ‘haato’.” (Participant 9)
“I open the mouth wide for ‘heart’. ‘heart’ sounds longer than ‘hurt’.” (Participant 26)

Non-SILL 8 I organize my life so that I have constant exposure to English (8 participants)

Eight participants in ESL classes reported that they organized their life to have constant exposure to English. This reduces the need to constantly seek out occasions to practise. This is more easily organised when students are in an English speaking community than in Japan. For example participant 3 said,

“I want to study tourism in Australia, so I need more English than to just be able to keep a conversation going with my friends and my host family. I need to follow lectures. I have organized my life so that I have to communicate in English all the time. First, I came to New Zealand. I’m staying with a host family. I don’t speak Japanese with my Japanese classmates, because we promised not to do so. I don’t ring my parents up too often, because I want to immerse myself in English. I have non-Japanese friends in and out of classes. Now I don’t think about whom I am going to practise English with or what I am going to read. It’s all here around me. If we have something like SAC (self access centre) in Japan I will be there every day.”

Non-SILL 12 I regard learning English as my hobby

Five people commented on this strategy. They first of all only choose materials they like to read, watch, mimic or practise. Secondly, by thinking of practising pronunciation as a hobby they do not feel that they have to do it. Thirdly, they will keep on practising even when others could understand them. Participant 9 said,

“I watch films I like. I rewind and repeat many times until I can say dialogues comfortably. I think this is my hobby.”

Participant 3 said,

“In my spare time I go to the library. I only read books and magazines related to tourism and food. I only read what I like.”

Non-SILL 14 I confirm my pronunciation with a native speaker

Twelve participants reported that they ask a native speaker to confirm pronunciation of a word when they are not sure. This could be done in an unobtrusive way. Participant 11 said,

“When I am not sure how to say a word I ask my husband or my mother-in-law to say it for me.”

“When I’m not sure how to say a word I’ll check it with my colleagues.” (Participant 18)

Summary of Chapter

This chapter found some problems associated with the instrument, the Japanese translation of the SILL (1994). Some participants reported that they did not understand or misunderstood the strategies 5, 6, 19, 22, and 25. Two of them are from memory strategies. Strategy 6 was picked up as item-total correlation being low but others did not show up in the reliability test. It shows the importance of using two methods to collect information regarding the use of learning strategies.

The qualitative study revealed some important comments on some of the SILL items. About half of the participants reported using Strategy 6 in high school, but nobody is using this strategy any more. It might be that strategy 6 is a strategy more often used by beginning students or by EFL students.

Participant’s response to Strategy 12 revealed that they use many different ways to practise the sounds of English. Participants use a dictionary for visual cues, some combine visual and auditory senses in dictation and mimicking DVD, and some check the pronunciation with others. It was evident that participants assess their use of strategies and try to modify the usage when the requirement, availability of help, and purposes change.

Strategy 19 was found to be unsuitable for learners with Japanese background. By using “*katakana*” pronunciation many people experienced negative reaction from the listeners. However receiving negative feedback appears to be one of the strong triggers for participants to assess their strategies.

Some immigrant parents try harder to improve their pronunciation for the sake of their children. However some parents keep their L1 at home so that their children can be bilingual.

Some external factors such as the content of important tests influence the choice of strategies. For example in Japan, learners perceived that translation and spelling are important for examinations so they choose strategies accordingly.

Some participants indicated that Strategy 21 needs more explanation in the inventory, because use of the strategy depends on the purpose and the difficulty of the article.

Strategy 42 does not distinguish between participants who need the strategy and those who do not need it.

Participants reported some Non-SILL strategies.

Japanese learners reported that they use a dictionary for pronunciation, writing, extension of vocabulary etc. Because their language is very different from English and the amount of academic vocabulary shared is limited, learners of all levels appear to use dictionaries. However experienced learners have developed flexible use of dictionaries according to the purpose and needs.

This chapter revealed the important use of DVD for the mimicking of dialogues. It gives learners greater autonomy, because they can choose the movies they want. It gives them visual cues as the checking device. Some learners use this facility for learning prosodic features of the English language. This strategy is useful, because many participants mentioned that they are hesitant to use words unless they hear them first.

For difficult phonemes many participants said that they learn how to say the sounds and then use the spelling of words to distinguish and produce the sounds.

Many participants reported that by organizing their life to have constant exposure to English they don't have to seek out opportunities to use English in an ad hoc manner.

Enjoyment of studying and using English was pointed out by some participants in the strategy 'I regard learning English as my hobby'.

8 Summary and Conclusion

8.1 Overview of the chapter

First, this chapter gives a summary of the findings made in the present research. Secondly, it portrays the theoretical and methodological implications as a result of the findings. Thirdly, it suggests further research directions in the field of language learning strategies. Fourthly, it describes the limitations of this study. In the final section it discusses the findings of the study and the conclusions drawn from the research.

8.2 Summary of findings

This study examines the language learning strategies of Japanese learners of English in Wellington, New Zealand. Using the SILL questionnaires, the language tests and the qualitative study the research attempts to answer three questions:

8.2.1 Research question 1

What is the range of strategies used by Japanese learners?

The present study revealed that out of the six subscales of the SILL, compensation is the most often used subscale, followed by social, cognitive, affective and metacognitive, and the least used subscale is memory.

The Japanese learners of English in the present study were high users of the following strategies, in descending order of frequency.

Strategy 29 If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing

Strategy 45 If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again

Strategy 25 When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gesture

Strategy 24 To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses

Strategy 49 I ask questions in English

Strategy 32 I pay attention when someone is speaking English

Strategy 10 I say or write new English words several times

Strategy 15 I watch English TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English language

Strategy 31 I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better

The participants reported low use of the following strategies. Three of the low use items are from the memory strategies. Strategies are shown in descending order of frequency.

Strategy 23 I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Strategy 33 I try to find out how to be a better learner of English

Strategy 8 I review English lessons often

Strategy 44 I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English

Strategy 35 I look for people I can talk to in English

Strategy 47 I practise English with other students

Strategy 34 I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Strategy 7 I physically act out new English words

Through the qualitative data some strategies that are not in the SILL were revealed:

Cognitive

- I use a dictionary.
- I listen to English and write down what I hear.
- I watch English movies and mimic the dialogues on DVD.

Compensation

- When I don't know how to distinguish or say difficult sounds in English I think of their spelling.

Metacognitive

- I organise my life so that I have constant exposure to English.

Affective

- I regard learning English as my hobby.

8.2.2 Research question 2

What factors influence the choice of strategies?

The following factors showed a relationship to the choice of strategies.

Through the analysis of quantitative data by SPSS a correlation between the SILL results and the following background factors was revealed.

- Education in New Zealand: Attending ESL and mainstream classes in New Zealand.
- English proficiency in Japanese high school
- The importance of pronunciation

Analysis of the qualitative data shows that the following factors make learners want to learn more and influenced the choice of strategies:

- I want to be understood by others around me.
- I want to speak like others around me.
- I want to speak well so that my children have a good model to learn from.
- I like listening to myself when I am reading aloud.

The study found that each individual learner chooses and discards language learning strategies according to the needs, enjoyment and purpose.

8.2.3 Research question 3

What is the relative effectiveness of the strategies?

Quantitative study

The results of the total English pronunciation tests and the overall results of the quantitative data did not show significant relationships. However, a significant correlation was found with cognitive strategies. The more proficient participants appear to use more cognitive strategies but the causal relationship is not clear.

Qualitative study

The qualitative study found that **Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words** was used earlier to learn spelling and the meaning for assessments. However it is replaced by more functional strategies later.

Strategy 48 I ask for help from English speakers

The more proficient participants get help from people, who are close to them, such as family members, colleagues and friends. On the other hand less proficient participants wait for others to help rather than ask for help. Consequently, if they do not stay with a host family they have very little chance of getting help outside of school connections.

Strategy 15 I watch English TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English language

Less proficient participants do not find viewing TV helpful. Most participants find programmes with interaction (dramas) or animations helpful, but it takes longer to understand news programmes. This study shows that video and DVD enable students to choose items according to their personal interests and level of ability.

Non-SILL Strategy I use a dictionary

Japanese learners of all levels use a dictionary. However, more proficient participants showed more flexible use of strategies in response to their needs, the purpose of the situation, and the availability of other help.

8.3 Implications of the research for the study of learner strategies

Implications concerning the use of a Japanese translation of the SILL are presented below.

Interviews with the participants after administering the SILL revealed that the following items of the SILL were not understood or were misunderstood by the participants.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Not many participants knew the Japanese word “*in*” (rhyme).

Strategy 6 I use flashcards to remember new English words

There were some participants who were unsure of the meaning of the word “*furasshukaado*” (flashcards).

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Only half of the people understood the meaning correctly.

Strategy 22 try not to translate word-for- word

There were some participants who did not know the word “*chikugoyaku*” (word-for-word translation).

