

L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY
STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

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A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Canberra

Australia

5 February 2013

ABSTRACT

This study investigates L2 speaking strategies used by Indonesian EFL tertiary students. The study addresses what strategies the students use in relation to L2 and speaking proficiency, as well as gender; how the students use the strategies; and why they use them in specific ways. It employs a mixed method approach, with a questionnaire, proficiency test, documents recording the students' speaking grades obtained at Gajayana University of Malang, speaking learning diaries, and interviews as the data collection instruments. Data collected by means of quantitative methods include questionnaires (N = 65), students' L2 proficiency scores (N = 65), and students' speaking grades (N = 65). Data collected by means of qualitative methods constitute speaking learning diaries (N = 20, 4 each) and interviews (N = 20). The study demonstrates that the students used a wide range of strategies that spread over six strategy groups, favouring metacognitive strategies. Regarding strategy use in relation to learner factors, the study reveals a statistically significant relationship between L2 proficiency and students' overall strategy use. It also shows that speaking proficiency and gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only. The study also demonstrates that the students used strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently because of the usefulness of the strategies or pleasure in using them. Implications for Indonesian EFL teachers, curriculum developers, and students are made.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Elke Stracke and Dr. Jeremy Jones for guidance, ideas, and feedback given to me throughout the research supervisory process. Such abundant assistance has played a crucial role in my success in carrying out this research. Additionally, interactions with both of them have undeniably taught me a good many ‘lessons’ that help me become more mature in handling professional and personal matters in my life.

I would also like to sincerely thank the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education for the financial support they made available to me. Without their sponsorship, my dream of pursuing a PhD would have remained a dream. Likewise, my gratitude goes to Gajayana Educational Foundation and Gajayana University of Malang for their support, in any form, throughout the research process.

Finally, I would like to thank colleagues whose assistance at certain stages of the research process has significantly contributed to the completion of this study: in alphabetical order Mr. Abdurrohman, for constant help regarding distance access of certain documents; Dr. Gunadi, for assistance concerning statistical data analysis; and Ms. Pradnya Paramita Dewi, for her tireless assistance during the data collection in the field.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DELL	Department of English Language and Literature
Di	Diary
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
GECC	Gajayana English Conversation Club
GPA	Grade Point Average
GUM	Gajayana University of Malang
Iv	Interview
L2	Second Language
SAC	Self-Access Centre
SILL	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TSE	Test of Spoken English

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the study. Following this introduction of the chapter, which outlines the content of the chapter, is the background of the study (1.2). It provides a description of the interest area and context of the study, as well as a review of what has been established in the literature, leading to the identification of gaps in the body of knowledge and where this study has a place. To address some of the identified gaps, I have outlined the procedures for carrying out the study. They include the specification of the research problem (1.3), research purpose (1.4), research questions (1.5), theoretical foundations (1.6), methodology (1.7), scope (1.8), contribution to the field (1.9), and organisation of the study (1.10). The chapter concludes with a brief summary of important points presented in it (1.11).

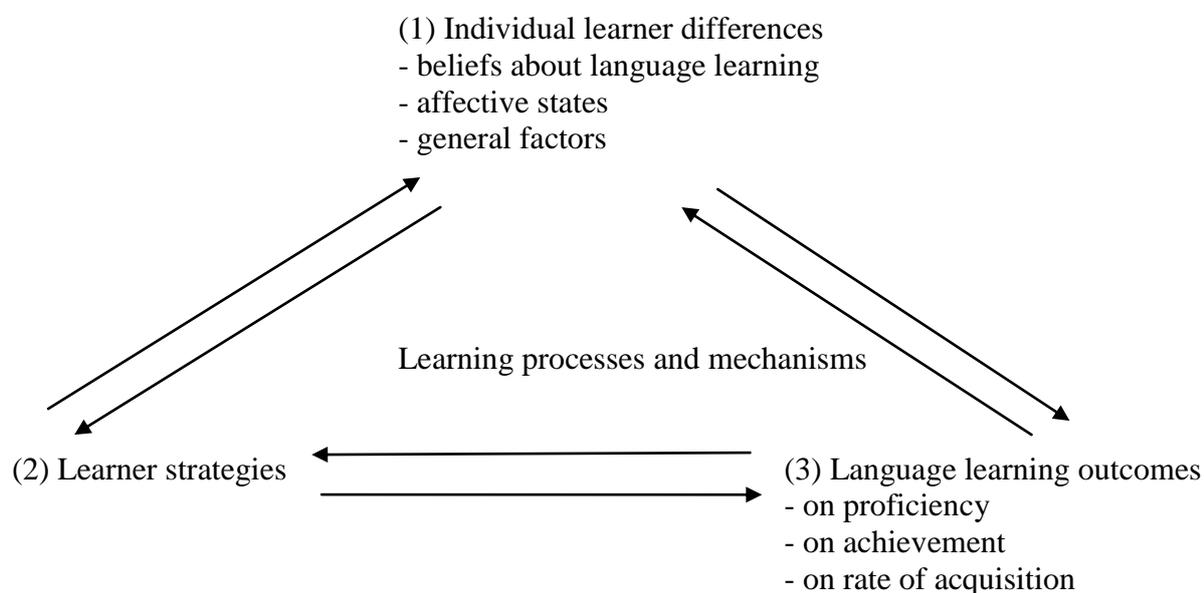
1.2 Background of the study

1.2.1 Research interest area

It is undeniable that some learners do better than others in learning an L2. This indicates that individual learner variables influence learning outcomes. Identification and classification of such learner variables, which help to demonstrate the importance of individual differences in L2 learning, have been undertaken (for example, Altman, 1980; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Skehan, 1989 as referred to in Ellis, 1994). However, Ellis (1994) argues that because of vague, overlapping constructs referred to in the studies and problematic terms chosen for labeling different factors, it is difficult to synthesize the results of those studies.

Despite the inconclusive identification and classification of individual learner variables, researchers (for example, Altman, 1980; Ellis, 1994; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Skehan, 1989) agree to acknowledge that learner strategies, the big umbrella under which language learning strategies stand, are among the learner variables that influence learning outcomes. As Ellis (1994) points out, learner strategies are one of the three interrelating variables used to construct a framework for investigating individual differences. The framework, shown in Figure 1.1 below, has three sets of variables. The first set consists of individual learner differences, which are of three main types: beliefs about language learning, affective states, and general factors. The second consists of learner strategies and the third concerns language learning outcomes, which can be considered in terms of overall L2 proficiency, achievement with regard to L2 performance on particular task, and rate of acquisition.

Figure 1.1 A framework for investigating individual learner differences (Ellis, 1994)



The three sets of variables are interrelated to one another. With regard to the interrelationships between learner strategies and individual learner differences, as well as between learner

strategies and language learning outcomes, the strategies that students employ can be influenced by individual learner difference variables, and can also have effects on them. For instance, students' affective state, which is one of the individual learner difference factors, influences the students' strategy use, in the sense that when they are anxious about practising speaking in the L2, for example, they could choose and employ one of the affective strategies (Oxford, 1990) that works best for their situation. They could employ the strategy 'using laughter', 'using music', or 'using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation' (Oxford, 1990) or a combination of these strategies, to manage their affective state. The students' strategy choice, which indicates their strategy use patterns, can be influenced by their individual learner differences. At the same time, the use of these strategies could have an effect on the students' affective state, i.e. their affective state is managed, and their anxiety lowers.

The interrelation between learner strategies and language learning outcome is similarly reciprocal. Students' strategy use can be influenced by their L2 proficiency, which is one of the indicators of language learning outcomes, and can also have an effect on their L2 proficiency level. For example, students with high L2 proficiency may select and use the compensation strategy 'using a circumlocution or synonym', instead of 'switching to the mother tongue' (Oxford, 1990) when they do not know an L2 word in the midst of a conversation practice in L2. The choice and use of the first strategy, which requires better vocabulary and understanding in L2 morphological and syntactical constructions, is obviously influenced by their high level of L2 proficiency. At the same time, the strategy use can also have an effect on their L2 proficiency level, i.e. the increase of L2 proficiency level as the result of practice.

Language learning strategies do influence L2 learning outcomes, but what are they? Language learning strategies still have no exact definition. Researchers (for example Brown, 2000; Cohen, 1990; Green and Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2008; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1992; Wenden and Rubin, 1987) define language learning strategies in slightly different ways, causing a debate about whether they are physical or mental, conscious or subconscious, and problem- or goal-triggered. To provide a working definition for this study, however, I have adopted Griffiths' definition for its ability to accommodate all the debated issues. Griffiths (2008, p. 87) defines learning strategies as "activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning."

The definition should provide an initial perspective on language learning strategies, the interest area of this study. What about the L2 learning outcomes from which language learning strategies gain their crucial roles, and on which language learning strategies have an effect? Regarding the L2 outcomes addressed in this study, I narrowed down its coverage, for the depth of the investigation, to the students' L2 proficiency in a single language skill, i.e. speaking skill. As Brown (2005) points out, from the two main mediums for communication in human language, it is the spoken medium that has primacy. This is supported by the fact that all languages have a spoken form, but many of them do not have a written form; in early childhood, humans learn to communicate in speech rather than in writing; and humans also spend a far longer time communicating in speech than in writing (Brown, 2008). Despite the primacy of speaking skills, in the field of L2 learning, there have been factors constraining the achievement on this specific language skill, such as the lack of opportunities for learners to speak in L2 (Brown, 2008), the examination-oriented teaching and learning process emphasizing more grammar and written language than the development of oral

communicative skills (Li, 2007), and the lack of exposure to the target language and culture (Shumin, 2002). Because of these constraints in L2 learning environment, learning strategies could probably offer a pathway to improvement.

Since language learning strategies can have an effect on learning outcomes, including on L2 speaking proficiency, and strategies can be learnt, students should be encouraged and assisted to employ them. One of the ways teachers could help students learn to use them is by providing strategy training, and materials that they can use for the training have been developed (for example, Brown, 1989; Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1986 and 1991). However, it is undeniable that there are many issues that need clarification before strategy training can be implemented effectively. Such issues include: what strategies and what combinations of strategies need to be taught; how to take into account students' own preferred strategies; how to convince particular students that strategy training is worthwhile; whether the strategy training is provided as a separate strand in a language program or is fully integrated into the language teaching materials; when the training should be attempted; and whether or not students should be made aware of the strategies they are taught (Ellis, 1994).

1.2.2 Research context

This subsection presents the general and specific context of this study. The general context constitutes the status and role of English in Indonesia. The specific context is English language learning and teaching at the Department of English Language and Literature (DELL) at Gajayana University of Malang (GUM). Details of the context follow.

1.2.2.1 Status and role of English in Indonesia

English was officially introduced in Indonesia in 1950, when the republican government of the newly independent country decided to adopt it as the first foreign language to be taught in the country. At the time, the reason for the choice of English, instead of Dutch, was that Dutch was perceived as the language of the enemy and English had greater value for international communication (Smith, 1991). Dutch was avoided probably because of very strong hatred of the Dutch who colonised Indonesia for 350 years, and intended to keep colonising Indonesia even after Soekarno and Mohammad Hatta had proclaimed the independence of the country on 17 August 1945. The Dutch constantly fought, and did not surrender until 27 December 1949. In the following year, when all the bitter memories of war against the Dutch were still very fresh, it was natural for the Indonesian people to avoid any Dutch-related matters that reminded them of the suffering they had endured. Therefore, Dutch was not selected as a foreign language for the country.

According to Smith (1991), at the early stage, in the 1950s, English played an important role as a tool for speeding up the development of Indonesia because most knowledge was to be found through English, a tool for forming friendships with other countries, and a tool for carrying out national foreign policies. By 1975, 25 years after its official declaration as the first foreign language taught in the country, the role of English had developed and broadened to be a tool for research and development of modern knowledge, culture, and technology, a tool for international relations, a tool for practical needs (for use in tourism, trade, diplomacy, and military affairs), and a linguistic resource to enrich the Indonesian language.

Similarly, Lauder (2008) summarizes the role of English in Indonesia as: a means of international communication in practically all walks of life; a medium through which

scientific knowledge and new technologies can be accessed and implemented with a view to succeeding in the global marketplace; a source of vocabulary for the development and modernization of the Indonesian language; and a way to get to know native speakers of English, their language, culture and literature. Lauder (2008) further explains that English has benefited Indonesian development through its role as a global language, in the sense that international communication, which is crucial for the development of Indonesia, has been made possible because of English.

In education English has also played an important role. In the 1950s, it was the only compulsory foreign language in schools (Lauder, 2008). Through times, it is now still a compulsory subject in the National Curriculum for students of junior and senior high schools, and while not compulsory, it is required by certain schools and provincial governments for students of elementary schools (EF-Australia, n.d.).

1.2.2.2 English language learning and teaching at GUM

In this sub-subsection, I will briefly present the specific background of the study related to the research site, GUM. Included in this specific context are a couple of important aspects: English language learning and teaching in DELL and my dual roles as an ‘insider’ at GUM as a teacher and the researcher of this study.

GUM is located in the city of Malang, East Java province, Indonesia. Before becoming a university, it was an academy of business management and accounting. In the latter’s fourth year of operation, in 1984, it changed into a school of economics. Two years later, on 20 May 1986, it changed into a university, and has kept the status until the present time. Its vision is to make itself one of the centres of education and science development for the

purpose of improving the intelligence of the nation and make it nationally and internationally recognised. Its mission is to: provide education that produces graduates of high quality, refined behaviour, and competitive and adaptable qualifications; develop and employ science, technology, and human resources in providing education, conducting research, and serving society; and serve society via education, research, and services, which promote the improvement of life quality (Universitas Gajayana Malang, 2004).

GUM has five faculties, each of which has one to three departments. They are the Faculties of Economics, Letters, Engineering, Computer Science, and Psychology. They offer courses for the *sarjana* degree, an undergraduate degree that requires a combination of coursework and research, over eight to 14 semesters. The Faculty of Economics is the only faculty that, in addition to the *sarjana* course, offers a graduate degree course, i.e. Master of Management.

The Faculty of Letters, whose students are the participants of this study, has a single department, DELL. It was founded in 1987 (Universitas Gajayana Malang, 2009) and offers a non-teacher training, English-major *sarjana* course, with the *Sarjana Sastra* (*Sarjana* of Letters) as its degree. To be awarded this degree, students are required to: pass all compulsory subjects listed in the curriculum, cumulatively gain 147-160 credit units, have a total GPA of at least 2.00 out of 4.00, have no more than three grades of D in the academic transcript, and finish the course over no more than seven years (Fakultas Sastra, 2007). It is worth noting that scoring system at GUM is a four-point scale, with A, which equals 4, as the highest grade, and D, which equals 1, as the minimum passing grade. Between them are the grades of B and C which equal 3 and 2 respectively (Fakultas Sastra, 2007). English language learning and teaching taking place in DELL is described more detail next.

English language learning and teaching in DELL

To address English language learning and teaching in DELL, I will briefly describe the students, teachers, curriculum, teaching-learning practices in relation to language learning strategies, and my roles, one of which is as a teacher in DELL.

The first important component of English language learning and teaching process in DELL is students. Students ranging in age from late teens to early twenties on entering the university have studied English for at least six years prior to the tertiary entry because English is a compulsory subject for students of junior and senior high schools, i.e. year 7 to 12, in Indonesia, and some of them may have started learning English earlier at elementary schools (see sub-subsection 1.2.2.1). Based on my knowledge as an ‘insider’ at GUM as a teacher (see the explanation of my dual roles for this study, provided in the next part of this sub-subsection), very few of the students have experienced living in English-speaking countries, yet most of them are highly motivated, for reasons that surely require a separate thorough investigation. One possible reason, however, is job-seeking competition that favours those who can speak English, which is in accordance with the importance of English as a global language (see sub-subsection 1.2.2.1).

Second, teachers in DELL are, like me, non-native English speakers. Some native English speaking volunteers, however, have occasionally taught speaking. For instance, in 2005-2006, a qualified native English speaking teacher from the US voluntarily taught speaking in DELL on a regular basis, twice a week for one semester. In 2007, two native English speakers, despite having no teaching qualifications, also voluntarily taught speaking in DELL for several weeks. The non-native English speaking teachers could either be permanent or casual employees of DELL. Casual teachers are employed normally to teach elective subjects or

subjects falling into the categories of personality development, professional behaviour, and social interaction (see Appendix 1 for the curriculum).

Reflecting on my informal conversations with colleagues in DELL about language learning strategies, I observed that, like me, some teachers had insufficient knowledge about the concept. This happened probably because at the time when we were students, we had not studied strategies as we majored in linguistics or literature. If we had taken one or two subjects in language teaching, language learning strategies had not yet been known.

Consequently, we became teachers without having had explicit overt strategy training and thus without awareness of language learning strategies and the role they could play. Some other teachers, however, had studied strategies at a Teacher Training and Education College, and it was from them that I first heard of the concept. Then I gained much greater familiarity with it during my master's in TESOL.

The third component of English language learning and teaching in DELL is curriculum. DELL uses a competency-based curriculum, developed in compliance with the decree of the Indonesian Minister of Education. It consists of subjects that are classified according to specific targeted competencies: personality development, discipline and skills mastery, professional expertise, professional behaviour, and social interaction. Four subjects fall into the category of personality development; 26 into discipline and skills mastery; 25 into professional expertise; 10 into professional behaviour; and 4 into social interaction. All in all, there are 69 subjects. Out of these, 59 are compulsory and 10 are elective. However, each student is required to pass a total of 58 compulsory subjects, not 59, because from two subjects on this list, i.e. History of English language and History of English literature, students must select one only. All the compulsory subjects are together worth 139 credits, and

the elective ones, 28 credits. To get the minimum passing cumulative credits for the degree, 147, students need to take elective subjects that are worth eight credits (see Appendix 1 for the curriculum). It is worth noting that none of the subjects listed in the curriculum is devoted to explicit overt strategy training.

Following the concept of explicit overt strategy training, it is worth making the idea clearer by briefly explaining what I mean by the concept here. Referring to Ellis (1994), a possible way to provide strategy training is as a separate strand in a language program. If a language program provider, such as DELL, provides strategy training in this way, it will have to allocate certain subjects devoted to the training and include them in the curriculum.

Additionally, strategy training becomes explicit and overt when the teachers make the students aware of the strategies they teach. This is explicit overt strategy training.

Alternatively, explicit overt strategy training could be provided by integrating it fully into the language teaching materials (Ellis, 1994). If it is provided in this way, in order to make this training explicit and overt the teachers should make the students aware of the strategies they teach. As I have stated earlier when describing teachers' familiarity with the concept of language learning strategies, most of the teachers at DELL do not have knowledge on the subject, which then entails lack of capability to provide strategy training in this second sense. How could a teacher teach something that he or she does not know? However, it can be said that teachers at DELL do provide strategy training without using the term by integrating the training in the teaching practices. Students are also made aware of the 'way' of learning. I refer to language learning strategies using the term 'ways' here to indicate that teachers at DELL provide strategy training without using the term because of their unfamiliarity with the concept.

The last component of English learning and teaching in DELL that provides important background to this study is me, one of the teachers. Details of my roles follow.

Dual roles of the researcher

In this study, I played a dual role: a teacher at DELL (thus an ‘insider’) and researcher. I am aware of the potential conflict of interest this may cause. To minimize serious conflict of interest, I should appropriately put myself in the right position. In order to do this, I will briefly discuss my motivation to conduct this study from the perspectives of my dual role, as an ‘insider’ first, followed by that as the researcher in this study.

I began my role as a teacher in GUM on 1 October 1994. My primary responsibilities, which apply to all other teachers in GUM, are indicated in the *Tri Dharma Perguruan Tinggi* [college three services (CTS)]: teaching, researching, and serving society. Meanwhile, my secondary responsibilities constitute administrative management. Concerning the primary responsibilities, I have to abide by the university policies for each aspect of CTS. As regards the secondary responsibilities, the university requires me, and all other teachers, to undertake some administrative work, such as student enrolment, course accreditation, and faculty or department management.

It was my teaching and administrative activities that led me towards doing this study. The idea began in 1995 when I supervised students’ extramural activities as one of the tasks listed in the job description of an associate dean for student affairs. My administrative responsibilities at that time required me to assist students organise and conduct their out-of-classroom activities.

First of all, I witnessed my students' autonomous behaviour when I participated in their outside-classroom English speaking practice as a resource person. The speaking practice was organised by them in the Gajayana English Conversation Club (GECC). GECC members voluntarily and enthusiastically practised speaking English with one another despite difficulties they were faced with. It was the students' voluntariness and willingness to do such activities that attracted my attention. They did it out of their own desire to regulate their learning, apparently needing no particular instruction or guidance from their teachers. It may be said that they demonstrated autonomous behaviour by employing the social strategy 'cooperating with peers' (Oxford, 1990), a concept that I myself was unfamiliar with at that time.

Second, the GECC organizing committee invited me to join an excursion, which they called 'moving class.' We and three native English speakers went to a nearby beach. On the beach, I witnessed my students' strong enthusiasm to practise speaking with the native speakers, an opportunity which did not come very often. Again, my students' autonomy through strategy use, 'practising naturalistically' (Oxford, 1990), provided me with food for thought.

Third, I was requested by my students to help improve their oral English for a drama performance. The students were the members of a theatrical group organised by DELL students called *Teater Nisbi*. They rehearsed English dialogues which they had simplified from a play script entitled *The Importance of Being Earnest*. At the end, they successfully performed the play on stage. What they did was evidently the employment of 'cooperating with more proficient users of the new language' (Oxford, 1990) by asking me, their teacher, to work with them. This was another significant experience that helped build up my motivation to carry out research on L2 speaking strategies.

Finally, I observed many other occasions when students of mine used language learning strategies. For example, some students practised speaking to one another in English when they took a rest under the tree outside my office after class; one or two students initiated interaction with me in English during thesis consultation; students switched into Indonesian when they did not know an English word in the midst of informal English conversation with me or with other teachers; and some students used gestures to compensate an unknown word. Referring to Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy, I, retrospectively, can see the use of 'cooperating with peers', 'cooperating with more proficient users of the new language', 'seeking practice opportunities', 'switching to the mother tongue', and 'using gestures' performed by the students as they struggled to learn the language. This observation contributed further to my motivation to conduct this research.

In addition to my initial observation of the strategic behaviour demonstrated by my students, my experience in teaching speaking in class played a part in my motivation, too. Teaching first-year students in the 1990s, to encourage the students to practise, I shared with them my own English speaking learning experiences. I told them that at the early stage of my learning of oral skills, I experienced physical tension as a symptom of anxiety. I noticed a slight back pain when I had to speak English. My 'way' to tackle the problem was to encourage myself not to worry too much because the more I worried, the more I found it hard to speak. In addition to the self-encouragement, I did some stretching and deep breathing. Back then, I myself did not know that the means I chose to deal with my anxiety that I shared with my students constituted an affective strategy (Oxford, 1990) and what I did to help my students was strategy training. Whenever they listened to me sharing my experience of learning to speak English, my students responded enthusiastically.

Thus, without knowing the concept, I had paid a good deal of attention to the area of L2 speaking strategies from the outset of my teaching career. My intrinsic motivation to carry out this study is based on my initial observation of the use of strategies and the students' strong interest in learning about and exercising them. I then sought to examine formally my students' strategy use, how and why they use them. Apart from my inspirational experience of observing students' strategy use, I was drawn to conduct this study because it would fill a gap in the literature on language learning strategies in the Indonesian context. Clearly there is much to contribute in this area (see the next subsection, 1.2.3, for details of the gaps in the literature).

Despite my motivation to carry out this study, inspired by the expectation of interesting and useful findings, there is a potential for conflict of interest. However, in positioning myself as an 'insider', I constantly bore in mind the importance of validity. There are ways of minimizing the subjectivity of the insider's perspective to increase validity. For example, at the stage of the data collection in the field, I persisted in requiring my students to answer the questions posed in the questionnaires, speaking learning diaries, and interviews as sincerely and forthrightly as they could. The data collection tools were as objective as possible, the same as those that an outsider would implement (see subsection 3.3.2 in Chapter 3 for details on minimisation of threat to validity and reliability). Being an 'insider', however, allows me to gain privileged insights into strategy use in this educational context.

1.2.3 Research position in the literature and the Indonesian context

Although L2 learning strategies have been extensively investigated outside the Indonesian context since Rubin published *What the 'good language learner' can teach us* in 1975, L2 learning strategies used by Indonesian EFL tertiary students were not yet investigated until

late 1990s (Mistar, 2001). Among the few studies are Anam (2010), Huda (1998), Lengkanawati (2004), and Mistar (2001), each of which has a different focus of investigation. In the light of the clear potential for study in the many facets of language learning strategies, and in the huge tertiary sector in Indonesia, these represent relatively few studies.

The second issue where there is a gap in the literature is that little has been attempted to investigate L2 speaking strategies among Indonesian EFL tertiary students. Of the studies in the Indonesian context I have just referred to, one investigated strategy use in relation to L2 speaking proficiency and learning styles (Huda, 1998). All the others had a different focus of investigation. Anam (2010) probed strategy use for reading skills in relation to cognitive styles and reading proficiency; Lengkanawati (2004) compared strategy use among foreign language learners with different cultural backgrounds; and Mistar (2001) examined the relationship between language learning strategy use and individual learner differences, i.e. language aptitude, personality traits, attitudes, and motivation.

It is worth pointing out here that although Huda (1998) and this study both probed L2 speaking strategies, they differed from each other in the research approach, data collection procedures, and examined variables. Huda (1998) employed quantitative methods but I used a mixed method approach. He collected the data by means of open-ended questionnaires, but I did it using a combination of five-point Likert-scales questionnaires, learning diaries, and individual semi-structured interviews. As regards the different examined variables, he examined learning styles, whereas this study examined overall L2 proficiency and gender in relation to students' strategy use. The choice of proficiency level as variable in this study is based on its high importance, given that it is the main indicator of the 'good language learner', one of the roots of language learning strategy research. With regard to gender, it is

important to probe whether it affects strategy use of Indonesian students because gender inequality is still a major issue in the Indonesian context.

Third, there has been no research in the Indonesian context that focuses on the ways students use language learning strategies and the reasons why they use them in such specific ways. For this reason, the present study serves to fill this gap. A more detailed review of strategy studies in the Indonesian context can be found in subsection 2.5.2 in Chapter 2.

1.3 Research problem

In line with the context of the study as presented in subsection 1.2.2, the problem explored in this study is the use of L2 speaking strategies among Indonesian EFL tertiary students at GUM despite the absence of explicit strategy training. The study also concerns the relationships between strategy use and selected learner factors (L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender).

1.4 Research purpose

The primary purpose of this study is to gain an overall picture of L2 speaking strategies among students at GUM, and an in-depth understanding of the strategy use from the perspective of how students use the strategies and why they use them in specific ways. The secondary purpose is to ascertain the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender.

1.5 Research questions

To guide the study to achieve its purposes, I developed four research questions. The first research question is for the quantitative aspect of the study, which consists of three sub-

questions. The second and third research questions are for the qualitative aspect, and the last relates to the mixed methods of the study spanning both quantitative and qualitative data collection. The questions and sub-questions are as follows:

1. What L2 speaking strategies do students use?
 - a. What strategy and strategy group do students favour the most and least?
 - b. Does proficiency in L2, in general, and speaking, in specific, significantly affect strategy use?
 - c. Does gender significantly affect strategy use?
2. How do students use L2 speaking strategies?
3. Why do students use L2 speaking strategies in specific ways?
4. How do the qualitative findings explain strategies revealed in the quantitative phase?

To help investigate the research problems posed in these research questions, I reviewed theories and research studies for the theoretical foundation for this study. I present a brief review in the next section (see the more detailed review of the literature in Chapter 2).

1.6 Theoretical foundations

This section sets out the theoretical foundations for investigating the research problems indicated in the research questions. For the theoretical foundation for the first research question and its sub-questions, I focused the review on particular theories: definitions of language learning strategies; classification of strategies; and on research findings regarding the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. For the second and the third questions, I focused on initial understanding of the ways students use strategies and motives why they use the strategies in such specific ways. The integration of the quantitative and qualitative results prescribed by the explanatory mixed method design provides a foundation to answer the fourth research question. The details follow.

1.6.1 What L2 speaking strategies do students use?

Since theorists have defined language learning strategies in different ways, it was decided to adopt the definition proposed by Griffiths (2008, p. 87), “activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning”, as the working definition for this study (see subsection 1.2.1). This definition seems to work best for the concept of language learning strategies I address in this study. Applying this definition to this study, it would be feasible to view L2 speaking strategies as any physical or mental behaviour consciously chosen by students for the purpose of regulating their own learning to speak English.

Having decided which definition of language learning strategies was to be used for the study, I needed to select which strategy taxonomy to use as the theoretical foundation for investigating what language learning strategies students employ. Out of the strategy taxonomies available in the literature, I chose the one provided by Oxford (1990), which is considered the most comprehensive (Ellis, 1994), detailed, and systematic classification of learning strategies to date (Radwan, 2011). The taxonomy consists of two major classes of strategies, direct and indirect. Direct strategies are further sub-classified into memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are sub-classified into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Oxford (1990) also lists 46 strategies from her strategy taxonomy as useful for learning to speak (see section 2.4 in Chapter 2).

1.6.1.1 Does proficiency in L2, in general, and speaking, in specific, significantly affect strategy use?

Research into the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency demonstrates that students with higher proficiency use more strategies more often than those with lower

proficiency do (Green and Oxford, 1995; Liu, 2004; Nguyen, 2008; Radwan, 2011; Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007; Wharton, 2000; Wu, 2008; Yang, 2007). Research also reveals trends of the relationship between both variables: linear (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Green and Oxford, 1995; Lan and Oxford, 2003; Liu, 2004; Radwan, 2011; Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007; Wharton, 2000; Wu, 2008), and curvilinear (Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Radwan, 2011). According to Radwan (2011), a linear relationship implies a simple correspondence between the two variables. For instance, more proficient students use more strategies more frequently than less proficient students. Meanwhile, curvilinear relationship indicates a complex correspondence, like the use of fewer strategies by more proficient students, but they were used more effectively.

As regards the relationship between strategy use and speaking proficiency, there have been some precisions on variables in the methodology: language learning strategies act as a dependent variable, and speaking proficiency an independent variable (Cabaysa and Baetiong, 2010; Kawai, 2008), strategies act as an independent variable, and speaking proficiency a dependent variable (for example, Li, 2007), and strategy training acts as an independent variable, and speaking proficiency a dependent variable (for example, Weyers, 2010). No matter whether strategies act as a dependent or independent variable, research reveals a significant relationship between both variables (Cabaysa and Baetiong, 2010). Research also reveals positive effects of strategy use or strategy training on speaking proficiency (Li, 2007; Weyers, 2010) and the use of fewer strategies by students with higher speaking proficiency (Huda, 1998).

1.6.1.2 Does gender significantly affect strategy use?

Research into the relationship between strategy use and gender has offered some conflicting findings. Most studies reveal female students' strategy use surpassing male students' in terms of quantity, frequency, and quality of use (Catalán, 2003; Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Green and Oxford, 1995; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Lan and Oxford, 2003; Liu, 2004; Nguyen, 2008). A couple of studies reveal male students' strategy use surpassing female students' (Radwan, 2011; Wharton, 2000), and few others demonstrate no or a less clear distinction between male students' and female students' strategy use (Dadour and Robbins, 1996; Ehrman and Oxford, 1990; Kaylani, 1996; Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007).

1.6.2 How do students use L2 speaking strategies?

To the best of my knowledge, no research has focused its investigation comprehensively on the ways students use language learning strategies. However, some research studies have provided an initial understanding of this subject. The studies indicate that students use strategies in the dimension of frequency (Green and Oxford, 1995; Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987; Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007; Zhang and Goh, 2006), consciousness (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007; Zhang and Goh, 2006), confidence (Zhang and Goh, 2006), efficiency (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007), effectiveness (Cohen, 1998), appropriateness (Vann and Abraham, 1990), systematicity (Vann and Abraham, 1990), desperation (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011b), and randomness (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011b).

1.6.3 Why do students use L2 speaking strategies in specific ways?

There is no research study that specifically investigates the ways students use strategies, and indeed there is no study that concentrates on the reasons why they use strategies in specific ways, either. A couple of studies, however, have provided initial understanding on the subject.

Lee and Oxford (2008), for instance, indicate that more frequent use of language learning strategies is related to three learner factors: strategy awareness, perceptions of the importance of English, and self-perception of high English proficiency. Zhang and Goh (2006) argue that, despite the awareness of the usefulness of strategies, students were not yet conscious and confident strategy users. These findings give a sketch of the ‘reasons’ why students use strategies in specific ways.

In summary, the theories and research studies, along with the gaps in the literature, are at the basis of the execution of this study. These theories and research studies have provided a theoretical foundation for addressing the research problems as formulated in the research questions of this study. Essentially, the definitions and classifications of language learning strategies drawn from literature are a tool for investigating the problem of what strategies students use, along with what strategy and strategy group the students favour the most and least, which is the first research question and the first sub-question respectively. In addition, research findings play a role in finding answers to the other sub-questions of the first research question and the further research questions. To investigate the relationship between strategy use and L2 and speaking proficiency, I have used studies presented in sub-subsection 1.6.1.1 as the basis for interpreting the findings, as well as locating what contributions this study makes to the body of knowledge about the relationship between the two variables. Likewise, I have used studies presented in sub-subsection 1.6.1.2 when investigating the relationship between strategy use and gender.

Research findings also assist in addressing the second and the third research questions. Initial understanding of the ways students use strategies and the reasons why they use them in specific ways that were provided by research studies briefly reviewed in subsections 1.6.2 and

1.6.3 respectively, acted as a starting point to explore the two issues. As regards the last research question, how the qualitative results explain strategies found in the quantitative phase of the study, there is no need to refer to specific theories or research findings because the question acts as a connector between the quantitative and qualitative results of this mixed method study, whose procedure is clearly prescribed by the mixed method design selected for this study (see section 3.2 in Chapter 3 for the explanatory mixed method design applied in this study).

With the aid of the theories and research findings as outlined above, the study generates a comprehensive mixed method approach offering not only an overall picture of L2 speaking strategies employed by Indonesian EFL tertiary students, but also a more complete and fuller understanding of how the students use the strategies and why they use them in such specific ways. This greater understanding of the use of L2 speaking strategies in the Indonesian context will help successfully address three issues that underlie the rationale for the study (see subsection 1.2.3). To briefly readdress those three issues in relation to the ultimate findings, it is hoped that this study makes a significant contribution to research on language learning strategies in the Indonesian context, in terms of both quantity and quality; improves research on L2 speaking strategies in the Indonesian context, complementing Huda (1998); and thus becomes the first research study on language learning strategies to cover the issues of the ways students use strategies and the reasons why they use them in such specific ways.

1.7 Methodology

This is a mixed method study that follows the explanatory design to pursue the primary research purpose. The participants of the study were 65 English majors at GUM, representing about 60% of the entire students enrolled in DELL.

The data collection and analysis procedure was sequential: the quantitative phase was done first, followed by the qualitative phase. At the stage of data collection, the quantitative and qualitative phases were connected when 20 subsamples were chosen from the 65 students participating in the quantitative phase for the collection of the qualitative data. Then, at the stage of data analysis and interpretation, I mixed the quantitative and qualitative phases through integration of results of both phases.

To collect the quantitative data, I employed a questionnaire, proficiency test, and documents of students' speaking grades achieved in GUM. The questionnaire was adapted from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) (Oxford, 1990), and used a five-point Likert-scale to probe how true the statements about L2 speaking strategy use were to the students (see Appendix 2 for the questionnaire). To collect the data on the students' L2 proficiency, I used a paper-based TOEFL Practice Test (see Appendix 3 for the test, and Appendix 4 for the students' scores), and documents containing the students' speaking grades achieved in GUM, for their speaking proficiency (see Appendix 4 for the grades). To collect the qualitative data, I distributed a diary template on which 20 selected students wrote their activities representing L2 speaking strategies (see Appendix 5 for the diary template). I also interviewed them (see Appendix 6 for the interview protocols guide).

To analyse the quantitative data, descriptive and inferential statistical analysis were employed. The descriptive statistics generated results used to answer the first research question, along with its first sub-question. Then, inferential statistics were used to extract results leading to the answers to the second and third sub-questions of the first research question. To analyse the qualitative data, I applied the meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996). The results provided the answer to the first, second and third research questions. To answer the fourth

question, I integrated the qualitative with the quantitative results by identifying the way the latter results explain the former results.

1.8 Scope of the study

The scope of the study is ‘language learning strategies’, a category of strategy that has its place under the umbrella of ‘learner strategies’, in contrast to, for instance, ‘teacher strategies’. As mentioned earlier, these strategies constitute “activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning” (Griffiths, 2008, p. 87). To be more specific, these language learning strategies were employed by students for their learning of speaking, not for the learning of other language skills. Following Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010) regarding the technical term used to refer to these strategies, the inquiry is restricted only to the use of ‘L2 speaking strategies’. Therefore, strategy-related themes beyond ‘L2 speaking strategies’ are outside the concern of this study. The in-depth investigation into L2 speaking strategies is limited to the ways students use the strategies and why they use them in such specific ways.

Regarding the gaps identified in the literature (see subsection 1.2.3) the limitation of the study to language learning strategies is an advantage, given that in the Indonesian context, language learning strategies are under-researched. Narrowing the scope further to a focus on speaking skills gives the study even more significance in the research field.

1.9 Contribution of the study

The findings of this study contribute to both theory and practice. To theory, regarding the question of what L2 speaking strategies students use, this study contributes new strategies that expand Oxford’s (1990) strategy taxonomy. On the matter of how students use strategies, this

study offers two other ways: ‘effortful’ and ‘persistent’ use of strategies. Contribution also goes to theory of L2 speaking strategies, in terms of the reasons why students use strategies in specific ways. This study found ‘pleasure in using strategies’ as one of the reasons, and this had not yet been revealed by other studies in the literature.

The findings of this study contribute to practice in the form of pedagogical implications for teachers, curriculum developers, and students. For teachers, findings in the study, once disseminated, may raise their awareness of L2 speaking strategy use among students. Such awareness could lead them to work on their professional development, either by updating their knowledge about language learning strategies or by better assisting students to use strategies. For curriculum developers, the findings provide a basis for incorporating strategy training into the curriculum. They could do it either by setting up subject(s) devoted to the training or designing syllabi that allow the integration of strategy training into teaching materials. For students, the findings enable them to have access to strategy training and reference regarding L2 speaking strategies accessed through the library of GUM.

1.10 Organization of the study

This study takes the form of a thesis which consists of six chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, results of data analysis, discussion of findings, and conclusion. I will briefly explain the outline of each of the following chapters.

Chapter 2, Literature Review, presents a review of theories and research studies available in the literature. It provides a broad theoretical framework for the whole study and a theoretical foundation for the investigation of problems posed in the research questions of this study. The literature review also shows what has been established, which helps identify where this study

stands in the literature. The chapter begins with a review of theories that covers the concept of learner autonomy, definitions of learning strategies, and classification of learning strategies. The review of strategy studies includes studies outside and inside the Indonesian context, and they are reviewed in terms of the research themes, timeline, and degree of relevance to this study. Those closely relevant to this study constitute studies about strategy use in relation to the learner factors of L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. Strategy studies providing initial understanding of the ways students use strategies and why they use them in specific ways are also closely relevant to this study.