Strategy 25 When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures

Some participants misunderstood the meaning of this statement. They thought that English speakers use more gestures than Japanese people, so they use more gestures when they speak in English.

Some items might be inappropriate for students from a Japanese language background.

Strategy 19 I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

Because the Japanese language does not belong to the Indo-European group of languages it does not have many similar words. The exceptions to this are “*katakana*” words, but these sometimes have different pronunciation or meaning from the English counterpart. Many learners reported occasions of communication breakdowns caused by ‘*katakana*’ words.

Strategy 5 I use rhymes to remember new English words

Japanese learners are not used to using rhymes in their own language. This strategy needs an input from a teacher, because they cannot find suitable words to rhyme.

8.4 Implications of the methodology used in studies of language learning strategies

In using a self-report instrument such as the SILL it is desirable to include the reliability of the scores of the instrument as a whole, subscales and the item correlation so that unreliable scales are discarded before the final analysis is carried out.

When researching the language learning strategies, more than one type of data collection should be carried out to compensate for the shortcomings of each instrument. For example, the SILL instrument of this study and the reliability tests failed to capture some of the misunderstandings of the statements by the participants, whereas the interviews with participants revealed some of the explanations.

To find out more specific details of the strategies used by a group it is important to do the research in stages and with a variety of instruments. Background information like external examinations, the course homework, the kind of personal help participants can access, and the kind of facilities available to the participant influence the use of strategies too.

8.5 Implications for ESL classes

It became evident from this research that short time ESL students do not seek help until they reach a certain threshold and some of them do not have any contact outside of the school connections. However, in this research many of the host families, people on the street and classmates appear to have given good support to learners who seek help. Teachers should raise awareness of the kind of personal learning resources available to learners and teach them techniques to ask for help or at least for a confirmation of their pronunciation in a natural way.

In choosing materials for students, teachers should be aware of the areas of interests of the students. Many participants reported that they choose materials they like for practice, and that they were happy to read, watch, mimic and listen to materials many times if they liked the content.

Learners in the present research showed that they use strategies only if they think they are useful. This is because some strategies are only useful when some factors such as level of English, the relationship between the student's first language and English and the student's knowledge of the community are right.

The finding of this research shows that many learners believe that they need to know the meaning or the sounds of the input clearly to remember it. Without a clear understanding of the materials given, learners appear to participate only for social reasons.

8.6 Further research

The results of this study suggest some topics for further research in the field of language learning strategies.

The qualitative research of this study found that learners choose and discard strategies when they are in different situations. Longitudinal study on strategy use will be fruitful as learners go through different stages of English proficiency and the requirements of courses change.

This study found that there were some strategies in the SILL unsuitable to speakers of Japanese language. Research should be conducted with participants from other language backgrounds.

This study found that within one strategy learners with different levels of proficiency and learners with different purpose use a particular strategy.

Qualitative research should be conducted to explore more in depth use of some of the SILL statements for a specific task.

This research found that some learners use DVD to improve pronunciation in phrase and sentence level. DVD is a new technology and used only by some of the learners. Research should be conducted to find whether mimicking of dialogues with DVD is a useful strategy for learners of English.

This research found some Japanese learners of English use spelling as a guide to production of the sounds. Research should be conducted to find out the strategies used by learners to acquire prosodic features of pronunciation in which few visual clues are available.

Japanese learners in this research and Chinese learners in Lunt's study reacted differently to Strategy 41. Research should be conducted with learners from particular cultural backgrounds to explore influences of cultural backgrounds in the use of language learning strategies.

8.7 Limitations of this study

Some of the limitations of this study have been mentioned earlier. The number of participants who participated in this study was only 59 for the SILL of whom only 26 did the English pronunciation test. If there were more participants in each of the three levels (ESL, mainstream and long term residents) more statistical tests could have been performed and more satisfactory findings could have been possible.

Because of the shortage of time:

- The English tests were limited to reading words and a passage, repeating, and the identification of sounds. No tests were carried out on narratives or on interaction with others.
- I did not have opportunity to observe participants in class, at work or in a social situation interacting with others, so the amount of data collected here is limited.
- In most cases there was no interval between the collection of the questionnaires and the interviews. I could not comprehend the background of each participant well enough to be able to use the information in the interviews.

- This is not a longitudinal research study and I do not know how each participant has developed in the course of time. Because of this the effectiveness of the use of strategies and the improvement in the pronunciation cannot be measured for each participant.

The number of the items in the memory subscale was very small and two of them were found to be not suitable for people with a Japanese background, or the participants did not understand the meaning of a word. In the interview, participants did not comment on memory strategies.

The English pronunciation tests contained only a limited number of phonemes in limited positions. Only minimal pairs were included in the tests. No systematic assessment of prosodic features of the English language was carried out. Thus the results of the pronunciation tests are limited.

English tests did not include any form of writing, reading, or grammar.

8.8 Conclusion

The present research concludes that Japanese learners of English in Wellington choose learning strategies according to the needs and purposes of their current situations, and that frequency of the use of strategies is influenced by the length of education in New Zealand, the desire to have good pronunciation and the early success and failure in study.

The findings of this research have contributed to the knowledge of language learning strategies used by Japanese learners in Wellington. By the use of the SILL it found that they use compensation strategies most frequently and they use less memory strategies and more of all other categories of strategies, especially social and affective strategies in comparison with EFL university students in two studies in Japan.

Through the interviews with the participants, this study found that both learners and native speakers feel sensitive about asking for and giving help. Thus the learners do not seek for help from others until they reach a certain level of proficiency and confidence. ESL students have little support outside of the school communities unless they stay with host-families.

The mixed methods of collecting data revealed both general and detailed use of learning strategies by the Japanese learners of English in Wellington. More proficient learners use less mechanical ways of memorizing and use more functional practices that provide them with contexts for memory and enjoyment. More proficient learners have more flexible ways of using strategies and they choose the strategies according to their purpose and the situations they are in. In general, proficient learners report the use of a wider range of strategies than novices.

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Appendix

A

Strategy inventory

- 1 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English Version 7.0 (ESL EFL) © R. Oxford, 1989 (Oxford, 1990)
- 2 Japanese translation of the above questionnaire (Oxford, 1994: 248-253)

B

Background information

- 1 Background questionnaire
- 2 Japanese translation of the background questionnaire

C

Information Sheets

- 1 Perception and Production of English Phonemes by Japanese Learners
- 2 Interviews on language learning strategies and pronunciation tests

D

Consent Form

E

Pronunciation tape script, tests and marking schedule

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------|---|
| (a) | Perception test 1 | Tape script for discrimination test
Answer sheet |
| (b) | Perception test 2 | An Answer sheet for the identification test |
| (c) | Production test 1 | Repeating words (mimicking) |
| (d) | Production test 2 | Reading words from a list
Marking schedules for Production test 1 and test 2 |
| (e) | Production test 3 | Reading a passage
Marking schedules for reading a passage |

F

Reliability analysis of proficiency tests and proficiency groups

Scatter plots of three production tests by three judges

- (a) Scatter plots for repeating words (mimicking) test scores
- (b) Scatter plots for reading words test scores
- (c) Scatter plots for reading passage test scores

G

The results of SILL data and the SILL rank order

- (a) Box plot for S-TOT-5 over 58 subjects (SILL total mean score)
- (b) Box plots of SILL subscale scores
- (c) Rank order of mean responses to SILL

H

Proficiency test data

- 1 Box plot for proficiency total over 23 subjects
- 2 Box plots showing distributions of total proficiency scores by proficiency groups
- 3 Scatter plots of three production tests by three judges
 - (a) Repeating words (mimicking) test scores
 - (b) Reading words from a list test scores
 - (c) Reading a passage test scores

I

Relationships between SILL and proficiency data

Scatter plots showing SILL and proficiency tests

- (a) Scatter plot showing SILL total vs. proficiency total
- (b) Scatter plot showing memory strategies vs. proficiency total
- (c) Scatter plot showing cognitive strategies vs. proficiency total
- (d) Scatter plot showing compensation strategies vs. proficiency total
- (e) Scatter plot showing metacognitive strategies vs. proficiency total
- (f) Scatter plot showing affective strategies vs. proficiency total
- (g) Scatter plot showing social strategies vs. proficiency total

A
1.

NO _____

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
Version for speakers of Other Languages Learning English
Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)
© R. Oxford, 1989
Directions

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

- 1 Never or almost never true of me
- 2 Usually true of me
- 3 Somewhat true of me
- 4 Usually true of me
- 5 Always or almost always true of me

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

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

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

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

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

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

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

10	I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I practise the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I start conversations in English.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I read for pleasure in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I first skim an English passage (read the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try to find patterns in English.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I try not to translate word-for word.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	1	2	3	4	5
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrases that mean the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I practice English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I ask questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your help!

この調査は、第二言語、あるいは外国語としての英語学習者用に作成されたものです。英語学習に関するさまざまな文が表記されているので、注意して読んでください。
文の内容が回答(1. 2. 3. 4. 5)のどれにあてはまるかを記入してください。

1. 全然、あるいはほとんどあてはまらない
2. 通常あてはまらない
3. いくらかあてはまる
4. 通常あてはまる
5. 常に、あるいはほとんどあてはまる

1の意味は、「文の内容はめったにあてはまらない」です。

2の意味は、「文の内容はほとんど半分以下はあてはまる」です。

3の意味は、「文の内容はほぼ半分はあてはまる」です。

4の意味は、「文の内容はほとんど半分以上はあてはまる」です。

5の意味は、「文の内容はほとんどいつもあてはまる」です。

ここに表記された文の内容がどれだけ自分を正確に述べているかという観点から答えてください。決してどうすべきかとか他の人々がどうするかという点から答えはいけません。どの場合も正解や間違った答えはありません。

パートA

1. 英語ですでに知っていることと新しく学習したこととの関係を考える。――

2. 覚えやすいように文の中で新語を使う。――

3. 単語を覚えるために、新語の音とその単語のイメージや絵を結びつける。――

4. 単語が使われる場を心に描いて、新語をおぼえる。――

5. 新語を覚えるのに韻を使う。――

6. 新語を覚えるのにフラッシュカードを使う。――

7. 新語を身体で表現して覚える。 ____
8. 授業の復習をよくする。 ____
9. 新語をおぼえるのにその語があった本のページ、黒板、あるいは道路標識などの位置を記憶しておく。 ____

パートB

10. 新語を数回書いたり言ったりする。 ____
11. 英語のネイティブスピーカーのように話すよう心掛ける。 ____
12. 英語の発音練習をする。 ____
13. 知っている単語をいろいろな文脈で使う。 ____
14. 積極的に英語で会話を始める。 ____
15. 英語のテレビ番組や英語の映画を見る。 ____
16. 英語で読むのが楽しい。 ____
17. 英語でメモ、メッセージ、手紙、報告を書く。 ____
18. 英語の章節をまずスキミング（ざっと読み取る）し、再び、前に戻って注意深く読む。 ____
19. 英語の新語に似た語を自国語の中に探す。 ____
20. 英語の中にパターンを見付けようとする。 ____
21. 難しい英単語は分解して、意味を知ろうとする。 ____
22. 逐語訳はしないよう心掛ける。 ____

23. 読んだり聞いたりしたことを英語で要約する。 ____

パート C

24. 知らない語を理解しようと推測する。 ____

25. 英語での会話中適切な語が思い浮かばない時、ジェスチャーを使う。 ____

26. 英語で適切な語が分からないとき新語を作る。 ____

27. 英語を読むとき、一語一語調べない。 ____

28. 他の人が次に英語で何と言うか推測しようと心掛ける。 ____

29. 英語の単語が思い浮かばない時、同じ意味を持つ語や句を使う。 ____

パートD

30. いろいろな方法を見つけて英語を使うよう心掛ける。 ____

31. 自分の英語の間違いに気づき、そこから学んで上達しようと努力する。 ____

32. 他の人が英語をつかっているときは、集中する。 ____

33. 優れた英語学習者になるためにどうしたらよいか心掛ける。 ____

34. スケジュールを立て英語の学習に十分時間をあてる。 ____

35. 英語で話しかけることのできる人を探す。 ____

36. できるだけ英語で読む機会を探す。 ____

37. 英語の技能を高めるための明確な目標がある。 ____

38. 自分の英語学習の進歩について考える。 ____

パートE

39. 英語を使うのに自信がないときは、いつもリラックスするよう心掛ける。 ____

- 4 0. 間違いを恐れず英語を話すよう自分を励ます。 ____
- 4 1. うまくいったとき、自分を褒める。 ____
- 4 2. 英語を勉強しているときや使っているときに、緊張しているか神経質になっているか気づく。 ____
- 4 3. 言語学習日記に自分の感情を書き留める。 ____
- 4 4. 英語勉強しているとき、自分がどう感じているか他の人に話す。 ____

パートF

- 4 5. 英語が分からない時、ゆっくり話してもらるか、もう一度言ってもらう。 ____
- 4 6. 話している時、英語のネイティブスピーカーに間違いを直してもらう。 ____
- 4 7. 他の人と英語を練習する。 ____
- 4 8. 困った時、英語のネイティブスピーカーからの助けを求める。 ____
- 4 9. 英語で質問をする。 ____
- 5 0. 英語話者の文化を学ぶよう心掛ける。 ____

B

Background Questionnaire

1 Name _____ m/f age_

In Japan

- 1. How old were you when you started learning English? _____
- 2. How long did you study English in Japan? _____
- 3. What aspects of English did you study? (In order of importance)
 - (a) Listening comprehension () (b) Reading comprehension ()
 - (c) Speaking () (d) Writing () (e) Grammar () (f) Other ()
- 4. Was it important to speak English with good pronunciation in high school?
1 not important 2.....3.....4.....5 very important
- 5. Did you enjoy learning English in high school?
1 not enjoyable 2.....3.....4.....5 very enjoyable
- 6. How do you rate your overall proficiency as compared with the proficiency of other students in your class in junior high school?
1 poor 2.....3.....4.....5 excellent
- 7. If you have attended university what was your major subject(s)?

In New Zealand

- 8. How old were you when you came to New Zealand (or an English speaking country)? _____
- 9. How long have you been in an English speaking country? ____ months ____ years
- 10. Percent of day conversing in English since coming to New Zealand. (home, work, school and other)
 - (a) Less than 25% (b) 26%-50% (c) 50%-75% (d) More than 76%
- 11. Have you done any learning/study conducted in English (taught in English)? If so when and for how long?

In General

- 12. Do you think good pronunciation is very important?
1 not important 2.....3.....4.....5 very important

言語学習経験調査

氏名

男女 才

日本

- 1 英語を習い始めた年齢____才
- 2 日本では何年間英語を習いましたか。____年間
- 3 中学校、高校でのクラスではどんな作業をたくさんしましたか。(大切な順に番号を付けてください。)
a) 聴解() b) 読解() c) 話す() d) 書く()
e) 文法() f) その他
- 4 クラスで正確な発音を使うことは大切でしたか。
1 大切ではない---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5 非常に大切
- 5 中学・高校で英語のクラスは楽しかったですか。
1 楽しくなかった---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5 とても楽しかった
- 6 中学であなたの英語力は同級生と比べてどうでしたか。
1 劣る---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5 非常に優秀
- 7 大学での専門は何でしたか。 _____

ニュージーランド(その他の英語圏の国)

- 8 何才の時ニュージーランド(英語を話す国)に来ましたか。 _____
- 9 英語を話す国にどの位住んでいますか。 _____年 _____月。
- 10 普通1日の会話のうち(家、会社、学校、その他を含めて)どの位英語をつかいますか。
(a) 25%以下 (b) 26%から50% (c) 51%から75%
(d) 76%以上
- 11 英語を使ったクラスで勉強・習いごとをしましたか。どの位しましたか。
年から____週____月間____年間 高校・大学・英会話学校・その他

一般に

- 12 正しい発音で英語を話すことはとても大切だと思いますか。
1 大切ではない---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5 非常に大切

C
1

**Perception and Production of English Phonemes by Japanese Learners
Information Sheet**

Masako Horiuchi Crawford
School of Language Studies
Massey University at Wellington
Phone: 8012794

I am a lecturer in the School of Language Studies. I am also doing an MA in Japanese with Professor Kiyoharu Ono (ph. 350-5799) at the School of Language Studies, Massey University, Palmerston North. My topic is "Perception and Production of English Phonemes by Japanese Learners." I would like to find out what kinds of sounds are more challenging to hear and say and how you are working them out.

In order to conduct my research, I am inviting all the Japanese people in and around Wellington to be part of this research project. If you agree to do it, I will ask you to do four things in two parts.

Part One

1. I will ask you to do a questionnaire. The questionnaire will ask you about your learning experience of English in Japan and in New Zealand. You can do this at home and it will take about 15 minutes of your time.

Part Two

2. You will listen to a tape and identify sounds on an answer sheet, and then you will listen to the same tape. You will repeat the words as you listen to them and describe the sounds to me. This will be taped so that I can summarise what you say. This will take about 30 minutes.
3. I will ask you to read a list of English words, sentences, and a short paragraph to a tape recorder. This will take about 10 minutes.
4. I will ask you to tell me about "something interesting that has happened to you". This will be taped. This will take about 3 minutes.

Part One could be done where and when it is convenient to you. When I get your questionnaire, I will get in touch with you to make an arrangement for Part Two. I would like to meet you outside of class time at Massey University at Wellington or somewhere you and I agree.

You need to write your name on the Questionnaire. I have to match up the Questionnaire, answer sheet and the tape. However, your name will be replaced by a code upon receipt and no one apart from me will read your Questionnaire. I will never mention your name at any stage in my research.