Chapter 3, Methodology, offers the methodological framework for this study. It begins with an explanation of the research approach adopted for the study. This covers the definition and characteristics of the mixed method approach, four principal mixed method designs, and the rationale for the choice of the approach and the explanatory design. The steps to design and conduct this study and the ways to ensure its validity and reliability are also presented. The chapter then provides descriptions of the research participants, data collection methods, as well as the sequential procedures for the data collection. The chapter concludes with the explanation of the management and analytical techniques for both the quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 4, Results of Data Analysis, sets out the results of data analysis generated in the quantitative, qualitative, and combined methods phases of the study. The quantitative results constitute what L2 speaking strategies students employed, what strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least, and whether or not L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender significantly affected strategy use. The qualitative results include what L2 speaking strategies students employed, from the qualitative perspective, some of

which are new strategies that could expand Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy. The results also cover the ways students used L2 speaking strategies and the reasons why they used them in specific ways. The integrated quantitative and qualitative results constitute the ultimate findings of this mixed method study.

Chapter 5, Discussion of Findings, offers a discussion of key findings of the study. The chapter begins with a discussion of an important matter not directly related to the research questions but that emerged from the data and was relevant to the topic of the study in general. This is concerned with learner independence. This is followed by a discussion of findings serving as the direct answers to the research questions and sub-questions: what L2 speaking strategies students used, what strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least, whether or not L2 and speaking proficiency significantly affected strategy use, and whether or not gender significantly affected strategy use; how students used strategies; why they used them in such specific ways; and how the qualitative findings explained the quantitative findings. Findings are discussed with reference to research studies on language learning strategies available in the literature, and, most importantly, the findings purely derived from this study are discussed by presenting important issues related to them. It is claimed that these findings are the main contribution of this study to the body of research on language learning strategies.

Chapter 6, Conclusion, summarizes the key findings of the study. With reference to the findings, the chapter addresses implications of the study for theory and practice. Implications for theory include an expansion of Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy, the additional knowledge about the ways students employ L2 speaking strategies and the reasons why they employ them in specific ways. Implications for practice include the provision of a basis for

teacher professional development, curriculum development, and students' strategy use development. The chapter also presents the limitations of the study, which are the basis of recommendations for future research.

1.11 Conclusion

In summary, this study is essential as a means of gaining knowledge about L2 speaking strategy use among Indonesian EFL English majors in GUM. I chose to apply a mixed method approach to achieve the primary purpose of the study.

Bearing in mind the interrelated variables in the SLA process (Ellis, 1994) where language learning strategies can be influenced by individual learner factors and language learning outcomes, and strategies can also have an effect on the individual learner factors and on the learning outcomes, four research questions have been formulated for this study. The first research question, along with its three sub-questions, marks the quantitative aspect, whilst the second and the third research questions indicate the qualitative aspect of the study. The fourth question facilitates the blend of both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study. To provide the theoretical framework and foundations to investigate the research problems, I referred to theories and research studies on language learning strategies. Findings of the study serve as contributions to the body of knowledge and research on language learning strategies.

This brief summary concludes the introductory chapter of this study, which is followed by the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews theories and research studies that serve as the theoretical framework for the study and the theoretical foundations for the investigation of the answer to the research questions. The theories include learner autonomy (2.2), definitions of language learning strategies (2.3) and classification of the strategies (2.4). The review of research studies (2.5) includes research studies on language learning strategies outside (2.5.1) and inside the Indonesian context (2.5.2). The chapter concludes with a summary of important points spreading throughout the chapter (2.6).

2.2 Learner autonomy

This section, which serves as the theoretical framework for the whole study, briefly reviews what learner autonomy is and how it relates to language learning strategies. The review is basically intended to give background knowledge on where language learning strategies are situated within the literature.

According to Oxford (2011b), the concept of autonomy, which means self-governance, was first applied to ancient Greek city-states, and later to people. Earlier theorists of the field, as mentioned by Oxford (2011b), identified autonomous people in various ways: those who became what they were intended to be (Spinoza, 1677/1986), morally-reasoning males (Kant, 1797/1996), free-market entrepreneurs (Mill, 1871/1998), successfully-exploring toddlers (Erikson, 1950/1993), self-actualized people (Rogers, 1963), and decision-making individuals (Peters, 1973).

In education, the concept of autonomy developed into that of learner autonomy. According to Cotterall (2008), learner autonomy is concerned with learners' ability to take charge of their own learning methodologically (Holec, 1981), psychologically (Little, 1991), and politically/socially (Benson, 2001). As Holec (1981) points out, taking charge of one's own learning involves responsibility for determining the objectives of learning, defining the content and progress of learning, selecting methods and techniques to use, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has been acquired. This focuses on technical aspects of learning by giving more attention to the importance of methodological skills that learners need to manage their learning. Meanwhile, Little (1991) describes autonomy as a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action. This entails that learners develop a particular type of psychological relation to the process and content of their learning. Learners can demonstrate the ability to learn autonomously both in their learning approach and in the way learning is transferred to other situations. Benson (2001), as interpreted by Cotterall (2008), introduces a political and social element to the definition: to take charge of one's own learning, a learner should be able to determine the content of learning freely. Thus, autonomous learners not only decide how and when they learn, and how they think about and manage their learning, but also what and where they learn.

According to Cotterall (2008), the methodological, psychological, and political/social dimensions of learner autonomy have separately become the focus of research studies, although, according to Benson (2001), they are interdependent to one another. In addition to having each of these dimensions as their focus, research studies on learner autonomy have also had different centres of concern. There have been four groups of research studies on learner autonomy: those exploring the essential nature of learner autonomy; those

investigating means of fostering autonomous behaviour among learners; those attempting to measure the effectiveness of efforts to foster autonomous behaviour; and those documenting and analysing individual learners' language learning histories (Cotterall, 2008).

Falling into the group of studies on the means of fostering autonomous behaviour among learners are research studies on the link between learner autonomy and language learning strategies. Hyland's (2000) work, according to Cotterall (2008, p. 112), is one example. She demonstrates that, in some circumstances, students in her study showed autonomous behaviour in handling feedback on their learning of writing by employing certain strategies. However, teachers' interventions that sometimes overrode student concerns and decisions on use of feedback led to students relinquishing control of their writing and revision processes, as well as their written product. Instead of intervening too rigidly, according to Hyland (2000), teachers should have encouraged students to take more responsibility for their own writing, because immediately after the course, they would be expected to take full responsibility for their own writing and to revise it on their own, using their own strategies. Teachers should have considered ways of helping them to achieve the goal.

Oxford (1990) claims that teaching students strategies can improve overall autonomy. An empirical experiment on this notion was carried out at the Eurocentre Language Training Institute in the UK, where language learners had to implement continuous self-assessment of oral communicative skills, but teachers maintained their traditional, directive roles. The teachers introduced some elements of learner autonomy by using self-assessment strategies. Commenting on this experiment, Oxford (1990) states that despite some problems, the experiment was interesting and useful in encouraging the use of learning strategies in a traditional language learning environment. She points out that teaching new strategies to

students will accomplish very little if the students do not have greater responsibility for their own learning.

Further example comes from Nunan et al. (1999). In probing ways in which students develop autonomy in language learning, they developed three independent projects with students at the University of Hong Kong, the Chinese University of Hong Kong, and City University respectively. The first investigated the effect of strategy training on students' ability to reflect on and monitor their own learning process. It showed that the training process stimulated the students to be in better control of their learning process. The second examined the effect of guided critical reflection on learners' capacity to organize their learning of listening. It disclosed an increased selection of a range of learning materials for practising listening skills, an enhanced ability in setting relevant learning objectives for specific materials, a more precise specification of listening problems and corresponding strategies, and more in-depth self-assessment. The third explored the autonomy-fostering potential power of learning through the electronic book, and how training in navigation skills could help students gain insights into their own learning process within the context of computer assisted instruction. As this project was in progress, it was expected that appropriate models, materials and interface would minimize cognitive overhead – the time and mental investment required to move along the learning curve associated with new technology. It was also expected that the training of navigation skills would empower students in the way they explored tangents and thus increased learner control. These three projects led the overall study to conclude that autonomy was enhanced through many ways, chief among them by systematically incorporating strategy training into learning process.

In the light of these studies, one could interpret that the link between learner autonomy and language learning strategies is reciprocal. The concept of learner autonomy facilitates the emergence of language learning strategies, and the use of language learning strategies fosters overall learner autonomy. This reciprocity supports the interrelated variables in L2 learning process and mechanism (Ellis, 1994) as presented in Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1.

Applying the concept of learner autonomy to this study, I tend to view the notion of learner autonomy as the ability to take charge of one's own learning methodologically, psychologically, and socially. As regards the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategies, I agree that it is reciprocal. Thus, in the context of this study, students become autonomous by gradually moving away from their strong dependence on their teachers' prescriptions through the employment of language learning strategies. However, strategy training is required to help them improve the quality of their autonomy, and to succeed in the effort, students' autonomous behaviour should be maintained.

As a means to foster autonomous learning behaviour among language learners, language learning strategies have become a separate research area that is rich in issues to be investigated. One of the issues is what these strategies actually are. Some definitions proposed by researchers and theorists in the field, which are accompanied by deeper explanation than that already introduced in Chapter 1, are presented in the following section.

2.3 Definitions of language learning strategies

The term 'strategy' comes from the ancient Greek word *strategia* meaning 'generalship' or 'the art of war'. The expression implies characteristics of planning, competition, conscious manipulation, and movement towards a goal. In non-military contexts, the strategy concept

has been interpreted as a plan, step, or conscious action towards the achievement of a goal. In education, this concept has taken on a new meaning and it has been transformed into learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Since the late 1970s, there has not yet been a single technical definition of language learning strategies that is agreed by all theorists in the field. Theorists have defined it quite differently because, as Griffiths (2008, p. 83) points out, “the concept of language learning strategy has been notoriously difficult to define.” As a pioneer in this field, Rubin (1975, p. 43) initiated this long process by defining it as “techniques or devices that a learner may use to acquire knowledge.” Through time this definition was refined, and in the 1980s there was a commonly used definition, i.e. “operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). Wenden and Rubin (1987 cited in Mattarima and Hamdan, 2011, p. 104), for example, define learning strategies as “... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information.”

Oxford (1990) argues that the definition commonly used in the 1980s was indeed helpful, but it did not fully convey the richness of language learning strategies. Therefore, she expanded this definition into “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). Similarly, at about the same time, O’Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) proposed a definition: “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.” Slightly different from these two definitions is one proposed by Cohen (1990). He defined learning strategies as “learning processes which

are consciously selected by the learner” (Cohen, 1990, p. 5). The component of ‘consciousness’ was introduced in the definition.

Throughout the decade of the 1990s, more definitions appeared. In the mid 1990s, Green and Oxford (1995, p. 262) conceived of language learning strategies as “specific actions or techniques that students use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 skills.” In this definition, a new component, ‘intentionality’, was added to the definition.

In the late 1990s, Cohen (1998) proposed a definition of language learning strategies on the basis of his earlier definition through the addition of the distinction between language learning and language use strategies, as well as including the specific stages of processing, namely before, during, and after the performance of some language behaviour. Thus, he defined language learning and language use strategies as “processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in actions 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” (Cohen, 1998, p. 4).

In the 2000s, more definitions of strategies appeared in the literature. Brown (2000, p. 122) defined language learning strategies as “the moment-by-moment techniques that we employ to solve ‘problems’ posed by second language input and output.” This definition is basically similar to those proposed by other theorists earlier, that is, by involving ‘actions’ or ‘techniques’ and ‘movement towards the achievement of an objective’. The only difference is the absence of the ‘consciousness’ component and the presence of a new term, ‘problem’.

A recent definition claims that language learning strategies are “the learner’s goal-directed actions for improving language proficiency or achievement, completing a task, or making learning more efficient, more effective, and easier” (Oxford, 2011b, p. 167). In line with definitions from other researchers, this one includes components of ‘actions’ and ‘movement towards the achievement of an objective’. However, the component of ‘consciousness’, as included by some other researchers is missing here. The details of the ‘objective’, i.e. L2 achievement, task completion, or L2 learning regulation, resemble to those in the definition that Oxford herself proposed earlier in 1990 (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

Reading closely the definitions of language learning strategies quoted in this section, one may see a general consistent feature of language learning strategies, i.e. the involvement of ‘actions’ and ‘purpose of doing the actions’ within the definition. All the definitions quoted here embody these two semantic components. What distinguishes the definitions from one another is the degree of comprehensiveness of the definition reflecting the breadth and depth of language learning strategies. As regards ‘actions’, they constitute whether the actions are taken mentally or physically, and consciously or subconsciously. ‘The purpose of doing the actions’ relates variously to whether it is to enhance the language learning only or the language use as well, to foster autonomous learning behaviour, and to solve problems faced in the language learning.

On the basis of the above account of constituents of language learning strategies, I adopt the definition proposed by Griffiths (2008, p. 87) for its concise representation of those constituents. According to her, language learning strategies are “activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning.” Firstly, this definition reflects the meaning of the general term ‘strategy’, namely a conscious action towards the

achievement of a goal. Secondly, it reflects the general semantic components of ‘language learning strategies’, namely ‘actions’ and ‘purpose of doing the actions’, and it also involves the details of the implied meaning of the two components, namely in the choice of the term ‘activities’, which implies physical or mental behaviour. Further, ‘consciously chosen’ suggests ‘intentionality’ and desire to improve one’s language learning. Thirdly, the definition has the merit of breadth and precision. Griffiths claims it is broad enough to allow the freedom to research areas within it, but precise enough to exclude learner characteristics and activities that are not language learning strategies (Griffiths, 2008, p. 87). For all these reasons the definition is the most appropriate to guide this research.

Another issue that has become the focus of much research on language learning strategies is the classification of the strategies. An explanation of this matter is set out in the following section.

2.4 Classification of language learning strategies

This section begins with a brief review of strategy classification offered by theorists, and later discusses a strategy taxonomy chosen for implementation in the study more fully.

Language learning strategy theorists have classified strategies variously. Dansereau (1985) classifies them into primary and support strategies. Primary strategies are used to operate directly on learning materials, whilst support strategies are applied to establish an appropriate learning attitude towards the language and way of coping with distractions, fatigue, frustration, and so forth. Ellis (1985), meanwhile, classifies language learning strategies into three process types. They are hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing, and automatization.

According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), learner strategies, as the umbrella under which language learning strategies stand, constitute learning, communication, and social strategies. Learning strategies, which directly contribute to language learning, include cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies refer to operations used in learning or problem-solving that requires analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. They include clarification or verification, guessing or inductive inference, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring. Metacognitive strategies refer to steps of overseeing, regulating, or self-directing the learning, which include planning, prioritizing, goal setting, and self-management. Different from learning strategies, communication and social strategies contribute indirectly to language learning because they do not lead to obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language. Communication strategies help speakers handle difficulties caused by limitations in communication means or addressee's misunderstanding, whereas social strategies help language users gain opportunities to be exposed to the language, or to practise the knowledge.

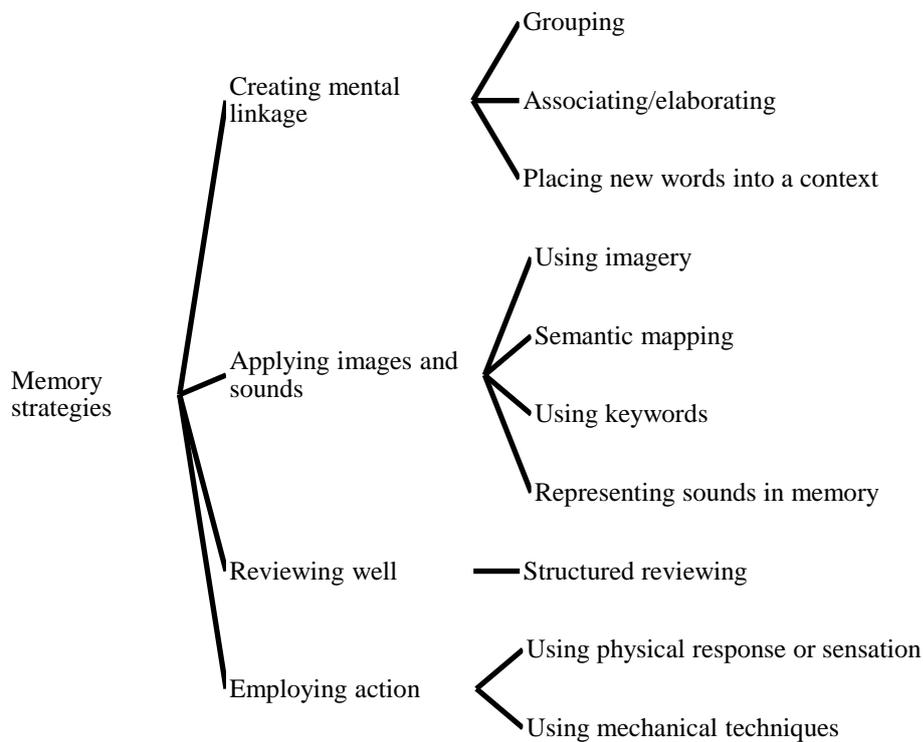
Stern (1992) classifies language learning strategies into five categories: management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal, and affective. Management and planning strategies are concerned with learners' intention to regulate their own learning, with the help of teachers, whose roles are as advisors or resource persons. Cognitive strategies refer to operations employed in learning or problem-solving that requires direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials, whilst communicative-experiential strategies are activities done by learners, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition or explanation, so that a conversation keeps going. Interpersonal strategies constitute efforts to monitor learners' own learning progress and to evaluate

performance, and affective strategies are concerned with emotional issues in the learning process.

Oxford (1990), whose strategy classification was chosen for the study (see subsection 1.6.1), places learning strategies in two major classes: direct and indirect. Direct strategies are those that directly involve the target language. These strategies require mental processing of the language. Indirect strategies are those that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language.

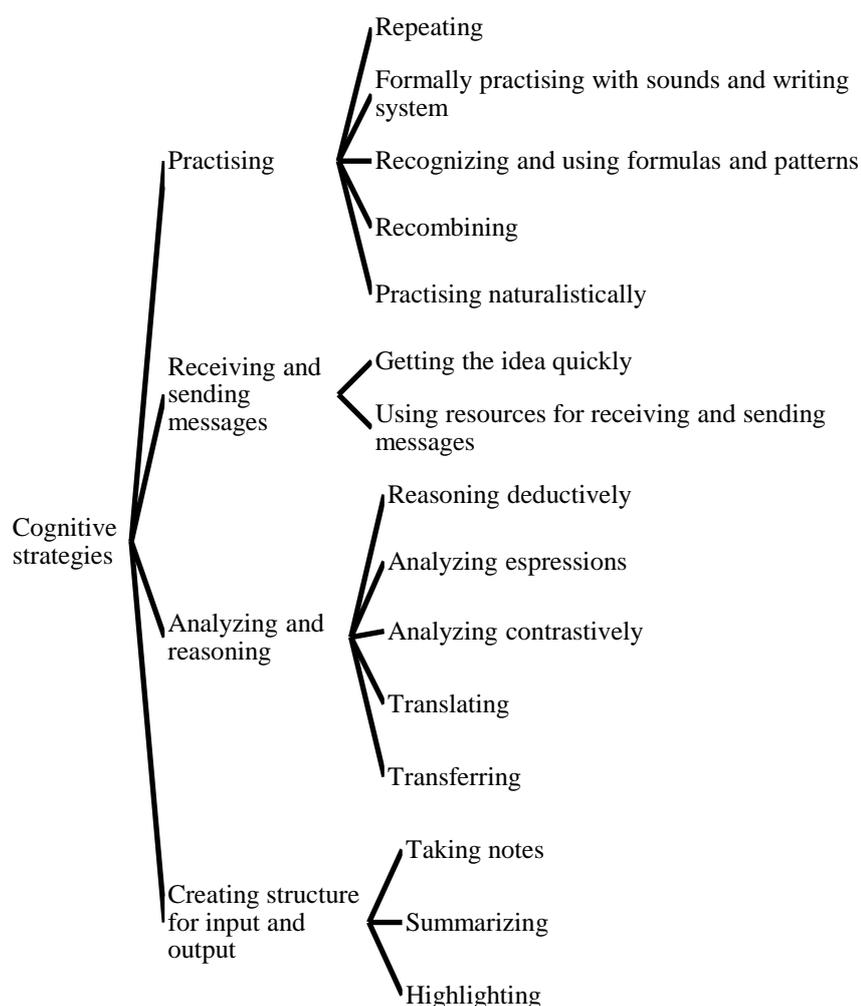
The first major class, direct strategies, is divided into three sub-classes called memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Firstly, memory strategies are strategies that help language learners store and retrieve new information. As displayed in Figure 2.1 overleaf, this sub-class constitutes creating mental linkages (grouping, associating/elaborating, and placing new words into a context), applying images and sounds (using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, and representing sounds in memory), reviewing well (structured reviewing), and employing action (using physical response or sensation, and using mechanical techniques).

Figure 2.1 Memory strategies



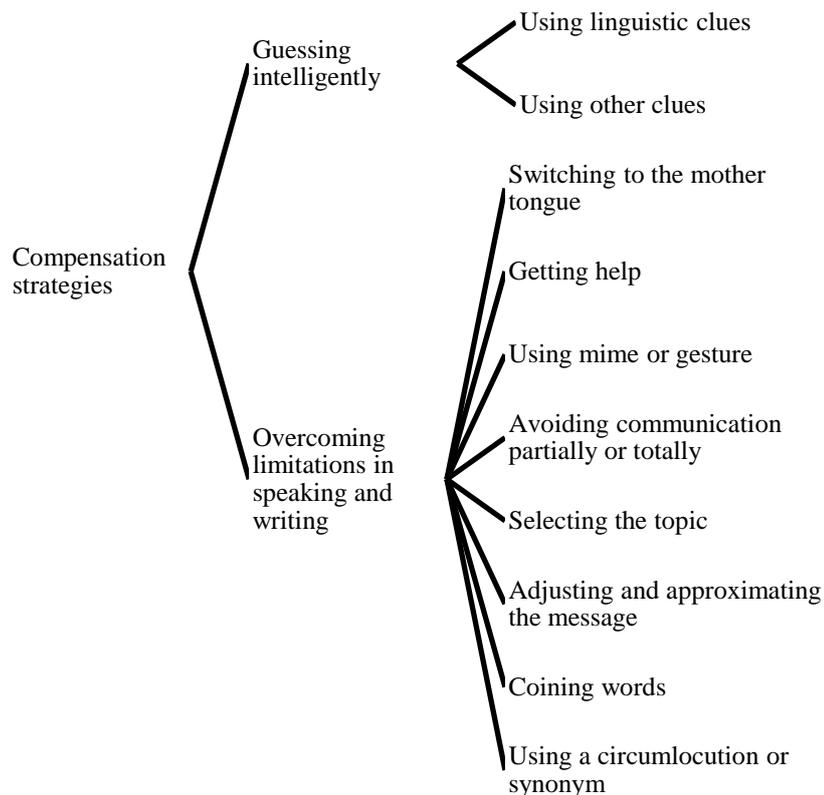
Second, cognitive strategies are those that enable language learners to understand and produce new language by many different means. Figure 2.2 overleaf shows that this sub-class constitutes practising (repeating, formally practising with sounds and writing system, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practising naturalistically), receiving and sending messages (getting the idea quickly, using resources for receiving and sending messages), analysing and reasoning (reasoning deductively, analysing expressions, analysing contrastively across languages, translating, and transferring), and creating structure for input and output (taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting).

Figure 2.2 Cognitive strategies



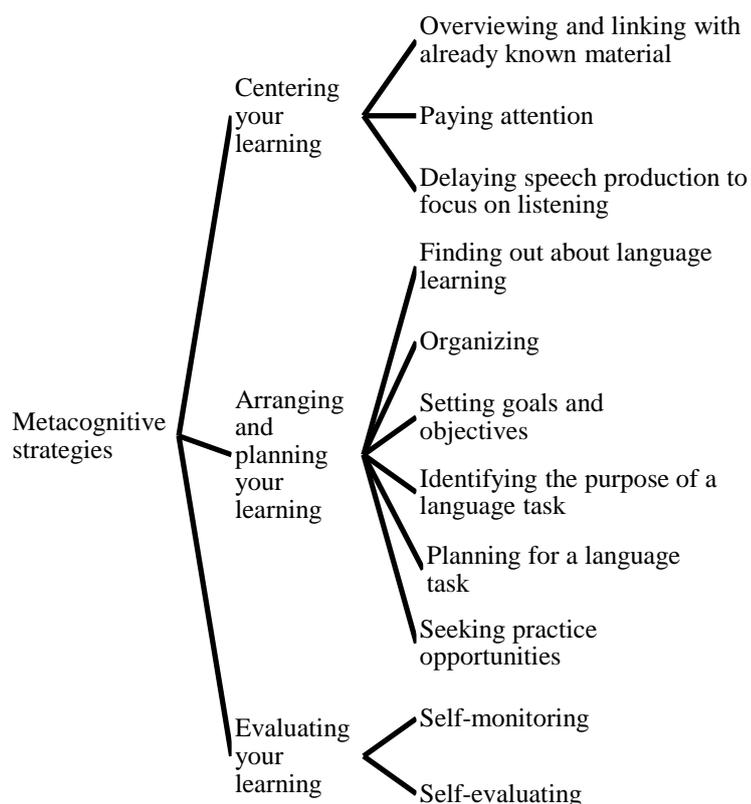
Third, compensation strategies are those that allow language learners to use the language despite their large gaps in knowledge. This sub-class, as displayed in Figure 2.3 overleaf, constitutes guessing intelligently (using linguistic clues, using other clues), and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing (switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and using a circumlocution or synonym).

Figure 2.3 Compensation strategies



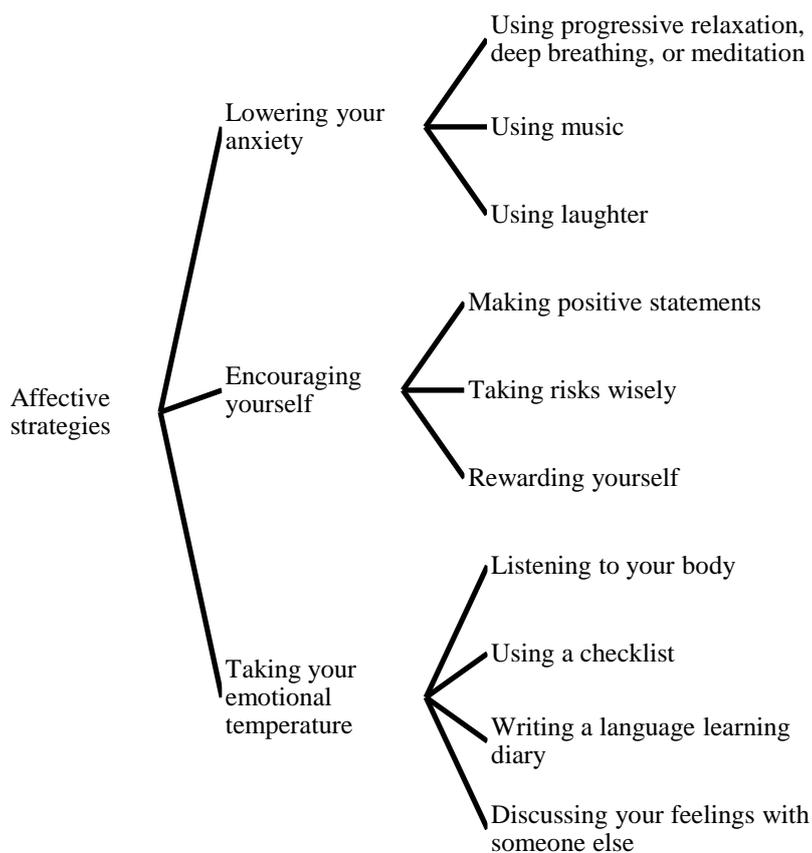
The second major class, indirect strategies, is also divided into three sub-classes, called metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Firstly, metacognitive strategies are those that allow language learners to control their own cognition. As displayed in Figure 2.4 overleaf, this sub-class comprises centering one's learning (overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, and delaying speech production to focus on listening), arranging and planning one's learning (finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, and seeking practice opportunities), and evaluating one's learning (self-monitoring, self-evaluating).

Figure 2.4 Metacognitive strategies



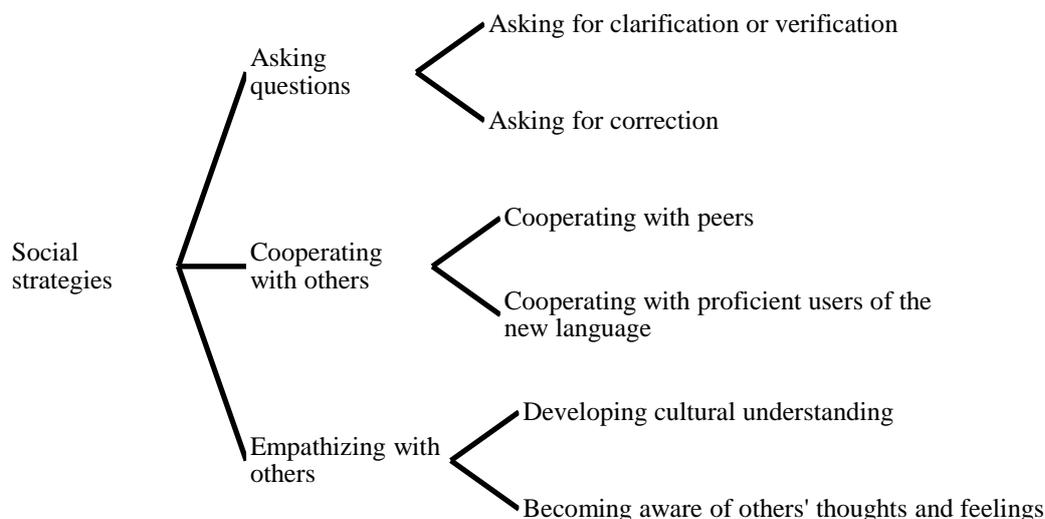
Secondly, affective strategies are the ones that help language learners regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. Figure 2.5 overleaf shows that this sub-class includes lowering one's anxiety (using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation; using music; and using laughter), encouraging oneself (making positive statements, taking risk wisely, and rewarding oneself), and taking one's emotional temperature (listening to one's body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing one's feelings with someone else).

Figure 2.5 Affective strategies



Thirdly, social strategies are those that help language learners learn through interactions with others. This sub-class, as displayed in Figure 2.6 overleaf, constitutes asking questions (asking for clarification or verification, and asking for correction), cooperating with others (cooperating with peers, cooperating with proficient users of the new language), and empathizing with others (developing cultural understanding, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings).

Figure 2.6 Social strategies



Oxford (1990) further claims that 46 out of 62 strategies from her whole strategy taxonomy are useful for the learning of speaking. The strategies are summarized in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 Language learning strategies useful for speaking skills

Item	Strategy	Group	Class
1	Placing new words into a context	Memory	Direct
2	Representing sounds in memory		
3	Structured reviewing		
4	Repeating	Cognitive	
5	Formally practising with sounds and writing systems		
6	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns		
7	Recombining		
8	Practising naturalistically		
9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages		
10	Reasoning deductively		
11	Translating		
12	Transferring	Compensation	
13	Switching to the mother tongue		
14	Getting help		
15	Using mime or gesture		
16	Avoiding communication partially or totally		
17	Selecting the topic		
18	Adjusting or approximating the message		
19	Coining words		
20	Using a circumlocution or synonym	Metacognitive	Indirect
21	Overviewing and linking with already known material		
22	Paying attention		
23	Delaying speech production to focus on listening		

24	Finding out about language learning		
25	Organizing		
26	Setting goals and objectives		
27	Identifying the purpose of a language task		
28	Planning for a language task		
29	Seeking practice opportunities		
30	Self-monitoring		
31	Self-evaluating		
32	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	Affective	
33	Using music		
34	Using laughter		
35	Making positive statements		
36	Taking risks wisely		
37	Rewarding yourself		
38	Listening to your body		
39	Using a checklist		
40	Writing a language learning diary		
41	Discussing your feelings with someone else		
42	Asking for correction	Social	
43	Cooperating with peers		
44	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language		
45	Developing cultural understanding		
46	Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings		

Because of its high degree of comprehensiveness (Ellis, 1994), as well as its being the most detailed and systematic strategy taxonomy to date (Radwan, 2011), Oxford's (1990) general strategy taxonomy and list of strategies useful for the learning of speaking form the theoretical foundation in the study. Thus, in addressing the first research question, what L2 speaking strategies students use, and its first sub-question, what strategy and strategy group the students favour the most and least, this theory will be invoked, i.e. the 46 language learning strategies spreading over six groups that are useful for speaking skills.

However, to provide a theoretical foundation for the two other sub-questions of the first research question as well as the second and third research questions, a review of studies on language learning strategies available in the literature is necessary.

2.5 Language learning strategy studies

This section reviews the strategy studies in the literature. The first subsection, 2.5.1, considers studies on EFL contexts other than Indonesia. The second subsection, 2.5.2, provides a review of studies in the Indonesian context. Details of the review follow.

2.5.1 L2 learning strategy studies outside the Indonesian context

This subsection reviews L2 learning strategy studies conducted outside the Indonesian context. The review covers three important concerns: research themes, research timelines, and research closely relevant to the study.

2.5.1.1 Research themes

After Naiman et al. (1975), Rubin (1975), and Stern (1975) published research into the ‘good language learner’ in 1975, L2 learning strategy research began to develop, and research turned its attention to the definitions and classification of strategies, as already discussed in sections 2.3 and 2.4. It also focused on the employment of strategies in relation to language tasks or certain types of learners, and the effectiveness of strategy use towards the outcomes (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). This research interest has continued to the present day.

Classification of strategies, for instance, has been investigated recently, with regard to specific language areas, i.e. vocabulary (for example, Catalán, 2003), grammar (for example, Yalçın Tilfarlioğlu and Yalçın, 2005), listening (for example, Chulim, 2008 and Li, 2007), reading (for example, Baker and Boonkit, 2004), speaking (for example, Cabaysa and Baetiong, 2010 and Kawai, 2008), and writing (for example, Wang, 2005). Thus, in addition to strategies discussed in section 2.4, there are now vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading, speaking, and writing strategies.

In a more detailed way, Oxford (2011b) summarizes the major themes of strategy studies to date: effectiveness, models and theories, instruction, assessment, language-area strategies, factors, technology, and caveats. First, the effectiveness of strategies is addressed through studies about strategies and proficiency or achievement, the good language learner, successful and less successful language learners, distinguished language learners, and effective and less effective strategies for certain purposes. Second, models and theories cover seven areas: strategies in prior eras, other fields, or general learning; self-regulation/autonomy, or strategies related to them; cognitive information-processing theories, or strategies related to them; metacognition theory; sociocultural theories, or strategies related to them; psychodynamic theories, or strategies related to them; and different types of strategies which are language use and language learning strategies, communication strategies, cognitive/metacognitive/affective/social/sociocultural strategies, and superficial/deep-processing strategies.

Third, strategy instruction is addressed through studies on strategy instruction or training, strategy assistance, strategy/learner counseling, learner guidebooks, learner training, learning how to learn, and strategy-related teacher development. Fourth, strategy assessment has to do with strategy assessment methods, and strategy research methods. Fifth, language-area strategies are discussed in studies concerning strategies for the learning of vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Sixth, factors affecting strategies are investigated through studies on strategies in relation to gender, nationality, culture, age, motivation, anxiety, and learning styles. Seventh, technology is the theme addressed in studies about strategies and technology, computer-assisted instruction, and distance education. Finally, studies also focus on some caveats, presenting cautions or warnings about unresolved issues in L2 learning strategies.

Based on the eight research themes summarized by Oxford (2011b), this study obviously covers two themes: language-area strategies and factors. The study focuses on strategies for the learning of speaking and on learner factors of proficiency and gender. Here, both proficiency and gender are treated purely as independent variables that may affect the employment of L2 speaking strategies. However, when the concept of interrelated variables shown in Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1 is applied, this study may also cover the theme of strategy effectiveness. For the proficiency especially, the use of language learning strategies may also have an effect on the students' L2 and speaking proficiency, in the sense that strategy employment could enable students to increase their proficiency level. Additionally, this study addresses the theme of instruction by offering recommendation for strategy training.

Besides general themes that strategy studies have focused on so far, the development of research through time that has helped this study to take its shape is important to review. The timeline of the strategy research is set out in the next sub-subsection.

2.5.1.2 Research overview 1970s-2012

As indicated at the beginning of the previous sub-subsection, L2 learning strategy studies did not start until the mid 1970s, but themes on initial models or theories had been addressed earlier. Studies addressing such themes, as referred to in Oxford (2011b), include those providing theories of strategies in general learning and cognitive information-processing (Mandler, 1967; Miller, 1956; Miller, Galante, and Pribram, 1960; Piaget, 1954; Rothkopf, 1970), autonomy (Erikson, 1950/1993; Kant, 1797/1996; Mill, 1871/1998; Peters, 1973; Rogers, 1963; Spinoza, 1677/1986), and self-regulation (Vygotsky, 1978).

In 1975, L2 learning strategy studies began to appear. They addressed the effectiveness of learning strategies by identifying characteristics of the prototypical good language learner (Naiman, Fröhlich, and Todesco, 1975; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). Their descriptions of the good language learner overlapped in their treatment of strategic learning and a focus on both structure and meaning. However, Stern (1975) also stressed the ability of the good language learner to handle L2 learning emotions, and Rubin (1975) described the typical good language learner as extroverted and uninhibited about mistakes. Studies that took place in the late 1970s addressed non-L2 learning strategies. For example, Pressley and Levin (1977) found the use of different cognitive strategies to memorize paired-associate words more effective than mere repetition; O'Neil (1978) and O'Neil and Spielberger (1979) emphasized the importance of three strategy types: cognitive, metacognitive, and affective; and Flavell (1979) described concepts of metacognitive strategies, regulation, and knowledge.

According to Oxford (2011b), the early 1980s research studies generally focused on L2 learner autonomy (for example, Holec, 1980 and 1981), the good language learner (for example, Reiss, 1983), and theory-building and testing (for example, Bialystok, 1981 and Reiss, 1985). Learner autonomy continued to be addressed after the mid 1980s. Dickinson (1987), for instance, reversed the terms 'autonomy' and 'self-direction' used earlier by Holec (1981), by applying 'self-direction' to the L2 learner's attitude of responsibility, and 'autonomy' to describe the learning situation. In the late 1980s, studies introduced the themes of strategy training and strategies for specific language-areas (for example, Brown, 1989 and Ellis and Sinclair, 1989). Studies also addressed learner factors, like motivation and L1 that affect the use of strategies (for example, Stevick, 1989).