Your answer sheet and your tape will only have a code on them. One lecture at Massey University and two native speakers of English will listen to your tape, but I will not tell them your name. I have to keep all the materials for at least five years from publication as outlined in the Massey University Policy of Research Practice, Section 2.2. I will destroy

all the materials then. But when I have finished the research, if you want to have your answer sheet and tape back, I will be happy to make a copy and send it to you.

It is important that you know that:

- you do not have to be part of this project if you don't want to. Even if you are a student at Massey, it is not part of your course and it will in no way affect the grade you receive on your course;
- if you agree to do this now, and later you change your mind, it is ok;
- you do not have to answer every question in this research;
- you can ask me questions any time;
- you can give me information but your name will not be used
- if you want, I will tell you the results of the research when it is finished.

I would like to give you a \$10.00 book token if you participate both part one and two of the research to show my appreciation of your help.

Please ask me any questions you have about this research project. Thank you.

Masako Crawford

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, PN Protocol 01/7

C

2 Interviews on language learning strategies

Masako Horiuchi Crawford
School of Language Studies
Massey University at Wellington
Phone: 8012794

Thank you for doing the questionnaires about language learning strategies and going through some tests on English pronunciation.

Now I would like you to tell me about the questionnaires, so that we can improve them. Please tell me if you have any questions or comments to make about the statements on the questionnaires.

In addition I would like you to share your experience of learning and coping with English in ESL classes, mainstream classes and working and living with English speaking people in New Zealand, so that other Japanese people coming to New Zealand will benefit from your experience. Everyone has different ways of learning English and I would like to know your own ideas and experience in learning English specially pronunciation.

I would like to take notes while you speak and just in case I overlook what you say I would like to tape our conversation.
Thank you.

Masako Crawford

D
Consent form

Consent Form

*Masako Horiuchi Crawford
School of Language Studies
Massey University at Wellington
Phone:8012794*

I have read the information sheet and someone has explained information about the research to me.

I have asked questions that I had, and have understood the answers. I know I can ask more questions at any time if I want.

I understand that I can stop being in the research at any time.

I understand that I do not have to answer every question.

I understand that this research is not part of my course and will not change my course results.

I agree to give information to the researcher but that my name will not be used at any stage of this project.

At the end of the research, I would like all my materials to be

- given to me
- destroyed
- Masako Crawford can keep them

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:.....

Name:.....

Date:.....

E

Pronunciation tape script, tests, answer sheet and marking schedule

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------|---|
| (a) | Perception test 1 | Tape script for discrimination test
Answer sheet |
| (b) | Perception test 2 | Identification test |
| (c) | Production test 1 | Repeating words (mimicking) |
| (d) | Production test 2 | Reading words from a list
Marking schedules for Production test 1 and test 2 |
| (e) | Production test 3 | Reading a passage
Marking schedule for reading a passage |

(a) Perception test 1 Tape script for discrimination test

You will hear words read to you. Each time you hear a word, fill in the gaps. "The word is....."

- | | | | |
|-----|---------|----------|----------|
| 1. | thank | sank | thank |
| 2. | sing | thing | thing |
| 3. | sum | sum | thumb |
| 4. | thick | sick | thick |
| 5. | face | faith | face |
| 6. | mouth | mouse | mouth |
| 7. | pass | pass | path |
| 8. | worth | worse | worse |
| 9. | liver | river | river |
| 10. | loyal | loyal | royal |
| 11. | light | right | right |
| 12. | red | led | red |
| 13. | play | play | pray |
| 14. | bleed | bleed | breed |
| 15. | crowd | cloud | crowd |
| 16. | grass | grass | glass |
| 17. | belly | berry | belly |
| 18. | collect | correct | collect |
| 19. | alive | arrive | alive |
| 20. | storing | stalling | stalling |
| 21. | hat | hut | hat |
| 22. | lack | lack | luck |
| 23. | sang | sung | sang |
| 24. | but | bat | bat |
| 25. | heart | hurt | hurt |
| 26. | heard | hard | heard |
| 27. | farm | farm | firm |
| 28. | barn | burn | barn |

Now have a rest.

Answer sheet

Listen to the words and identify the words by filling in the gaps. If you are not sure put a question mark at the end of the word.

Fill in the gaps with **ith, th, ss, se, s, ce, b**, or leave blank.

1. thank—sank	__ank	__ank	__ank
2. thing—sing	__ing	__ing	__ing
3. sum—thumb	__um	__um	__um
4. sick—thick	__ick	__ick	__ick
5. face—faith	fa__	fa__	fa__
6. mouth—mouse	mou__	mou__	mou__
7. path—pass	pa__	pa__	pa__
8. worse—worth	wor__	wor__	wor__

Fill in the gaps with **r, rr, l, ll, all, u or w**.

9. liver—river	__iver	__iver	__iver
10. loyal—royal	__oyal	__oyal	__oyal
11. right—light	__ight	__ight	__ight
12. red—led	__ed	__ed	__ed
13. play—pray	p__ay	p__ay	p__ay
14. bleed—breed	b__eed	b__eed	b__eed
15. crowd—cloud	c__o__d	c__o__d	c__o__d
16. glass—grass	g__ass	g__ass	g__ass
17. berry—belly	be__y	be__y	be__y
18. correct—collect	co__ect	co__ect	co__ect
19. alive—arrive	a__ive	a__ive	a__ive
20. storing—stalling	st__ing	st__ing	st__ing

Fill in the gaps with **a or u**.

21. hat—hut	h__t	h__t	h__t
22. luck—lack	l__ck	l__ck	l__ck
23. sang--sung	s__ng	s__ng	s__ng
24. bat--but	b__t	b__t	b__t

Fill in the gaps with **u, a, l, or ea**.

25. heart--hurt	h__rt	h__rt	h__rt
26. heard--hard	h__rd	h__rd	h__rd
27. firm--farm	f__rm	f__rm	f__rm
28. barn--burn	b__rn	b__rn	b__rn

(b)

Perception test 2 :

Please listen to the words on the tape and identify what words you hear and tell me how they sound like.

(c)

Production test 1 Repeating words (mimicking)

Tape script for the model for repeating

You will hear words read to you. Listen carefully to the words and repeat them once.

Notes: 1 Please read them slowly and leave a gap of 2 seconds between words.

2 Please say "The word is" and then read the following words to the tape.

1. arrive
2. bat
3. alive
4. barn
5. storing
6. crowd
7. heart
8. berry
9. grass
10. breed
11. burn
12. cloud
13. mouth
14. collect
15. stalling
16. face
17. correct
18. faith
19. led
20. glass
21. hard
22. hat
23. bleed
24. heard
25. hurt
26. lack
27. hut
28. light

29. firm
30. liver
31. farm
32. loyal
33. luck
34. mouse
35. only
36. sank
37. pass
38. pray
39. red
40. sing
41. path
42. right
43. thick
44. river
45. sang
46. play
47. royal
48. certainly
49. sick
50. sung
51. thank
52. worse
53. thumb
54. thing
55. sum
56. worth
57. but
58. belly
59. I hurt my leg.
60. Please turn right.
61. A traffic light
62. The horse eats the grass.
63. A heart patient
64. sunglasses

(d)

Production test 2 Reading words from a list

Please read through silently and then read the words slowly. (*Please say, "the word is...." before each word.*)

1. bat
2. worth
3. glass
4. sum
5. thing
6. arrive
7. hard
8. but
9. alive
10. hat
11. barn
12. bleed
13. thumb
14. worse
15. thank
16. sung
17. storing
18. only
19. face
20. crowd
21. mouse
22. belly
23. sick
24. led
25. breed
26. grass
27. sank
28. berry
29. heart
30. certainly
31. stalling
32. royal
33. play
34. sang
35. river
36. collect
37. mouth

- 38. correct
- 39. cloud
- 40. burn
- 41. luck
- 42. loyal
- 43. farm
- 44. liver
- 45. firm
- 46. thick
- 47. right
- 48. path
- 49. sang
- 50. red
- 51. pray
- 52. light
- 53. hut
- 54. lack
- 55. hurt
- 56. heard
- 57. faith
- 58. pass
- 59. a heart patient
- 60. sunglasses
- 61. I hurt my leg.
- 62. Please turn right
- 63. The horse eats the grass.
- 64. a traffic light

Production test 1 and 2 Marking schedules

	Correct	Semi-correct	Not correct It sounds like.....	Cannot judge the word.

(e)

Production test 3 Reading a passage

Please read the passage below normally and not too fast.

This is the last thing you have to read.

I'd like you to read a passage aloud onto the tape. It has some words in it that I'm interested in. Read it silently first. If you have any questions, please ask me.

This is a true story about my family and me.

Last month we had a family holiday on a small island south of Tahiti. The road around the island was only thirty-two kilometres long. Our hotel was right on the beach. In the evening the clouds looked very dark and a black bird was flying over our village. During the night it rained a lot. In the morning we watched television. In the afternoon my husband William went for a swim in the sea. A sea snake bit him on his leg, but he did not notice it at that time. William became very sick. He said, "I have never been so ill in my life." By three o'clock William looked so ill that I rang for a taxi to take him to the hospital further inland. The taxi was an old van. The street was flooded. I thought William might die in this remote place. He was certainly too sick to fly back to New Zealand. I was praying very hard. We climbed up a narrow path to an old hospital. A nurse gave William some medicine so he got better.