In the early 1990s, studies tended towards two different but influential theories: autonomy and cognitive information-processing. Cohen (1990), Oxford (1990), Brown (1991), Wenden (1991), and Scarcella and Oxford (1992) were example studies that pursued autonomy theory and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) were prominent for their interest in cognitive information-processing theory. Those exploring autonomy covered a wider range of themes, ranging over strategy training, strategy assessment, and language-area strategies. Oxford (1990), for instance, described the self-directed learner's cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social, and compensation strategies in relation to language areas. She also provided strategy instruction steps and a new strategy-assessment questionnaire, called SILL. O'Malley and Chamot (1990), on the other hand, focused on applying cognitive information-processing theory to L2 learning strategies, and on emphasizing the roles of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In summarizing their empirical studies, they indicated that systematic strategy instruction was related to significantly better proficiency for certain language skill areas and cultural groups than for others. In this period of time, caveats also began to be addressed. Oxford and Cohen (1992) addressed these by cautioning researchers about conflicting or vague strategy definitions and the necessity of validating the strategy assessment instrument, and of comparing studies.

In the mid 1990s, the theme of strategy training which had begun to gain attention at the beginning of the decade, attracted yet further research. A wide range of topics within the theme was extensively addressed. For example, Chamot and O'Malley (1994) proposed how to integrate the teaching of language, strategies, and content; Rubin and Thompson (1994) indicated how learning strategies could be presented in a learner-friendly way; Mendelsohn and Rubin (1995) demonstrated that listening strategies could be taught for greater overall proficiency in L2; White (1995) showed that distance L2 learners needed to be taught

affective and metacognitive strategies to deal with their lack of confidence and self-management; Ehrman (1996) demonstrated the difference between effective and struggling learners in relation to their strategy use that pointed to the ways of helping the latter; and Donato and McCormick (1994) supported the importance of strategies for proficiency, but argued that overt strategy training is unnecessary. At period, technology also began to appear. Strategy instruction, including via technology, comprised half of Oxford's (1996) edited book of cross-cultural strategy research. Caveats again were raised.

LoCastro (1994) argued that learning environments and cultures must be taken into account in strategy assessment; whereas Pennycook (1997) warned researchers that autonomy-promoting strategies, which were too 'Western' might be culturally inappropriate for many non-Western learners.

Strategy training continued to gain considerable amount of attention in the late 1990s.

Cohen (1998), for instance, examined language learning strategy instruction and assessment where teachers play important roles in helping learners become more autonomous. He also distinguished between language learning strategies and language use strategies.

Chamot et al. (1999) provided keys to strategy instruction and assessment for teachers, as well as highlighted the link between strategy use and proficiency. Grenfell and Harris (1999) outlined a multistage strategy instruction model, with the emphasis on the internalization of strategies and the provision of practical advice to teachers.

Strategy training became a dominant theme at the beginning of the following decade, the 2000s. For example, Brown (2001) offered a strategic guidebook for self-directed ESL learners; Harris et al. (2001) presented strategy instruction cases from many cultures across Europe and pointed out how strategies may be adapted to the settings; Macaro (2001a and b)

provided cyclical model of strategy instruction for autonomy and improved proficiency, offered continua for strategy classification, and discussed classroom assessment for greater learner control and proficiency; Hurd et al. (2001) described an attempt to create courses rich in strategies that link learning strategies and task needs; and Rubin (2001) noted the important role of metacognitive learner self-management in technology-aided distance learning, self-access centers, and elsewhere.

Towards the mid 2000s, learner factors and caveats received more concern. As regards learner factors, Leaver (2003) and Vansteenkiste et al. (2004) addressed the roles of motivation and strategies; Cohen and Weaver (2006) considered learning styles by offering a teacher's guide for learning styles- and strategies-based instruction; and Paige et al. (2006) focused on the learner factor of culture, and produced a strategy guide for students studying abroad.

Concerning caveats, Holliday (2003) warned about possible cultural bias in some strategy instruction; Dörnyei (2005) critiqued the field of L2 learning strategy research on theoretical and measurement grounds; and Macaro (2006), stressing metacognitive and cognitive strategies, offered a theoretical critique by cautioning that strategies are mental processes, not physical acts, reflecting a debate in the field.

The end of the 2000s was marked by studies celebrating three decades of the field of L2 learning strategies. Such studies include those of Cohen and Macaro (2007) and Griffiths (2008). Cohen and Macaro (2007) presented many challenges to the field, but showed that progress in certain aspects had been achieved. They also demonstrated the existence of relationships between strategy use and proficiency in multiple L2 areas. Griffiths (2008), honouring Joan Rubin's pioneering work on the concept of the good language learner, demonstrated that good language learners use a range of strategies for different language skill

areas and purposes, depending on a range of factors. She also showed significant relationships between strategy use and proficiency as related to language skill areas. Another important study taking place then was Lee and Oxford's (2008). They revealed that more frequent use of strategies was related to learner's strategy awareness, perceptions of the importance of English, and self-perceptions of high English proficiency.

In the present decade, a couple of major studies covering almost all the themes listed in sub-subsection 2.5.1.1 appeared. Cohen (2011) provided more empirical research on strategies for pragmatics and other aspects of language use, as well as strategies for L2 learning. He also addressed strategy research, strategy instruction, strategy use by multilinguals, strategies for test-taking, and strategies used by different ages. Oxford (2011a) offered a new theory of L2 learning strategies that dealt with definitional problems and that integrated sociocultural and information-processing concepts. The framework included strategies and metastrategies for the dimensions of cognitive, affective, and sociocultural-interactive, along with innovative strategy assessment and strategy assistance in a range of settings.

To summarize this sub-subsection, as well as to place this study within the historical context, research into L2 learning strategies has now been taking place for almost four decades. Throughout the decades, various angles have appeared. It is undeniable that there are still many avenues that need researching. With regard to this study, it hopes to explore one of those avenues and contribute new research data to the field.

The review of research themes and timeline presented here provides a general background, against which the present study has been developed. The more crucial review, however, is that

of research studies that are more closely relevant to it, i.e. those addressing similar issues. The review of such relevant research studies is offered in the next sub-subsection.

2.5.1.3 Research closely relevant to the study

This sub-subsection is devoted mainly to reviewing strategy studies relevant to this inquiry and it is based on a foundation of theories presented earlier in sections 2.2 to 2.4. As stated in section 2.4, the theories function as the basis to address the first research question, along with its first sub-question. To address the other sub-questions of the first question and the further research questions, I synthesise the relevant research studies here. They include studies addressing strategy use in relation to L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. I also present research studies that provide initial understanding of the ways students use strategies and why they use them in specific ways.

2.5.1.3.1 Strategy use and L2 proficiency

Research studies on language learning strategies in relation to L2 proficiency have used different measurements to determine the L2 proficiency levels. Some used scores of actual proficiency tests, such as TOEFL and the English as a Second Language Achievement Test (ESLAT) (for example, Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Green and Oxford, 1995), a curriculum-specific achievement test for certain language skills (for example, Yang, 2007), proficiency self-rating (for example, Wharton, 2000), an entrance test (for example, Wu, 2008), a standard placement test (for example, Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007), and combinations of measures: scores of curriculum-specific achievement test for certain language skills combined with proficiency self-rating (for example, Liu, 2004); scores of TOEFL, placement tests, and proficiency self-rating (for example, Nguyen, 2008); and students' grade point average (GPA), duration of study, and proficiency self-rating (for example, Radwan, 2011).

Some of the studies demonstrate that students with higher L2 proficiency use more strategies than those with lower proficiency do. Green and Oxford (1995, p. 261), for instance, reveal “greater use of language learning strategies among the more successful learners.” Likewise, Wharton (2000, p. 203) shows “more learning strategy use among learners with higher proficiency.” Nguyen (2008, p. 1) states that “advanced learners used more strategies than intermediate and beginner”, and Radwan (2011, p. 115) demonstrates that “more proficient students used more cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies than less proficient students.”

Other studies, instead of using the quantity of strategies, adopted frequency of strategy use. Hence, some studies demonstrate that students with higher L2 proficiency use strategies more often or more frequently than those with lower proficiency. Liu (2004, p. 1) claims that “learners with better EFL proficiency reported using the overall strategy and each of the six categories of strategy more frequently than learners with lower L2 proficiency did.” Similarly, Yang (2007, p. 48) demonstrates that “learners with high L2 proficiency used overall learning strategies more often than learners with low L2 proficiency.” Wu (2008, p. 75) states that “higher proficiency EFL students use learning strategies more often than lower proficiency EFL students”

Concerning patterns of strategy use, studies show two general trends. First, studies demonstrate a linear relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, where the strategy use can be the overall strategy use, the use of each of the strategy groups, or the use of individual strategies. Dreyer and Oxford (1996), Liu (2004), Radwan (2011), and Riazi and Khodadadi (2007) disclose a ‘linear’ significant relationship between the overall learning strategy use and L2 proficiency. Similarly, Lan and Oxford (2003) reveal a ‘linear’ strong

relationship between them. For the relationship between the use of each of the strategy groups and L2 proficiency, Liu (2004) shows a significant relationship between them, whereas Wharton (2000) has found a significant correlation only with the affective and compensation groups (Oxford, 1990). He also demonstrates a positive variation between four other groups, i.e. memory, cognitive, metacognitive, and social, and L2 proficiency (Oxford, 1990). Wu (2008) uncovers a significant correlation of L2 proficiency and the use of the cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategy groups. As regards the 'linear' relationship between individual strategies and L2 proficiency, Green and Oxford (1995) demonstrate that only some items showed significant variation. Seventeen items showed a positive variation, in the sense that the items were used more often by more proficient learners.

Second, studies show a 'curvilinear' relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency. Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), for instance, demonstrate such a relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, meaning that students with intermediate level of proficiency reported more use of language learning strategies than those with beginning and advanced level. Additionally, significant difference appears only for the use of compensation strategies. Similarly, Radwan (2011), in addressing the correlation between language learning strategies and one of the parameters of the L2 proficiency level, i.e. students' study duration, has also found a curvilinear one. He demonstrates that freshmen used more strategies than juniors, who used more strategies than seniors and sophomores respectively. He also demonstrates that significant difference took place only on the use of affective strategies.

Similar to Dreyer and Oxford (1996), this study uses students' scores of a proficiency test, TOEFL, to determine the levels of the students' L2 proficiency. However, different from them, it uses a TOEFL Practice Test that had never been seen by the students (see sub-

subsection 3.5.1.2 in Chapter 3 for the details of the test, and Appendix 3 for the test itself). As regards the matter of relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, I follow the lead of the above studies, employing descriptive statistics to address students' overall strategy use, and what strategy and strategy group they favour the most and least. I also employ inferential statistics to calculate the statistical significance of the relationship between the overall strategy use and L2 proficiency. The results should contribute to the body of knowledge on the association between language learning strategies and L2 proficiency, especially on the issue of strategy-use patterns among students with various levels of L2 proficiency.

Research studies concerned with L2 learning strategies in relation to speaking proficiency are also pertinent to this study because they may provide the theoretical foundation for the investigation of problem posed in the second sub-question of the first research question, i.e. whether speaking proficiency significantly affects the strategy use. Studies covering this subject are reviewed in the next sub-subsection.

2.5.1.3.2 Strategy use and speaking proficiency

Studies on L2 learning strategies and speaking proficiency have displayed three precisions on variables in methodology. First, some studies investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and speaking proficiency in the way that the strategies act as a dependent variable and the speaking proficiency as an independent variable. Therefore, the relationship between them is examined based on whether speaking proficiency affects the use of language learning strategies. Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010), for instance, investigated L2 learning strategies employed by Filipino high school students when studying oral English in classroom. The students were grouped according to their level of speaking proficiency:

intermediate and novice. Their strategy use was then examined with reference to their speaking proficiency. Other studies have the same purpose but make no explicit attempt to examine the relationship between both variables. Instead, more attention is given to the description of the strategy use. Kawai (2008), for example, investigated language learning strategies of Japanese high proficient English speakers with no explicit attempt to find out whether or not their speaking proficiency significantly affects their strategy use.

Second, some studies investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and speaking proficiency where the strategies act as an independent variable and the speaking proficiency a dependent variable. With this approach, the relationship between them is examined according to whether language learning strategies have an effect on speaking proficiency. Li (2007), for example, investigated L2 learning strategies employed by Chinese research students studying in the UK. The students' speaking proficiency level was identified at the beginning of the research study, and was measured at the end of the research, to find out whether language learning strategies the students used throughout the course of the research improved their speaking proficiency.

Third, some studies explore the relationship between language learning strategies and speaking proficiency in the similar way to those with the second trend, i.e. the strategies acting as an independent variable and the speaking proficiency a dependent variable. However, the language learning strategy variable in this approach constitutes strategy training. In other words, studies examine the relationship between strategy training and speaking proficiency, i.e. whether strategy training has an effect on the speaking proficiency. Weyers (2010), for example, looked at this potential relationship. A course called Speaking Strategy was designed to help students increase their Spanish speaking proficiency, which

was tested at the outset of the course. At the end of the course, their speaking proficiency was tested again, and the extent of effect brought about by strategy training could be detected.

To measure students' speaking proficiency level, studies on strategy use and speaking proficiency have used or adapted American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) guidelines (Cabaysa and Baetiong, 2010), a Foreign Service Institute (FSI) type of oral interview (Li, 2007), and an Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) (Weyers, 2010). Putting aside the proficiency measurement and the matter of how the relationship is addressed, researchers seem to agree that a positive relation between strategy use and speaking proficiency exists. Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010) show a significant difference between intermediate and novice students in the use of metacognitive strategies, whereas Kawai (2008) reveals the emphasis of the use of planning and social strategies. Li (2007) demonstrates that students used a wide range of strategies, favouring metacognitive strategies, and, as a result of strategy use, two students improved their proficiency by one scale level; the other two who initially were identified as more advanced remained within the same scale level, but evidently moving upwards within that particular scale level. Weyers (2010) demonstrates that 71% of students receiving the strategy training improved their oral proficiency by at least one sublevel.

Using these studies as the theoretical foundation for investigating the problem posed in the second sub-question of the first research question in this study, I address the relationship between strategies and speaking proficiency in the way that the L2 speaking strategies act as a dependent variable and the speaking proficiency an independent variable. Therefore, the interpretation of findings will be along the lines of that of Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010). However, different from them, this study uses students' speaking grades achieved in GUM as

the measurement of the students' speaking proficiency. The study's contribution to research will be in the extent to which speaking proficiency significantly affects L2 speaking strategies in the particular context.

Studies reviewed in this sub-subsection are closely relevant to this study in the sense that they offer a theoretical foundation for investigating L2 speaking strategies towards speaking proficiency. Studies on language learning strategies with regard to gender also contribute the theoretical foundation, and a review of these studies is set out in the next sub-subsection.

2.5.1.3.3 Strategy use and gender

At the early stage of research on language learning strategies in relation to certain learner factors, in the late 1980s, gender attracted researchers because of its possible influence on use of strategies. At that stage, there had been little research on the gender question. However, Oxford and Nyikos (1989, p. 294) pointed out that "sex had a profound effect on strategy choice". This implies a simple, straightforward relation between language learning strategies and gender. Over time, the research took gender more and more seriously. But it offered conflicting findings: female students' strategy use surpassing male students', male students' strategy use surpassing female students', and no or a less clear distinction between male and female students' strategy use. Details of each group of these studies follow.

Most studies reveal female students' strategy use surpassing male students' in terms of quantity, frequency, and quality. With respect to the quantity, either from the point of view of the overall strategy use, specific strategy groups, or specific individual strategies, studies demonstrate that female students use or tend to use more strategies than male students do (Catalán, 2003; Lan and Oxford, 2003; Liu, 2004; Nguyen, 2008). Concerning the frequency

of use, studies show that female students use strategies more often than male students do (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Lan and Oxford, 2003). As regards the quality of use, studies reveal better strategy use of female than of male students (for example, Green and Oxford, 1995). Studies demonstrate indeed various findings on the relationship between learning strategies and gender, favouring female students. Some reveal significant differences in the overall strategy use (Lan and Oxford, 2003; Liu, 2004); in each of the strategy groups (Green and Oxford, 1995); and in specific individual strategies (Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006). Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), for instance, show that significant differences between male and female students lay only in the use of affective strategies.

A couple of studies give evidence of male students' strategy use surpassing female students'. Wharton (2000), for example, demonstrates that male students significantly differed from female students in their strategy use. Male students significantly used more strategies more often than female students did. Similarly, Radwan (2011) reveals differences between male students and female students in their strategy use. Unlike Wharton (2000), however, he demonstrates that the significant differences lay only in the use of social strategies. The general tendency, though, still showed that male students used more strategies than female students. Green and Oxford (1995) also discover one cognitive strategy from the SILL, i.e. 'watching TV or movies in English', that was used more often by male than by female students. In general, however, female students did surpass male students, in their use of 14 of 15 strategies from the SILL, showing differences between genders.

Other studies reveal no or a less clear distinction between male and female students' strategy use. Dadour and Robbins (1996) demonstrate that there was no difference between male and female students in strategy use. Both sexes used an array of language learning strategies to

help them develop their skills. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) also discover no significant differences between genders in terms of strategy use. Riazi and Khodadadi (2007) in a study of the effect of gender on the use of communication strategies among Iranian EFL tertiary students find that female students showed a greater interest in using strategies, but no statistical significance was observed between male and female students in their strategy use. Kaylani (1996 cited in Lee and Oxford, 2008) discovers differences between male and female students in terms of strategy use, but the differences were not caused only by gender, but gender in relation to proficiency. Therefore, a less clear distinction between them was apparent.

Commenting on his research finding, i.e. male students significantly used more social strategies than female students did, that contradicts findings of other research studies (for example, Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006), Radwan (2011) argues that students' cultural background contributes to the occurrence of this finding, which he gained from a study of adult Omani learners. He states that the Omani tribal system, requiring interactions among large extended kin groups, requires men to develop extremely good social skills to operate in the context. This might have influenced the men in their L2 learning. Additionally, the conservative nature of culture, customs, and habits prevents females in Arab regions from socializing and establishing relationships outside their immediate circles. Kobayashi (2002) addresses a similar issue, i.e. Japanese female students' superiority in attitudes to English over fellow Japanese male counterparts, by pointing to local social factors as the reasons. Such social factors include the status of English as feminised academic and professional choices and women's marginalised status in the local society.

In line with Radwan (2011) and Kobayashi (2002), I agree that students' sociocultural background and learning environment are credible reasons why research studies on L2 learning strategies in relation to gender reviewed in this sub-subsection demonstrate conflicting findings. They are empirical studies that reflect various sociocultural backgrounds, learning environments, and contexts. Therefore, while accepting them as the theoretical foundation for the investigation of the problem posed in the third sub-question of the first research question in this study, I view those with extremely different sociocultural backgrounds from this study as general models only. Those having a very similar sociocultural background to this study, which is Asian culture, are treated as prominent references. They include those of Lan and Oxford (2003), Liu (2004), and Wharton (2000). The latter are also relevant to the interpretation of findings of this study. Because of the conflicting findings in the literature, it is hoped that this research will contribute to resolving the conflicts.

The review of studies about language learning strategies in relation to gender wraps up the review of studies providing the theoretical foundation for the first research question, along with all its sub-questions. The next review of studies, which is presented in the following sub-subsection, is needed to provide the theoretical foundation for the second research question.

2.5.1.3.4 Ways students use language learning strategies

There has apparently been no research study that focuses its investigation specifically on the ways students use strategies. It is, however, possible to extract information about it through inferences and interpretations from less prominent findings of a few studies, or from claims

made by researchers when elaborating issues in their studies that might relate to the subject. Such information functions as an initial understanding of how students use strategies.

Research studies demonstrate that students use strategies in the dimension of frequency, i.e. they use the strategies weakly or frequently. Such studies include Green and Oxford (1995), Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), Lee and Oxford (2008), Riazi (2007), and Zhang and Goh (2006). Green and Oxford (1995, p. 261) state that "... strategies reported as used more often by the more successful students emphasized active, naturalistic practice and were used in combination with a variety of what we term *bedrock strategies*, which were used **frequently** [My emphasis, as elsewhere used in this section] or moderately **frequently** ...". Likewise, Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 7) demonstrate that students who "had certain characteristics – valuing English as important (the importance of English), evaluating their own proficiency as high (English-learning self-image), and being already aware of many language learning strategies – employed learning strategies more **frequently** than those who did not." Riazi (2007, p. 437) mentions "to find out which strategies were used most **frequently** ... the mean use for each strategy was calculated." Zhang and Goh (2006, p. 199) also state that "of the 40 strategies, 32 were perceived as useful by half the students, whereas only 13 were reported as used **frequently**." Meanwhile, Huang and Van Naerssen (1987, p. 297) claim that "... successful Chinese EFL learners, as defined in terms of oral communicative abilities, employ certain strategies which less successful learners do not employ or employ only **weakly**."

A couple of studies indicate that students use strategies in the dimension of consciousness and confidence. Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 8) argue that "... learning strategy is still quite a vague concept to Korean EFL learners, although learning strategies could definitely help them learn

English more efficiently if they knew and employed such strategies **consciously**.” Riazi (2007, p. 438) argues that “... freshmen students may approach language learning more **consciously** than more experienced students of higher years.” Zhang and Goh (2006, p. 199) found that 32 of 40 strategies were perceived as useful by half of the participating students, but only 13 were used frequently. “The discrepancy indicates that, while the students were generally aware of the usefulness of the strategies, they were not yet **conscious** and **confident** strategy users.” The dimension of consciousness reported in Lee and Oxford (2008) has ‘awareness’ as its key element (Lee and Oxford, 2008, p. 10), whereas that used in Zhang and Goh (2006), along with the dimension of confidence, seems to be based on quantity and frequency. As they point out, participating students would have been considered conscious and confident strategy users if they had used all the 32 strategies they perceived as useful frequently. Thus it may be said that students use strategies consciously and confidently when they frequently and undoubtedly use all the strategies they believe to be useful.

Some other studies provide hints that students use strategies in the dimensions of efficiency (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007), effectiveness (Cohen, 1998), appropriateness (Vann and Abraham, 1990), systematicity (Vann and Abraham, 1990), desperation (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002), and randomness (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 9), paraphrasing findings of other strategy studies, conclude that “... more proficient learners employ a wider range of strategies more **efficiently** than less proficient learners” do. Riazi (2007, p. 439) argues that “exposing students to these strategies systematically may enable them to use the strategies more **efficiently** in the process of their language learning.” Cohen (1998, p. 8) points out that “... with some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used **effectively**.” Vann and Abraham (1990, pp. 190-191) argue that “... less successful learners still appear to be active strategy users, but they often failed to

apply strategies **appropriately** to the task at hand.” They add that one student’s strength “lay in pursuing meaning, but she applied **no systematic set** of strategies for attending to form” (Vann and Abraham, 1990, p. 191). Hsiao and Oxford (2002, p. 369), citing Abraham and Vann (1987) and Vann and Abraham (1990), state that “less successful L2 learners grab for various strategies in a seemingly **desperate, random way**, and do not pay sufficient attention to the relevance of a strategy to the task at hand.” Oxford (2011b, p. 171), citing Reiss (1983), states “Although less effective learners often use as many strategies as good language learners, the former apply strategies **randomly** or **desperately**.”

Unlike the dimensions of frequency, consciousness, and confidence whose meaning is indirectly addressed in the given studies, or can easily be inferred from the contexts, the dimensions of efficiency, effectiveness, and appropriateness can only be accessed through their lexical meanings. *The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (2005) defines ‘efficiency’ as the quality of doing something well with no waste of time or money; ‘effectiveness’, the quality of producing the intended results; and ‘appropriateness’, the quality of being suitable or acceptable for the circumstances. The possible reason why these dimensions are not addressed in the studies is that the studies are not concerned specifically with the ways strategies are used, and hence there is no urgency for them to provide such specific explanation.

As regards the dimensions of systematicity (Vann and Abraham, 1990), desperation and randomness (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002), their contextual meanings are available directly. However, to better understand them, I paraphrase the quotations from the studies using adverbs, as Oxford (2011b) does. For instance, ‘less successful L2 learners employed strategies unsystematically, desperately, and randomly’. Using such paraphrase, one sees that

the three dimensions share a common feature, which apparently is the key element of the three dimensions: lack of pattern of use. As Hsiao and Oxford (2002) point out, less successful L2 learners do not pay sufficient attention to the relevance of strategies to the task at hand. The learners might have used any strategies from their repertoire without knowing any conditions of their use and combination with other strategies.

Applying initial understanding of the ways students use strategies provided by studies reviewed in this sub-subsection, one may view these studies as the starting point for exploring the answer to the second research question, although they are studies on language learning strategies in general. Reviewing these studies may seem a poor basis for establishing a conceptual background for a study on L2 speaking strategies. But there are two reasons for doing so. First, there are relatively few studies dealing with L2 speaking strategies; second, many language learning strategies, especially those listed in Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy, are not only useful for one specific language skill but also for other skills. Some strategies are indeed useful only for certain language skills and cannot be easily applied to the other language skills, but the number of these strategies is very low.

Based on this rationale, to investigate the ways students use L2 speaking strategies, the investigation is built on the understanding that students use language learning strategies in the dimensions of frequency, consciousness, confidence, efficiency, effectiveness, appropriateness, systematicity, desperation, and randomness. In this study, the ways students use strategies will be classified according to these dimensions. If they fall outside the dimensions, they may still be interesting findings and a contribution to the research on language learning strategies.

The theoretical foundation for the second research question is now set. The next theoretical foundation relates to the third research question, and it is reviewed in the next sub-subsection.

2.5.1.3.5 Reasons why students use language learning strategies in specific ways

Since there is no research study that specifically investigates the ways students use strategies, there is none that investigates the reasons why they use strategies in specific ways, either. A couple of studies, however, have provided initial understanding of the subject. They include Lee and Oxford (2008) and Zhang and Goh (2006).

Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 7), as quoted in sub-subsection 2.5.1.3.4, demonstrate that students with certain characteristics, i.e. valuing English as important, evaluating their own proficiency as high, and being already aware of many language learning strategies, employed learning strategies more frequently. Oxford (2011b, p. 180), commenting on Lee and Oxford (2008), says that “... more frequent use of learning strategies was related to three learner factors: strategy awareness, perceptions of the importance of English, and self-perception of high English proficiency.” Both Lee and Oxford (2008) and Oxford (2011b) do not explicitly claim the three learner factors as the ‘reasons’ why students used strategies more frequently.

However, to provide a basic grasp of the reason why students use strategies in specific ways, I summarise that the relationship between the frequent use of strategies and the three learner factors is causal, at least, as one of the possibilities. Therefore, the students used strategies frequently because of their perceptions on the importance of English, English-learning self-image, and awareness of many strategies.

As also quoted in sub-subsection 2.5.1.3.4, Zhang and Goh (2006) argue that despite the awareness of the usefulness of strategies, students were not yet conscious and confident

strategy users. This statement suggests that the students did not use strategies consciously and confidently, although they were aware of the usefulness of them. This, then, implies that students' awareness of the usefulness of the strategies was one of the 'reasons' or 'necessary prerequisites' for them to use strategies consciously and confidently.

With this initial understanding of the reasons why students use strategies in specific ways provided by the studies reviewed so far, I investigated the answer to the third research question based on the following four possible reasons: students' perceptions of the importance of English, self-perceptions of high English proficiency, strategy awareness, and awareness of the usefulness of the strategies. To interpret findings of this study, I will refer to the four reasons, if it is the case, but will claim other reasons emerging from this study that were not disclosed in other studies as part of the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge on language learning strategies.

To summarize subsection 2.5.1, strategy studies undertaken outside the Indonesian context have provided a general theoretical foundation for investigating problems posed in the present study. The studies have been conducted since the 1970s and covered eight themes. Those that share high relevance to this study include studies with themes of language-area strategies and learner factors, i.e. studies addressing strategies for speaking skills, proficiency, and gender. Other studies sharing high relevance are those that have provided a basis for understanding the ways students use strategies and the reasons why they use strategies in specific ways.

Since one of the key characteristics of this study is the Indonesian EFL context, a review of strategy studies carried out in the Indonesian context is essential.

2.5.2 L2 learning strategy studies in the Indonesian EFL context

This subsection offers a brief review of strategy studies in the Indonesian context. It covers topics parallel to those reviewed in subsection 2.5.1, i.e. research themes, research timeline, and research closely relevant to this study, but because of the limited quantity of references, the topics are presented simultaneously here, not separately in sub-subsections.

Although L2 learning strategies outside the Indonesian context have been investigated extensively since the 1970s, they were not very much investigated among Indonesian EFL learners until the late 1990s. Since then, the themes that have been covered include, following Oxford (2011b), models and theories (for example, Lamb, 2004), language-area strategies (for example, Anam, 2010; Huda, 1998; Subekti and Lawson, 2007) and learner factors (for example, Anam, 2010; Huda, 1998; Lengkanawati, 2004; Mistar, 2001). These studies are chronologically presented before being discussed at the end of the subsection to identify their relevance to this study and where this study stands among them.

To start with, Huda's (1998) pioneering strategy research in the Indonesian context covered the theme of language-area strategies, i.e. strategies for speaking skills, and the theme of learner factors, i.e. learning styles and speaking proficiency. He investigated the relationships between L2 speaking strategies and the factors of speaking proficiency and learning styles. He carried out the study with 30 students majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the State Institute of Teacher Training and Education in Malang, which is now known as the State University of Malang. He demonstrated that students with good speaking proficiency used fewer strategies than those with fair speaking proficiency, but eight strategies were found to be employed only by students with good speaking proficiency. However, he did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

He also demonstrated that there was no consistent relationship between learning styles and L2 speaking strategies.

At the beginning of the 2000s, Mistar (2001) addressed the theme of learner factors: language aptitude, personality traits, attitudes, and motivation. He examined the relationships between these four learner factors and L2 learning strategies, conducting a study with English majors at the teacher-training English Department at the Islamic University of Malang, English majors at the non-teacher-training DELL at GUM, and Accounting majors at the polytechnic of Brawijaya University who were studying English as a minor subject. The study indicated that the combination of four factors, i.e. anxiety about learning English, attitude and learning orientation, language aptitude, and personality traits, which were identified from the investigated predictor variables, contributed significantly to the use of language learning strategies, and the first two were found to be the best predictors of the strategy use.

In the mid 2000s, Lamb (2004) addressed the theme of models and theories, i.e. learner autonomy. He investigated L2 learning attitudes and activities among younger EFL learners, the first year pupils of a junior high school in provincial Indonesia. He demonstrated that even younger learners were studying English independently from their teachers' prescriptions, both inside the classroom and outside formal school, using strategies even though they had no overt strategy training. Meanwhile, Lengkanawati (2004) raised the theme of learner factors. She investigated the effect of learners' cultural background to L2 learning strategies. She compared the strategy use of Indonesian tertiary students learning EFL and of Australian tertiary students learning Indonesian as a foreign language (IFL). The study revealed evidence of differences in the types of strategies employed by both groups. Indonesian students learning EFL used memory, metacognitive, and affective strategies more frequently than their

Australian counterparts. On the other hand, the Australian students learning IFL used cognitive, compensation, and social strategies more frequently than the Indonesians did. The contrast in strategy use appeared to emerge as a result of their learning culture.

Towards the end of the 2000s, Subekti and Lawson (2007) covered the themes of language-area strategies, i.e. strategies for vocabulary. They investigated what strategies Indonesian students employed to learn new English words through reading. The study did not take place in Indonesia, but its participants were Indonesians: 25 postgraduate students at the University of South Australia. The study showed that the students used more ‘non-elaboration’ strategies than ‘elaboration’ strategies, and the passive ‘non-elaboration’ strategies were the dominant strategy group of all (Lawson and Hogben, 1998 as cited in Subekti and Lawson, 2007). Also covering the theme of language-area strategies, Anam (2010) probed learning strategies for reading skills. Additionally, he covered the theme of learner factors which included reading proficiency and cognitive styles. He examined the correlation between strategies for reading skills and the factors of reading proficiency and cognitive styles. The study was carried out with Indonesian EFL tertiary English majors at the State University of Surabaya. The outcome was that cognitive styles did not significantly correlate with strategy use, whereas proficiency levels did. He also found that students used language learning strategies typical of their cognitive styles, although at the same time they flexibly used atypical strategies. Additionally, more proficient students used more atypical language learning strategies than less proficient ones did.

Relating this study to those in the Indonesian context reviewed above, this study, in terms of research themes, treated the same themes as all the others: language-area strategies and learner factors. Despite the similarity, the potential contribution of the study to the field,

especially the one related to the ways students use strategies and why they use them in specific ways that have not been disclosed by other studies, is evident. In terms of the degree of relevance, this study has similar interests to those of Huda's (1998) work. Both probed L2 speaking strategies related to speaking proficiency and other learner factors. However, this study differs from Huda's (1998) in the research design, data collection instruments, and the learner factors addressed. Concerning the research design, this study is an explanatory mixed method research whereas Huda's (1998) study is an exploratory one. This entails differences in the data collection procedures, data analytical techniques, and data weighing choice. With respect to the data collection instruments, I employed a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire, speaking learning diaries, and semi-structured interviews, whereas Huda (1998) employed only a questionnaire containing open-ended questions. Regarding learner factors, the present study addressed L2 proficiency and gender, but Huda (1998) was concerned with learning styles. With varying focuses on the same theme, the two studies complement one another. On the matter of speaking proficiency, both Huda (1998) and I used students' grades from the speaking subjects. The degree of relevance of this study to all other studies, however, is not high. It only shares with Subekti and Lawson (2007) and Anam (2010) a similarity in the general theme of language-area strategies, and in learner factors with Anam (2010), Lengkanawati (2004), and Mistar (2001).

The first research question and the second sub-question will draw on Indonesian strategy studies and Huda (1998) in particular. Due to the absence of studies from Indonesia on the ways students use strategies and the reasons why they use them in specific ways, it was not possible to refer to any in answering the second and third research questions, let alone the fourth research question, whose nature is as a link between the quantitative and qualitative results generated specifically in this particular mixed method study.

To sum up the whole section, 2.5, research studies on L2 learning strategies outside and inside the Indonesian context provide the theoretical foundation for investigating problems posed in the research questions. Because of the limited number of relevant Indonesian studies, I refer to research outside the Indonesian context, despite its broader context, to support the investigation. Research studies reviewed in the section also provide an indication of where in the body of research on language learning strategies, both in and outside the Indonesian context, this study has a place.

2.6 Conclusion

A concept that reinforces this study is ‘learner autonomy’, the theoretical framework for the whole study. The issues related to the definitions and classification of language learning strategies provide a theoretical foundation for the investigation of problems addressed in the first research question, as well as its first sub-question. Meanwhile, research studies on language learning strategies outside and inside the Indonesian context provide a theoretical foundation for the investigation of problems formulated in the other two sub-questions of the first research question, as well as the second and third research questions. They are reviewed in terms of their research themes, timeline, and degree of relevance to this study. The fourth question requires no such review since it acts as the means to connect the quantitative and qualitative results. The procedure for doing so is prescribed by the mixed method design chosen for this study, as elaborated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the methodological framework of the study. Following the introduction is the presentation of my research approach (3.2) that explains the definition and characteristics of the mixed method approach, four principal mixed method designs, and the rationale for the choice of the approach and the explanatory design for this study. The research steps to design and conduct the study, along with an effort to ensure its validity and reliability appear in section 3.3, and the description of the research participants follows (3.4). Data collection, offering descriptions of data collection methods and steps, is the focus of section 3.5. Section 3.6 details the management and analytical techniques of the data. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of important points regarding the methodology (3.7).

3.2 Research approach

This section focuses on the mixed method approach, mixed method designs, and the rationale for the choice of the approach and the explanatory design.

3.2.1 Definition and characteristics of the mixed method approach

Although the mixed method approach is still relatively new for research in applied linguistics (Ivankova and Creswell, 2009), it has been relatively popular for research in other social sciences for the last two decades (Creswell, 2003). As its name may suggest, it is an approach that combines two or more methods in a single study. Creswell (2008 cited in Ivankova and Creswell 2009, p. 137), defines it as “a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study in

order to understand a research problem more completely.” The concept of ‘mixing’ here implies that the data or the findings are integrated or connected at one or several points within the study.

A study is a mixed method study when it treats its quantitative and qualitative aspects, which include timing, weighting, and mixing, appropriately (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, cited in Ivankova and Creswell, 2009). Timing constitutes the sequence or order of the collection and analysis of the data in a study. It could either be sequential or concurrent (Morse, 1991). In sequential timing, the collection and analysis of the quantitative data take place first, followed by the same procedures for the qualitative data, or the other way around. Concurrent timing, on the other hand, suggests that the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data are executed simultaneously.

Weighting refers to giving priority to the two different types of data in the study. Researchers can give equal weight to both data sets. They can also place greater weight on one type, either the quantitative or the qualitative data. In addressing the issue of weighting, it is recommended that researchers should consider certain aspects before making a decision: the emphasis of the research purpose; the centrality of the data collection process to the study; and the sophistication and complexity of data analysis procedures when the study is presented. Based on the emphasis of the research purpose, for instance, when exploration is more strongly emphasized, researchers should give greater weight to the qualitative data, but when prediction is more strongly emphasized, priority should be given to the quantitative data.

‘Mixing’ is concerned with the way quantitative and qualitative data and results are connected during the research process. It can occur at different stages in the study: during the data collection, data analysis, or results interpretation. Decisions about this depend on the purpose of the study, the research design, and the strategies for data collection. Based on the purpose of the study, for instance, if it is to explain quantitative results obtained first, qualitative data can be collected after the quantitative phase by, for example, interviewing selected participants based on the already obtained quantitative results. Here, mixing can be done in the stages of selecting the representatives from the population, creating interview questions, and of interpreting the results from the two phases.

To provide further explanation of the implementation of the mixed method approach in this study, it is necessary to consider the four common designs of the approach.

3.2.2 Four principal mixed method designs

Richards et al. (2012) point out the abundance of theories regarding the mixed method designs in the literature, but advise researchers to refer to those proposed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) for their clarity and practicality. They include triangulation, embedded, explanatory, and exploratory designs. Triangulation design mixes qualitative and quantitative methods to investigate a research problem in a single phase. Typically, the researcher collects the data separately but at the same time, and brings them to bear on the problem, giving each element equal weight. Embedded design mixes qualitative and quantitative methods, in which one plays a secondary role, i.e. to provide support to the main study. Consequently, the results of the secondary data set are meaningful only in the context of the other data set. Explanatory design requires two-phase sequential procedures, with the quantitative study executed first, and the qualitative one following in order to throw light on or to build on the quantitative

results. Normally, the quantitative data gain greater weight. Exploratory design works in a way similar to the explanatory design, but it begins with the qualitative study.

The explanatory design was chosen for this study. An explanation of the implementation of the timing, weighting, and mixing as the characteristics of the design will appear in the next subsection, which serves as the rationale for the choice of the design, along with that for the mixed method approach.

3.2.3 Rationale for the choice of the mixed method approach and the explanatory design

The primary purpose of this study was to get an overall view of L2 speaking strategies employed by Indonesian EFL tertiary students, and to reach a deeper understanding of their strategy use. The secondary purpose was to probe the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. Based on the purposes of the research, the implementation of either a quantitative or qualitative method alone would not have been effective. Therefore, combining both methods was essential for a richer and more complete understanding of the research problems. The ultimate result was not only an account of what strategies the students employed, but also greater insights into the ways they employed the strategies, and the reasons why they employed them in specific ways.