Production test 3 Marking schedules for the reading passage

Scale	General guide lines
1	Limited Reader Speaks English so poorly that meaning is not easily understood. Japanese accent puts a strain on the listener.
2	Modest Reader Can be basically understood. Lacks fluency and accuracy.
3	Good Reader Stumbles and hesitates at times but is reasonably fluent. Linking and rhythm are reasonable.
4	Very good reader Produces individual sounds well. Japanese accent may be

	evident but easily understood.
5	Excellent reader Produces individual sounds well and speaks with appropriate intonation and stress. Japanese accent is not very noticeable.

Notes: You can have half marks such as 2.5 or 1.5.

F

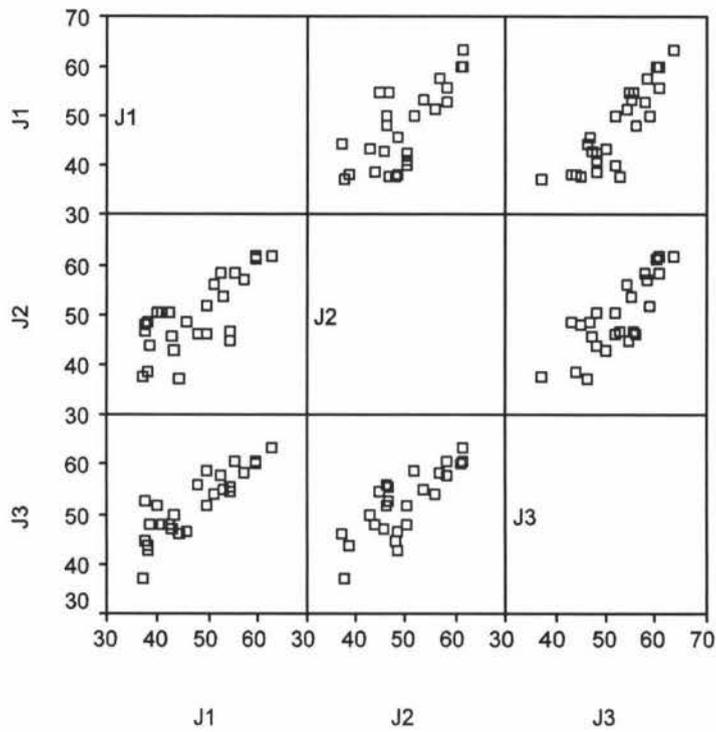
Reliability analysis of proficiency tests and proficiency groups