In accordance with the primary purpose of the study, the explanatory design worked best for this study. Its two-phase sequential timing for collecting and analysing the data was effective to achieve this purpose. In the first phase, the quantitative data were collected by means of a questionnaire, proficiency test, and documents of students' speaking grades, which were then analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results of the analysis were an overview of the students' strategy use, constituting a list of L2 speaking strategies and their

use in relation to L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. In the second phase, 20 students, representatives from the population, were selected. The distribution for proficiency levels among these 20 students was similar to that of all participants (N = 65), and the gender distribution was equal (ten male, ten female students). They were assigned diary writing and interviewing. The qualitative data collected by means of diaries and interviews were analysed using the meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996). The results of the analysis provided a fuller understanding of the students' strategy use, which constituted the ways they used the strategies and the reasons they used them in specific ways.

The data weighting was also in line with the primary purpose of the research. It was decided to give greater weight to the qualitative data. Prioritizing the qualitative data helped to “build on” (Richards et al., 2012, p. 308) or “extend” (Ivankova and Creswell, 2009, p. 139) the quantitative results obtained first. In this study, the qualitative results on the ways and reasons students used strategies served as the fuller understanding of the quantitative results on L2 speaking strategies used by the students.

The ‘mixing’ of the methods that occurred at the stage of data collection and analysis was also effective to achieve the primary purpose of the research. At the stage of data collection, the connection took place when 20 representatives were selected to be assigned diary writing and interviewing, and when interview questions and diary template were developed. At the stage of data analysis, the qualitative and quantitative results were integrated. For example, the qualitative results regarding what strategies students used, how students used them, and why they used them in specific ways were combined with the quantitative results obtained first to generate the ultimate key findings of the study.

3.3 Research design

This section describes the design of the study. It consists of two parts, the first of which explains the steps followed for designing and conducting this study, the second explaining the effort to ensure the validity and reliability of the study.

3.3.1 Research steps

Ivankova and Creswell (2009) argue that it is useful for researchers to follow eight basic research steps when designing and conducting a mixed method study. The steps are described below, some of which are followed by explanation of their implementation in the study.

Step one is the moment when researchers need to determine whether the mixed method approach is the best choice for the study. Some questions can guide their decision: whether quantitative or qualitative data alone would provide too limited an understanding of the research problems; whether the use of both quantitative and qualitative data enhance understanding; whether there are advantages in having both a large population (quantitative data) and the views of selected individuals (qualitative data); whether the researchers have the knowledge and skills necessary to conduct both quantitative and qualitative research; and whether there is enough time to collect both types of data. If ‘yes’ is the answer to all these questions, the mixed method approach is better than a single method to be implemented to the study.

Step two is when researchers need to select a specific mixed method design. To guide them to the right decision, they should think about the purpose of the study and the rationale for using the mixed method approach. They should also think about the timing of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, the data weighting, and the stages of the research

process where the integration of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study would occur.

Step three requires researchers to write a detailed mixed method purpose statement for the study. This statement helps them to get focused. The statement typically indicates the overall purpose of the study and the purpose of each quantitative and qualitative component. It also indicates the site and sample for each phase.

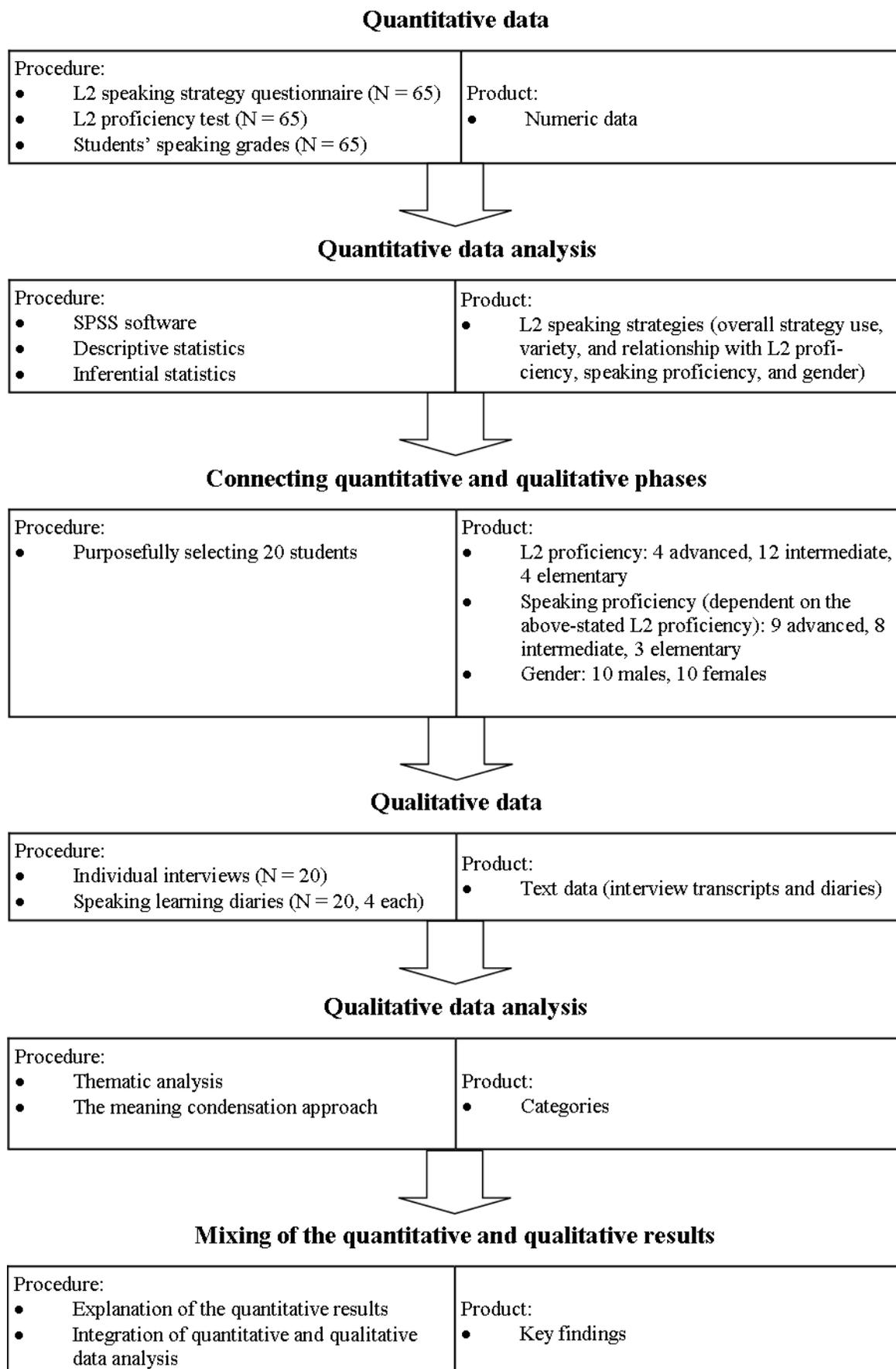
Step four requires researchers to write up the specific research questions they want to investigate. The questions should be developed for both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study. For the quantitative aspect of the study, it is necessary to specify independent and dependent variables and focus on their relationship, and for the qualitative aspect of the study it is necessary to indicate the central phenomenon that is to be explored. It is also recommended to develop a mixed method research question that spans both quantitative and qualitative data collection and that reflects the rationale for choosing a specific mixed method design.

Step five is the moment when researchers need to choose the quantitative and qualitative data to collect. They should be able to use the research questions to guide them to the decision. It is important to choose the types of data that will best answer the research questions. They could consider collecting the quantitative data by means of closed-response questionnaire items, test scores, checklists and records. Typical qualitative data collection methods include open-response questionnaire items, individual and focus group interviews, observations, and artefact analysis. At this stage of the research process, Ivankova and Creswell (2009) further explain that it is important to decide the data weighting for the overall study design. It is also

important to think about the type and size of the sample needed for each phase of the study. Quantitative research often requires a large random sampling to allow for the generalization of its results to a wider population, whereas qualitative research generally uses a small purposeful sampling to promote in-depth understanding of the explored phenomenon. Mixed method research typically requires the selection of a sample from the same population.

Step six requires researchers to draw a visual diagram of all the procedures in the study. It helps them envisage the big picture, so that they can see the flow and the timing of the quantitative and qualitative data collection, the weight given to the data, and the stages within the research process where the integration of the two methods will occur. When included in the research report, the visual diagram could help the readers understand the study. The diagram of all the procedures of the present study is presented in Figure 3.1 overleaf.

Figure 3.1 Visual diagram of explanatory design procedures for the study



Step seven is the moment when researchers collect and analyse the quantitative and qualitative data. After the data are collected, it should be managed to prepare for analysis. The choice of techniques for the quantitative and qualitative data analysis depends on the research questions and the mixed method design implemented for the study. Quantitative data can be analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics, and qualitative data can be coded for descriptions and themes. Data analytical techniques can be chosen for implementation depending on the mixed method design. The analytical techniques for the explanatory design, for instance, require researchers to “explain or expand the quantitative results, or further investigate the typical or extreme cases revealed in the quantitative results” (Ivankova and Creswell, 2009, p. 150). The choice of the cases for qualitative follow-up depends on the purpose of the study and the results of the quantitative data analysis.

In this study, detailed descriptions of data management and analysis are provided in section 3.6. Roughly, however, the quantitative data were organised using SPSS software, whilst the qualitative data were transcribed and translated manually. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, and the qualitative data, using the meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996). Concerning the integration of the data sets, this study indeed explained and expanded the quantitative results from the investigation into the employment of L2 speaking strategies.

Step eight is the writing up of the final report of the study. The structure of the report should follow the mixed method design implemented for the study. Distinctions between the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study should be made clear. Indications of their weighting should likewise be clear. Depending on the sequential or concurrent timing of the data collection and analysis in the study, the procedures and the results should be presented

separately. For studies implementing the explanatory design, for example, the procedures should be reported in different sections to emphasize the sequential order and the connections between the phases. The quantitative data collection and analysis should be described first, followed by the description of the qualitative data collection and analysis. A separate section should discuss how the two phases were connected in the research process. During the discussion of the study results, the researcher should explain how the qualitative findings helped elaborate or extend the quantitative results.

Following the structure of a report of an explanatory design, the study presents the procedure for the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, which shows sequential order and the connections between the two phases, in subsections 3.5 and 3.6 of the Methodology chapter. The quantitative results come first, section 4.2 in the Results chapter, followed by the qualitative results, section 4.3 of the same chapter, then integrating both sets of results in section 4.4 of the same chapter. The Discussion chapter discusses how the qualitative results expanded the quantitative results.

3.3.2 Ensuring the validity and reliability of the study

Ivankova and Creswell (2009) argue that the quality of a mixed method study is indicated by the validity and reliability of its findings. The issues of validity and reliability have been interpreted in subtly different ways. For the domain of qualitative research, for instance, Bryman (2001 cited in Richards et al., 2012) classifies validity into internal, external, ecological, and construct validity. According to Richards et al. (2012), internal validity is concerned with the soundness, integrity, and credibility of findings, whereas external validity is the extent to which the findings can be generalized beyond the specific research context. Ecological validity, which is essential for quantitative research, has to do with whether

findings are applicable to people's everyday life (Cicourel, 1973 as cited in Richards et al., 2012), and construct validity is related to the identification of correct operational measures for the concepts being studied (Yin, 2009). For the domain of mixed method research, validity is defined as "the ability of the researcher to draw meaningful and accurate conclusions from all the data in the study, quantitative and qualitative" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, as cited in Ivankova and Creswell, 2009, p. 154).

For the issue of reliability, Yin (2009) states that it is concerned with whether the operations of a study can be repeated with the same results. Likewise, Bryman (2001) states that reliability deals with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable or replicable. This means that if a later researcher follows the same procedures as described by an earlier researcher, he or she will arrive at the same findings and conclusions. The goal of achieving reliability is to minimize errors and biases in the study. To allow the later researcher to repeat a study, the procedures followed in the earlier study should be documented well.

To generate valid and reliable findings, researchers conducting a mixed method study should carefully address each component of the study separately, and should apply procedures specific to each. However, because findings of a mixed method study are generated from the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data, researchers should also ensure that such knowledge is correct and legitimized. Emphasizing how difficult this task is, Ivankova and Creswell (2009) recommend that researchers address validity from the standpoint of the chosen mixed method design, and consider potential threats to validity that might arise during the data collection and analysis at each stage. To minimize such threats and to achieve meaningful and accurate results from the integration of the two data sets, researchers need to design and conduct the study carefully by following the eight basic research steps presented in

subsection 3.3.1. They also need to systematically apply the appropriate procedures in the quantitative and qualitative components of their study, and integrate the two methods as the mixed method design dictates.

In this study, first, each component of the study was carefully addressed to ensure the quality of its results. At the stage of data collection, quantitative data were collected by means of instruments with high reliability reinforced by a number of measures. The questionnaire was basically an adapted-SILL questionnaire, SILL being an established strategy assessment instrument with an internal consistency coefficient in the .90 (Oxford and Green, 1995). The proficiency test, TOEFL, was also an established test that has been used all over the world. To collect the qualitative data, I employed individual face-to-face semi-structured interviews, a specific type of interview that tackles limitations of both structured and unstructured interview (Cohen, 2011). I also employed learning diaries, with a pre-set template and space, which provided students with a relatively high level of freedom in reporting their learning strategy use. Using these data collection instruments, reliability was enhanced.

At the stage of analysing the quantitative and qualitative data, well established data analytical techniques were also used. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, and for the qualitative data the meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996) was applied. The quality of the results of both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study was high as a result of implementing these well-established data analytical techniques.

Second, validity was addressed from the standpoint of the explanatory design chosen for this study. To minimize the threats to validity, at the stage of data collection, a sample was

selected carefully from the same population from which the quantitative data were collected in the first phase. At the stage of data analysis, I chose the strong, prominent quantitative results, e.g. the variety of L2 speaking strategies employed by students, obtained in the quantitative phase to further explore in the qualitative phase.

Finally, to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings of this study, the study followed the eight basic research steps, and also followed the ways to integrate the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study as prescribed by the explanatory design.

To summarize the entire section on the research design, eight basic research steps help researchers design and conduct their mixed method study. Such steps were adhered to in this study. This ensured the quality of the findings and strengthened the validity and reliability of the project.

3.4 Research participants

Croker (2009) mentions that a mixed method study could be carried out with a group of learners as the research participants. This applied to the present study. The research participants for this study were Indonesian EFL tertiary students at DELL. The total number of students who gave consent to participate in this study was 65, 38 male and 27 female students. As mentioned in sub-subsection 1.2.2.2, this number constituted approximately 60% of the total number of students enrolled at DELL at the time when the data collection took place. They spread over the first to seventh year of the course, enrolled in the *sarjana* degree. The degree normally requires eight semesters to finish, but the educational policy in Indonesia allows them to stay enrolled for a maximum of 14 semesters, excluding approved leave. On commencing the university course, they had studied English at school for at least six years.

They were in the age range of late teens to early twenties. Their profile is summarized in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Research participants' profile

	Male	Female	Total number
1 st year	4	3	7
2 nd year	5	3	8
3 rd year	6	1	7
4 th year	10	7	17
5 th year	10	13	23
6 th year	2	0	2
7 th year	1	0	1
Total number	38	27	65

3.5 Data collection

This section sets out the instruments for data collection of the study, and the chronological order of data collection steps in the field.

3.5.1 Data collection instruments

In line with the choice of the mixed method approach for this study, multiple instruments for collecting the quantitative and qualitative data were unavoidable. Questionnaires, proficiency tests, and documents containing students' speaking grades obtained at GUM were used to collect the quantitative data and learning diaries and semi-structured interviews were used to collect the qualitative data. Explanations of each instrument follow.

3.5.1.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire employed for this study was adapted from the SILL version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) (Oxford, 1990). The form and content of the SILL, except 17 statements representing learning

strategies useful for language skills other than speaking, were adopted. Some parts of the content were original.

The questionnaire had two parts (see Appendix 2). The first part contained questions seeking information about the students' background: student ID number and gender. The ID number was important as a tool to connect data collected from the same students through various instruments. The information, however, was essential only up to the stage of data analysis because, for confidentiality reasons, it would not appear in the report of findings. Information about gender was required to investigate the third sub-question of the first research question, i.e. whether or not gender significantly affected strategy use.

The second part of the questionnaire aimed to gather general information about L2 speaking strategies used by the students. This part used a five-point Likert-scale, which contained 39 statements representing strategies. As indicated earlier, 33 statements were adopted from the SILL and six were original. The latter were composed based on Oxford's (1990) explanation of strategies useful for speaking skills and were thus added into the questionnaire to meet the need for collecting more specific data on strategies for speaking skills, left out by the SILL given its nature as an instrument to assess more general L2 learning strategies. The 39 statements were composed of three statements for the memory strategy group; eight for each of the cognitive and compensation strategy groups; ten for the metacognitive strategy group; six for the affective strategy group; and four for the social strategy group. Table 3.2 overleaf shows the distribution of the statements, along with their source.

Table 3.2 Distribution of questionnaire items

Statement	Source		Represented strategy	Strategy group
	SILL	Original		
1: I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	√		Placing new words into a context	Memory
2: I use rhymes to remember new English words	√		Representing sounds in memory	
3: I review English lessons often	√		Structured reviewing	
4: I say or write new English words several times	√		Repeating	Cognitive
5: I try to talk like native English speakers	√			
6: I practise the sounds of English	√		Formally practising with sound system	
7: I use the English words I know in different ways	√		Recombining	
8: I start conversations in English	√		Practising naturalistically	
9: I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English	√		Using resources for receiving and sending messages	
10: I try to find patterns in English	√		Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	
			Reasoning deductively	
11: I try not to translate word-for-word	√		Translating	
			Transferring	
12: When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures	√		Using mime or gesture	Compensation
13: I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English	√		Coining word	
14: If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	√		Using a circumlocution or synonym	
15: When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use an Indonesian expression		√	Switching to the mother tongue	
16: When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I ask for help from the person I am addressing		√	Getting help	
17: I avoid certain situations or topics during a conversation in English because they are too difficult		√	Avoiding communication partially or totally	
18: I select topics of conversation in English		√	Selecting the topic	
19: If I cannot think of English words to say a message, I make the idea simpler		√	Adjusting or approximating the message	
20: I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	√		Overviewing and linking with already known material	
21: I pay attention when someone is speaking English	√		Paying attention	
22: I repeat silently to myself when someone is speaking English		√	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	
23: I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	√		Finding out about language learning	

24: I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	√		Organizing	
25: I look for people I can talk to in English	√		Seeking practice opportunities	
26: I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	√			
27: I have clear goals for improving my English skills	√		Setting goals and objectives	
			Identifying the purpose of a language task	
			Planning for a language task	
28: I notice my English mistakes and use the information to help me do better	√		Self-monitoring	
29: I think about my progress in learning English	√		Self-evaluating	
30: I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	√		Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, meditation	Affective
			Using music	
			Using laughter	
31: I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake	√		Making positive statement	
			Taking risk wisely	
32: I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	√		Rewarding yourself	
33: I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	√		Listening to your body	
			Using a checklist	
34: I write down my feelings in a language learning diary	√		Writing a language learning diary	
35: I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	√		Discussing your feelings with someone else	
36: I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	√		Asking for correction	Social
37: I practise English with other students	√		Cooperating with peers	
38: I ask for help from English speakers	√		Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	
39: I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	√		Developing cultural understanding	
			Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings	
Total: 39	33	6	46	6

As shown in Table 3.2, the 39 statements represented 46 strategies, spreading over six strategy groups (Oxford, 1990). Statements four and five represented a single strategy, ‘repeating’, and statements 25 and 26 represented ‘seeking practice opportunities’. In contrast, statements 10, 11, 27, 30, 31, 33, and 39, each represented two or three strategies. The remaining statements each represented a strategy.

The rationale for the use of SILL as the model for this questionnaire is that SILL has been used in many countries around the world to investigate strategy use among groups of students of English as a second or foreign language, ranging from junior high school age through adulthood. As mentioned earlier, it has been proven to have very high validity and reliability, with internal consistency coefficient of .90 (Oxford and Green, 1995). According to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), slightly lower reliabilities but still very acceptable are found for the ESL/EFL SILL when it is not administered in the native language of the respondents but is given in English instead. For example, Talbott's (1993 as cited in Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995) data showed a Cronbach alpha of .85. In this present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .87. Additionally, the use of SILL allows me to compare findings of this study with those of other studies.

3.5.1.2 Proficiency test

A test was required to assess students' proficiency. The score of each individual student was used to determine whether the student's L2 proficiency was advanced, intermediate, or elementary. These L2 proficiency levels were needed to determine the relationship between the students' strategy use and L2 proficiency. Due to the low resourced Indonesian context where this study was conducted, the proficiency test administered for this purpose was a two-hour paper-based TOEFL Practice Test, instead of the more recent and comprehensive internet-based TOEFL. The TOEFL Practice Test had very unlikely been seen by the students because this confidential test material was borrowed from a commercial language test centre. It consisted of a 40-minute 50-question listening comprehension test, a 25-minute 40-question structure and written expression test and a 55-minute 50-question reading comprehension test (see Appendix 3 for the test).

The reason for the choice of TOEFL as the proficiency test for this study is that it is an extremely well known and well established measure of academic EFL proficiency. Whether it is a paper-based, computer-based, or internet-based, the TOEFL is known to be efficient and have a high degree of validity and reliability (Educational Testing Service, 2011). Data from a study on foreign language proficiency and cultural intelligence in Iran which was conducted by Khodadady and Ghahari (2012), for instance, showed a Chronbach alpha of .95. In this present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .83.

3.5.1.3 Documents containing students' speaking grades

Grades from the speaking subjects the students had taken up to the stage when the data collection took place were collected by means of documents at DELL (see Appendix 4 for the students' speaking grades). Depending on the curriculum, fifth, sixth, and seventh year students took two speaking subjects; first to fourth year students were required to take four speaking subjects. As mentioned in sub-subsection 1.2.2.2 of Chapter 1, the scoring system for curriculum-specific achievement tests, including the speaking subjects, which is implemented at DELL is a four-point scale: A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, and D = 1 (Fakultas Sastra, 2007). A is the maximum and D is the minimum passing grade. In practice, a half-point above the grades of B, C, and D which is marked with the symbol + is also applied. E is commonly used to indicate a failure. The speaking tests might consist of interview, conversation, or discussion in English.

The reason for the use of this instrument was that the proficiency test, i.e. the paper-based TOEFL in the form of a TOEFL Practice Test, which was administered earlier did not come with a Test of Spoken English (TSE). Given its rigorous scoring procedure, the TSE would probably have been more reliable than the local curriculum-specific achievement tests from

which the students' grades were obtained; however the latter were certainly better than no initial assessment of speaking at all and did entail conversation which the TSE does not include.

3.5.1.4 Diaries

Learning diaries in this study constituted general notes about activities performed by students for their learning to speak, and were written based on a given template. In the diaries, students were requested to write activities done throughout the week which were intended for their learning to speak, procedures for doing the activities, and opinions about how the activities helped them learn. To maximize the quality of information given, Indonesian was chosen as the language for the diaries. The use of L1 was likely to increase students' fluency and accuracy in providing information about activities representing their L2 speaking strategy use. Twenty selected participants representing groups with three levels of L2 proficiency and speaking proficiency, as well as both genders, wrote the diaries weekly for four weeks. All in all, 80 diaries were collected (see Appendix 5 for the diary template and an example diary produced by a student).

According to Cohen (2011), in spite of their drawbacks i.e. the volume of produced data, the potentially random nature of entries, and restricted generalization of findings due to the small number of subjects, diaries are useful to show what is significant to learners. Much of the data collected through diaries may not be accessible through other research instruments. To minimize the drawbacks of diaries for this study, as mentioned earlier, a template with set-spacing was provided. The template containing three questions to answer could prevent random entries, and restricted spacing could reduce the excessive volume of produced data.

3.5.1.5 Interviews

Yin (2009) argues that interviews should be guided conversations, meaning that the researcher follows the line of inquiry and asks ‘non-threatening’ questions in an unbiased manner. In an in-depth interview, the researcher can ask informants about facts and their opinions. This interview can take place over an indefinite period of time. On the other hand, in a focused interview, a person can be interviewed for a short time and the researcher is more likely to follow an unvarying set of questions. Interviews should also be considered oral reports only, meaning that the interviewees’ responses may be subject to bias, poor recall, and poor articulation.

According to Cohen (2011), the interview is one of the ways to assess language learning strategies. In highly structured interviews, the researcher has a specific set of questions that are to be answered in a set order. Consequently, the obtained data are uniformly organized for all respondents and ready for statistical analysis. However, there is a possibility of a loss of interesting issues, the occurrence of ambiguity, and a decrease in the degree of objectivity. In semi-structured interviews, there is a prompt which requests certain information, but the exact shape of the response is not predetermined. In unstructured interviews, the researcher simply asks the respondents to discuss a certain area of interest. The respondents are free to pursue areas of personal interest. The advantage of both semi-structured and unstructured interviews is that some topics of interest that may not have been foreseen can be pursued. However, the obtained data are large in volume and are more likely to be highly individualized.

Cohen (2011) also argues that no matter what structure the interviews have, the researcher has to pay attention to the degree of formality. If the interviewer is too formal in manner, the respondents may be reluctant to discuss, for instance, their social and affective strategies. In

addition to the degree of formality, attention should be given to the fact that not much of the data in interviews constitute self-report about the respondents' use of strategies. Not being at the moment close to instances of their language learning behaviour, they may tend to be inaccurate about their actual strategy behaviour. To minimize such a problem, the researcher may ask the respondents to focus on recent language learning strategy use.

For this study, semi-structured interviews were adopted to collect in-depth data on strategy use that may be inaccessible through questionnaires (see Appendix 6 for the interview protocols guide). The pool of interviewees was the same selected 20 students assigned for diary writing. I, the interviewer, began each interview by asking the interviewee's student ID number and introducing the interview topic. I then asked questions about the interviewee's opinion regarding learning strategies for English in general, so that the interviewee tuned in to the interview topic. As soon as I judged that the interviewee was ready, I asked questions pursuing strategy use for speaking skills, starting with the question '*Strategi apa saja yang anda gunakan untuk belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris?*' [What strategies do you use to learn to speak English?].

Depending on the answer to the above question, the flow of the inquiries varied, but the questions basically covered direct and indirect strategies (Oxford, 1990). To investigate direct strategy use, I asked questions about the use of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Memory strategies are mainly related to storing and retrieval of new L2 information, and a sample question, as mentioned in Appendix 6, is '*Apakah anda menggunakan strategi tertentu untuk mengingat kata-kata baru Bahasa Inggris?*' [Do you use any strategies to remember new English words?]. Cognitive strategies enable learners to understand and produce L2 by many different means. An example question about these

strategies might be ‘*Apakah anda praktik berbicara Bahasa Inggris dengan orang lain?*’ [Do you practise speaking English with other people?]. Compensation strategies mainly deal with limitations in L2 knowledge, and an example question for these strategies would be ‘*Ketika anda tidak tahu kata Bahasa Inggris di tengah berbicara Bahasa Inggris, apa yang anda lakukan?*’ [When you do not know an English word in the midst of an English conversation, what do you do?].

To investigate indirect strategy use, I asked questions about the use of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. A sample question about the use of metacognitive strategies, i.e. strategies which allow learners to control their own cognition, is ‘*Apakah anda tetap belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris ketika tidak sedang bersama dosen anda? Apa yang anda lakukan?*’ [Do you still learn to speak English when you are away from classrooms? What do you do?]. Affective strategies mainly concern the regulation of emotions, motivations, and attitudes. A question about these strategies is ‘*Apakah anda merasa takut atau gugup pada waktu belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? Apa yang anda lakukan?*’ [Do you feel anxious when you learn to speak English? What do you do?]. Social strategies mainly deal with interaction with people for the purpose of learning, and a question for these strategies would be ‘*Apakah orang-orang di sekitar anda membantu anda belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? Siapa saja mereka?*’ [Do people around you help you learn to speak English? Who are they?].

The line of questions was developed before interviews took place. In practice, however, additional questions were asked depending on each individual interviewee’s responses. To preserve spontaneity, question-ordering was flexible.

As regards the interview number, Kvale (1996) claims that a researcher should interview as many participants as necessary to find out what she or he needs to know. Seidman (1991) argues that a researcher should know when she or he has interviewed enough participants by using criteria of sufficiency and saturation of information. Therefore, an exact number of interviews should not be established ahead the time. It may be said that the interviews (N = 20) conducted reflected the criteria of sufficiency and saturation of information as more interviews would not have added any substantial new information to the study.

I employed these five data collection instruments in the two sequential phases of the data collection stage of this study: first, questionnaire, proficiency test, and documents of students' speaking grades; second, speaking learning diaries and interviews. These sequential data collection steps are described in the next subsection.

3.5.2 Data collection steps

This subsection focuses on the data collection steps in the field after the research ethics approval was received (see Appendix 7 for the research ethics approval). Prior to the data collection, research information sheets (see Appendix 8) and consent forms for participants (see Appendix 9) were distributed to students. Those who agreed to participate in the study returned the signed consent forms on the questionnaire-completion session that they preferred to attend.

The data collection procedures indicated the sequential timing for collecting the quantitative and qualitative data for the explanatory mixed method study. In the first phase, questionnaire-completion sessions, proficiency tests, and collection of students' grades for

speaking subjects took place. In the second phase, the participants for diary writing and interviewing were selected. Explanation of each step follows.

3.5.2.1 Quantitative data collection

In this phase, I administered questionnaire-completion sessions, administered proficiency tests, and collected students' speaking grades. First, students completed printed questionnaires in the Self-Access Center (SAC) room at GUM. Due to the students' availability, five separate sessions took place in October 2009, as summarized in Table 3.3 overleaf. Before distributing the questionnaires to complete, in each session I explained the purpose of the study, so that the participants did not feel intimidated. In the explanation, I emphasized that the study did not have to do with the assessment and evaluation of their current learning and that the expected outcomes of the study would be useful for future English students facing similar learning issues to theirs. Thus, it was hoped that the students would complete the questionnaires more sincerely. To make sure that they were genuine, I also explicitly requested them to complete the questionnaires as truthfully as they could. Concerning my status as their former teacher when the study took place, which might generate false data out of respect, I also explicitly requested them to put such respect aside and to be sincere for the sake of the research. In addition, I explained how to complete the questionnaires and welcomed questions.

Immediately afterwards came the proficiency test. Before distributing the test paper, in each session as displayed in Table 3.3 overleaf, I explained the structure of the test and how to do each part, so that the participants who were not familiar with the test had a complete idea of the test and knew how to do it. It was a two-hour test composed of three parts: 40-minute

listening comprehension, 25-minute structure and written expression, and 55-minute reading comprehension. A colleague was present in each session to assist with administering the test.

Table 3.3 Questionnaire-completion sessions and test administration

Session	Date	Venue	Number of participants
1	9 October 2009	SAC	19
2	12 October 2009	SAC	13
3	14 October 2009	SAC	19
4	23 October 2009	SAC	9
5	28 October 2009	SAC	5
Total Number			65

Based on the list of the research participants, students' grades for the speaking subjects were collected. With the help of the administrative staff of DELL, documents containing students' speaking grades submitted by teachers of the subjects each semester were copied. For the reason of confidentiality, the copy of the documents was not included here. However, a list of speaking grades along with research participants indicated using numbers, instead of real names, as well as 20 selected students for the qualitative aspect of the study who were indicated using numbers and pseudonyms appears in Appendix 4.

3.5.2.2 Qualitative data collection

Before collecting the qualitative data of the study, in line with the sequential timing for data collection of an explanatory mixed method study, I made a connection between the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. In doing this, I purposefully selected 20 students as representatives of the 65 participating in the quantitative data collection done earlier. This smaller sample would allow deeper exploration of the quantitative results. For the sake of students' L2 proficiency levels, I selected the 20 by following the trend that appeared in the L2 proficiency levels of all the participants (N = 65), i.e. only a small number of

students were advanced (N = 7) and elementary (N = 7), and a large number of students were intermediate (N = 51). As the result, 4 advanced, 12 intermediate, and 4 elementary students were selected. As regards gender, I selected them with equal ratio, i.e. 10 male and 10 female students. The sampling for the proficiency levels was based on the TOEFL scores (see Appendix 4), instead of the students' speaking grades, because the initial were more objective than the latter (see sub-subsection 3.5.1.3).

In the qualitative data collection phase, the first activity was assigning diary writing to the 20 selected students. Since they were not familiar with diary writing, they undertook some brief training on the subject, including the handing out of a sample diary. As regards the sample diary, I wrote the answers to the questions using imaginative activities on the diary template. Both parties agreed that students would write the diaries using the provided template for four weeks, to be collected weekly.

A danger is that the training could have predisposed the students to provide what I was looking for. They might, for example, have tended to copy or adapt the sample diary entry. However, I explicitly requested the students to write the diaries as sincerely and honestly as they could and not let 'respect for the teacher' interfere with their reports. I assured them that the diaries would not affect their current study assessment. In fact I was somewhat distant from them because I had been away from them for a year before the research visit and would go away again immediately after. In the end, it seems the students did not try to please me by giving me data they thought I wanted. There was a great deal of evidence of effort and variety of self-report, and occasionally they were honest enough to say that they were not diligent in helping themselves to speak. One student, however, tended to follow the sample diary too

closely, but he did provide extra information beyond the sample. Thus, the diaries still showed evidence of being a reliable source of data.

Once the students commenced their diary writing, I proceeded to the next step of qualitative data collection: interviewing. I conducted one-to-one semi-structured interviews with the 20 students. The interview conduct was based on pre-developed line of questions as illustrated in the interview protocols guide. Each interview took about half an hour, and it was conducted in Indonesian. All the interviews were audio-recorded.

I began each interview by briefly informing the student of the goals of this study and explicitly requested the interviewee to be sincere, honest, and forthcoming throughout the course of the interview for the sake of optimal achievement. To make the interviewee feel relaxed from the outset I kept the degree of formality as low as I could. The structure of the interviews, which began with simple questions, and gradually moved to the core questions about L2 speaking strategies they used, also helped the interviewees feel comfortable throughout the interview.

To maximize the quality of the interviews, the interviews were conducted in a quiet room far from the noisy crowd of students. The chosen room was either the SAC or the language laboratory at GUM. The quietness of the site of the interviews helped enhance the quality of most of the interviews because the interviewees and I could focus on the exchange without any distraction from the outside world. A couple of interviews were influenced by some noise, but as a whole the noise did not seriously affect comprehensibility. The quietness of the interview site also improved the quality of the audio-recording which suffered no interference. The presence of the small recording device did not seem to affect the interviewees.

Once the data were collected, I undertook specific procedures for organizing and managing the data to prepare for analysis. The data management and analytical techniques are described in the next section.

3.6 Data management and analysis

The first part of this section, subsection 3.6.1, provides a description about the organisation of the two data sets, whilst the second, subsection 3.6.2, explains the techniques implemented for the data analysis.

3.6.1 Data management

3.6.1.1 Quantitative data management

To organise the data collected by means of questionnaires and to prepare them for analysis, steps proposed by Dörnyei (2003) were followed. As he points out, there are some consecutive steps a researcher has to undergo in processing questionnaires with closed-ended questions. The steps constitute a data check, data cleaning, data manipulation, reduction of the number of variables, data reliability and validity measurement, and statistical analyses. For the 65 completed questionnaires in this study, first, I checked each to make sure that information about the student identification number and gender was provided; I also checked whether all the questions on strategies had been answered. Second, I separated the questionnaires that contained one or more unanswered questions. Third, based on the students' identification number, I contacted the students and checked with them whether they had unintentionally skipped the question(s). If so, I asked them to answer the question(s). Finally, I transferred the students' responses, which were coded using numbers (see Appendix 2 for the five-point Likert-scale questionnaire), from the paper-based questionnaires to an SPSS data sheet. One (1) signalled 'never or almost never true of me'; two (2), 'usually not

true of me'; three (3), 'somewhat true of me'; four (4), 'usually true of me'; and five (5), 'always or almost always true of me'.

As regards the proficiency test, first, I scored one for each correct answer and zero for each incorrect answer or unanswered question. This was done for all the three sections of the test: listening comprehension, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension. Second, I counted how many correct answers there were in each section. Third, I matched the total number of the correct answers and the table of TOEFL converted score ranges adopted from Educational Testing Service (ETS) (2003, p. 392) (see Appendix 10). At this stage, I had a range of the lowest and highest score for each section of the test. For example, when the total number of the correct answers for each section was 15, the score range for each section was 39-41, 41-43, and 38-41 respectively. Fourth, I calculated the score range using the formula (score x 10): 3 = overall score range of each section. Using the above example, the score ranges were 130-136.7 for listening comprehension, 136.7-143.3 for structure and written expression, and 126.7-136.7 for reading comprehension. Fifth, I added up the three lowest scores from the score range. I also added up the three highest scores. The final score range was 393.4-416.7. Finally, I used the highest overall score (using the 'half round up' method) as the TOEFL score. With the same example, the TOEFL score was 417 (see Appendix 4 for the students' scores). According to ETS (n.d.), the score ranges for paper-based TOEFL are 31-68 for sections one and two of the test and 31-67 for section three. The total score is based on a scale of 310-677 (ETS, n.d.; Sharpe, 2003). When I finished scoring all the 65 students' TOEFL test, I organized the scores using SPSS software to group the students into three levels of L2 proficiency: 500 or above, advanced; 400-499, intermediate; and 399 or below, elementary.

Concerning the students' speaking grades, tabulating them was the first task. As has already been mentioned, students participating in this study came from the first to the seventh year of the *sarjana* degree course. Consequently, at the time of the data collection, each of the freshmen had a single grade for the first speaking subject; the sophomores, two or three depending on whether or not they had passed the prerequisites; the juniors and seniors, had four, provided that they had passed all the subjects. There were some amendments in the curriculum that applied to those who, at the time of the data collection, were the seniors. Their predecessors, who were fifth year students or above, were required to take two speaking subjects. Therefore, the fifth, sixth, and seventh year students had two grades only.

Addressing this issue of different numbers of grades, I used the average of them to represent a single speaking grade for each student. Thus, the second step I took to organize the data was calculating the average. Third, I grouped the 65 students into three – advanced, intermediate, and elementary, based on their speaking proficiency: A, advanced; B+/ B, intermediate; and C+/ C/ D+/ D/ E, elementary.

3.6.1.2 Qualitative data management

For the collected 80 diaries, I checked each of them to make sure that it had the student identification number on it. All did. Based on the student identification number, I grouped the diaries depending on their writers. Because there were 20 students who were assigned the diary writing, there were 20 bundles of paper-based diaries, each of which contained four smaller bundles indicating the number of weeks, and the duration of time in which they were written. Then, I translated the diaries from Indonesian into English. For the translated diaries, I employed an indicator for each bundle of diaries to facilitate future referencing at the data analysis stage. For example, on the top left corner of the first page, I typed Di-Adi -English, which means it was a diary, Di, written by a student whose pseudonym was Adi, and it was

the English translation. This translation, which I undertook myself, had to be faithful. To check the accuracy of my translations, I asked a peer, a native speaker of Indonesian and highly proficient in English, to translate one example interview transcript from Indonesian into English. After careful comparison of his and my own translation, I was confident that my translations were accurate. In addition, the Indonesian and English versions of all the diaries were kept together so that an independent observer knowing both languages could verify that the translation was fair.

Regarding the data collected by means of interviews, they were in the form of audio-recorded semi-structured interviews between students and me. To organise and to prepare them for analysis, I transcribed the recorded interviews verbatim. In the interview transcript, I employed a specific indicator for each interview to facilitate future quotation at data analysis stage. For instance, I typed Iv-Adi-30/10/09 on the top left corner of the transcript, meaning that this interview was done with a student called Adi, on 30 October 2009. On the top right corner, I recorded the length of the interview, for instance 00.26.54, which means that this particular interview took 26 minutes 54 seconds. To indicate whose turn a line was, I used the letter A to indicate the interviewer, i.e. me, and B for the interviewee. I consecutively numbered each turn from the start to the end of the interview. Inside the sentence lines, I employed certain symbols consistently used throughout the transcription process: triple dots, ..., to indicate unfinished utterance; parentheses, (), to indicate extra explanation provided by me to clarify or to describe the real event, such as laughing, smiling, answering a phone call, and so forth. Then, I translated the interview transcripts from Indonesian into English, with the same rigour as for the diaries. For the English version, I applied all practices used for the Indonesian counterparts, except the additional word 'English' was attached to the end of the interview transcript indicator. For example, I typed Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English for the

illustration above. Finally, I made a copy of the recorded interviews on a DVD (see Appendix 11).

When these two data sets had gone through the process of data management, they were ready for the next step, analysis. As mentioned earlier, analytical techniques for these data sets might depend on the mixed method design chosen for implementation for the study.

Description of the techniques is provided in the next subsection.

3.6.2 Data analytical techniques

3.6.2.1 Analytical techniques for the quantitative data

To analyse the quantitative data, I first used descriptive statistics, focusing on the mean, standard deviation, and range. The mean score obtained from the entire questionnaire items, for example, would indicate the students' overall L2 speaking strategy use. Other mean scores, depending on the focus of the examination, indicated the strategy use of specific groups of students, i.e. groups of students in terms of L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. Mean scores also indicated what strategy and strategy group the students favoured the most and least, in the sense that, based on a certain ranking, the highest mean score indicated the most favoured strategy or strategy group, and the lowest mean score indicated the least favoured. Descriptive statistical analysis led this study to the answers to the first research question, along with its first sub-question. It also provided crucial information, i.e. the strategy use of students grouped in terms of L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender, to answer the second and third sub-questions.

Second, I used inferential statistical analysis to answer whether L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender significantly affected strategy use, in particular the one-way Analysis

of Variance (ANOVA). This could help determine whether or not there was a significant difference in strategy use among the three groups of students with various levels of L2 and speaking proficiency. To examine the relationship between gender and strategy use, in the sense of whether or not male and female students showed a significant difference in strategy use, I employed the Independent-samples t-test. At the end, inferential statistics led this study to answer the second and third sub-questions of the first research question. The choice of the one-way ANOVA and the Independent-samples t-test was guided by the need to compare the mean scores among the three groups of students with various levels of L2 and speaking proficiency, and between the two groups of students with different gender respectively. Additionally, the choice of these two parametric statistical techniques, instead of their alternative nonparametric ones, was determined by their superior sensitivity in detecting differences, which was supported by the fulfillment of their assumptions: the interval-scaled data with normal distribution of the scores (Pallant, 2007) (see Appendix 12 for the normality of the distribution for the strategy use scores with regard to L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender).

Results generated from the use of both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, i.e. L2 speaking strategies students used in relation to their L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender, fulfilled the quantitative aspect of this study. Different analytical techniques were of course needed for the qualitative dimension of the study.

3.6.2.2 Analytical techniques for the qualitative data

Qualitative data of this study constituted the ways students used strategies and why they used strategies in specific ways. Steps in analysing the qualitative data included “meaning condensation, meaning categorization, narrative structuring, meaning interpretation, and

meaning generation through ad hoc methods” (Kvale, 1996, pp. 192-193). Meaning condensation allows the reduction of a large text into a more succinct formulation, and meaning categorization employs certain symbols for coding the texts. Narrative structuring shows the temporal and social organization of the text so that the meaning can be brought out. Meaning interpretation allows for the text expansion, and the ad hoc method entails the use of varieties of approaches to bring out the meaning of different parts of the text. These steps are normally applicable to the analysis of interview transcripts, but could be applied to diary data.

Several steps were taken to deal with the interview and diary data. First, I used a table to condense the meanings of each individual interview and diary. The table consisted of five main columns. The first contained ‘natural units’ – statements made orally in interviews or written in diaries by students. The second contained ‘central themes’ – the main ideas of the ‘natural units’ mentioned in the first column. The third contained language skills for which the activities indicated in the ‘central themes’ were intended. The fourth contained strategy taxonomy (Oxford, 1990), which included strategy, strategy set, and strategy group. The last column contained additional information. In the table, I employed four different highlighting colours: yellow to indicate strategy; green, the way students used the strategy; blue, the reason for using the strategy in specific way; and pink, extra information. The choice of this manual coding, instead of a qualitative data analysis package like Nvivo, was to avoid losing important information with regard to the statements’ “basis in a lived social situation” (Kvale, 1996, p. 174). According to Kvale (1996), one of the caveats of such computer software is that it disregards that important information. Below is a sample of part of a completed table:

Natural units	Central themes	Skills	Oxford’s strategy taxonomy			Extra information
			Strategy	Strategy set	Strategy group	
46. B: ... I’ve also invited some peers to discuss certain topics in English. It is very	Discussing topics in English with peers. He exercised	Speaking	Cooperating with peers	Cooperating with others	Social	

useful to help me improve my speaking skills.	this consciously , indicated by his ability to identify the activity. He used it for its usefulness .					
64. B: ... I use English as an instructional language for English teaching and this can increase my speaking practice.	Teaching English in English. He exercised this consciously , indicated by his ability to identify the activity. He used it for its usefulness .	Speaking	Seeking practice opportunities	Arranging and planning your learning	Metacognitive	High autonomy

Second, I made scratch notes and set them below each table. The notes contained what strategies the students used, how they used the strategies, why they used the strategies in specific ways, and additional information for the strategy use, which I extracted from the table. Below is a sample of scratch notes:

Scratch Notes:

1. What:
 - (a) Speaking skills:
 - Cognitive: speaking using the internet, speaking with girlfriend daily, and performing English dramas on stage.
 - Compensation: mixing English and L1, using a synonym when not knowing a word, and directing a conversation to a topic he enjoys.
 - Metacognitive: joining an English conversation club, teaching English in English, studying independently, setting up goals, and initiating oral interaction in English with other people.
 - Social: discussing topics in English with peers, and speaking English with peers.
 - (b) Other skills:
 - Memory: sticking written new words everywhere (Vocabulary).
2. How:
 - (a) Consciously: ability to identify and to monitor the use of strategies.
 - (b) Effortfully: putting in extra effort to enable him to use strategies.
3. Why:
 - (a) Consciously: the usefulness of the strategy and pleasure in using the strategy.
 - (b) Effortfully: the usefulness of the strategy.
4. Extra information: high autonomy by taking teaching responsibilities.

Finally, based on the scratch notes, I summarized each individual student's strategy use and presented it below the scratch notes. The meaning condensation approach calls this part an 'essential description'. Below is a sample of 'essential description' of a student's strategy use:

Adi has used some strategies in learning to speak English. He has used cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies. A cognitive strategy he has used is 'practising naturalistically', exercised by speaking using the internet, speaking with girlfriend daily, and performing English dramas on stage. Compensation strategies he has used include 'switching to the mother tongue', 'using a circumlocution or synonym', and 'selecting the topic'. Metacognitive strategies that he has used include 'seeking practice opportunities', 'organizing', and 'setting goals and objectives', which were exercised by joining an English conversation club, teaching English in English, studying independently, setting up goals, and initiating oral interaction in English with other people. He also used a social strategy, 'cooperating with peers', by discussing topics in English with peers and speaking English with them.

He has used some of the strategies consciously, as can be seen from his ability to identify and to monitor the use of his strategies. He has also used some of the strategies effortfully, as indicated by extra effort he put in to enable him to use the strategy. The usefulness of the strategies is the reason why he has used the strategies consciously or effortfully. In addition, the pleasure in using the strategies is the reason why he has used the strategies consciously.

Interesting information that is worth noting is that he demonstrated high autonomy by taking teaching responsibilities.

All the 20 interviews and 80 diaries went through the above procedures before being summarized in separate tables. The first set of six tables presented a summary of the strategies belonging to the memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social groups, that the students used; the second showed how students used the strategies; and the third showed why they used the strategies in specific ways. Each table consisted of five main columns. The first contained the strategy set; the second, the strategy; the third, the actual activities; the fourth, male with levels of proficiency; and the last, female with levels of proficiency. Overleaf are samples of completed tables.

What strategies students used:

Memory strategies useful for speaking skills

Strategy set	Strategy	Actual activities for speaking	Male			Female		
			Adv.	Int.	Elem.	Adv.	Int.	Elem.
Creating mental linkage	Placing new words into a context							
Applying images and sounds	Representing sounds in memory							
Reviewing well	Structured reviewing	Reviewing lecture notes	Santo		Andi	Ana		

Adv.: advanced, int.: intermediate, elem.: elementary

How students used strategies:

Memory strategies useful for speaking skills

Strategy set	Strategy	Actual activities for speaking	Male			Female		
			Adv.	Int.	Elem.	Adv.	Int.	Elem.
Creating mental linkage	Placing new words into a context							
Applying images and sounds	Representing sounds in memory							
Reviewing well	Structured reviewing	Reviewing lecture notes.	Cs		Cs	Cs		

Adv.: advanced, int.: intermediate, elem.: elementary, Cs: consciously

Why students used strategies in specific ways:

Memory strategies useful for speaking learning

Strategy set	Strategy	Actual activities for speaking	Male			Female		
			Adv.	Int.	Elem.	Adv.	Int.	Elem.
Creating mental linkage	Placing new words into a context							
Applying images and sounds	Representing sounds in memory							
Reviewing well	Structured reviewing	Reviewing lecture notes.	Cs X		Cs X	Cs X		

Adv.: advanced, int.: intermediate, elem.: elementary, Cs: consciously, X: usefulness of strategy

All in all, there were 18 tables for the interview data: six tables presented six groups of strategies (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social); six presented the ways students used the previous six strategies; and another six presented the

reasons why the students used strategies in specific ways. There were also 18 tables with the same categories for the diary data. These 36 tables, then, were merged to extract results on all relevant details of the students' strategy use. Some parts of the final results generated from this complex procedure led to the answers to the second and third research questions, which represent the qualitative aspect of this study.

Certain specific terms appear throughout the data analysis process. To facilitate precise interpretation of the data, the terms are defined below.

The ways students used strategies:

1. 'Conscious use of strategies': the use of strategies with awareness of what was being done, in the sense that students intentionally used strategies to help them learn to speak and they were aware of what they were doing. For this study, indicators of 'conscious use of strategies' included students' ability to identify strategies; specify the goals in using strategies; set up criteria for using strategies; specify actions taken during the use of strategies; specify media used during the use of strategies; state and justify the choice of strategies; explain how strategies were effective; solve problems in using strategies; and monitor the use of strategies. This dimension was taken into account to provide evidence of the accuracy of the definition of language learning strategies adopted for this study (see section 2.3 in Chapter 2), given that there are researchers who do not believe in 'consciousness' as an important component of language learning strategies.
2. 'Confident use of strategies': the use of strategies with certainty that the strategies were effective. For this study, indicators of 'confident use of strategies' included high frequency of strategy use and constant repetition of the same strategies over a period of time.

3. 'Effortful use of strategies': the use of strategies by putting in extra effort before or during the use of the strategy. An indicator of 'effortful use of strategies' was the involvement of one or more forms of effort before or during the use of the strategy.
4. 'Persistent use of strategies': the use of strategies by exercising and wanting to continue exercising them, although students experienced some discomfort, disappointment, or face threat in the process.

The reasons why students used the strategies in specific ways:

1. Usefulness of strategies: the use of strategies because of their beneficial outcomes that enhanced learning.
2. Pleasure in using strategies: the use of strategies because of enjoyment or fun users got in exercising them.

The next step to be explained is techniques used to analyse the entire data, i.e. the quantitative and qualitative data sets, of the whole mixed method study. The next sub-subsection addresses this subject.

3.6.2.3 Analytical techniques for the integrated quantitative and qualitative data

After gathering and ordering the quantitative and qualitative results, it was necessary to view the results as an integrated whole. This was done by combining both sets of quantitative and qualitative results. As mentioned previously, the qualitative results of the study expanded the quantitative results in terms of new strategies not identified in the quantitative phase, the ways students used strategies, and the reasons why they used them in specific ways.

To conclude this methodological chapter, a brief summary of all important points presented throughout the chapter would be useful. The summary is provided in the next section.

3.7 Conclusion

The chapter depicted the methodological framework for this study, suggesting that the mixed method approach was the approach that best addressed the research problems. To achieve the primary purpose of the study, the explanatory design was chosen and implemented with a group of EFL tertiary students in Indonesia. The study employed a questionnaire, proficiency test, and documents recording students' speaking grades to collect the quantitative data. In addition, the study used learning diaries and individual interviews to collect the qualitative data. In accordance with the nature of the explanatory design, the quantitative data were collected and analysed first, followed by the same procedure for the qualitative data. The combining of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study occurred at the stage of data collection and data analysis. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical analyses; the qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis through the meaning condensation approach; and the entire quantitative and qualitative results were combined, showing that the latter expanded the initial. The whole results are presented in a more detailed way in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the results of the data analysis: the quantitative first, followed by the qualitative. The quantitative results (4.2) are presented with reference to the first research question, i.e. what L2 speaking strategies students use, along with its sub-questions of what strategy and strategy group students favour the most and least, and whether L2 and speaking proficiency, as well as gender significantly affect strategy use. The qualitative results (4.3) follow, with reference to the second and third research questions, i.e. how students use L2 speaking strategies and why they use them in specific ways respectively. The presentation of the combined quantitative and qualitative results (4.4) provides the answer to the fourth research question of how the qualitative results explain strategies revealed in the quantitative phase of the study. The chapter concludes with a summary of key results (4.5).

4.2 Quantitative results

This section consists of four major subsections: L2 speaking strategies that students used (4.2.1); strategy and strategy group that students favoured the most and least (4.2.2); strategy use in relation to L2 and speaking proficiency (4.2.3); and strategy use in relation to gender (4.2.4).

4.2.1 L2 speaking strategies that students used

Questionnaire

The data collected by means of questionnaire show the students using a wide range of L2 speaking strategies spreading over six strategy groups (Oxford, 1990), the groups following

the taxonomy chosen as one of the theoretical foundations in this study (see section 2.4 in Chapter 2 for the strategy classification). The identified strategies appear in the third column of Table 4.1. The total number of the strategies is 46, composed of three memory strategies, nine cognitive, eight compensation, 11 metacognitive, 10 affective, and five social.

Table 4.1 L2 speaking strategies identified from questionnaire (N = 65)

Strategy groups	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	SD	Range	
Memory M: 2.61 SD: .62 R: 2.67	1	Placing new words into a context	2.66	.92	4.00	
	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.14	.98	3.00	
	3	Structured reviewing	3.03	.93	4.00	
Cognitive M: 3.02 SD: .50 R: 2.75	4&5	Repeating	3.03	.98	4.00	
	6	Formally practising with sound system	3.12	.98	4.00	
	7	Recombining	2.62	.88	3.00	
	8	Practising naturalistically	2.54	.92	3.00	
	9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	3.55	1.05	4.00	
	10	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	2.97	.98	4.00	
		Reasoning deductively	2.97	.98	4.00	
	11	Translating	3.26	.97	4.00	
Transferring		3.26	.97	4.00		
Compensation M: 3.38 SD: .56 R: 3.38	12	Using mime or gesture	3.59	1.14	4.00	
	13	Coining word	3.20	1.26	4.00	
	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	3.60	1.16	4.00	
	15	Switching to the mother tongue	3.77	1.09	4.00	
	16	Getting help	3.45	1.31	4.00	
	17	Avoiding communication partially or totally	2.82	1.09	4.00	
	18	Selecting the topic	3.08	1.05	4.00	
Metacognitive M: 3.40 SD: .59 R: 2.70	19	Adjusting or approximating the message	3.51	1.13	4.00	
	20	Overviewing and linking with already known material	3.43	.79	3.00	
	21	Paying attention	4.02	1.02	3.00	
	22	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	3.26	1.23	4.00	
	23	Finding out about language learning	3.95	.89	4.00	
	24	Organizing	2.79	1.01	4.00	
	25&26	Seeking practice opportunities	3.12	1.04	4.00	
		27	Setting goals and objectives	3.29	1.11	4.00
			Identifying the purpose of a language task	3.29	1.11	4.00
		Planning for a language task	3.29	1.11	4.00	
28	Self-monitoring	3.45	1.02	4.00		
29	Self-evaluating	3.59	.95	3.00		
Affective M: 2.99 SD: .60 R: 2.50	30	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	3.62	.10	4.00	
		Using music	3.62	.10	4.00	
		Using laughter	3.62	.10	4.00	
	31	Making positive statement	3.42	1.07	4.00	
		Taking risk wisely	3.42	1.07	4.00	
	32	Rewarding yourself	2.55	1.13	4.00	
	33	Listening to your body	3.34	1.00	4.00	
		Using a checklist	3.34	1.00	4.00	
	34	Writing a language learning diary	2.11	1.11	4.00	

	35	Discussing your feelings with someone else	2.92	1.08	4.00
Social M: 2.93 SD: .71 R: 3.25	36	Asking for correction	2.63	1.19	4.00
	37	Cooperating with peers	3.25	.92	4.00
	38	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	2.69	1.13	4.00
	39	Developing cultural understanding	3.14	1.25	4.00
Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings		3.14	1.25	4.00	
Total: 6	39	46	3.14		

M: mean, SD: standard deviation, R: range, pink: high use, olive green: medium use, purple: low use

Table 4.1 also displays the results of descriptive statistics for each strategy and strategy group.

The mean score for each strategy, which ranges from 2.11 to 4.02, is in the fourth column.

The standard deviation and range are in columns five and six respectively. The mean, standard deviation, and range for each strategy group appear in the first column.

Descriptive statistics of the students' responses to the entire questionnaire items show the students' overall strategy use. The mean score for this is 3.14, which suggests that the average of the students' responses corresponds to 'somewhat true of me', which lies in the middle of the five-point Likert-scale used in the questionnaire. The way Oxford (1990 as cited in Lee and Oxford, 2008) interprets mean scores for the Likert-scaled strategy-use items is that 3.50 - 5.00 is high use; 2.50 - 3.49, medium use; and 1.00 - 2.49, low use. Thus, the students' overall strategy use in this study is medium. In Table 4.1, I highlighted the high, medium, and low use of each strategy in pink, olive green, and purple background colour respectively.

With regard to individual strategy use, items 21, 23, and 15, representing three different strategies, occupied the top three positions. Item 21, 'paying attention', has the highest mean of all, 4.02. The second highest, 3.95, belongs to item 23, 'finding out about language learning'. Item 15, 'switching to the mother tongue', has the third highest, 3.77. These three mean scores indicate that the use of these strategies is high, and since 'paying attention' has the highest mean score, this is the strategy that students favoured the most. On the other hand,

item 34, 'writing a language learning diary', has the lowest mean of all, 2.11. The second lowest mean is 2.14, which belongs to item 2, 'representing sounds in memory'. Item eight, 'practising naturalistically', has the third lowest mean, 2.54. These first two mean scores indicate that the students' use of the first two strategies is low, and medium for the last strategy. Because 'writing a language learning diary' has the lowest mean score, this is the strategy that students favoured the least.

Based on the scores of standard deviation and range, more information can be extracted from the data regarding the top and bottom three strategies mentioned above. The low standard deviation and, in one instance, range combined with the high mean for the two top strategies 'paying attention' (mean = 4.02, standard deviation = 1.02, and range = 3.00) and 'finding out about language learning' (mean = 3.95, standard deviation = .89, and range = 4.00) indicates that the students were very likely to use the strategies. The low standard deviation and, again in one case, range combined with the low mean for the two bottom strategies 'writing a language learning diary' (mean = 2.11, standard deviation = 1.11, and range = 4.00) and 'representing sounds in memory' (mean = 2.14, standard deviation = .98, and range = 3.00) suggests that the students were very likely not to use the strategies. This information, thus, adds evidence that the students favoured the initial set and did not favour the latter.

Interviews and diaries

Two issues covered here include: strategies from Oxford's (1990) taxonomy the students used, and new strategies, emerging from interview data that may expand Oxford's (1990) taxonomy.

Firstly, similar to the quantitative data collected by means of questionnaires, the qualitative data collected by means of diaries and interviews also show students using a wide range of strategies spreading over six strategy groups. Each strategy was mentioned at least by one student. As shown in Table 4.2 below, the total number of the strategies is 32, composed of one memory strategy, four cognitive, eight compensation, nine metacognitive, seven affective, and three social.

Table 4.2 L2 speaking strategies identified from diaries and interviews (N = 20)

Strategy groups	L2 speaking strategies
Memory	Structured reviewing
Cognitive	Repeating
	Formally practising with sound system
	Practising naturalistically
	Using resources for receiving and sending messages
Compensation	Using mime or gesture
	Coining word
	Using a circumlocution or synonym
	Switching to the mother tongue
	Getting help
	Avoiding communication partially or totally
	Selecting the topic
	Using a bilingual dictionary
Metacognitive	Paying attention
	Delaying speech production to focus on listening
	Finding out about language learning
	Organizing
	Seeking practice opportunities
	Setting goals and objectives
	Self-monitoring
	Self-evaluating
	Planning for a language task
Affective	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation
	Using laughter
	Making positive statements
	Taking risk wisely
	Writing a language learning diary
	Seeking and using a peer's support
	Using loud voice
Social	Asking for correction
	Cooperating with peers
	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
	Total Number: 32

Aqua background colour indicates new strategies

Secondly, the interview data reveal new strategies that could expand Oxford's (1990) taxonomy. As Table 4.3 shows, 'using a bilingual dictionary', 'seeking and using a peer's support', and 'using loud voice', strategies not identified by Oxford, need to be added into the taxonomy, so that all activities reported by students can be accommodated. These new strategies are explained with quotations below.

Table 4.3 Strategies added to Oxford's (1990) taxonomy

Strategy groups	Strategy sets	New L2 speaking strategies	Activities
Compensation	Overcoming limitation in speaking	Using a bilingual dictionary	Looking up words in a bilingual dictionary
Affective	Lowering your anxiety	Seeking and using a peer's support	Seeking support before speaking
		Using loud voice	Speaking more loudly

Using a bilingual dictionary

One of the activities that Ana, Darmi, and Rani undertook when they did not know a word in the midst of their English conversation was consulting a bilingual dictionary:

When I am completely stuck for a word, I usually consult a dictionary ... (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 174).

My other strategy is consulting a dictionary. I often use an electronic dictionary. When I am stuck for a word, I look it up in the dictionary quickly. Sometimes my addressee indeed looks impatient ..., but I simply say "Wait a minute, wait a minute". Electronic dictionary enables me to do this quickly. Differently, a printed dictionary is hard to use (Iv-Darmi-04/11/09-English, turns 182-192).

I may look up the word in a dictionary if the time allows me to. I do it only when my addressee is patient enough to wait for me do it (Iv-Rani-06/11/09-English, turns 198-200).

Ana consulted a dictionary when she was completely stuck for a word. She, in the other parts of the interview, also reported switching to L1 and getting help, when she did not know the right word. Likewise, Darmi consulted a dictionary, preferably an electronic one, to tackle the problem. She preferred an electronic dictionary to minimize disruption in the communication, as well as due to the unpracticality of a book-form of dictionary. In the other parts of the interview, she reported switching to L1, using gestures, and using a synonym as other strategies for this problem of not knowing the right word. Rani exercised this strategy only when she believed her addressee did not mind her doing it. In the interview, she also mentioned switching to L1, using a synonym, using gestures, and getting help, as other strategies to handle this problem.

Whether the dictionary was a mono- or bilingual one was not explicitly stated in the interviews, but post-interview clarification showed that these students consulted an Indonesian English dictionary. With regard to whether it was electronic or a book, Darmi, as shown in the quotation, stated that she consulted an electronic one. Ana, according to the post-interview clarification, said that she used a dictionary application installed on her mobile phone, and Rani used a pocket printed dictionary.

Seeking and using a peer's support

One of the strategies Sinta and Tuti used to lower their anxiety was seeking support from a peer before speaking:

Before speaking, I sometimes ask my friend, "Is it correct to say such-and-such?" I confirm it first. I seek support from a friend, and when she or he thinks that what I want to say is correct, I then say it (Iv-Sinta-04/11/09-English, turn 284).

I ask Sablah, my classmate, whether or not my sentence is correct before I say it. It can reduce my nervousness because I become sure, "Oh, I see. It is blah, blah, blah. It must be correct". Then, I say it (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 308-310).

Sinta and Tuti checked with one of their peers whether or not their sentence was correct before saying it. It is obvious that fear of making mistakes was the reason why they were anxious. Therefore, to lower the anxiety, they made sure that the sentence they wanted to say was correct before saying it. In another part of the interview, Sinta reported using related strategies: encouraging herself not to be afraid of making mistakes and imagining her addressee to have the same level of speaking competence as she did. She also exercised deep breathing for the same purpose. In Tuti's case, she explicitly viewed Sablah's confirmation as a 'guarantee' of the correctness of her sentence. This was in accordance with her belief that Sablah had higher speaking competence than she did, as mentioned in another part of the interview. With this assurance, she was certain that she would not make mistakes while speaking, and this reduced her anxiety. In addition to seeking support before speaking, Tuti, in order to lower her anxiety, focused her attention only on to her addressee and deliberately did not look at other people around her.

Using loud voice

One of the ways that Sani exercised to lower his anxiety was speaking loudly:

I speak little more loudly. [Interviewer: Oh, okay. Because you speak more loudly, you can get rid of your anxiety?] I can reduce the intensity of the anxiety.
[Interviewer: I see. It is interesting. What else?] If the situation is informal, I shout (laughing) even more loudly (laughing) (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 210-214).

Sani spoke loudly to lower his anxiety. This may have been effective because speaking loudly may have been able to help him reduce physical tension caused by the anxiety. When the tension decreased, he may have felt more relaxed and he then spoke better. He explicitly mentioned that he spoke even more loudly when the situation was less formal.

Now that the data analysis results on what L2 speaking strategies the students used have been disclosed, the next step is to locate what strategy and strategy group the students favoured the most and least, as presented in the next subsection. Mean scores calculated in the quantitative data analysis were used as the basis to do so.

4.2.2 Strategy and strategy group that students favoured the most and least

In the previous subsection, 4.2.1, ‘paying attention’ was shown to have the highest mean score, 4.02, and thus was the strategy the students favoured the most. On the other end of the scale, ‘writing a language learning diary’ had the lowest mean score, 2.11, and this was the strategy the students favoured the least. As regards what strategy group the students favoured the most and least, the mean scores in Table 4.4 below gives this information. In the table, the metacognitive strategy group has the highest mean, 3.40, followed by the compensation strategy group at 3.38. In third place is the cognitive strategy group, 3.02; then the affective strategy group, 2.99, and the social strategy group, 2.93. The memory strategy group has the lowest mean, 2.61.

Table 4.4 Ranking of mean scores for strategy groups (N = 65)

Ranking	Strategy groups	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
1	Metacognitive	3.40	.59	2.70
2	Compensation	3.38	.56	3.38
3	Cognitive	3.02	.50	2.75
4	Affective	2.99	.60	2.50
5	Social	2.93	.71	3.25
6	Memory	2.61	.62	2.67

Orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

Combined quantitative and qualitative results

With reference to the first research question and its first sub-question, Table 4.5 below shows the quantitative and qualitative results together. In the table, the mixed methods show students using a total of 49 strategies, 46 revealed in the quantitative/qualitative phase and three additional ones in the qualitative phase of the study. With regard to what strategy and strategy group the students favoured the most and least, the quantitative data analysis shows that students favoured ‘paying attention’ the most and ‘writing a language learning diary’ the least. They also favoured the metacognitive strategies the most, and the memory strategies the least.

Table 4.5 Combined quantitative and qualitative results with reference to the first research question and its first sub-question (N = 65)

Strategy groups	Learning strategies useful for speaking skills (Oxford, 1990 and original)	Quant. (N=65)	Mean	Qual. (N=20)
Memory Mean: 2.61	Placing new words into a context	✓	2.66	x
	Representing sounds in memory	✓	2.14	x
	Structured reviewing	✓	3.03	✓
Cognitive Mean: 3.02	Repeating	✓	3.03	✓
	Formally practising with sounds systems	✓	3.12	✓
	Recombining	✓	2.62	x
	Practising naturalistically	✓	2.54	✓
	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	✓	3.55	✓
	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	✓	2.97	x
	Reasoning deductively	✓	2.97	x
	Translating	✓	3.26	x
Compensation Mean: 3.38	Transferring	✓	3.26	x
	Using mime or gesture	✓	3.59	✓
	Coining word	✓	3.20	✓
	Using a circumlocution or synonym	✓	3.60	✓
	Switching to the mother tongue	✓	3.77	✓
	Getting help	✓	3.45	✓
	Avoiding communication partially or totally	✓	2.82	✓
	Selecting the topic	✓	3.08	✓
Metacognitive Mean: 3.40	Adjusting or approximating the message	✓	3.51	x
	Using a bilingual dictionary	x	0	✓
	Overviewing and linking with already known material	✓	3.43	x
	Paying attention	✓	4.02	✓
	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	✓	3.26	✓
	Finding out about language learning	✓	3.95	✓
	Organizing	✓	2.79	✓
	Seeking practice opportunities	✓	3.12	✓
	Setting goals and objectives	✓	3.29	✓
	Identifying the purpose of a language task	✓	3.29	x
Planning for a language task	✓	3.29	✓	

	Self-monitoring	✓	3.45	✓
	Self-evaluating	✓	3.59	✓
Affective Mean: 2.99	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	✓	3.62	✓
	Using music	✓	3.62	x
	Using laughter	✓	3.62	✓
	Seeking and using a peer's support	x	0	✓
	Using loud voice	x	0	✓
	Making positive statement	✓	3.42	✓
	Taking risk wisely	✓	3.42	✓
	Rewarding yourself	✓	2.55	x
	Listening to your body	✓	3.34	x
	Using a checklist	✓	3.34	x
	Writing a language learning diary	✓	2.11	✓
	Discussing your feelings with someone else	✓	2.92	x
	Social Mean: 2.93	Asking for correction	✓	2.63
Cooperating with peers		✓	3.25	✓
Cooperating with proficient users of the new language		✓	2.69	✓
Developing cultural understanding		✓	3.14	x
Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings		✓	3.14	x
Total: 6	49	46	3.14	32

Quant.: quantitative, qual.: qualitative, ✓: the strategy was identified, x: the strategy was not identified, aqua colour: new strategy, orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

4.2.3 Strategy use in relation to L2 and speaking proficiency

This subsection presents the quantitative results regarding strategy use in relation to L2 proficiency and speaking proficiency.

Strategy use in relation to L2 proficiency

The quantitative data collected by means of questionnaire and proficiency test demonstrate that students with various levels of L2 proficiency, i.e. advanced, intermediate, and elementary, used a wide range of strategies spreading over the six strategy groups. Based on the students' scores of the test, there were seven students at advanced level; 51, intermediate, and seven, elementary. Table 4.6 overleaf shows the strategies and the mean score for each strategy employed by the students according to their L2 proficiency levels.

Table 4.6 L2 speaking strategies used by advanced, intermediate, and elementary students identified from questionnaire (N = 65)

Strategy groups	Items	L2 speaking strategies	Mean		
			Adv. N=7	Int. N=51	Elem. N=7
Memory Adv.: 2.57 Int.: 2.62 Elem: 2.52	1	Placing new words into a context	2.71	2.66	2.57
	2	Representing sounds in memory	1.85	2.15	2.28
	3	Structured reviewing	3.14	3.05	2.71
Cognitive Adv.: 3.10 Int.: 3.04 Elem: 2.73	4&5	Repeating	3.07	3.07	2.64
	6	Formally practising with sound system	3.85	3.05	2.85
	7	Recombining	2.00	2.68	2.71
	8	Practising naturalistically	2.28	2.64	2.00
	9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	4.14	3.47	3.57
	10	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	2.85	3.03	2.57
		Reasoning deductively	2.85	3.03	2.57
	11	Translating	3.57	3.27	2.85
Transferring		3.57	3.27	2.85	
Compensation Adv.: 3.23 Int.: 3.44 Elem: 3.01	12	Using mime or gesture	3.57	3.66	3.00
	13	Coining word	3.28	3.21	3.00
	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	4.57	3.58	2.71
	15	Switching to the mother tongue	3.14	3.84	3.85
	16	Getting help	3.14	3.49	3.42
	17	Avoiding communication partially or totally	1.71	2.98	2.71
	18	Selecting the topic	2.42	3.23	2.57
	19	Adjusting or approximating the message	4.00	3.52	2.85
Metacognitive Adv.: 3.61 Int.: 3.43 Elem: 2.94	20	Overviewing and linking with already known material	3.42	3.47	3.14
	21	Paying attention	4.42	3.96	4.00
	22	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	2.57	3.33	3.42
	23	Finding out about language learning	4.14	4.01	3.28
	24	Organizing	2.71	2.88	2.14
	25&26	Seeking practice opportunities	3.92	3.09	2.42
	27	Setting goals and objectives	3.85	3.29	2.71
		Identifying the purpose of a language task	3.85	3.29	2.71
		Planning for a language task	3.85	3.29	2.71
	28	Self-monitoring	3.28	3.49	3.28
29	Self-evaluating	3.85	3.68	2.57	
Affective Adv.: 2.76 Int.: 3.08 Elem: 2.57	30	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	3.28	3.82	2.42
		Using music	3.28	3.82	2.42
		Using laughter	3.28	3.82	2.42
	31	Making positive statement	3.57	3.52	2.42
		Taking risk wisely	3.57	3.52	2.42
	32	Rewarding yourself	2.85	2.56	2.14
	33	Listening to your body	2.42	3.39	3.85
		Using a checklist	2.42	3.39	3.85
	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.71	2.19	1.85
	35	Discussing your feelings with someone else	2.71	2.98	2.71
Social Adv.: 2.89 Int.: 3.00 Elem: 2.35	36	Asking for correction	2.57	2.74	1.85
	37	Cooperating with peers	3.14	3.35	2.57
	38	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	2.00	2.88	2.00
	39	Developing cultural understanding	3.85	3.05	3.00
		Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings	3.85	3.05	3.00
Total: 6	39	46	3.14	3.19	2.76

Adv.: advanced, int.: intermediate, elem.: elementary, pink: high use, olive green: medium use, purple: low use, orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

Descriptive statistics of the students' responses to the entire items of the questionnaire, as displayed in Table 4.7 below, show that the mean score for the overall strategy use of advanced students is 3.14; intermediate, 3.19; and elementary, 2.76. These three mean scores indicate medium use of strategies.

Table 4.7 Comparison of mean scores for the overall strategy use of advanced, intermediate, and elementary students (N = 65)

	Strategy use		
	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 7)	3.14	.46	1.38
Intermediate (N = 51)	3.19	.39	1.67
Elementary (N = 7)	2.76	.54	1.54

Olive green: medium use of strategies

At the level of individual strategy use, students with various levels of L2 proficiency used strategies differently, that is, a particular strategy was more favoured than the others, as indicated by the mean scores. As figured in Table 4.8 below, 'using a circumlocution or synonym' is the strategy with the highest mean score and was used by advanced students, with a mean of 4.57. 'Finding out about language learning', whose mean is 4.01, is the strategy with the highest mean score for intermediate students, and 'paying attention' has the highest mean of 4.00 for elementary students. Because these three strategies have the highest mean score, they are the strategies that the students favoured the most.

Table 4.8 L2 speaking strategies with the highest mean score used by advanced, intermediate, and elementary students (N = 65)

	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 7)	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	4.57	.53	1.00
Intermediate (N = 51)	23	Finding out about language learning	4.01	.88	4.00
Elementary (N = 7)	21	Paying attention	4.00	1.00	2.00

Orange: favoured the most

Table 4.9 presents strategies with the lowest mean score used by students with various levels of L2 proficiency. ‘Avoiding communication partially or totally’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ are the strategies with the lowest mean, 1.71, for advanced students.

‘Representing sounds in memory’ has the lowest mean, 2.15, for intermediate students, and two strategies, ‘writing a language learning diary’ and ‘asking for correction’, have the lowest mean, 1.85, for elementary students. Thus, with the lowest means, they are the strategies the students favoured the least.

Table 4.9 L2 speaking strategies with the lowest mean score used by advanced, intermediate, and elementary students (N = 65)

	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 7)	17	Avoiding communication partially or totally	1.71	.95	2.00
	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.71	.75	2.00
Intermediate (N = 51)	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.15	.96	3.00
Elementary (N = 7)	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.85	.89	2.00
	36	Asking for correction	1.85	.69	2.00

Green: favoured the least

Table 4.10 overleaf indicates the strategy group the students favoured the most and least.

Advanced students favoured metacognitive strategies the most and memory strategies the least. Intermediate and elementary students shared a common top preference, i.e. the compensation strategy group. Like advanced students, intermediate students favoured memory strategies the least. Meanwhile, elementary students favoured social strategies the least.

Table 4.10 Ranking of mean scores for strategy groups used by advanced, intermediate, and elementary students (N = 65)

Proficiency levels	Ranking	Strategy groups	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced	1	Metacognitive	3.61	.45	1.50
Intermediate		Compensation	3.44	.49	2.13
Elementary		Compensation	3.01	.91	3.00
Advanced	2	Compensation	3.23	.50	1.38
Intermediate		Metacognitive	3.43	.58	2.40
Elementary		Metacognitive	2.94	.58	1.80
Advanced	3	Cognitive	3.10	.44	1.13
Intermediate		Affective	3.08	.53	2.33
Elementary		Cognitive	2.73	.59	2.00
Advanced	4	Social	2.89	.60	1.75
Intermediate		Cognitive	3.04	.49	2.38
Elementary		Affective	2.57	.81	2.17
Advanced	5	Affective	2.76	.62	1.67
Intermediate		Social	3.00	.71	3.00
Elementary		Memory	2.52	.46	1.33
Advanced	6	Memory	2.57	.87	2.67
Intermediate		Memory	2.62	.60	2.67
Elementary		Social	2.35	.49	1.50

Orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

Beyond the description of what strategy and strategy group the students used and favoured, inferential statistics can show whether L2 proficiency, statistically, significantly affected the use of L2 speaking strategies. As elaborated in sub-subsection 3.6.2.1 in Chapter 3, one way ANOVA is the most appropriate statistical test to investigate the differences in strategy use among students with various levels of L2 proficiency because of the number of groups, normality of distribution (see Appendix 12 on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test results, as per scores of L2 proficiency test, for the distribution), and nature of the data (interval-scaled data). The results of the test, as displayed in Table 4.11 overleaf show that the F value is 3.268 ($p = .045$). The p value indicates that the null hypothesis stating that there is no difference in strategy use among students with various levels of L2 proficiency is rejected. This means that L2 proficiency significantly affected strategy use.