1 Scatter plots of three production tests by three judges

(a) Scatter plots for repeating words (mimicking) test scores

Scatterplots for REPEATING WORDS test scores

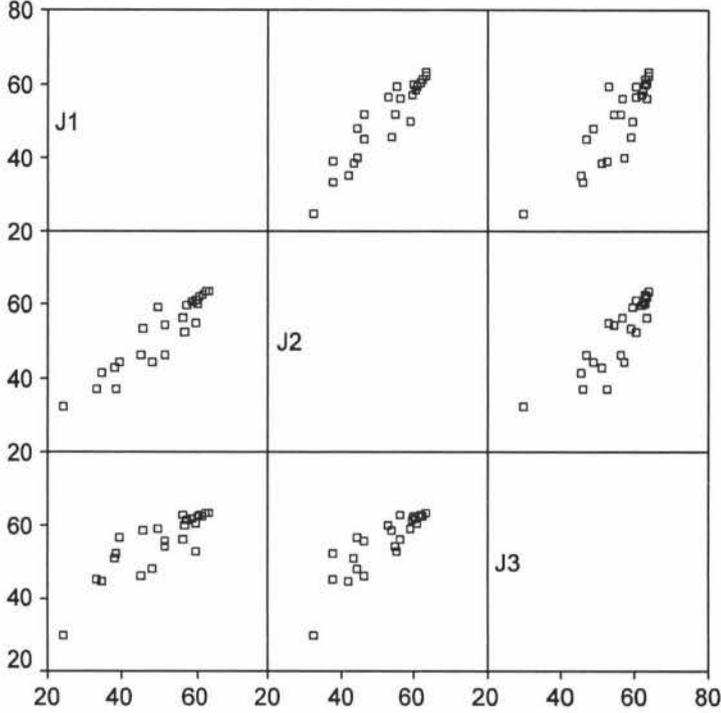
Pairwise comparison of judges' ratings



(b) Scatter plots for reading words test scores

Scatterplots for READING WORDS test scores

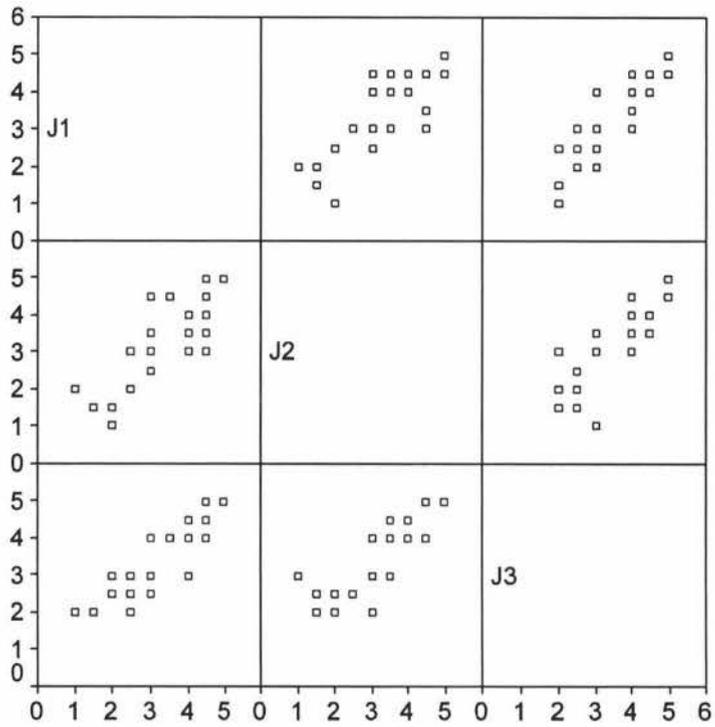
Pairwise comparison of judge's ratings



(c) Scatter plots for reading passage test scores

Scatterplots for READING PASSAGE test scores

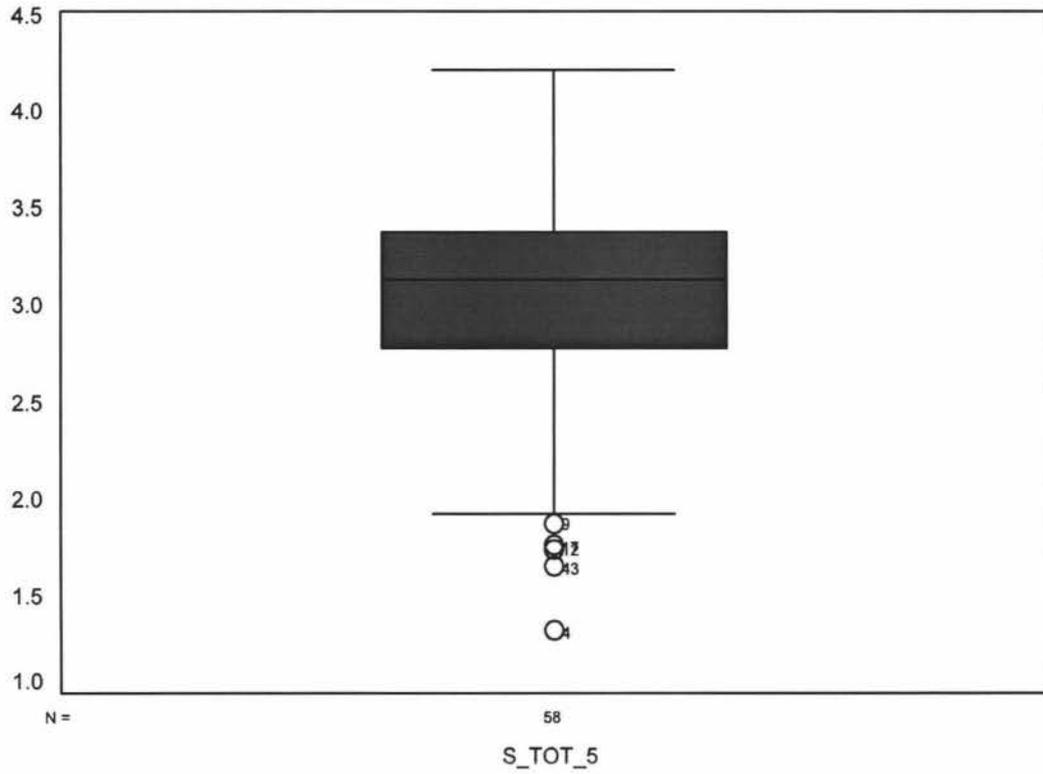
Pairwise comparison of judge's ratings



G
Results of SILL data and the SILL rank order

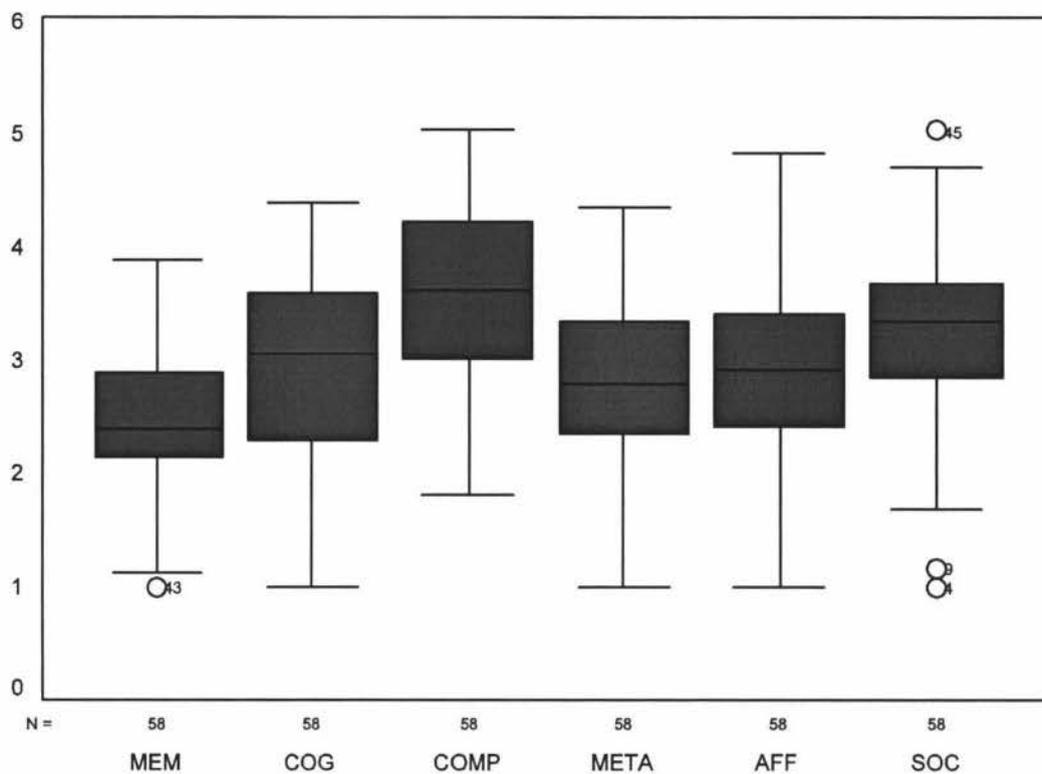
(a)

Boxplot for S_TOT_5 over 58 subjects



(b)

Boxplots of SILL subscale scores



(c)

I Rank order of mean responses to SILL

Item number	The SILL Strategies	Mean Scores
7	I physically act out new English words.	1.8
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1.8
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1.8
47	I practise English with other students.	2.2
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	2.3
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.3
8	I review English lessons often.	2.4
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	2.4
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	2.4
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	2.5
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	2.5
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	2.6
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	2.6
4	I remember a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	2.7
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	2.7
22	I try not to translate word-for word.	2.7
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	2.8
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	2.8

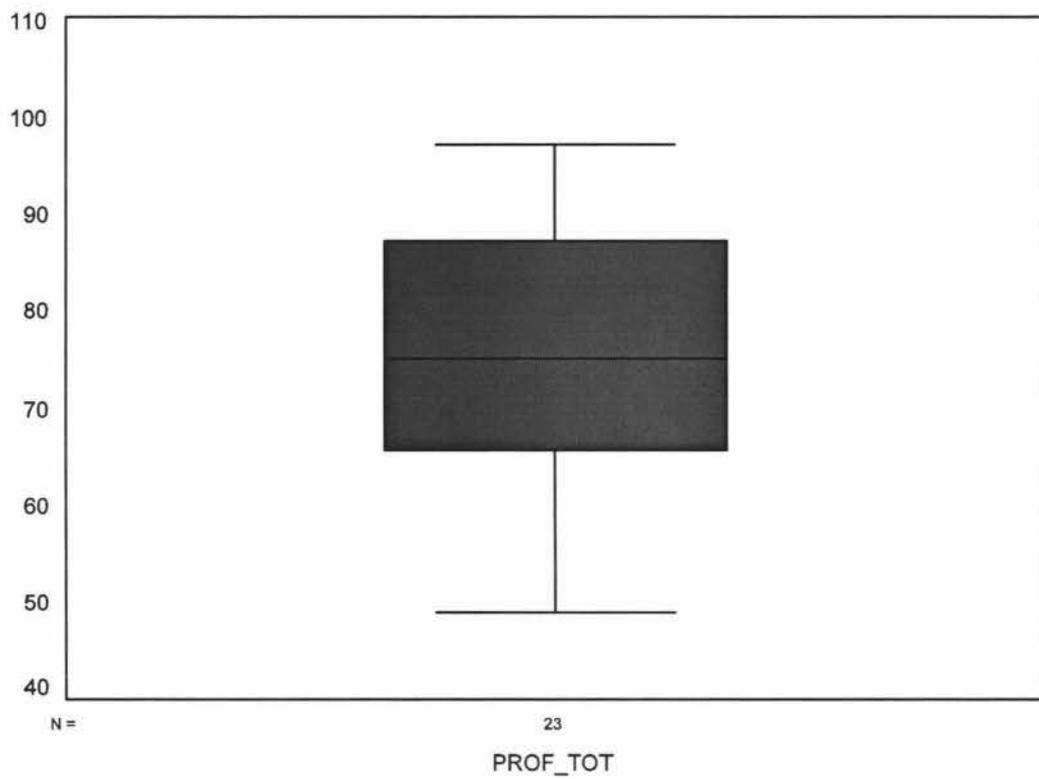
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	2.8
16	I read for pleasure in English.	2.8
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	2.8
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	2.8
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	2.8
20	I try to find patterns in English.	2.9
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	2.9
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	2.9
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.0
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	3.0
14	I start conversations in English.	3.1
18	I first skim an English passage (read the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.1
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.1
12	I practise the sounds of English.	3.1
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.2
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3.2
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	3.2
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	3.3
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	3.4
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	3.4
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.5

15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	3.5
10	I say or write new English words several times.	3.6
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3.7
49	I ask questions in English.	3.7
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	3.7
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.9
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	4.0
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrases that mean the same thing.	4.3

H
Proficiency test data

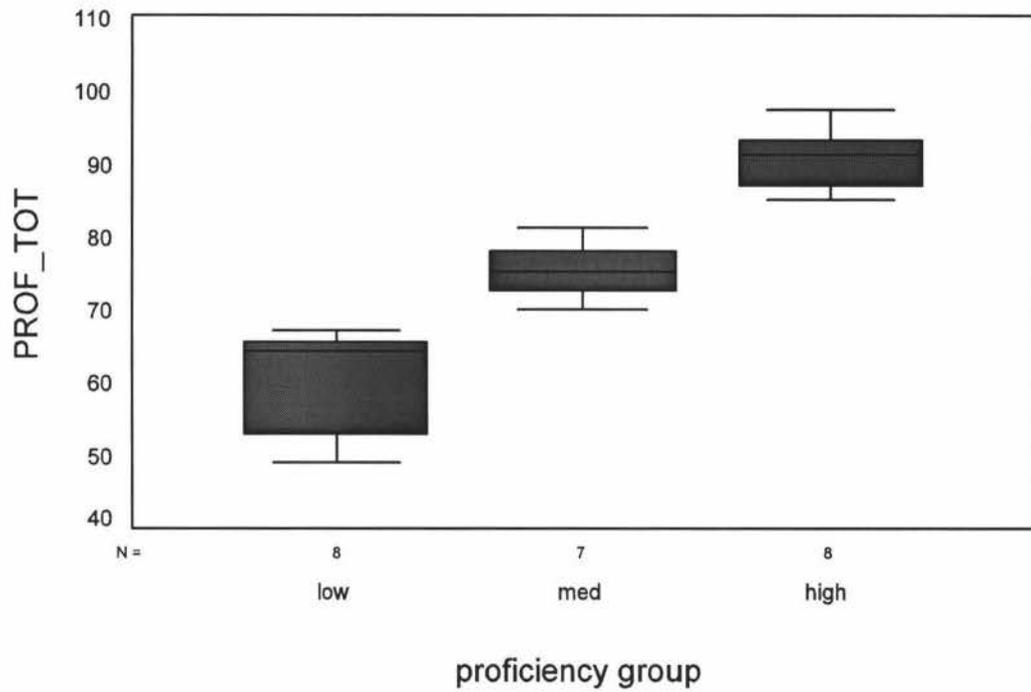
(a) Box plot for proficiency total over 23 subjects