Table 4.11 ANOVA results for the relationship between the students' overall strategy use and L2 proficiency (N = 65)

	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.138	2	.569	3.268	.045
Within groups	10.796	62	.174		
Total	11.934	64			

Since there are three groups of proficiency levels, the alternative hypothesis for this study is that there is at least a pair of groups that shows significant difference in their strategy use. To identify which pair(s) of groups differed from each other, LSD post hoc test was employed. The test results in Table 4.12 show that elementary students showed significant difference in strategy use from intermediate ($p = .013$). Advanced students did not show significant difference in strategy use from both intermediate ($p = .772$) and elementary students ($p = .093$).

Table 4.12 LSD post hoc test results for the relationship between the students' overall strategy use and L2 proficiency (N = 65)

LSD

(I) L2 proficiency	(J) L2 proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.04906	.16819	.772	-.3853	.2872
	3	.38095	.22305	.093	-.0649	.8268
2	1	.04906	.16819	.772	-.2872	.3853
	3	.43001*	.16819	.013	.0938	.7662
3	1	-.38095	.22305	.093	-.8268	.0649
	2	-.43001*	.16819	.013	-.7662	-.0938

*: the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level, 1: advanced, 2: intermediate, 3: elementary

Strategy use in relation to speaking proficiency

The analysis of the quantitative data collected by means of questionnaire and documents recording the students' grades from the speaking subjects obtained at GUM show that students with various levels of speaking proficiency used a wide range of strategies spreading

over six strategy groups. Based on the students' average speaking grade, there were 23 students at advanced level; 36, intermediate; and six, elementary. The strategies and mean score for each of the strategy appear in Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13 L2 speaking strategies used by students with advanced, intermediate, and elementary speaking proficiency identified from questionnaire (N = 65)

Strategy groups	Items	L2 speaking strategies	Mean			
			Adv. N=23	Int. N=36	Elem. N=6	
Memory Adv.: 2.69 Int.: 2.59 Elem.: 2.38	1	Placing new words into a context	2.78	2.63	2.33	
	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.13	2.19	1.83	
	3	Structured reviewing	3.17	2.94	3.00	
Cognitive Adv.: 3.13 Int.: 2.96 Elem.: 2.89	4&5	Repeating	3.04	3.08	2.66	
	6	Formally practising with sound system	3.04	3.16	3.16	
	7	Recombining	2.65	2.58	2.66	
	8	Practising naturalistically	2.78	2.47	2.00	
	9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	3.65	3.38	4.16	
	10	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	3.21	2.75	3.33	
		Reasoning deductively	3.21	2.75	3.33	
11	Translating	3.60	3.16	2.50		
	Transferring	3.60	3.16	2.50		
Compensation Adv.: 3.49 Int.: 3.34 Elem.: 3.08	12	Using mime or gesture	4.00	3.36	3.33	
	13	Coining word	3.21	3.25	2.83	
	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	4.13	3.47	2.33	
	15	Switching to the mother tongue	3.69	3.83	3.66	
	16	Getting help	3.65	3.30	3.50	
	17	Avoiding communication partially or totally	2.56	2.97	2.83	
	18	Selecting the topic	2.82	3.22	3.16	
Metacognitive Adv.: 3.43 Int.: 3.43 Elem.: 3.05	19	Adjusting or approximating the message	3.86	3.36	3.00	
	20	Overviewing and linking with already known material	3.34	3.55	3.00	
	21	Paying attention	3.91	4.08	4.00	
	22	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	3.00	3.33	3.83	
	23	Finding out about language learning	3.95	4.05	3.33	
	24	Organizing	2.60	3.00	2.16	
	25&26	Seeking practice opportunities	3.45	3.02	2.33	
		27	Setting goals and objectives	3.39	3.33	2.66
			Identifying the purpose of a language task	3.39	3.33	2.66
	Planning for a language task	3.39	3.33	2.66		
28	Self-monitoring	3.47	3.38	3.66		
29	Self-evaluating	3.69	3.58	3.16		
Affective Adv.: 2.94 Int.: 3.11 Elem.: 2.44	30	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	3.82	3.61	2.83	
		Using music	3.82	3.61	2.83	
		Using laughter	3.82	3.61	2.83	
	31	Making positive statement	3.69	3.27	3.16	
		Taking risk wisely	3.69	3.27	3.16	
	32	Rewarding yourself	2.34	2.80	1.83	
	33	Listening to your body	3.17	3.38	3.66	
		Using a checklist	3.17	3.38	3.66	

	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.86	2.36	1.50
	35	Discussing your feelings with someone else	2.78	3.22	1.66
Social Adv.: 2.97 Int.: 2.97 Elem.: 2.41	36	Asking for correction	2.69	2.63	2.33
	37	Cooperating with peers	3.17	3.44	2.33
	38	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	2.69	2.75	2.33
	39	Developing cultural understanding	3.34	3.08	2.66
Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings		3.34	3.08	2.66	
Total: 6	39	46	3.20	3.15	2.81

Adv.: advanced, int.: intermediate, elem.: elementary, pink: high use, olive green: medium use, purple: low use, orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

Descriptive statistics of the students' responses to the entire items of the questionnaire show that the overall strategy use of these three groups of students, as displayed in Table 4.14 below, is medium use of strategies. The mean score for the advanced students' overall strategy use is 3.20; the intermediate students' strategy use 3.15; and the elementary students' strategy use 2.81.

Table 4.14 Comparison of mean scores for the overall strategy use of students with advanced, intermediate and elementary speaking proficiency (N = 65)

	Strategy use		
	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 23)	3.20	.48	1.74
Intermediate (N = 36)	3.15	.33	1.41
Elementary (N = 6)	2.81	.62	1.62

Olive green: medium use of strategies

At the level of individual strategy use, as seen in Table 4.15 overleaf, 'using a circumlocution or synonym' has the highest mean score, 4.13, for advanced students. 'Paying attention' has the highest mean score, 4.08, which was employed by intermediate students, whilst 'using resources for receiving and sending messages' has the highest mean score, 4.16, which was used by elementary students. Because these strategies have the highest mean scores, they were the strategies the students favoured the most.

Table 4.15 L2 speaking strategies with the highest mean score used by students with advanced, intermediate, and elementary speaking proficiency (N = 65)

	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 23)	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	4.13	.81	3.00
Intermediate (N = 36)	21	Paying attention	4.08	1.07	3.00
Elementary (N = 6)	9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	4.16	.75	2.00

Orange: favoured the most

Table 4.16 presents strategies with the lowest mean score which were used by students with various levels of speaking proficiency. ‘Writing a language learning diary’ is the strategy with the lowest mean score which was used by advanced and elementary students, with the means 1.86 and 1.50 respectively. ‘Representing sounds in memory’ has the lowest mean, 2.19, and was used by intermediate students. With the lowest mean scores, these were the strategies the students favoured the least.

Table 4.16 L2 speaking strategies with the lowest mean score used by students with advanced, intermediate, and elementary speaking proficiency (N = 65)

	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced (N = 23)	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.86	.96	3.00
Intermediate (N = 36)	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.19	.92	3.00
Elementary (N = 6)	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.50	.54	1.00

Green: favoured the least

Table 4.17 overleaf indicates that advanced and elementary students favoured the compensation strategy group the most, but intermediate students, the metacognitive strategy group. All the three groups of students favoured the memory strategy group the least.

Table 4.17 Ranking of mean scores for strategy groups used by students with advanced, intermediate, and elementary speaking proficiency (N = 65)

Proficiency levels	Ranking	Strategy groups	Mean	SD	Range
Advanced	1	Compensation	3.49	.49	1.88
Intermediate		Metacognitive	3.43	.49	2.10
Elementary		Compensation	3.08	1.02	3.00
Advanced	2	Metacognitive	3.43	.69	2.40
Intermediate		Compensation	3.34	.48	2.13
Elementary		Metacognitive	3.05	.68	1.90
Advanced	3	Cognitive	3.13	.53	2.13
Intermediate		Affective	3.11	.55	2.17
Elementary		Cognitive	2.89	.70	2.00
Advanced	4	Social	2.97	.71	3.00
Intermediate		Social	2.97	.68	2.50
Elementary		Affective	2.44	.75	1.67
Advanced	5	Affective	2.94	.56	2.33
Intermediate		Cognitive	2.96	.44	1.88
Elementary		Social	2.41	.75	2.25
Advanced	6	Memory	2.69	.70	2.67
Intermediate		Memory	2.59	.59	2.33
Elementary		Memory	2.38	.44	1.33

Orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

One way ANOVA was applied to examine whether or not speaking proficiency significantly affected strategy use. The results, as seen in Table 4.18, show that the F value is 2.047 ($p = .138$). The p value indicates that the null hypothesis stating that there is no difference in strategy use among students with various levels of speaking proficiency is not rejected. In other words, speaking proficiency did not significantly affect the students' overall strategy use.

Table 4.18 ANOVA results for the relationship between the students' overall strategy use and speaking proficiency (N = 65)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.739	2	.370	2.047	.138
Within Groups	11.195	62	.181		
Total	11.934	64			

However, at the level of the use of each of the strategy groups, speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of the affective strategy group. Table 4.19 shows the F value as 3.555 ($p = .035$); the p value indicating that students used affective strategies in significantly different ways, depending on their speaking proficiency level.

Table 4.19 ANOVA results for the significant relationship between the affective strategy group and speaking proficiency (N = 65)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.352	2	1.176	3.555	.035
Within Groups	20.506	62	.331		
Total	22.857	64			

To identify which pair(s) of groups differed from each other, the LSD post hoc test was run. The results, as seen in Table 4.20, show that elementary students significantly differed in affective strategy use from intermediate ($p = .011$). Advanced did not significantly differ from both intermediate ($p = .296$) and elementary ($p = .060$).

Table 4.20 LSD post hoc test results for the significant relationship between the affective strategy group and speaking proficiency (N = 65)

LSD

(I) Speaking proficiency	(J) Speaking proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.16184	.15352	.296	-.4687	.1450
	3	.50483	.26363	.060	-.0222	1.0318
2	1	.16184	.15352	.296	-.1450	.4687
	3	.66667*	.25359	.011	.1597	1.1736
3	1	-.50483	.26363	.060	-1.0318	.0222
	2	-.66667*	.25359	.011	-1.1736	-.1597

*: the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level, 1: advanced, 2: intermediate, 3: elementary

Speaking proficiency did not significantly affect the use of the other five strategy groups. The F value for the memory strategy group is .608 ($p = .547$), the cognitive strategy group .970 ($p = .385$), the compensation strategy group 1.412 ($p = .251$), the metacognitive strategy group 1.174 ($p = .316$), and the social strategy group 1.750 ($p = .182$). These p values indicate that the null hypothesis stating that there is no difference in the use of memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies among students with various levels of speaking proficiency is not rejected.

To summarize the main points presented in this subsection, 4.2.3, students with various levels of L2 and speaking proficiency demonstrated differences in the strategy and strategy group they favoured the most and least. In addition, statistically, they demonstrated significant differences regarding the relationship between the use of strategies and their L2 and speaking proficiency. L2 proficiency significantly affected the students' overall strategy use, whereas speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of affective strategies only.

4.2.4 Strategy use in relation to gender

The quantitative data collected by means of questionnaires demonstrate that male and female students used a wide range of strategies spreading over the six strategy groups. The strategies and mean score for each strategy appear in Table 4.21 below.

Table 4.21 L2 speaking strategies used by male and female students (N = 65)

Strategy groups	Item	L2 speaking strategies	Mean	
			Male N=38	Female N=27
Memory Male: 2.64 Female: 2.56	1	Placing new words into a context	2.71	2.59
	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.13	2.14
	3	Structured reviewing	3.07	2.96
Cognitive Male: 2.93 Female: 3.12	4&5	Repeating	2.94	3.14
	6	Formally practising with sound system	2.92	3.40
	7	Recombining	2.65	2.55
	8	Practising naturalistically	2.47	2.62

	9	Using resources for receiving and sending messages	3.47	3.66
	10	Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	2.97	2.96
		Reasoning deductively	2.97	2.96
	11	Translating	3.07	3.51
		Transferring	3.07	3.51
Compensation Male: 3.31 Female: 3.45	12	Using mime or gesture	3.57	3.59
	13	Coining word	3.15	3.25
	14	Using a circumlocution or synonym	3.50	3.74
	15	Switching to the mother tongue	3.84	3.66
	16	Getting help	3.26	3.70
	17	Avoiding communication partially or totally	2.78	2.85
	18	Selecting the topic	2.97	3.22
	19	Adjusting or approximating the message	3.42	3.62
Metacognitive Male: 3.28 Female: 3.55	20	Overviewing and linking with already known material	3.31	3.59
	21	Paying attention	3.86	4.22
	22	Delaying speech production to focus on listening	3.05	3.55
	23	Finding out about language learning	3.89	4.03
	24	Organizing	2.65	2.96
	25&26	Seeking practice opportunities	3.03	3.22
	27	Setting goals and objectives	3.21	3.40
		Identifying the purpose of a language task	3.21	3.40
		Planning for a language task	3.21	3.40
28	Self-monitoring	3.23	3.74	
29	Self-evaluating	3.55	3.62	
Affective Male: 2.85 Female: 3.19	30	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	3.55	3.70
		Using music	3.55	3.70
		Using laughter	3.55	3.70
	31	Making positive statement	3.26	3.62
		Taking risk wisely	3.26	3.62
	32	Rewarding yourself	2.39	2.77
	33	Listening to your body	3.28	3.40
		Using a checklist	3.28	3.40
	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.92	2.37
35	Discussing your feelings with someone else	2.68	3.25	
Social Male: 2.86 Female: 3.01	36	Asking for correction	2.47	2.85
	37	Cooperating with peers	3.15	3.37
	38	Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	2.78	2.55
	39	Developing cultural understanding	3.02	3.29
Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings		3.06	3.29	
Total: 6	39	46	3.06	3.26

Pink: high use, olive green: medium use, purple: low use, orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

As Table 4.22 overleaf shows, descriptive statistics of the students' responses to the entire items in the questionnaire show that the mean score for male students' overall strategy use is 3.06, and female students' 3.26. These mean scores indicate that the overall strategy use of both groups is medium.

Table 4.22 Comparison of mean scores for male and female students' overall strategy use (N = 65)

Gender	Strategy use		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Male students (N = 38)	3.06	.46	2.41
Female students (N = 27)	3.26	.34	1.62

Olive green: medium use of strategies

At the level of individual strategy use, male and female students showed differences. As seen in Table 4.23, male and female students favoured different strategies the most as indicated by the mean scores of the strategies. 'Finding out about language learning' has the highest mean, 3.89, among male students, and 'paying attention' is the strategy with the highest mean, 4.22, which was used by female students. Since these strategies have the highest mean scores, they were the strategies that male and female students favoured the most.

Table 4.23 L2 speaking strategies with the highest mean score used by male and female students (N = 65)

Gender	Item	L2 speaking strategy	Mean	SD	Range
Male	23	Finding out about language learning	3.89	.98	4.00
Female	21	Paying attention	4.22	.93	3.00

Orange: favoured the most

At the other end of the scale, strategies have the lowest mean scores. As Table 4.24 overleaf shows, 'writing a language learning diary' has the lowest mean, 1.92, and was used by male students, and 'representing sounds in memory' has the lowest mean, 2.14, among female students. With their lowest mean score, they were the strategies that male and female students favoured the least.

Table 4.24 L2 speaking strategies with the lowest mean score used by male and female students (N = 65)

Gender	Item	L2 speaking strategy	Mean	SD	Range
Male	34	Writing a language learning diary	1.92	.99	4.00
Female	2	Representing sounds in memory	2.14	1.13	3.00

Green: favoured the least

Mean scores in Table 4.25 indicate what strategy groups male and female students favoured the most and least. Male students favoured the compensation strategy group the most, and female students the metacognitive strategy group, as indicated by the highest mean score the groups have: 3.31 and 3.55 respectively. At the other end of the scale, both groups of students favoured the memory strategy group the least, with the mean score of 2.64 for male students and 2.56 for female students.

Table 4.25 Ranking of mean scores for strategy groups used by male and female students (N = 65)

Gender	Ranking	Strategy groups	Mean	SD	Range
Male	1	Compensation	3.31	.57	3.38
Female		Metacognitive	3.55	.49	2.00
Male	2	Metacognitive	3.28	.62	2.70
Female		Compensation	3.45	.53	2.00
Male	3	Cognitive	2.93	.46	2.38
Female		Affective	3.19	.51	2.17
Male	4	Social	2.86	.76	3.25
Female		Cognitive	3.12	.54	2.38
Male	5	Affective	2.85	.61	2.33
Female		Social	3.01	.61	2.50
Male	6	Memory	2.64	.64	2.67
Female		Memory	2.56	.59	2.67

Orange: favoured the most, green: favoured the least

To examine whether or not gender significantly affected strategy use, the Independent Samples Test was used. The results of the test displayed in Table 4.26 overleaf show that the t value is -1.896 (p = .063). The p value indicates that the null hypothesis, i.e. there is no

difference between male and female students in strategy use, is not rejected. In other words, gender did not significantly affect strategy use.

Table 4.26 Independent Samples Test results for the relationship between the students' overall strategy use and gender (N = 65)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.552	.217	-1.896	63	.063	-.20205	.10655	-.41498	.01087
Equal variances not assumed			-1.992	62.835	.051	-.20205	.10141	-.40472	.00061

Although gender did not significantly affect the students' overall strategy use, at the level of the use of each of the six strategy groups, it significantly affected the use of affective strategies. As seen in Table 4.27 below, the t value is -2.341 ($p = .022$). The p value indicates that, statistically, male and female students differed significantly in using affective strategies.

Table 4.27 Independent Samples Test results for the significant relationship between the affective strategy group and gender (N = 65)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.876	.353	-2.341	63	.022	-.34048	.14541	-.63107	-.04989
Equal variances not assumed			-2.414	61.246	.019	-.34048	.14106	-.62252	-.05844

Gender did not significantly affect the use of the other strategy groups. The t value for the memory strategy group is .462 ($p = .646$), the cognitive strategy group -1.557 ($p = .124$), the compensation strategy group -1.016 ($p = .314$), the metacognitive strategy group -1.872 ($p = .066$), and the social strategy group $-.876$ ($p = .384$). These p values indicate that the null hypothesis stating that there is no difference between male and female students in using memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies is not rejected.

Before moving on to further results of data analysis with reference to the second and third research questions, it seems useful to summarize the results referring to the first research question and its sub-questions: students used a wide range of strategies spreading over six strategy groups at a total number of 49 strategies. Out of these, 46 were identified in the quantitative/qualitative and additional three were revealed in the qualitative phase of the study. Regarding what strategy and strategy group the students favoured, quantitative data analysis shows that students favoured 'paying attention' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. Additionally, they favoured metacognitive strategies the most and memory strategies the least. As regards learning strategies in relation to learner factors, L2 proficiency significantly affected the students' overall strategy use but speaking proficiency and gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only.

Having presented the quantitative results that provide an overall picture of L2 speaking strategies employed by Indonesian EFL tertiary students covering knowledge of what strategies they used and the relationship between their strategy use and proficiency and gender, attention now shifts to the qualitative results.

4.3 Qualitative results

This section focuses on the results of interview and diary data analysis of how students used strategies and why they used them in specific ways. The ways of using the strategies are set out in subsection 4.3.1 and the reasons for using them in subsection 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Ways students used strategies

Cross-case analysis of data collected by means of diaries and interviews using the meaning condensation approach that was elaborated in sub-subsection 3.6.2.2 in Chapter 3 reveals the following four dimensions: conscious, confident, effortful, and persistent use of strategies.

4.3.1.1 Conscious use of strategies

Conscious use of strategies is the use of strategies with awareness of what is being done. All the students consciously used some of the reported strategies. This suggests that they intentionally used the strategies to help them learn to speak and they were aware of what they were doing. The presence of this element of awareness as a key component of consciousness supports claims made by other researchers as presented in Chapter 2, for instance, Lee and Oxford (2008), Riazi (2007), and Zhang and Goh (2006).

In this study, indicators of conscious use of strategies include students' ability to identify strategies, specify the goals in using strategies, set up criteria for using strategies, specify actions taken during the use of strategies, specify media used during the use of strategies, state and justify the choice of strategies, explain how strategies are effective, solve problems in using strategies, and monitor the use of strategies.

(a) Ability to identify strategies

All students could identify at least one strategy they used, showing that they consciously used it. The quotations below illustrate the students' ability to identify the strategies:

I sometimes speak English with my family when we have informal chat although I know that our English is not good (Iv-Bima-26/10/09-English, turn 52).

... I usually speak English with my elder sister ... I also speak English with my friends using the internet ... I usually discuss something like movies with peers in English ... I also speak English with Adi (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turns 76-100).

Bima spoke English with his family, representing the strategy 'practising naturalistically'.

Ana could also identify the strategy 'practising naturalistically', i.e. speaking English with her sister and Adi as well as chatting with her friends using the internet. She could also identify the strategy 'cooperating with peers' by discussing movies with peers in English.

(b) Ability to specify the goals in using strategies

Some students could specify their goals in using particular strategies. Inul and Yanti, for instance, were able to pinpoint their goals, indicating their conscious use of strategies:

I mix English and Indonesian only when I am completely stuck for a word. I usually use other words to express the meaning that I want to say. It is sometimes more complicated, but I do it because I want to speak wholly in English (Iv-Inul-04/11/09-English, turns 138-142).

I normally change the topic of conversation. ... I do it so that I can maintain the connectivity between us while conversing. ... Don't you think a conversation can flow smoothly when you like the topic? We are not stuck somewhere (Iv-Yanti-04/11/09-English, turns 324-330).

Inul's goal was to speak "wholly in English." Therefore, when she did not know a word in the midst of her English conversation, she consciously exercised 'using a circumlocution or synonym' instead of 'switching to the mother tongue'. She mixed English and L1 only when

she was seriously “stuck for a word.” She was aware that using a circumlocution was more complicated than switching to L1, but because her goal was to speak “wholly in English”, she did not switch to L1. Similarly, Yanti consciously avoided conversation topics that she disliked to achieve her goal, i.e. to have a long-lasting, smoothly-flowing conversation in English. She was aware that she normally had problems when she had to talk about topics that she disliked and such problems prevented her from being able to converse smoothly in English.

(c) Ability to set up criteria in using strategies

Bima and Rani set up criteria for using particular strategies to get the maximum results. This indicates their conscious use of the strategies.

... I began to think of using English in my daily life, outside my classes. This may look too extreme to do because I will not respond unless they speak with me in English (This is only applicable to those who are familiar with me). I have tried to do it since this week, although I have not begun to speak wholly in English (Di-Bima-English, week 1).

Yes, artists in movies. ... For example, movies, like *Transformers*. English used in the movie is colloquial and informal. ... because I deal with more informal activities in my life (Iv-Bima-26/10/09-English, turns 140-150).

... I also watch movies whose subtitles are in English, so that I can match... ... I can download lots of them from the internet. The subtitles are in English and whatever is said in the movie appears in the subtitles. That makes the movie clearer to me. ... It is the pronunciation. It is also the acting. When there are idioms or expressions, I can match them up ... (Iv-Rani-06/11/09-English, turns 46-50).

To use the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’, Bima practised speaking English in his daily life. To get the maximum results from this strategy, it seems that he adopted a particular approach: he could mix English and L1 when he practised speaking with people whom he was not familiar with. However, when practising with familiar people, he would not respond unless they spoke to him in English. In another instance, when using the strategy ‘repeating’,

he also set up criteria. He used the strategy ‘repeating’ by imitating native speakers through movies and he only imitated movie dialogues that were in colloquial and informal English. Similarly, Rani also set up criteria to get the maximum results from this strategy. She imitated native speakers only in movies with English subtitles. By following the text, she was able to match what she heard and read before repeating it orally.

(d) Ability to specify actions taken during the use of strategies

Some students consciously used strategies as indicated by their ability to specify actions taken during the use of the strategies. Tuti and Inul, for instance, could specify actions they took when they used particular strategies.

... When I am in the classroom, I try not to look to the right or to the left. I focus my gaze only on to my teacher and speak directly to him. ... Normally, when I speak English, all my classmates look at me and it makes me feel nervous. Therefore, I simply sit on a chair in the first row, so that I can speak to the teacher directly without looking over my shoulder at my classmates (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 299-301).

I talk to myself when I am alone. If not, I sing some English songs. What I often do is lock myself in the bedroom and express all my ideas as well as problems in English ... (Iv-Inul-04/11/09-English, turn 236).

When Tuti used the strategy ‘lowering your anxiety’ by managing her feelings when she became a centre of attention for speaking English in the classroom, she took action: sitting on a chair in the first row, focusing her gaze only on the teacher, avoiding looking over her shoulder at her classmates, and speaking to the teacher without thinking of the discomfort of being the centre of attention. Similarly, when Inul used the strategy ‘seeking practice opportunities’ by speaking English to herself, she also took action: locking herself in her bedroom and expressing all her ideas and problems orally in English.

(e) Ability to specify media used during the use of strategies

Ability to specify the media used during the use of particular strategies also suggests conscious use of strategies. Santo, Sani, Andi, and Yanti are examples:

... I use the *Oxford Learner's Dictionary* software to check whether my pronunciation is accurate or not. I believe that the *Oxford Learner's Dictionary* is reliable enough ... (Di-Santo-English, week 1).

... I use 'reminder' facility preinstalled in my mobile phone. Every 11 p.m. the alarm rings and I begin to study or do my plans (Di-Sani-English, week 2).

For the time management, I use my alarm clock to remind me to the 'study time' (Di-Andi-English, week 1).

... Concerning my time management, I stuck the 'study' schedule on the wall of my bedroom as a reminder so that I would not miss it (Di-Yanti-English, week 2).

Santo could specify the medium he used as he exercised the strategy 'using resources for receiving and sending messages'. He used the *Oxford Learner's Dictionary* computer software that he believed to be worth consulting. During the use of the strategy 'organizing', by managing time well, Sani, Andi, and Yanti, each used a different medium. Sani used a 'reminder' facility installed in his mobile phone; Andi used an alarm clock; and Yanti used a written schedule stuck on the wall.

(f) Ability to state and justify strategy choice

Bima, Iyem, and Bejo, for example, could state and justify their strategy choice, thus indicating their conscious use of strategies:

I would rather be silent for a moment to find the English word than mix it with Indonesian. Code mixing? No, it is not good. ... The sentence is incomplete (Iv-Bima-26/10/09-English, turns 78-82).

... I switch into Indonesian words when I forget those English words. I am determined to force my brain to find the word, only when I really like the topic of the conversation. If I dislike the topic, I do not care. ... I can say it in Indonesian. It is easy (Iv-Iyem-06/11/09-English, turns 38 and 218).

...While having coffee at a coffee shop, I tried to speak English with friends. Speaking English at a coffee shop helps me a lot because I can learn to speak in a less intimidating and stressful atmosphere (Di-Bejo-English, week 3).

Bima chose to use the strategy ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ rather than ‘switching to the mother tongue’ when he did not know a word while speaking English because he believed that a sentence containing a mixture of English and L1 “is not good.” On the other hand, Iyem chose the strategy ‘switching to the mother tongue’ when she did not know a word when talking about a topic that she disliked because she believed the topic did not attract her. However, she chose the strategy ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ when she was interested in the topic of the conversation. Bejo, in exercising the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’ chose to practise speaking English with friends in a coffee shop because he found it less intimidating and stressful.

(g) Ability to explain how strategies are effective

Some students consciously used particular strategies as indicated by their ability to explain how the strategies were effective for their learning. Bambang, Tuti, Yono, and Pardi, for example, could explain how particular strategies worked for them.

I believe that speaking English with an imaginative native speaker of English can help me improve my speaking skills because by doing it I can think of what I would say in the real conversation (Di-Bambang-English, week 4).

... I also sang English songs. ... I realize that singing English songs is enjoyable, and I believe that it can also improve my vocabulary. I have also felt some improvement in my speaking skills from singing (Di-Tuti-English, week 4).

... When an English-speaking customer asks, “Do you have this stuff in such-and-such size?” I personally prefer responding to him or her with “No, we don’t. Sorry.” ... if I provided some further explanation saying that the sizes we have are such-and-such, I am afraid I would not be able to do it well (Iv-Yono-29/10/09-English, turn 310).

... While watching movies, I can repeat some ... by doing it, I am more confident in speaking. I say the words more correctly (Iv-Pardi-24/11/09-English, turns 40-44).

Bambang explained that speaking with an imaginative native speaker, which represents the strategy 'practising naturalistically', worked well in helping him learn to speak because by doing so he believed he could think of what to say in a real conversation. Tuti explained that singing English songs, representing 'practising naturalistically', worked well for her. It was effective because by singing, she could improve her vocabulary and this enabled her to speak more fluently. According to Yono, 'lowering your anxiety' was effective for him by preventing a lengthy conversation with a foreigner. It worked because by lowering the possibility a foreigner asking him more questions, he could save himself from embarrassment caused by mistakes he might make. However, in the interview, he asserted that he used the experience to prepare future similar conversations to avoid the same problem. Pardi could also explain how watching English movies, representing the strategy 'practising naturalistically', worked for his learning. He believed that by watching movies, he had some authentic pronunciation models that he believed were able to increase his confidence in speaking English.

(h) Ability to solve problems in using strategies

Some students talked about how they solve problems in using the strategies that showed their conscious use of the strategies in this manner. The quotations below suggest that Rani and Bejo could solve problems this way.

By singing and memorizing English songs, I can get some new words along with how to pronounce them as done by the singers. Because finding native speakers of English is very hard here, I believe that this way is good enough ... (Di-Rani-English, week 2).

I have done the above-stated activities quite well, but I sometimes feel reluctant to do them. To minimize the reluctance, I normally do those activities while enjoying a cup

of coffee and cigarettes. By doing it, I feel more comfortable and relaxed (Di-Bejo-English, week 2).

Rani found that using the strategy ‘repeating’ by imitating native speakers was not easily applicable due to the difficulties in finding native speakers of English in Malang. To solve this problem, she believed that imitating native-English-speaking singers through songs was “good enough.” Dealing with a different problem, Bejo sometimes felt reluctant to continuously use strategies. To solve this problem, he exercised the strategies while enjoying and rewarding himself with a cup of coffee and cigarettes.

(i) Ability to monitor the use of strategies

The students’ ability to monitor their own strategy use indicated their conscious use of the strategies. Ana, Budi, Santo, and Pardi, for instance, showed that they had such consciousness.

Because I have no longer had to attend lectures, I am not very active in doing activities for my speaking skills ... This week I was not very active in doing activities intended for the improvement of my speaking skills. All I did was discuss my thesis with friends in English for half an hour ... (Di-Ana-English, week 2).

... I am also enrolled at a private English course. ... However, I often oversleep, so I miss the private classes. I am not successful in that course (Iv-Budi-04/11/09-English, turns 246-254).

... for speaking skills, I joined Gajayana English Conversation Club but its contribution was not significant because the personnel handling the club – not the programs that were poor – were not consistent. They were inhibited ... (Iv-Santo-02/11/09-English, turn 36).

He is a teacher. ... We used to have a schedule for speaking English, but now we seldom do it (Iv-Pardi-24/11/09-English, turns 150-154).

Ana admitted that she was not very active in using strategies for speaking because she no longer had to attend lectures, meaning that she had passed all compulsory subjects except thesis writing. Writing a thesis did not require her to speak much and this led her to be less

active in using L2 speaking strategies. In a different situation, Budi did not make much use of the strategy ‘organizing’ by being enrolled at a private English course because he often missed classes by oversleeping. He explicitly admitted that he was not successful in using this strategy. In monitoring the use of the strategy ‘seeking practice opportunities’ by joining a conversation club, Santo did not believe he had got the best results because the organising committee of the club lacked confidence. Pardi noticed the reduction of the frequency of speaking English with his English-teaching father due to a large distance between them.

To recapitulate the first dimension, i.e. conscious use of strategies, all the students in this study reported in the interviews and/or diaries that they consciously used most of the strategies. This consciousness was indicated by their ability to identify strategies, specify goals in using strategies, set up criteria for using strategies, specify actions taken during the exercise of strategies, specify media used during the use of strategies, state and justify the choice of strategies, explain how strategies work, solve problems in using strategies, and monitor the use of strategies.

4.3.1.2 Confident use of strategies

Confident use of strategies is the use of strategies with certainty that the strategies are effective. All the students used some of the reported strategies confidently. This suggests that they used the strategies with the certainty that the strategies would help them succeed in their learning to speak. In this study, indicators of confidence include high frequency of strategy use, as claimed by other researchers, e.g. Zhang and Goh (2006) and constant repetition of the same strategies over a period of time.

(a) High frequency of strategy use

Yanti and Inul, for instance, confidently used particular strategies as indicated by their high frequency of using them.

... I often practise speaking English with peers. ... In addition to sharing personal problems, we practise saying simple things ... I try to speak English as frequently as possible with Sinta and Inul. ... I often practise speaking English with off-campus friends who are English majors (Iv-Yanti-04/11/09-English, turns 76-94).

[Interviewer: ... Have you ever practised speaking English?] I have. Yes, with peers. ... I do this both on- and off-campus. ... I often do it (Iv-Inul-04/11/09-English, turns 78-80).

Yanti was confident that using English orally could help her improve her speaking skills. Consequently, she used the strategies ‘practising naturalistically’ and ‘cooperating with peers’ frequently. This can be seen from her usage of “often” and “frequently.” She often practised speaking with peers as well as with her English-major friends from other universities. She also practised speaking with classmates, Sinta and Inul, as frequently as she could. Inul had the same confidence for oral English use. Therefore, she often practised speaking, both on- and off-campus.

Bima, Ana, and Pardi also confidently used particular strategies as indicated by their high frequency of strategy use. They used the strategies daily.

At home, I speak English with family members – elder and younger brothers – when we have informal chat ... We do it every day. It could be in the morning or afternoon. The chat, however, is not long, two or three minutes only (Iv-Bima-26/10/09-English, turns 52-56).

For the purpose of English speaking learning, I do daily practice. When I normally speak in Javanese, I switch to English (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 236).

I read a dictionary of Indonesian-English idioms every afternoon. I have been experiencing difficulties, but I am sure I can do it (Di-Pardi-English, week 1).

Bima was confident that speaking practice opportunities are very useful for the improvement of his speaking skills. Therefore, he confidently used the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ by speaking English with his siblings every day regardless of the length of the chat. Ana also confidently used the same strategy by speaking English on a daily basis. In employing the strategy ‘using resources for receiving and sending messages’, Pardi confidently read a dictionary of idioms every afternoon. It is possible that he believed that by reading the dictionary he could improve his vocabulary that would be very useful for his speaking skills.

(b) Constant repetition of strategies

Confidence in using strategies is also indicated by the participants’ constant repetition of the same strategies over and over throughout a period of time. For example, Tuti and Santo repeatedly used particular strategies.

This week, I have done the same learning techniques as those I did last week. ... I have been doing the same activities as I did in the first and second weeks for my English learning. ... In the previous weeks, the activities I did for my speaking skills included memorizing difficult words; memorizing grammar rules and formulas; reviewing lessons; and studying before going to bed in the evening. This week, in addition to the activities I previously did, I sang English songs (Di-Tuti-English, weeks 2-4).

This week, I am still doing the activities I did last week ... In addition to the activities I did last week, I have some other learning strategies for English. ... In addition to doing the same activities as I did in the previous weeks, this week, I have been doing the following activities ... (Di-Santo-English, weeks 2-4).

Both Tuti and Santo wrote in their diaries that they used particular strategies repeatedly from week to week over the four-week diary-writing period assigned to them. This constant repetition indicated that they were confident that the strategies they used were beneficial for their learning. In addition, both Tuti and Santo mentioned that they use one or two new strategies every week, added to those used in the previous weeks.

4.3.1.3 Effortful use of strategies

Effortful use of strategies is the use of strategies by putting in extra effort. A few students in the study used particular strategies effortfully. In this study, an indicator of effortful use of strategies is the involvement of one or more forms of effort before or during the use of strategies. The quotations below show that Ana and Adi effortfully used the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’:

To me, it depends on me. If I want to be fluent in speaking English, I should actively initiate English conversations with other students. Otherwise, it will never happen because it is hard to wait for them to initiate the conversations in English (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 248).

I have to be able to create a situation that other students like. ... I try to initiate with ... (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turn 198)

Ana put extra effort in using the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’, namely by actively initiating English conversations with other students. She did not simply wait for the chance to come to her because she believed that, for some reasons, her peers would never initiate conversation with her in English. Adi also actively created a certain situation that attracted his peers to practise speaking English with him. He also initiated such conversations.

Ina, Sani, Rani, and Santo made extra effort by actively performing a series of actions to use the strategy ‘repeating’:

I sing English songs. ... because what is said by the singers is sometimes different from what I hear and say. ... I usually go to an internet café to download the lyrics. Then, I memorize them (Iv-Ina-05/11/09-English, turns 10-22).

While listening to the songs, I try to repeat, to say what I hear. ... I normally go to an internet café to browse the lyrics of the songs. It is useful (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 12 and 128).

I sing English songs at my boarding house or anywhere else by listening to the music of the songs using my mobile phone. ... I always seek the lyrics of those songs by downloading them from the internet. When singing a song, I imitate the way the singer sings the words. Then, I memorize the song (Di-Rani-English, week 2).

I watch English movies a lot. ... I have just downloaded those movies from the internet. Therefore, they have not yet come with Indonesian subtitles. I have their English scripts, though, so I hope the movies still can stimulate me ... (Di-Santo-English, week 2).

Ina, Sani, and Rani put in extra effort in using the strategy 'repeating' by imitating native speakers through songs. They took a series of deliberate actions, including going to an internet café, browsing song lyrics, downloading the song lyrics, and working on them. For 'repeating', Santo also took a series of specific actions. He browsed some movie lists from the internet, downloaded them, and worked on them. He then performed the same actions with the corresponding movie scripts.

4.3.1.4 Persistent use of strategies

Persistent use of strategies is the use of strategies by exercising and wanting to continue exercising them, although the student may have experienced some discomfort, disappointment, or face threat in the process. Tuti, for instance, persistently used the strategy 'cooperating with peers' despite some disappointment and discomfort:

What I want to do is cooperate with all my classmates, but when I ask Yono or Gimin, for instance, to work together with me, they simply laugh. So, what can I do? They do not want it. I cannot force them. Especially with Sablah, what makes me annoyed is that she gets bored when I practise speaking with her. She is very good at English but I still cannot speak. Therefore, she gets bored very easily speaking with me (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 321-323).

Tuti wanted to use the strategy 'cooperating with peers' by practising speaking with all her classmates. However, some of them did not respond to her positively. This caused her some frustration, yet she still wanted to do it with other classmates of hers. She practised speaking with Sablah, whose proficiency was far better than hers. However, she found that Sablah got

bored very easily speaking with her, and this gave her some discomfort. Nevertheless, she persisted with the strategy.