Boxplot for PROF_TOT over 23 subjects



(b)

Boxplots showing distributions of total proficiency scores by proficiency group



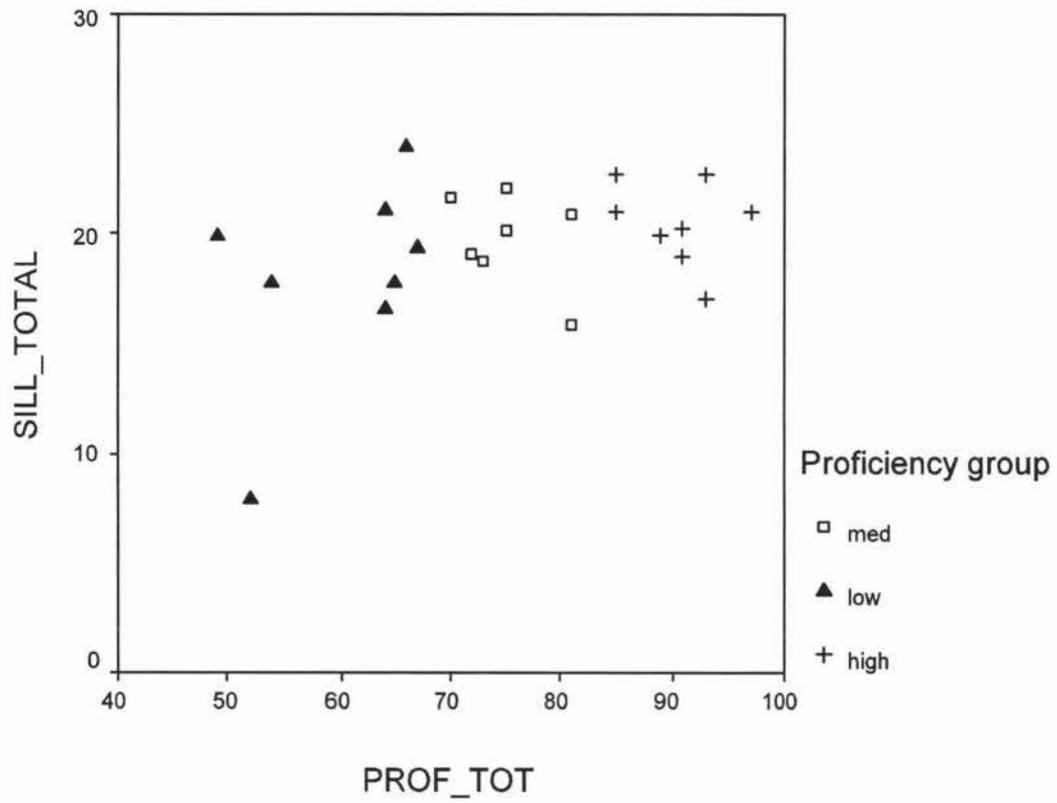
I

Relationships between SILL and Proficiency Data

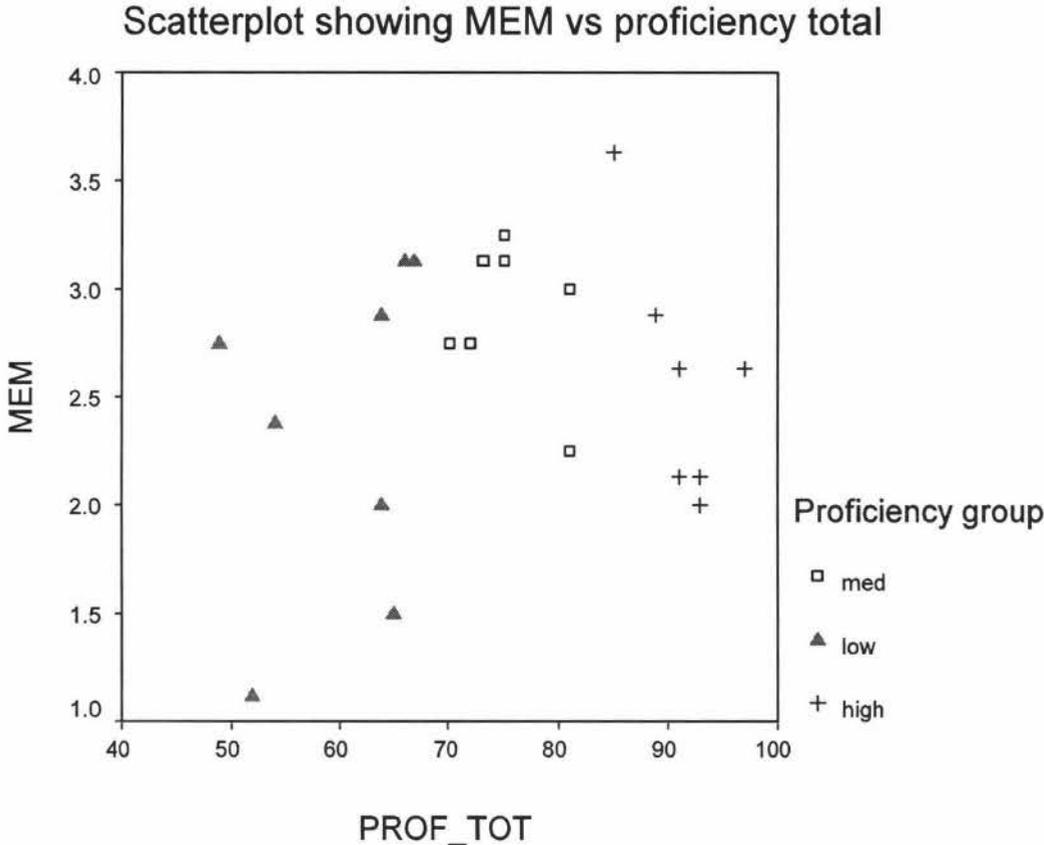
Scatter-plots showing SILL and the proficiency tests

(a) SILL total and proficiency total

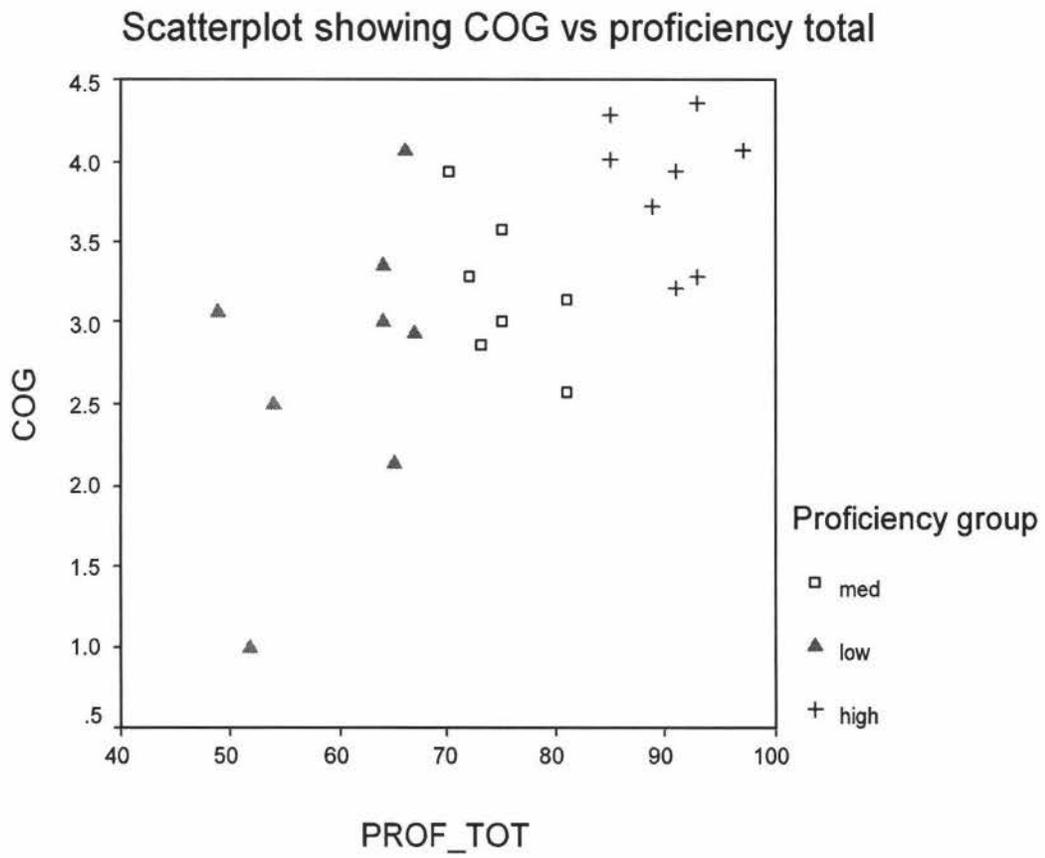
Scatterplot showing SILL total vs proficiency total