In another instance, Sani also persisted with a particular strategy, ‘seeking practice opportunities’, despite some disappointment, as quoted below.

When we meet, we usually mix English and Indonesian. When I speak wholly in English, he says “Jangan, saya juga mau belajar Bahasa Indonesia” [Please don’t speak wholly in English. I also want to learn Indonesian]. So I find it hard to practise speaking English with him (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 86-90).

Sani used this strategy by making use of his opportunity to practise speaking English with his native-English-speaking friend. However, his friend refused to speak with him only in English because this person was learning Indonesian. Instead, he wanted Sani to mix English and Indonesian so that he also could gain some benefit for his own Indonesian learning. This disappointed Sani, but he accepted mixing English and Indonesian and persevered.

Similarly, Budi persistently used the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ despite some face threat:

Yes, his way of speaking ..., since the way the native speaker of English speaks ..., his tongue seems to be ..., what should I say, I sometimes understood but I sometimes was also lost. When I did not understand him, my brother told me what the native speaker said. [Interviewer: When you did not understand, why didn’t you ask the native speaker of English directly?] I was embarrassed in front of my elder brother (Iv-Budi-04/11/09-English, turns 116-120).

Budi did not mind speaking with a native speaker of English in his elder brother’s presence, even though it was potentially face-threatening. He thought he would lose face if his brother noticed his difficulties in understanding the native speaker. He even had to hide the truth that he did not fully understand the native speaker by avoiding request for clarification directly to

the native speaker in front of his brother. He thought he would look stupid if he repeatedly had to seek clarification of what the native speaker said.

To sum up this account of the dimensions revealed by the interview and diary data, it is clear that the participants used strategies across four dimensions. They used the strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently. Surprisingly, one student raised another potential way of using strategies, i.e. creative use.

This particular student claimed that he used certain strategies creatively. Creative use of strategies is the use of strategies that involves ingenuity before or during the use of strategies. Because there was only one student who claimed using strategies in this way, creative use of strategies is not listed as the fifth dimension of the ways students use strategies. It needs further investigation. Adi creatively used the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’:

After sunset prayer, I interact with my friends living overseas using the ‘voice chat’ facility. To enable me to chat with them using the internet and to avoid the cost, I use the wireless facility owned by the university. Speaking with my native-English-speaking friends enables me to practise with English sounds and accents first hand (Di-Adi-English, week 1).

I have been seeking other English-speaking partners using Yahoo Messenger with the ‘voice chat’ facility that enables me to have oral interaction (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turn 46).

To use the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ by chatting with native speakers of English or foreigners using the internet, Adi had to exercise his initiative to tackle the obstacles he was faced with. Normally, he would have had to spend a large amount of money for internet access, but this is money he did not have. His clever solution was to use the free chat-room provided by Yahoo Messenger that he accessed using the free wireless internet facility provided by the university.

The quotation below further shows how Adi creatively used a particular strategy:

Basically, I am not a person who sticks only to one strategy. In certain situations, I work hard to creatively make use of learning strategies. Wherever I am, I usually try to creatively think of using them. For example, for a discussion on literature, I contribute a topic like Indonesian literature at the present time. [This discussion is carried out in Indonesian]. From this, I think of setting up other discussions on English literature carried out in English. By doing this, I can not only practise speaking English but also improve my comprehension of English literature (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turns 212-218).

Adi asserted directly that he creatively thought of using learning strategies. He derived strategies even from activities that had no relation to his English learning. For example, while taking part in a discussion on literature in Indonesian he thought he could see a strategy to practise his English speaking skills. What he did was set up discussions on English literature in English. By doing this, he thought he could exercise the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ by speaking English with the participants of the discussion. Using this strategy was killing two birds with one stone: in addition to improving his speaking skills, he could express his interest in and improve his grasp of English literature.

The reasons why students used the strategies in those ways are presented in the section that follows.

4.3.2 Reasons why students used strategies in specific ways

In addition to the dimensions showing the variety of ways of using strategies, cross-case analysis of the interview and diary data using the meaning condensation approach elaborated in sub-subsection 3.6.2.2 in Chapter 3 revealed themes reflecting reasons why students used strategies in specific ways. Usefulness of the strategies was the primary reason for all the ways of the strategy use. Pleasure in using the strategies was also a reason for certain strategy use.

Cross-case analysis of the interview and diary data also showed typical relationships between how and why strategies were used, as seen in Table 4.28 below.

Table 4.28 How students used strategies and why they used them in such specific ways

How students used strategies	Why students used strategies in such specific ways
Consciously, confidently, effortfully	Usefulness of the strategies
	Pleasure in using the strategies
Persistently	Usefulness of the strategies

Students used strategies consciously, confidently, or effortfully either because of their usefulness or pleasure in using them, but the reason why they used strategies persistently was the perceived usefulness of the strategies only.

4.3.2.1 Usefulness of strategies

Usefulness of strategies was the reason why students used strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, and persistently. Students believed that the exercise of particular strategies brings some beneficial outcomes that enhance their learning.

Conscious use of strategies because of their usefulness

The quotations below show students' conscious use of strategies because of their usefulness:

To me, I believe that playing computer games is the most useful technique for all language skills in English. It has been useful for my reading, speaking, listening and grammar skills. ... I am aware that my English has improved significantly since I knew and played the games. ... Before I knew about and played the games, my English grades were always very bad (Di-Bima-English, week 4).

There is another solution, namely by substituting the word that I do not know with another word having similar meaning. I can also describe the word, namely by explaining the meaning of the word using other words. I normally do it. Only when I am really stuck for not knowing the word synonym or how to explain it, I switch to

Indonesian. It is little better than having a long pause without speech (Iv-Santo-02/11/09-English, turn 174).

Earlier in his diary, Bima reported using the strategy ‘repeating’ by consciously imitating characters in computer games and the quotation shows that he did it because of the usefulness of the strategy. He believed it was the most useful strategy not only for speaking skills but also for other language skills. He provided further evidence of the usefulness of the strategy by speaking of the positive effect of the strategy use, namely the significant improvement of his English mastery based on different grades he had before and after the use of the strategy. Santo also consciously adopted a particular strategy because of its usefulness. He consciously used the strategy ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ and ‘switching to the mother tongue’ when he did not know how to say things in the midst of his English conversations.

Confident use of strategies because of their usefulness

Sinta, as quoted in sub-subsection 4.3.1.2 and re-quoted here, confidently used particular strategies because of their usefulness:

I listen to English songs almost every morning and in my free time, I upload English songs into my mobile phone so that I get used to listening to and imitating the pronunciation of some words. This activity also enables me to pronounce words orally in the way native speakers of English do. I also manage to speak English with friends as frequently as I can because this helps me improve my speaking fluency. Listening to anything in English really helps me improve my speaking skills. The activity enables me to get more new words and to know how to pronounce them, which is very useful when I speak English (Di-Sinta-English, week 1).

As indicated by her high frequency of strategy use, Sinta confidently used the strategies ‘repeating’ by imitating native-English-speaking singers and ‘practising naturalistically’ by speaking English with her friends. Obviously, her confidence was raised by the usefulness of the strategies. She asserted that listening to English songs was useful because it enabled her to

improve her pronunciation skills by imitating the native-English-speaking singers. She also claimed that speaking English with her friends was helpful in improving her speaking fluency.

Effortful use of strategies because of their usefulness

Ana and Sani, as quoted in sub-subsection 4.3.1.3 and re-quoted here, effortfully pursued particular strategies because of their usefulness:

To me, it depends on me. If I want to be fluent in speaking English, I should actively initiate English conversations with other students. Otherwise, it will never happen because it is hard to wait for them to initiate the conversations in English (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 248).

While listening to the songs, I try to repeat, to say what I hear. ... I normally go to an internet café to browse the lyrics of the songs. It is useful (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 12 and 128).

Ana effortfully used the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’ by initiating conversations with peers in English because she believed that if she passively waited for a chance to come to her, she would never speak English with them. She used the strategy effortfully because of its usefulness. She believed that it could help her speak fluently. Sani also used the strategy ‘repeating’ effortfully because of its usefulness. He put in extra effort in using the strategy, namely by going to an internet café, browsing song lyrics, downloading the lyrics, and working on the lyrics, because he believed that the strategy could help him improve his pronunciation skills by imitating native-English-speaking singers.

Persistent use of strategies because of their usefulness

Tuti and Budi, as quoted in sub-subsection 4.3.1.4 and re-quoted here, persistently used particular strategies because of their usefulness:

[Interviewer: You have mentioned earlier that your classmates can help you improve your speaking skills. Do you work together with all your classmates or only with

specific persons?]) What I want to do is cooperate with all my classmates, but when I ask Yono or Gimin, for instance, to work together with me, they simply laugh. So, what can I do? They do not want it. I cannot force them. Especially with Sablah, what makes me annoyed is that she gets bored when I practise speaking with her. She is very good at English but I still cannot speak. Therefore, she gets bored very easily speaking with me (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 321-323).

Yes, his way of speaking ..., since the way the native speaker of English speaks ..., his tongue seems to be ..., what should I say, I sometimes understood but I sometimes was also lost. When I did not understand him, my brother told me what the native speaker said. [Interviewer: When you did not understand, why didn't you ask the native speaker of English directly?] I was embarrassed in front of my elder brother. [Interviewer: In your opinion, does speaking with a native speaker of English help you improve your speaking skills?] It does (Iv-Budi-04/11/09-English, turns 116-128)

Tuti persevered with the strategy 'cooperating with peers' by practising speaking with her classmate who easily got bored speaking with her, due to a wide gap in speaking competence levels, and this caused some discomfort. Despite this, Tuti persisted with it because she believed that peers could help her improve her speaking skills. Budi also kept up the strategy 'practising naturalistically', despite the potential for embarrassment from lack of comprehension, because he thought it was useful. He believed that speaking with a native speaker of English was useful for the improvement of his speaking skills.

It seems worth mentioning that Adi's creative use of 'practising naturalistically', as quoted at the end of subsection 4.3.1 and re-quoted here, was caused by his perception of the usefulness of the strategy:

After sunset prayer, I interact with my friends living overseas using the 'voice chat' facility. To enable me to chat with them using the internet and to avoid the cost, I use the wireless facility owned by the university. Speaking with my native-English-speaking friends enables me to practise with English sounds and accents first hand (Di-Adi-English, week 1).

I have been seeking other English-speaking partners using Yahoo Messenger with the 'voice chat' facility that enables me to have oral interaction (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turn 46).

Adi used the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ by chatting orally with native speakers or foreigners on the internet because he believed that this was useful for the improvement of his speaking skills, especially the production of sounds and certain accents.

4.3.2.2 Pleasure in using strategies

Pleasure in using strategies, though less prominent than perceived usefulness of strategies discussed previously, was another reason why strategies were used consciously, confidently, or effortfully. Pleasure in using strategies here means that there is some involvement of enjoyment or fun during the use of a strategy. Evidence in this section illustrates pleasure in using the strategies as the reason why students used particular strategies in each of these three ways.

Conscious use of strategies for pleasure

Adi and Iyem consciously used particular strategies for pleasure:

Acting in a drama performance leads me to have a target, namely to imitate certain accent or to master certain speaking style. I have performed one of Shakespeare’s works. The second one was the one entitled *Ghost Buster’s Sixth Sense*. I enjoy the challenge of acting in the dramas, I mean to shift roles. Such activity requires me to learn how to speak in certain styles. ... That is interesting and challenging (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turns 144-158).

[Interviewer: ... What about swearing in English?] Yes, I surely do that (laughing). Yes (laughing). “Shit” (laughing) (Iv-Iyem-06/11/09-English, turns 182-186).

Adi claimed that he enjoyed the challenge of shifting roles requiring him to speak in different ways and he gained this pleasure from using the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ by acting in English drama performance on stage. Further evidence of the effect of pleasure in using the strategy is that he asserted the activities were interesting and challenging to him. Iyem, on the other hand, did not explicitly claim that she enjoyed using the strategy ‘practising

naturalistically' by swearing in English when speaking by herself, but her considerable enthusiasm in talking about the use of this strategy showed that she did enjoy doing it. Her laughter and specific voice tone obviously indicated that she experienced fun or enjoyment in using the strategy.

Confident use of strategies for pleasure

The quotation below shows that Bima confidently used particular strategies for pleasure:

Concerning playing computer games, I do it almost every day because I really love three things: games, manga [a Japanese form of comic strip], and animation. Because of these three things, I decided to choose English as my study major. I believe that there is a close relationship between English and those three things. After I finish studying, I usually draw manga or play computer games. When I feel frustrated while playing a computer game, I like saying some nonsense things in English. I also like saying the game characters' lines out of my memory. That is very enjoyable (Di-Bima-English, week 1).

As indicated by the high frequency of the strategy use, almost every day, Bima confidently used the strategy 'repeating' by imitating native speakers through computer games. He did this because he found it pleasurable. He explicitly claimed that imitating characters' lines from the games was very enjoyable.

Effortful use of strategies for pleasure

Adi effortfully used the strategy 'using resources for receiving and sending messages' for pleasure:

I used a computer program designed for a speaking practice called 'Talk to Me' to help me sharpen my speaking skills. To operate the program, I needed to use Windows XP. This program employs a voice recognition facility that can analyze the quality of said words using a graph. To maximize the usefulness of this program, I need headphones and a microphone. ... Using this computer program is fun because it contains recreational activities and practices. We have to receive a high score to be able to open the next activities. This encourages me to produce words and sentences as well as possible (Di-Adi-English, week 4).

Adi effortfully took up the strategy ‘using resources for receiving and sending messages’ by putting in extra effort, including installing Windows XP, buying headphones, and buying a microphone. He did so because he believed that the program was pleasurable and commented that using the ‘Talk to Me’ computer program was fun because the program contained recreational activities and practice.

To summarise the themes showing reasons why students used L2 speaking strategies in specific ways, usefulness of strategies was the reason why learners used strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently. Pleasure in using strategies was another reason why strategies were used in the first three ways.

4.4 Integrated quantitative and qualitative results

Overall results of the data analysis are summarised in Table 4.29. The quantitative results were generated with reference to the first research question and its sub-questions. The qualitative results were obtained with reference to the first, second and third research questions. The results of the entire quantitative and qualitative data analysis were generated by integrating both sets of results. Such integration is implied in the fourth research question.

Table 4.29 Summary of results with reference to research questions

Research questions	Quantitative results		Qualitative results	Mixed method results
(1) What L2 speaking strategies do students use?	(a) What strategies students used	46 strategies	32 strategies (29, identified in the quantitative phase; three, new)	49 strategies
	(b) Strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least	<p>Strategy: Most favoured: ‘paying attention’ Least favoured: ‘writing a language learning diary’</p> <p>Strategy group: Most favoured: metacognitive Least favoured: memory</p>		

	(c) Strategy use and L2/speaking proficiency	L2 proficiency	<p>Advanced Mean: 3.14 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ Least favoured: ‘avoiding communication partially or totally’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ Strategy group: Most favoured: metacognitive Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Intermediate Mean: 3.19 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘finding out about language learning’ Least favoured: ‘representing sounds in memory’ Strategy group: Most favoured: compensation Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Elementary Mean: 2.76 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘paying attention’ Least favoured: ‘writing a language learning diary’ and ‘asking for correction’ Strategy group: Most favoured: compensation Least favoured: social</p> <p>L2 proficiency significantly affected students’ overall strategy use</p>	n/a	n/a
		Speaking Proficiency	<p>Advanced Mean: 3.20 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ Least favoured: ‘writing a language learning diary’ Strategy group: Most favoured: compensation Least favoured: memory</p>		

		<p>Intermediate Mean: 3.15 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘paying attention’ Least favoured: ‘representing sounds in memory’ Strategy group: Most favoured: metacognitive Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Elementary Mean: 2.81 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘using resources for receiving and sending messages’ Least favoured: ‘writing a language learning diary’ Strategy group: Most favoured: compensation Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of affective strategies only</p>		
	(d) Strategy use and gender	<p>Male Mean: 3.06 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘finding out about language learning’ Least favoured: ‘writing a language learning diary’ Strategy group: Most favoured: compensation Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Female Mean: 3.26 Strategy: Most favoured: ‘paying attention’ Least favoured: ‘representing sounds in memory’ Strategy group: Most favoured: metacognitive Least favoured: memory</p> <p>Gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only</p>	n/a	n/a
(2) How do students use L2 speaking strategies?	n/a		<p>1) Consciously 2) Confidently 3) Effortfully 4) Persistently</p>	
(3) Why do students use L2 speaking strategies in specific	n/a		<p>1) Usefulness of the strategies 2) Pleasure in using strategies</p>	

ways?			
(4) How do the qualitative findings explain strategies obtained in the quantitative phase?	n/a	n/a	Explaining: confirming, adding, and extending

n/a: not applicable

Table 4.29 shows that concerning the first research question, three types of results were generated: quantitative, qualitative, and combined methods. The quantitative results constituted the identification of 46 strategies for speaking skills. The qualitative results included the identification of 32 strategies, 29 of which were identified earlier in the quantitative phase, and three were new. The combined quantitative and qualitative results constituted the identification of strategies at a total of 49, composed of three memory strategies, nine cognitive, nine compensation, 11 metacognitive, 12 affective, and five social.

With reference to the sub-questions, quantitative results emerged. Regarding the first sub-question, ‘paying attention’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ were found to be the strategies the students favoured the most and least respectively. Besides, the metacognitive and memory strategy groups were revealed to be the strategy groups the students favoured the most and least respectively.

For the second sub-question, students with various L2 proficiency levels differed from one another in the overall strategy use and the strategy and strategy group they favoured the most and least. On a larger scale, their overall strategy use was medium, but the mean scores showed a slight difference between groups. In terms of the strategy they favoured, advanced students favoured ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ the most and two strategies the least,

i.e. 'avoiding communication partially or totally' and 'writing a language learning diary'; intermediate students favoured 'finding out about language learning' the most and 'representing sounds in memory' the least; and elementary students favoured 'paying attention' the most and two strategies the least, i.e. 'writing a language learning diary' and 'asking for correction'. The metacognitive strategy group was the group the advanced students favoured the most, whereas the compensation group was the one the intermediate and elementary students favoured the most. Advanced and intermediate students favoured the memory strategy group the least, but elementary students did not favour the social group. Statistically, L2 proficiency significantly affected the students' overall strategy use ($p = .045$), with the difference lying between elementary and intermediate ($p = .013$). Advanced did not significantly differ from intermediate ($p = .772$) and elementary ($p = .093$).

Students with various levels of speaking proficiency likewise differed from one another in their overall strategy use and the strategy and strategy group they favoured. Their overall strategy use was basically medium, but the means suggested a subtle difference between the groups. Concerning the strategy they favoured, advanced students favoured 'using a circumlocution or synonym' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. Intermediate students favoured 'paying attention' the most and 'representing sounds in memory' the least, whilst elementary students favoured 'using resources for receiving and sending messages' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. As per strategy group they favoured, advanced and elementary students favoured the compensation strategy group the most, but intermediate students favoured the metacognitive strategy group. All the groups of the students favoured the memory strategy group the least. Statistically, speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .035$), and the difference lay between elementary and intermediate ($p = .011$). Advanced did not

significantly differ from both intermediate ($p = .296$) and elementary ($p = .060$). On a larger scale, speaking proficiency did not significantly affect the students' overall strategy use ($p = .138$).

With respect to the third sub-question, male and female students' overall strategy use was medium, but it was slightly different between groups, as indicated by the means. It was found that male students favoured 'finding out about language learning' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least, but female students favoured 'paying attention' the most and 'representing sounds in memory' the least. Additionally, male students favoured the compensation strategy group the most, but female students favoured the metacognitive group the most. Neither male nor female students favoured the memory strategy group. Statistically, gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .022$), but it did not significantly affect the overall strategy use ($p = .063$).

Concerning the second and third research questions, the qualitative results showed students using strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently. The reasons why they used the strategies in these specific ways were the usefulness of the strategies or the pleasure in using them.

With reference to the fourth research question, the integration of the quantitative and qualitative results revealed two ways that the qualitative results explained the quantitative results: confirming and extending. The qualitative results confirmed the 29 learning strategies assessed in the quantitative phase. The qualitative results extended the quantitative results through the addition of three new strategies and information on the ways students used strategies and the reasons why they used them in specific ways.

The provision of Table 4.29 that summarized the results of the data analysis marks the end of a long sequential process of data analysis on the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method phases of this study. A summary of key results obtained on each phase which concludes this chapter seems to be useful. The summary is offered in the next section.

4.5 Conclusion

The key results presented throughout the chapter include the quantitative, qualitative, and combined methods results. The quantitative results constituted the identification of 46 strategies; ‘paying attention’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ as the strategies the students favoured the most and least respectively; and the metacognitive and memory strategy group as the strategy groups the students favoured the most and the least respectively. The results further revealed that L2 proficiency significantly affected the students’ overall strategy use, and speaking proficiency and gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only.

The qualitative results constituted the confirmation of the 29 strategies listed first in the quantitative phase and the identification of three new strategies, four ways the students used strategies, and two reasons for the use of strategies in specific ways.

The combined quantitative and qualitative results include all the following: learning strategies to a total of 49, ‘paying attention’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ as strategies the students favoured the most and least respectively, the metacognitive and memory strategy groups as the strategy groups that the students favoured the most and least respectively, and the integration of the qualitative results into the quantitative results. These key results require detailed discussion, which is offered in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of key findings of the study. It consists of two primary sections. The first discusses an important matter not directly related to the research questions but which emerged from the data as relevant to the topic in general (5.2). This important matter is learner independence.

The second section offers discussion of findings that serve as direct answers to the research questions (5.3). In accordance with the research questions, this section consists of four subsections. Subsection 5.3.1 sets out a discussion of findings with reference to the first research question and its sub-questions. It includes what L2 speaking strategies students employed; what strategy and strategy group they favoured the most and least; and whether L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency and gender significantly affected strategy use. How the students used L2 speaking strategies, the second research question, is discussed in subsection 5.3.2, and why they used the strategies in specific ways, the third research question, is discussed in subsection 5.3.3. How the qualitative results explain the quantitative results obtained in the earlier phase is discussed in section 5.3.4. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of all sections presented in it (5.4).

5.2 Approaching the data: learner independence

An important matter not related directly to the research questions but relevant to the topic in general emerged from the data. It is the students' independence in learning to speak English. The data analysis shows that the students actively practised language learning strategies

although they received only occasional, inexplicit strategy training. Students were indeed not familiar with the concept of language learning strategies. A student, for example, asked a question about what language learning strategies were in the interview, indicating his unfamiliarity with the concept (see Appendix 11, interviews as recorded on a DVD, specifically for the interview labelled iv-Bambang-(03-11-09).mp3, and turn 6 in Appendix 13 for the interview transcript and its English version). However, when the concept was explained to him using terms he was familiar with, he could relate it to the strategies he had been practising. Students themselves must have explored the strategies that their teachers did not provide in training.

The fact that the students actively practised language learning strategies, without any guidance from teachers, indicates that they were, in a sense, independent or autonomous learners. Cotterall (2008) states that autonomous learners are able to take charge of their own learning methodologically, psychologically, and socially (see section 2.2 in Chapter 2 for discussion of learner autonomy in relation to language learning strategies). As demonstrated through their strategic behaviour, the students in this study took charge of their own learning methodologically, by assuming responsibility for selecting methods and techniques to use in the form of language learning strategies; psychologically, by being able to make a decision and act independently in choosing and practising the strategies; as well as socially, by independently choosing what and how to learn, 'free' from a classroom.

It is perhaps no surprise that the students in the study showed independence because they were mature, motivated adult students. However, even younger students in the Indonesian EFL context proved to be independent. In his research into learner independence carried out with 12 Indonesian EFL first year junior high school students aged 11 to 12 years, Lamb

(2004) demonstrates that regardless of their young age and the absence of overt strategy training, the students were independent as shown by their use of strategies when they studied English, especially spoken English. Such independence came about because “state provision of English language education is so limited that motivated children are forced to find learning resources for themselves” (Lamb, 2004, p. 240). This condition may well have applied to the students in this study. An environment generally poor in English-language learning resources may, among other reasons, have forced students to find their own ways of improving speaking proficiency.

The students’ achievements, however, do not mean that they would not benefit from strategy training. Despite their independence in learning, they would benefit from formal strategy training as it would enhance and give direction to their independence. They would then be less naive and more aware of their development.

The following section will, among other things, consider how the students’ independence is exhibited through their strategy use.

5.3 Approaching the research questions

This section makes explicit key findings serving as the direct answers to the research questions. The combined quantitative and qualitative results naturally play a part in this discussion, which will make reference to the research questions according to the sequence of the data collection and analysis of the explanatory design implemented in this study.

5.3.1 What L2 speaking strategies do students use?

As presented in section 4.4 in Chapter 4, with reference to what L2 speaking strategies students used, the combined quantitative and qualitative results reveal varieties of strategies, whereas the quantitative results cover strategies and strategy groups the students favoured the most and least, and the relationship between the students' strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. The latter was not further explored in the qualitative phase of the study, but both sets of findings form the outcome of the study.

According to Table 4.29 in Chapter 4, the combined quantitative and qualitative results show students using 49 strategies, composed of three memory strategies, nine cognitive, nine compensation, 11 metacognitive, 12 affective, and five social. Out of these, three are new, and they serve to expand Oxford's (1990) taxonomy. All activities reported in the interviews can thus be accommodated. They are one compensation strategy, 'using a bilingual dictionary', and two affective strategies, 'seeking and using a peer's support', and 'using loud voice' (see Table 4.3 in Chapter 4). Rationale for adding these three strategies into the taxonomy is as follows.

Oxford (1990) acknowledges dictionary use as a representation of a cognitive strategy, 'using resources for receiving and sending messages', which mostly deals with finding out the meaning of what is heard or read in the new language, or with producing messages in the new language. She acknowledges that this cannot easily be used during speaking. It can only help learners prepare for speaking activities. It is specifically useful for writing skills. Students in the study, however, used a bilingual dictionary as a compensation strategy, not cognitive, because they did so to deal with limitations in speaking. Additionally, they exercised this strategy in the midst of their oral English conversations, instead of in the preparation process

of speaking. Therefore, it is evidently a separate strategy which is different from Oxford's (1990) dictionary-related strategy. Quotations below, which are requoted from subsection 4.2.1 in Chapter 4, illustrate this situation:

When I am completely stuck for a word, I usually consult a dictionary ... (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 174).

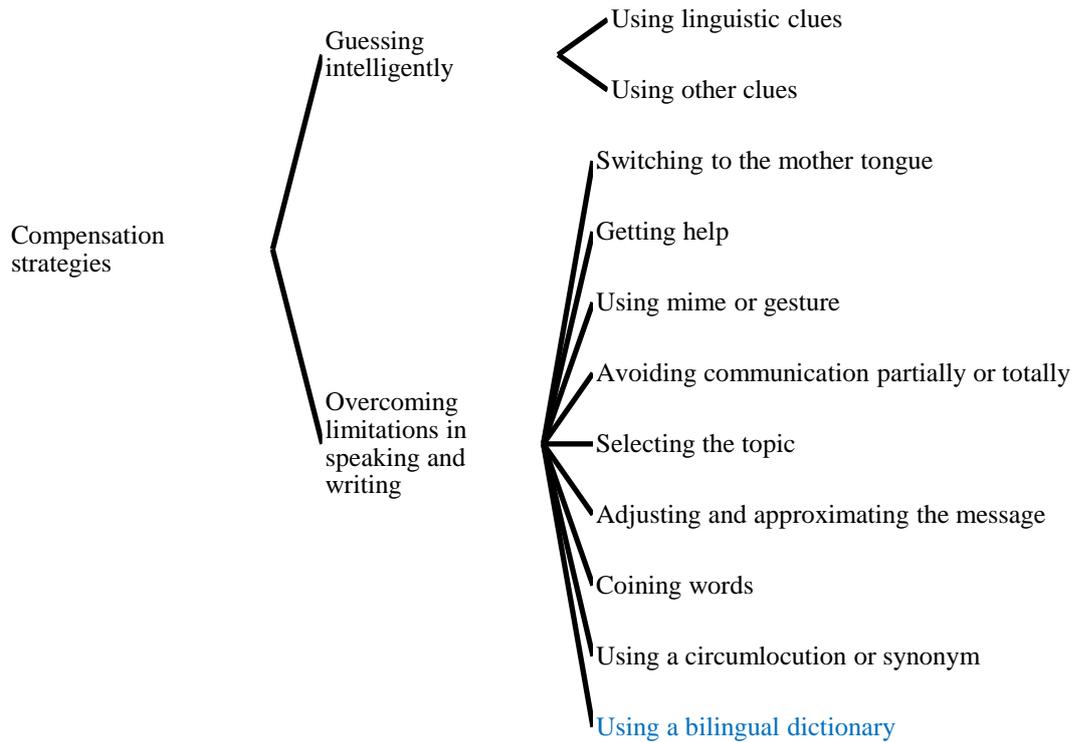
My other strategy is consulting a dictionary. I often use an electronic dictionary. When I am stuck for a word, I look it up in the dictionary quickly. Sometimes my addressee indeed looks impatient ..., but I simply say "Wait a minute, wait a minute." Electronic dictionary enables me to do this quickly. Differently, a bound dictionary is hard to use (Iv-Darmi-04/11/09-English, turns 182-192).

I may look up the word in a dictionary if the time allows me to. I do it only when my addressee is patient enough to wait for me do it (Iv-Rani-06/11/09-English, turns 198-200).

Ana consulted a dictionary when she was completely stuck for a word in the midst of English conversations. Likewise, Darmi consulted a dictionary, preferably an electronic one, to tackle similar speaking problem, and Rani used a dictionary only when she believed her addressee did not mind her doing so. A post-interview clarification shows that Ana used a dictionary application installed in her mobile phone, and Rani used a pocket printed dictionary.

The ease of exercising this strategy as a result of the invention of the electronic dictionary and the development of technology for mobile phones, which had not yet occurred when Oxford published the taxonomy in 1990, could be responsible for this new strategy. For this reason, a separate dictionary-related strategy, serving as a compensation strategy, needs to be added to the taxonomy. See Figure 2.3 in Chapter 2 for the original taxonomy of compensation strategies and Figure 5.1 overleaf for the expanded taxonomy.

Figure 5.1 Expanded taxonomy of compensation strategies



Blue colour indicates new strategy.

Furthermore, students in the study reported doing certain activities to lower their anxiety which could not be categorized using Oxford’s (1990) taxonomy: ‘seeking and using a peer’s support’ and ‘using loud voice’. Quotations below, requoted from subsection 4.2.1 in Chapter 4, show such activities.

Before speaking, I sometimes ask my friend, “Is it correct to say such-and-such?” I confirm it first. I seek support from a friend, and when she or he thinks that what I want to say is correct, I then say it (Iv-Sinta-04/11/09-English, turn 284).

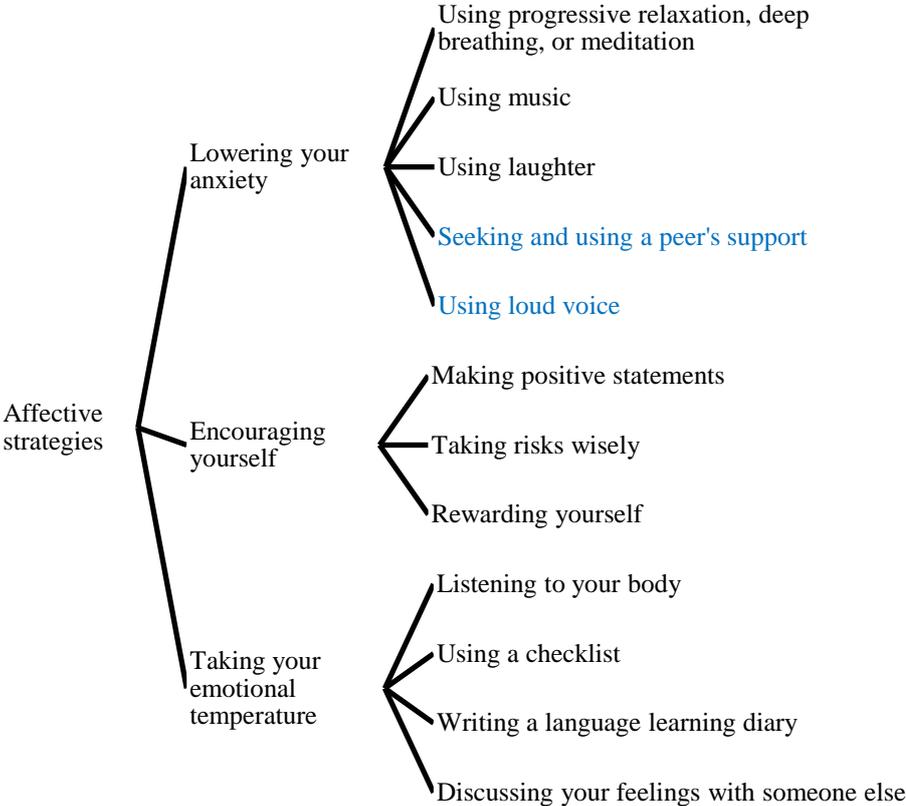
I ask Sablah, my classmate, whether or not my sentence is correct before I say it. It can reduce my nervousness because I become sure, “Oh, I see. It is blah, blah, blah. It must be correct.” Then, I say it (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 308-310).

I speak little more loudly. [Interviewer: Oh, okay. Because you speak more loudly, you can get rid of your anxiety?] I can reduce the intensity of the anxiety. [Interviewer: I see. It is interesting. What else?] If the situation is informal, I shout (laughing) even more loudly (laughing) (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 210-214).

The first two quotations show that, to lower their anxiety, Sinta and Tuti sought support from a peer. The last quotation shows that Sani spoke loudly to lower his anxiety.

Because the above-mentioned activities cannot be accommodated by Oxford’s (1990) taxonomy, expanding the taxonomy to include those new strategies is recommended. See Figure 2.5 in Chapter 2 for the original taxonomy of affective strategies and Figure 5.2 below for the expanded taxonomy.

Figure 5.2 Expanded taxonomy of affective strategies



Blue colour indicates new strategies.

The origin of the new affective strategies is not perhaps as easy to explain as that of ‘using a bilingual dictionary’. It relates to cultural background and the context where the English conversation takes place. One of the essential cultural values in Javanese society is being

aware of *isin*, i.e. feeling ashamed about behaving in culturally disapproved ways, one of which is making a mistake in public. Endraswara (2003) states that *isin* is a personal attribute that involves dignity. In this society, making mistakes is often associated with stupidity, and stupidity is closely connected to dignity, in the sense that being viewed as stupid entails damage to one's dignity. To protect the dignity from violation, a Javanese should not say or act in the way the culture has prescribed not to, for fear of *isin*. As Keeler (1983) points out, a Javanese should be aware of *isin* and should understand how important it is to be careful in the presence of others, particularly of people who are not close kin. This cultural urge to make no mistakes can be overwhelming and cause anxiety. To deal with this type of anxiety, students need to be sure of mistake-free sentences before saying them. A more proficient peer can be the person who would help correct the mistakes. The new strategy 'seeking and using a peer's support' arises in this context. The strategy is unlikely to occur in a culture where making mistakes is much more tolerated.

'Using loud voice' might be triggered by the situation in which the English conversation or speaking takes place. Sani spoke loudly to lower his anxiety when he spoke in front of his class for a speaking subject, and when the context was informal, i.e. outside the classroom, he spoke even more loudly. He believed that the strategy was effective, and this belief does make sense because by speaking loudly in a public setting, in front of a class for instance, the speaker can gain full attention from the audience, leaving no room for the audience members to whisper to each other, which can provoke nervousness or anxiety for the speaker.

The elaboration of all the three new strategies shows that they display the main feature of language learning strategy, i.e. to enhance language learning. Adding them to the taxonomy is thus worthwhile. Concerning the emergence of new strategies in general, Lee and Oxford

(2008) arrive at similarly interesting findings in their study on EFL learners' strategy use and strategy awareness in Korea. Students participating in their study used different kinds of memory strategies from those in the SILL. The specific memory strategies favoured by Koreans were 'repetition' and 'dictation'. Consequently, Lee and Oxford recommended adding them to the SILL, hoping to inform English language teaching in that specific setting.

5.3.1.1 What strategy and strategy group do students favour the most and least?

One of the quantitative findings shows students favouring 'paying attention' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least, with the means of 4.02 and 2.11 respectively. It also reveals that they favoured metacognitive strategies the most and memory strategies the least. The means for these groups are 3.40 and 2.61 respectively.

It may not be surprising that students in this study favoured 'paying attention' because they were accustomed to doing it as a result of a teacher-centered approach widely applied in Indonesia. It is a teaching approach that requires students to fully pay attention to the teachers throughout the process of learning. With reference to other research, this finding parallels a finding from a study carried out by Całka (2011) on the use of pronunciation learning strategies among Polish EFL learners. The reference is relevant since pronunciation is an essential part of the construct of speaking. According to Całka's SILL-based questionnaire, 'paying attention' was one of the strategies that students favoured. It had the second highest mean, 4.34, following the memory strategy 'repeating', 4.51.

The finding on 'writing a language learning diary' as the strategy the students favoured the least is consistent with the students' acknowledgment that they were unfamiliar with the activity. Almost all the 20 selected students for diary-writing said that they did not have any

experience in writing learning diaries before they began the task in the stage of data collection. It thus makes good sense that this strategy turned out to be the least favoured one. A possible reason for this is that writing a language learning diary requires a lot of effort and its rewards for learning to speak are, from the students' point of view, hard to see.

This finding is congruent with a finding from a study on perceived strategy use among female Arab English majors carried out by Riazi (2007). He found that the mean score for the SILL item of 'I write down my feelings in a language learning diary' that represented 'writing a language learning diary' was the lowest of all, 2.02. He suspected this to occur because of a cultural influence, i.e. Arab students were perhaps not as self-expressive of their feelings and emotions as students of, for instance, Western cultural groups. This could also apply to Indonesian EFL students.

The disclosure of the metacognitive strategies as the most favoured strategy group suggests that the students showed a tendency to regulate their own learning in accordance with what metacognitive strategies are supposed to do (Oxford, 1990), involving centering, planning, arranging, and evaluating one's own learning. Such a tendency occurred in this study perhaps because the students were motivated adult students who were victims of the limited resources at GUM and an environment uncondusive to English-speaking practice, as suggested in section 5.2. This finding supports Oh (1992), who, in a study of learning strategies among Korean EFL university students, points out adult learners' tendency to use metacognitive strategies. This finding also parallels finding from a study carried out by Riazi (2007) mentioned above. He found that the mean score for the metacognitive strategy group in his study was the highest of all, 3.87.

Related to future strategy training, this particular finding can serve as a predictor for the success of the training. Since the students have autonomously practised and favoured strategies that play an important role in the self-regulation, the training program will perhaps successfully enhance the students' strategy use and awareness of the effectiveness of their strategy use. Thus, they will learn to speak more efficiently and independently.