(b) Memory strategies and proficiency total

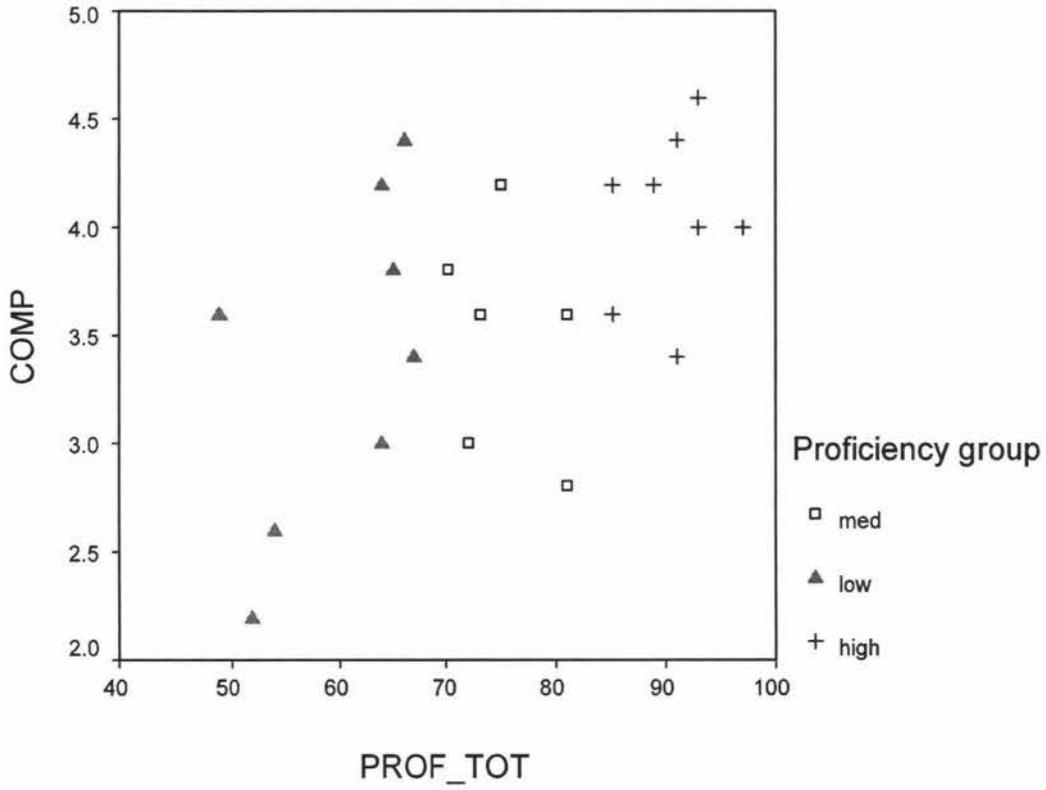


(c) Cognitive strategies and proficiency total

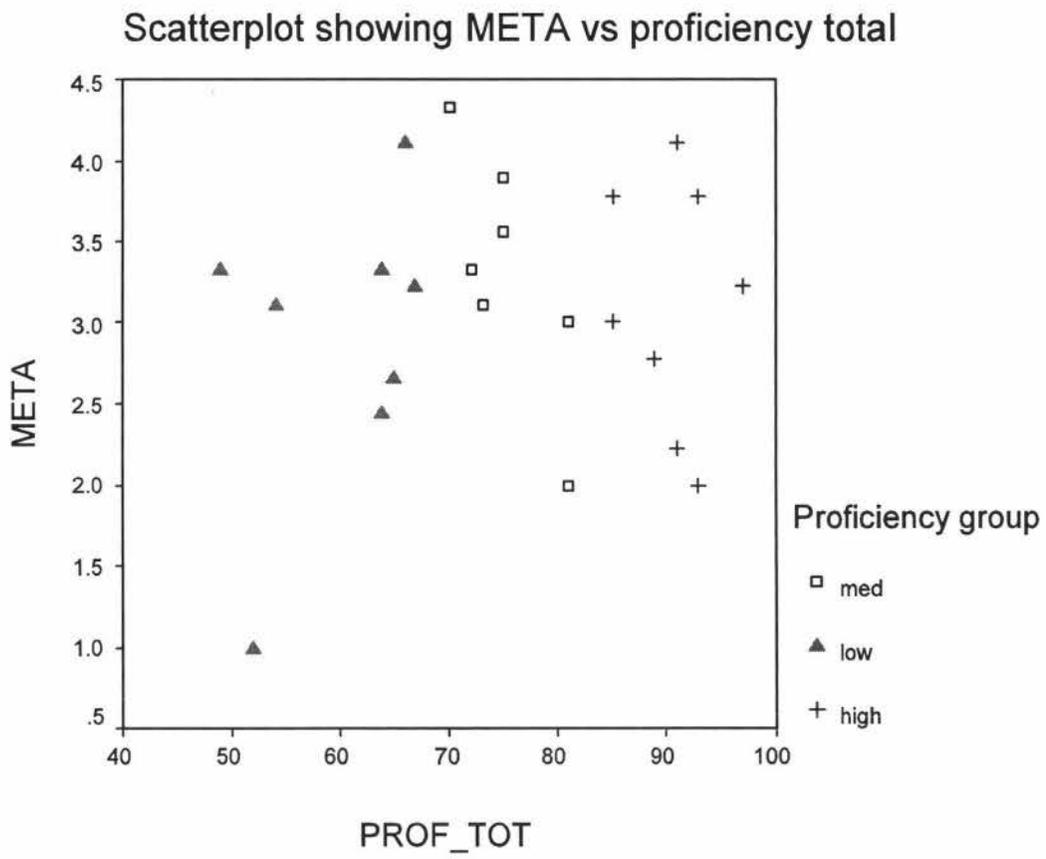


(d) Compensation strategies and proficiency total

Scatterplot showing COMP vs proficiency total

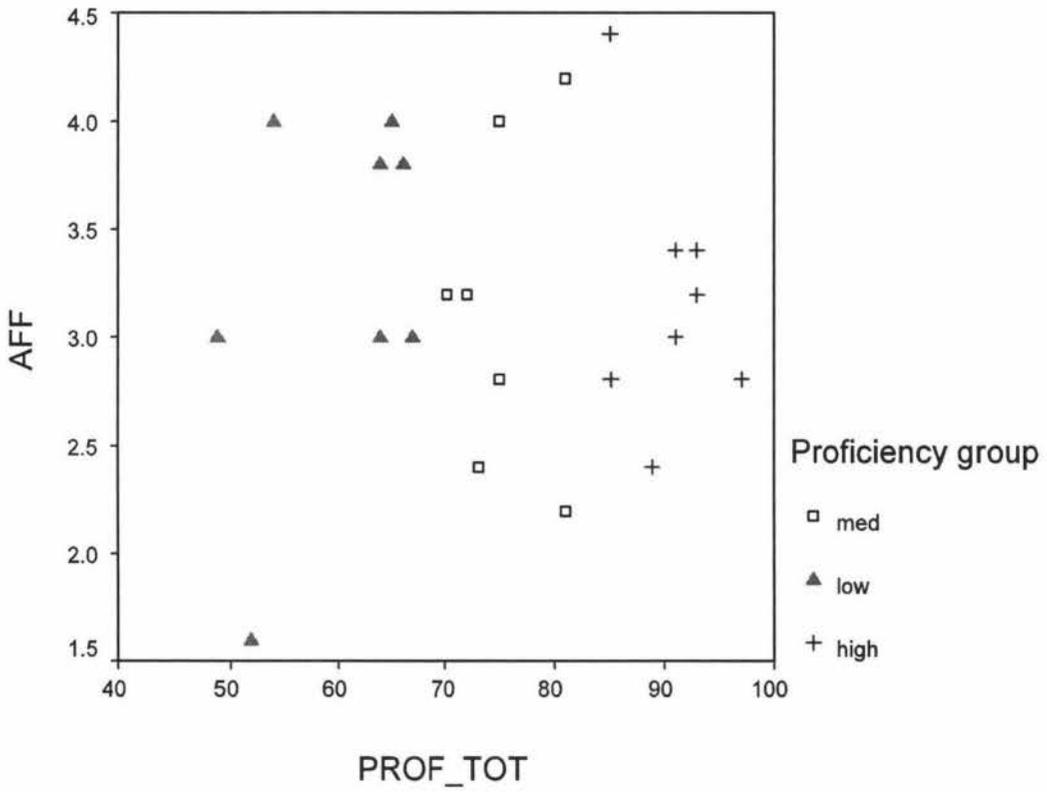


(e) Metacognitive strategies and proficiency total



(f) Affective strategies and proficiency total

Scatterplot showing AFF vs proficiency total



(g) Social strategies and proficiency total