Conform to Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 15), the students favoured memory strategies the least, in contrast to “preconceptions about Asians as constant memory-strategy users.” This occurred probably because storage and retrieval of new information in L2, which memory strategies are supposed to deal with, were not greatly required in the learning of speaking. It is assumed that memory strategies play a more important role in the learning of vocabulary.

5.3.1.2 Does proficiency in L2 and speaking significantly affect strategy use?

L2 proficiency and strategy use

Advanced, intermediate, and elementary students differed from one another in the strategies they favoured. Advanced students favoured ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ the most and two strategies, ‘avoiding communication partially or totally’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’, the least; intermediate students, ‘finding out about language learning’ the most and ‘representing sounds in memory’ the least; and elementary students, ‘paying attention’ the most and two strategies, ‘writing a language learning diary’ and ‘asking for correction’, the least.

It may be expected that more proficient students favour ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’, a strategy requiring a high level of proficiency in L2 morphological and syntactical structures, and a high level of vocabulary. Supported by their capability, these students could use this

highly-demanding strategy in their oral L2 practice. The use of oral practice among these advanced students is consistent with the finding ‘avoiding communication partially or totally’ as their least favoured strategy. It may also be expected that elementary students who still have insufficient knowledge of L2 grammar and a low level of vocabulary favour ‘paying attention’, a strategy that requires no active L2 oral production. This is consistent with the finding ‘asking for correction’ as their least favoured strategy, given this involves an active production of oral L2, a capability the elementary students do not have. Intermediate students focused their attention more on the organization of their learning in their effort to improve their proficiency. Therefore, they favoured ‘finding out about language learning’, a strategy that suggests a highly active search for information, so that an improvement can be achieved.

As regards the strategy groups, advanced, intermediate, and elementary students also differed from one another. Advanced students favoured metacognitive strategies the most and memory strategies the least. Intermediate and elementary students favoured compensation strategies the most. Like advanced, intermediate students favoured memory strategies the least. Elementary students favoured social strategies the least.

Although advanced students favoured the compensation strategy ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ the most, on a larger scale they favoured metacognitive strategies the most. This indicates that these students overall self-regulated their learning of speaking. The top preference for compensation strategies among the intermediate and elementary students may be caused by these students’ awareness of their L2 limitations, and it is not unexpected. The low preference for memory strategies among advanced and intermediate students might have to do with the degree of prominence of the strategies for the learning of speaking. The avoidance of social strategies by elementary students occurred probably because of the

students' insufficient capability in using oral L2, given in this study it was mainly exercised by practising speaking with peers or teachers.

This finding on what strategy group the students favoured the most supports a finding from a study carried out by Radwan (2011), who demonstrated that more proficient tertiary students in Oman used more metacognitive strategies than less proficient students. One credible factor causing this similarity might be learning culture in the two contexts, Oman and Indonesia. Such factors need further researching.

Statistically, L2 proficiency significantly affected the students' overall strategy use ($p = .045$); with the difference occurring between elementary and intermediate ($p = .013$). There was no significant difference between elementary and advanced ($p = .093$) and between intermediate and advanced ($p = .772$). This finding supports the trend of a linear, significant relationship between students' overall strategy use and L2 proficiency (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Liu, 2004; Radwan, 2011; Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007).

Speaking proficiency and strategy use

Students with advanced, intermediate, and elementary speaking proficiency differed from one another in the strategies and strategy groups they favoured. Advanced students favoured 'using a circumlocution or synonym' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. Intermediate students favoured 'paying attention' the most and 'representing sounds in memory' the least, whereas elementary students favoured 'using resources for receiving and sending messages' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. Concerning the strategy groups, advanced and elementary students favoured compensation strategies the

most, but intermediate students, metacognitive strategies. All three groups of the students favoured memory strategies the least.

Compared with findings based on L2 proficiency, advanced students showed the same tendency to favour ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ the most and ‘writing a language learning diary’ the least. Reasons for this may also be the same, i.e. high proficiency allowed these students to use the highly-demanding strategy and, it was hard for them to see the benefit of ‘writing a language learning diary’ for their learning of speaking. Intermediate students showed a difference in their most favoured strategy. According to L2 proficiency, they favoured ‘finding out about language learning’ the most but according to speaking proficiency, ‘paying attention’. The top preference for the latter strategy occurred probably because their proficiency level caused them to struggle in producing oral L2. Consequently, unlike their advanced counterparts who favoured a strategy closely related to L2 oral production, they seemed to delay their oral production by paying more attention to other people speaking in L2. They would probably apply the learnt knowledge from this activity in their oral production later. Elementary students’ top preference for ‘using resources for receiving and sending messages’ may have to do with their struggle in producing oral L2. Due to their low proficiency, they had to use resources, like a dictionary, to prepare sentences they wanted to say. They may also have needed such resources to help them understand other people’s oral L2. As regards the least favoured ‘representing sounds in memory’ and ‘writing a language learning diary’ strategies for the intermediate and elementary students respectively, a credible reason for this to happen is, as mentioned earlier, the low contribution of the strategy to the learning of speaking.

There seemed to be a different underlying reason why advanced and elementary students favoured the same group of strategies the most, the compensation strategy group. The advanced students may have used compensation strategies to help them maintain the fluency of their oral L2, but the elementary ones used them to deal with their insufficient speaking competence so that they still could perform some speaking tasks. Intermediate students, in accordance with their focus of learning by delaying the oral L2 production mentioned earlier, may have used metacognitive strategies to organise their learning so that they could proceed to the advanced level. Regarding the memory strategy group as the least favoured group for all three groups of students, the students may have perceived memory strategies as less important for their learning of speaking.

Statistically, speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .035$), with the difference lying between elementary and intermediate ($p = .011$). Advanced significantly differed from neither intermediate ($p = .296$) nor elementary ($p = .060$). This finding can be compared with finding in a study of strategy use for speaking skills among Filipino EFL high school students conducted by Cabaysa and Baetiong (2010). The study reveals a significant difference in the use of a specific group of strategies, i.e. the metacognitive strategy group. However, unlike theirs, this study revealed a significant difference in the use of affective strategies between elementary and intermediate. Intermediate students showed higher use of affective strategies than elementary, as indicated by the means of 3.11 and 2.44 respectively. Reasons for this diversity of behaviour are open to speculation. One credible interpretation is that the intermediate students, with lower proficiency than the advanced students' but with a strong desire to improve, would experience high level of anxiety in learning to speak. To cope with this, they may have used many affective strategies frequently. Unlike the intermediate students, advanced students may not have been very

anxious in learning to speak because they were confident in their proficiency. This is indicated by their mean score, 2.94, which is lower than the intermediate students'. It is very likely that the elementary students were the most anxious but they did not know how to manage their anxiety and had only a weak command of the repertoire of strategies, hence they used affective strategies less. Their mean score for this is the lowest, 2.44.

One pedagogical implication of this interpretation is the need for more intensive strategy training at elementary level, targeting affective factors. However, it seems simple improvement of proficiency is a natural way of increasing confidence. The advanced students reached their state of confidence without particular strategy training in their earlier development. More elementary and intermediate learners should proceed to advanced level, and strategy training will offer them more chances to do so.

5.3.1.3 Does gender significantly affect strategy use?

Male and female students differed from each other in the strategies and strategy groups they favoured. Male students favoured 'finding out about language learning' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least, and female students, 'paying attention' the most and 'representing sounds in memory' the least. Regarding the strategy groups, male students favoured compensation strategies, but female students, metacognitive strategies. Neither favoured memory strategies.

It may be said that 'finding out about language learning' is a strategy that implies, among other things, 'dynamicity' in the sense that users of this strategy show initiative and actively search for information useful for their learning. In contrast, 'paying attention' implies a characteristic which is 'static' in the sense that users of this strategy are passive, subservient,

and compliant. Consequently, they do not show any initiative. Based on the characteristic of these two strategies, it may not be a surprise that Indonesian male students favoured 'finding out about language learning' and their female counterparts' favoured 'paying attention'. The Indonesian tradition, in particular of Javanese, values males more than females. Such a tradition requires males to play a leading role in every walk of life, a role requiring dynamicity, activeness, and power. On the other hand, the tradition requires females to be passive and compliant. This tradition has perhaps influenced the students' strategy use.

Statistically, gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .022$), but on a larger scale, it did not significantly affect the students' overall strategy use ($p = .063$). This finding parallels a finding from a study by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) who demonstrate that significant differences between male and female students lay only in the use of affective strategies. In discussing this particular finding of theirs, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) argue that women tend to build relationships and use social network with greater consistency than men. Consequently, the use of affective strategies indicating the use of emotional support systems in the context of language learning is not unexpected. This could be true for the Indonesian context. In the present study, the use of affective strategies among female students is indicated by a higher mean score, 3.19, than that among male students, i.e. 2.85. Additionally, female Indonesians who are stereotypically viewed as being more emotional than their male counterparts might have contributed to the higher use of affective strategies among them.

As regards the finding that shows no statistically significant relationship between the students' overall strategy use and gender, arguably the relationship between the two variables is positive. The reason is that the p value, .063, is only slightly above the significance value

chosen for this study, .05. If the significance value had been set at .10, which is fully acceptable in social science research, the result would have been significant. One social factor of the learning environment may be responsible for this relationship. Referring to Kobayashi (2002) who demonstrates the influence of social elements towards English learning attitude of students in Japan, one may see a similar phenomenon in this study. Like Japanese female students, Indonesian female students demonstrated superior language learning strategy use over male students. As Kobayashi (2002) points out, the feminization of English is one of the reasons why Japanese female students' attitude towards English is more positive than that of their male counterparts.

5.3.2 How do students use L2 speaking strategies?

This section represents discussion of findings on the ways students used strategies. It views the findings in the light of studies that only indirectly deal with such ways, and it also discusses new ways uncovered in this study by pointing out their key information.

Qualitative findings show students using strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, and persistently. Concerning conscious use of strategies, the students used strategies with clear awareness of what they were doing, as indicated by, among other things, their ability to identify the strategies they used. This is an interesting finding given the students received only occasional, inexplicit strategy training (see subsection 1.2.2.2 in Chapter 1). Such a finding parallels one of the ways students used strategies, which was indirectly dealt with by Zhang and Goh (2006) in a study of strategy knowledge and perceived strategy use in the Singaporean context. In addition, this finding supports conscious use of strategies as implied in a claim made by Lee and Oxford (2008, p. 8), stating that strategies could help Korean

students who participated in their study to learn English more efficiently “if they knew and employed such strategies consciously.”

With regard to confident use of strategies, the students used strategies with high frequency, this being one of the key components of confidence (see subsection 4.3.1.2 in Chapter 4).

Although the students practically received only little guidance from their teachers through the occasional, inexplicit strategy training, they exhibited this confidence in their strategy use. It is perhaps the strategy use outcome they benefited from that caused them to practise the strategies with high frequency. This finding supports confidence as one of the dimensions in the ways students use strategies indicated by Zhang and Goh (2006) in their strategy study with Singaporean students.

In the present study, all students were shown to use strategies consciously. However, if they were conscious, they were not all confident, i.e. some students indicated confidence in using strategies but others did not. Reasons for the lack of confidence on the part of some students are not clear, as there was no direct question on this in the qualitative phase of the study.

When the students did not allude to confidence in their strategy throughout their diaries or interviews, it did not necessarily mean that they were not confident strategy users. It may simply not have occurred to them to indicate it.

As regards effortful and persistent use of strategies, both are the ways students used strategies uncovered in this study, which had not come to light in any previous studies. Effortful use of strategies involves putting in extra effort before or during the process of exercising them.

Some students in this study indicated this behaviour, and among them, gender and proficiency levels did not seem to be influencing factors.

One interesting aspect of effortful use of strategies, as distinct from that of conscious and confident use of strategies discussed earlier, is that it requires ‘work’. Quotations requested below from sub-subsection 4.3.1.3 in Chapter 4 will help show more clearly how the strategy makes the students work:

To me, it depends on me. If I want to be fluent in speaking English, I should actively initiate English conversations with other students. Otherwise, it will never happen because it is hard to wait for them to initiate the conversations in English (Iv-Ana-30/10/09-English, turn 248).

I have to be able to create a situation that other students like. ... I try to initiate with ... (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turn 198)

I sing English songs. ... because what is said by the singers is sometimes different from what I hear and say. ... I usually go to an internet café to download the lyrics. Then, I memorize them (Iv-Ina-05/11/09-English, turns 10-22).

While listening to the songs, I try to repeat, to say what I hear. ... I normally go to an internet café to browse the lyrics of the songs. It is useful (Iv-Sani-09/11/09-English, turns 12 and 128).

I sing English songs at my boarding house or anywhere else by listening to the music of the songs using my mobile phone. ... I always seek the lyrics of those songs by downloading them from the internet. When singing a song, I imitate the way the singer sings the words. Then, I memorize the song (Di-Rani-English, week 2).

I watch English movies a lot. ... I have just downloaded those movies from the internet. Therefore, they have not yet come with Indonesian subtitles. I have their English scripts, though, so I hope the movies still can stimulate me ... (Di-Santo-English, week 2).

The first two quotations show that Ana and Adi did some work to exercise the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’. Ana actively initiated English conversations, and Adi created situations conducive to English conversational practice. Additionally, he initiated conversations in English. The second last quotations show that Ina, Sani, Rani, and Santo also did some work to practise the strategy ‘repeating’. Ina, Sani, and Rani went to an internet cafe, browsed song lyrics, downloaded them, memorised them, sang the songs, and imitated

the singers. Santo, likewise, had to make an active effort, spending time on downloading the movies.

The effort, for most students in the study, extended to the area beyond physical activities.

They had to think and decide what to do to replace practice of certain strategies that were hard for them to use. The strategy ‘repeating’, for instance, would normally be done by repeating the words of real native speakers of English, but such people were rare in Malang, so the students looked for native-English singers and actors on the internet. Though the models were not ‘real’, the students pursued them enthusiastically. Students based in Bali, where native speakers of English are everywhere, would not need to exercise such a strategy in the same way as students in Malang do.

Persistent use of strategies, which involves exercising and wanting to continue exercising them, although students experienced some discomfort, disappointment, or face threat in the process, shares something in common with effortful use of strategies. It also requires ‘work’.

Quotations from sub-subsection 4.3.1.4 in Chapter 4, requoted below, illustrate what the strategy demands:

What I want to do is cooperate with all my classmates, but when I ask Yono or Gimin, for instance, to work together with me, they simply laugh. So, what can I do? They do not want it. I cannot force them. Especially with Sablah, what makes me annoyed is that she gets bored when I practise speaking with her. She is very good at English but I still cannot speak. Therefore, she gets bored very easily speaking with me (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 321-323).

Yes, his way of speaking ..., since the way the native speaker of English speaks ..., his tongue seems to be ..., what should I say, I sometimes understood but I sometimes was also lost. When I did not understand him, my brother told me what the native speaker said. [Interviewer: When you did not understand, why didn’t you ask the native speaker of English directly?] I was embarrassed in front of my elder brother (Iv-Budi-04/11/09-English, turns 116-120).

The first quotation shows that Tuti persisted with ‘cooperating with peers’ despite the frustration. Budi also persisted with the strategy ‘practising naturalistically’ although it was face-threatening. These students’ persistence caused them to work quite hard. Tuti kept persuading her peers to practise speaking with her, and Budi persisted in practising speaking with a native speaker of English in his elder brother’s presence.

Data analysis reveals that one student, Adi, claimed to use strategies creatively. Although it cannot be claimed as a trend or ‘finding’ in the study, Adi’s use of the strategy is worth remarking on. Creative use of strategies was defined as involving ingenuity before or during the use of the strategy. Adi used his ingenuity to enable him exercise ‘practising naturalistically’ as quoted in subsection 4.3.1 in Chapter 4 and requoted below:

After sunset prayer, I interact with my friends living overseas using the ‘voice chat’ facility. To enable me to chat with them using the internet and to avoid the cost, I use the wireless facility owned by the university. Speaking with my native-English-speaking friends enables me to practise with English sounds and accents first hand (Di-Adi-English, week 1).

I have been seeking other English-speaking partners using Yahoo Messenger with the ‘voice chat’ facility that enables me to have oral interaction (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turn 46).

To tackle the obstacles hindering his use of ‘practising naturalistically’ by chatting with native speakers of English or foreigners using the internet, Adi exercised his initiative. Normally, he would have had to spend a large amount of money for internet access, but this is money he did not have. His clever solution was to use the free chat-room provided by Yahoo Messenger that he accessed through the free wireless internet facility provided by the university.

Readers coming from developed countries may not be able to see where the creativity lies in the above-quoted situation. Those who have experienced the difficulty of accessing internet in Indonesia, however, will instantly appreciate the creativity in Adi’s action. The internet is still

not widely or easily accessible despite its rapidly increasing function as an everyday need. People still have to go to an internet café because setting up a personal modem or broadband is costly. Although internet cafés are available, to reach those cafés people still have to spend money on public transport if they do not want to walk in temperature of over 30 degrees with high humidity.

With reference to research that indirectly deals with the ways students use strategies and to statements or claims made by theorists on the subject, as reviewed in sub-subsection 2.5.1.3.4 in Chapter 2, this study gives evidence that students used strategies consciously and confidently. Regarding the dimension of frequency, whether or not the students used strategies frequently is not considered as an appropriate answer to the qualitative question of how students used strategies. Thus frequent use of strategies is not claimed as a separate ‘finding’ that parallels the ‘conscious’, ‘confident’, ‘effortful’, and ‘persistent’ use of strategies in this study. However, it is addressed as one of the key components of ‘confidence’. It is also implied in the interpretation of the quantitative finding on the ‘medium’ level of strategy use, suggesting that the students did not use strategies weakly, the term used by Zhang and Goh (2006); and they did not use strategies frequently, either, the term used in the work of Green and Oxford (1995), Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), Lee and Oxford (2008), Riazi (2007), and Zhang and Goh (2006).

Concerning the dimensions of efficiency (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007), effectiveness (Cohen, 1998), appropriateness (Vann and Abraham, 1990), systematicity (Vann and Abraham, 1990), desperation (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011), and randomness (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011), this study does not find that the students used

strategies in these ways. Reasons for this are not clear, but it may have to do with characteristics of data collection instruments or context-specific issues.

In summary, this study confirms students' conscious and confident use of strategies as also shown in earlier strategy studies. In addition, it gives evidence of effortful and persistent use of strategies, these being so far unacknowledged in language learning strategy research, and thus a contribution to it. Interestingly, these two ways, distinct from the first two, are characterised by the sense in which they make the students 'work', take deliberate action. The reasons why the students used strategies in these ways are discussed in the section that follows.

5.3.3 Why do students use L2 speaking strategies in specific ways?

This subsection provides a discussion of findings on the reasons why students used strategies in specific ways.

This study confirms the usefulness of strategies as the reason why students used strategies consciously and confidently. This finding supports Zhang and Goh (2006) who, in a study on strategy knowledge and perceived strategy use among Singaporean students, demonstrate that, despite the awareness of the usefulness of strategies, students in their study did not use all the 32 of 40 strategies perceived as useful frequently. Instead, they only used 13 frequently. For this reason, according to Zhang and Goh (2006), they were not confident and conscious strategy users.

In addition to confirming the usefulness of strategies, this study offers another reason why students use strategies in specific way, which has not yet been disclosed by other strategy

studies, i.e. pleasure in using strategies. The stereotypical how and why relationship for the ways students used strategies with pleasure in using them is that students used them consciously, confidently, or effortfully. However, pleasure never became the reason why they used strategies persistently because, naturally, there is a conflicting semantic component between the two concepts. As has been stated earlier, pleasure contains the semantic component of enjoyment or fun, which, in Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory (Goddard, 2008; Wierzbicka, 1996), indicates ‘something is good; I feel good when I do this’. In contrast, ‘persistence’, in this study, reveals discomfort, disappointment, and threat, which, in NSM, indicates ‘something is bad; I don’t feel good when I do this’. This conflicting semantic component between these two concepts causes them not to be compatible to each other.

When students persisted with a strategy, they did so even though they might have experienced some discomfort, disappointment, or face threat in the process. A quotation from sub-subsection 4.3.1.4 in Chapter 4, requoted below, shows that Tuti persisted with the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’ despite some disappointment and discomfort:

What I want to do is cooperate with all my classmates, but when I ask Yono or Gimin, for instance, to work together with me, they simply laugh. So, what can I do? They do not want it. I cannot force them. Especially with Sablah, what makes me annoyed is that she gets bored when I practise speaking with her. She is very good at English but I still cannot speak. Therefore, she gets bored very easily speaking with me (Iv-Tuti-30/10/09-English, turns 321-323).

The semantic component ‘something is bad; I don’t feel good when I do this’ can be explained more clearly with reference to the above quotation. When Tuti employed the strategy ‘cooperating with peers’, by practising English conversation with peers, she experienced ‘something is bad’, i.e. frustration, disappointment, and discomfort, and she

naturally felt bad. She did not feel any pleasure in exercising such a strategy, 'I don't feel good when I do this'. Yet she wanted to continue doing it, not for pleasure but for the ultimate benefit to her speaking proficiency.

In contrast, the compatibility of 'pleasure' and 'effortful' use of strategies is high. Both concepts have the semantic component 'something is good; I feel good when I do this'. Therefore, pleasure can become the reason for effortful use of strategies, although there is a possibility for this not being the sole reason. Such a semantic compatibility can be clearly illustrated in a quotation from sub-subsection 4.3.1.3 in Chapter 4:

I sing English songs. ... because what is said by the singers is sometimes different from what I hear and say. ... I usually go to an internet café to download the lyrics. Then, I memorize them (Iv-Ina-05/11/09-English, turns 10-22).

Ina put in extra effort to use the strategy 'repeating' by imitating native speakers through songs, done by singing, an activity which is naturally pleasurable. She took a series of deliberate steps, including going to an internet café, browsing song lyrics, downloading them, and working on them. She was happy putting in such extra effort because, it may be said, 'something is good; I feel good when I do this'. Since this activity was associated with exercising a strategy, 'repeating', it was clear that the effortful use of the strategy was undertaken because it resulted in pleasure.

Conscious and confident use of strategies is also compatible with the concept of pleasure because it reveals no conflicting semantic component. Being aware of doing something, which is the key component of conscious use of strategies, does not feel bad. Doing something in a high frequency, which is the key feature of confident use of strategies, does not feel bad, either. Therefore, being aware of using certain strategies for pleasure, and using

certain strategies repeatedly for the same reason are fully acceptable. Quotations from subsection 4.3.2.2 in Chapter 4 illustrate this relationship.

Acting in a drama performance leads me to have a target, namely to imitate certain accent or to master certain speaking style. I have performed one of Shakespeare's works. The second one was the one entitled *Ghost Buster's Sixth Sense*. I enjoy the challenge of acting in the dramas, I mean to shift roles. Such activity requires me to learn how to speak in certain styles. ... That is interesting and challenging (Iv-Adi-30/10/09-English, turns 144-158).

Concerning playing computer games, I do it almost every day because I really love three things: games, manga [a Japanese form of comic strip], and animation. Because of these three things, I decided to choose English as my study major. I believe that there is a close relationship between English and those three things. After I finish studying, I usually draw manga or play computer games. When I feel frustrated while playing a computer game, I like saying some nonsense things in English. I also like saying the game characters' lines out of my memory. That is very enjoyable (Di-Bima-English, week 1).

Adi, in the first quotation, enjoyed the challenge of shifting roles for drama performance, and he thus experienced 'something is good; I feel good when I do this'. Because of this pleasure, he, with full awareness, exercised the strategy 'practising naturalistically' by acting in English drama performances. Bima, in the second quotation, gained pleasure from imitating characters' lines from computer games. He experienced 'something is good; I feel good when I do this'. For this, he frequently used the strategy 'repeating' by imitating native speakers through computer games.

Lee and Oxford (2008) point out that some students participating in their study used strategies frequently due to their belief in the importance of English, learning self-image, and awareness of the many available strategies. In other words, students who valued English, who regarded their English proficiency as high, and who were aware of the large range of strategies, used such strategies more frequently than those who did not exhibit those three characteristics. The present study does not uncover these particular three reasons. This is because the study

investigated the motives for using strategies in specific ways and did not make an attempt to assign reasons for their use, as Lee and Oxford (2008) did. It gained information purely from the data provided in the interviews and diaries. Lee and Oxford (2008), however, investigated those three reasons as pre-set variables related to the ways students use strategies, and tested them as to whether they genuinely caused frequent use of strategies among their research participants.

To summarise, concerning the reasons why students used strategies in specific ways, this study confirms usefulness of strategy as the reason why students performed strategies consciously or confidently. Additionally, this study demonstrates that pleasure in using strategies was another reason for using strategies in specific ways. Since this latter finding does not seem to appear in other related research, it serves as a contribution of this study to the body of research on language learning strategies. This finding can also be used as the basis for the expansion of the definition of language learning strategies proposed by Oxford (2011b) as quoted in section 2.3 in Chapter 2. Thus, the definition now says: learning strategies are “the learner’s goal-directed actions for improving language proficiency or achievement, completing a task, or making learning more efficient, more effective, easier, and **more pleasurable**” (Oxford, 2011b, p. 167) [bold indicates the expansion]. This study, however, does not uncover belief in the importance of English, English-learning self-image, and awareness of strategies as reasons why students use strategies in specific ways.

5.3.4 How do the qualitative findings explain L2 speaking strategies revealed in the quantitative phase?

To facilitate the discussion about how the qualitative findings explain the L2 speaking strategies revealed in the quantitative part, it is worth briefly summarizing the major

qualitative findings first. As presented in Chapter 4, this study generated three major groups of qualitative results: what L2 speaking strategies students used, how they used the strategies, and why they used them in specific ways. The findings on how students used the strategies and why they used them in specific way have been discussed in subsections 5.3.2 and 5.3.3, respectively. However, attention has not yet been given to the qualitative findings on what strategies students used. Then the discussion passes to the way these three groups of qualitative results explain the quantitative results.

As elaborated in subsection 4.2.1 and section 4.4 in Chapter 4, the qualitative data, collected by means of speaking learning diaries and individual interviews, revealed the use of 32 strategies, 29 of which were among the 46 strategies revealed by the quantitative data, and three of which were new strategies. When this finding is compared with its quantitative counterpart, the comparison demonstrates interesting integrated findings. Regarding the variety of the strategies students used, the qualitative results confirmed 29 out of 46 strategies identified in the quantitative phase of the study. Seventeen others were not reported in the qualitative data. A possible reason for this is that in the quantitative data collection phase, students' freedom was absolutely limited by the nature of a questionnaire that contained closed-ended questions, whilst in the qualitative data collection phase students had greater freedom in reflecting the strategies they employed. However, in the qualitative data collection instruments, learning diaries and individual interviews, the students would not necessarily have remembered or expressed all their strategies. A comprehensive account of strategies could thus not be made.

In addition to the confirmation of the 29 strategies, the qualitative results reveal the use of three new strategies, which could not be identified in the quantitative phase. The qualitative

results, in this instance, added to the quantitative results collection, so that fuller understanding of the variety of strategy used by the students was achieved. If the problem had been investigated using the quantitative method alone, it would have been only the 46 strategies that were thought to have been employed by the students. Thus the qualitative method helped extract other strategies that were not revealed by the quantitative method. As the result, more varieties of strategies were located.

At this stage, it is possible to comment on how the qualitative results explain learning strategies as derived from quantitative survey. The qualitative results throw light on the quantitative result through confirmation and addition. Concerning the confirmation, the qualitative results confirmed 29 learning strategies identified through the quantitative method. Regarding the addition, the qualitative results added certain findings on to the quantitative results obtained earlier, i.e. three new strategies were added to the 46 strategies identified through the quantitative methods. Ultimately, the qualitative results extended the quantitative findings to fuller understanding of the strategy use of the target group of students.

5.4 Conclusion

To conclude this chapter, a brief summary seems to be useful. As regards the L2 speaking strategies students used, findings of this study are congruent with those from previous studies. They include what strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least (Całka, 2011; Oh, 1992; Riazi, 2007); significant relationship between L2 proficiency and strategy use (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Liu, 2004; Radwan, 2011; Riazi and Khodadadi, 2007); and significant relationship between certain strategy group and speaking proficiency and gender (Cabaysa and Baetiong, 2010; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Li, 2007). This study does not support preconceptions about the use of memory strategies as the most favoured group among

Asian EFL students. Additionally, this study recommends an expansion of Oxford's (1990) taxonomy by adding an extra compensation strategy, 'using a bilingual dictionary', and two affective strategies: 'seeking and using a peer's support' and 'using loud voice'.

Concerning the ways students used strategies, this study confirms conscious and confident use of strategies (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007; Zhang and Goh, 2006), in addition to contributing effortful and persistent use of strategies. This study, however, does not uncover efficient use of strategies (Lee and Oxford, 2008; Riazi, 2007), effective use (Cohen, 1998), appropriate use (Vann and Abraham, 1990), systematic use (Vann and Abraham, 1990), desperate use (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011), and random use (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 2011). Regarding the reasons why students used strategies in specific ways, this study confirms the usefulness of strategies (Zhang and Goh, 2006) in addition to contributing pleasure in using strategies to the body of research on learning strategies. However, this study does not uncover belief in the importance of English, English-learning self-image, and awareness of strategies (Lee and Oxford, 2008) as reasons why students used strategies in specific ways. The next chapter serves as the conclusion of this study.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter serves as the conclusion of the study. Following this introductory section is a summary of the purpose and key methodological framework of this study (6.2). The following section (6.3) provides a summary of the key findings, and in section 6.4, the implications of the study are drawn by pointing out contributions it offers to theory and practice on language learning strategy use. Limitations of this study, which lead to recommendations for future research, are the focus of section 6.5.

6.2 Summary of the purpose and methodology of the study

The primary purpose of this study was to gain an overall picture of L2 speaking strategies employed by Indonesian EFL English majors at GUM, and to get a comprehensive understanding of the students' strategy use, how they used the strategies and why they used them in specific ways. The secondary purpose was to get a broad idea of the relationship between the strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, as well as gender.

To achieve the above purposes, a mixed method approach was adopted and with it the explanatory design. Sixty-five Indonesian EFL English majors at GUM took part in the study, representing approximately 60% of all students enrolled in DELL. Following the sequential order of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis prescribed by the explanatory design, the quantitative data were collected first, followed by the qualitative data. Following the design, results from the quantitative and qualitative procedures were assessed in combination.

To collect the quantitative data, a questionnaire (N = 65), proficiency test (N = 65), and documents recording the students' speaking grades obtained in GUM (N = 65) were assembled. Then, to collect the qualitative data 20 representatives were selected for diary writing (N = 20, 4 each) and interviewing (N = 20). The study applied descriptive and inferential statistical analysis to make sense of the quantitative data. The descriptive statistics helped investigate problems posed in the first research question, i.e. what L2 speaking strategies students used, and the first sub-question of the first research question, i.e. what strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least. Inferential statistics were helpful in investigating research problems posed in the second and third sub-questions of the first research question, i.e. whether L2 and speaking proficiency significantly affected strategy use and whether gender significantly affected strategy use, respectively. The meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996) was applied to analyse the qualitative data in an effort to answer the second and third research questions, i.e. how students used L2 speaking strategies and why they used them in specific ways. To analyse the integrated quantitative and qualitative data of the entire mixed method study, with a view to answering the fourth research question, it was a matter of using procedures for integrating results obtained in both quantitative and qualitative phases.

As a result of carefully following this methodological framework, three groups of key results emerged: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods.

6.3 Summary of key findings

The three groups of findings were generated according to the phases of the study: the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method findings. The details of the findings obtained in each phase are set out in Chapter 4. For the purpose of this summary, only the final findings

of the mixed method study as a whole appear here, these findings arising from the integration of the quantitative and qualitative results.

With reference to the first research question, what strategies students use, this study demonstrated the use of strategies at a total number of 49, three of which were new, purely generated from the qualitative data of this study. These could be claimed as a contribution to the theories on language learning strategies (see section 6.4). Referring to the first sub-question of the first research question, i.e. what strategy and strategy group students favoured the most and least, students favoured 'paying attention' the most and 'writing a language learning diary' the least. Students also favoured the metacognitive strategy group the most and the memory strategy group as the least.

As regards the second sub-question, whether L2 and speaking proficiency significantly affects strategy use, this study demonstrated that advanced, intermediate, and elementary students differed from one another in the strategies as well as strategy groups they favoured the most and least. Statistically, L2 proficiency significantly affected the students' overall strategy use ($p = .045$), with the difference lying between elementary and intermediate ($p = .013$). Speaking proficiency significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .035$), and the difference occurred between elementary and intermediate ($p = .011$).

Concerning the third sub-question, whether gender significantly affects strategy use, this study demonstrated that male and female students differed from each other in the strategies and strategy groups they favoured the most and least. Statistically, gender significantly affected the use of affective strategies only ($p = .022$).

With reference to the second and third research questions, i.e. how students use L2 speaking strategies and why they use them in specific ways respectively, this study found that students used strategies consciously, confidently, effortfully, or persistently. The reasons why they used the strategies in such specific ways were the usefulness of the strategies or the pleasure in using them. The finding of the effortful and persistent use of strategies, as well as pleasure in using the strategies arose purely from the data of this study and was apparently not a feature of any other study. This finding may thus be claimed as another contribution of the study to theories of language learning strategies. For the fourth research question, how the qualitative results explain L2 speaking strategies obtained in the quantitative phase, this study demonstrated that the qualitative results threw light on the quantitative results in the form of confirmation and addition.

Linking these key findings to the primary motivation to carry out this study (see sub-subsection 1.2.2.2 in Chapter 1), it may be said that I, the researcher, have successfully fulfilled my purpose, from the perspectives of both roles I played: as an ‘insider’ and as an investigator. The research findings have provided an overall view of L2 speaking strategies employed by my students at GUM, and a deeper understanding of strategy use, in terms of how they used the strategies and why they used them in specific ways. The research findings have also offered another overall view of the relationship between the strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender.

The research findings have also shown the great significance of learning strategies in SLA processes (see Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1 for the interrelated variables in SLA provided by Ellis, 1994). They indicate the interrelation between strategies and the variable of individual learner differences, as well as between strategies and the variable of L2 learning outcomes. The

interrelation between strategies and the variable of individual learner differences appears in the research findings on strategy use and gender, whilst the interrelation between strategies and the variable of language learning outcomes is shown in the research findings on strategy use and L2 proficiency, as well as strategy use and speaking proficiency. Most importantly, the research findings underline the importance of L2 speaking strategies, closely linked to the individual learner differences and language learning outcomes, in the process of second language learning, as demonstrated by the Indonesian EFL tertiary students at GUM.

The research findings summarized in this section raise implications for the theory of language learning strategies and for practice involving language learning strategies in the language learning and teaching processes. These research implications are the focus of discussion of the next section.

6.4 Theoretical and practical implications of the study

This section sets out the research implications by drawing out the ultimate significance of the study. Such significance is indicated by contributions this study offers to theory and practice, not only to GUM but also a larger population beyond it.

Theory

This study contributes to the development of theories on language learning strategies in three ways. First, as stressed in the previous section, this study found three new strategies that had not yet been parts of Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, the taxonomy chosen as one of the theoretical foundations in this study (see subsection 1.6.1 in Chapter 1). The three strategies arose from the qualitative data collected by means of interviews.

The first new strategy belongs to the compensation strategy group which can be used to overcome limitations in speaking English, especially when students do not know English word(s) in the midst of their English conversations. Here it is labelled 'using a bilingual dictionary'. The 'bilingual' component in this new strategy is essential, no matter whether it is electronic or printed. This issue needs to be made clear because dictionary use has been addressed in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy as the representation of 'using resources for receiving and sending messages', belonging to the metacognitive strategy group. However, because the use of bilingual dictionary in this study had its own characteristics and was used for different purposes, it can serve as a separate, new strategy.

This new compensation strategy, as one of the findings of this study, contributes to the development of theory in the sense that it expands the taxonomy of compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990). It should be added as another member of the strategy set which Oxford calls 'overcoming limitations in speaking', along with eight other strategies previously listed in the taxonomy: 'switching to the mother tongue', 'getting help', 'using mime or gesture', 'avoiding communication partially or totally', 'selecting the topic', 'adjusting and approximating the message', 'coining words', and 'using a circumlocution or synonym'.

The other two new strategies belong to the affective strategy group. These are called 'seeking and using a peer's support' and 'using loud voice'. Students participating in this study used these strategies to manage their anxiety before or while they speak English. Therefore, these strategies should be added to Oxford's (1990) strategy set 'lowering your anxiety', along with three other strategies already listed in the taxonomy: 'using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation', 'using music', and 'using laughter'. Like the above-mentioned

strategy ‘using a bilingual dictionary’, these two new affective strategies also contribute to the development of theory and expand the taxonomy.

Second, this study contributes to theories on language learning strategies regarding knowledge of the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency, speaking proficiency, and gender. With reference to L2 and speaking proficiency, it contributes to previous information on the significant relationship between L2 and speaking proficiency, and strategies. In the case of gender, this study definitely adds to understanding of female students’ strategy use surpassing male students’. In these ways the study gives worthwhile support to the findings of other studies and helps strengthen the reliability of the findings of those studies.

Third, this study contributes to theories on language learning strategies regarding knowledge of the ways students use L2 speaking strategies and why they use them in specific ways. As pointed out earlier, adding to information on conscious and confident use of strategies presented by other strategy studies, this study found two further ways: effortful and persistent use of strategies. Then, in terms of the reasons why students use strategies in specific ways, this study found another reason, i.e. pleasure in using the strategies. This finding emphasizes the importance of the affective side of language learning. All these findings would enrich the theories in the field.

Practice

With respect to practice, research implications of this study would be for teachers, curriculum developers, and students. The researcher would take care to place the research in the hands of colleagues. For teachers, this study contributes knowledge of the use of L2 speaking strategies

among students at DELL. This knowledge would raise their awareness of the need to provide organised, well informed strategy training that assists students to use the strategies for their maximum learning outcomes. The awareness would also lead teachers who have insufficient knowledge of language learning strategies to gain the relevant knowledge and skills through self-study and professional development courses that GUM should initiate.

For curriculum developers at GUM, this study contributes a basis for developing a curriculum that accommodates the need for the strategy training mentioned above. These senior teachers could either provide the training as a separate strand within the *sarjana* degree course, or design specific syllabi that enable teachers to integrate strategy training into teaching materials that they prepare.

For students themselves, this study contributes an opportunity for strategy use development, in the sense that as the implications for teachers and curriculum developers are put into practice, students will benefit from a proper program of strategy training. The study shows that the students already use strategies autonomously; strategy training will give them direction and greatly enhance their awareness of strategy use and the effectiveness of their strategy use.

It is undeniably true that the implications of this study apply not only to teachers, curriculum developers, and students at GUM but also to those at other universities in Indonesia, provided that those universities share common features with GUM. There are many. Therefore, for these institutions, the practical implications of this study suit them too, and hence they could benefit from this study. Beyond the Indonesian context, the research implications are also

applicable wherever the educational regime shares characteristics with those in Indonesia, and particularly the institutions that do not include strategy training in their curriculum.

Practical implications, both for GUM and a larger population beyond it in the Indonesian context, offer benefits for Indonesia. English language education may benefit through the recognition that the use of language learning strategies can improve English language pedagogy in Indonesia, ultimately helping teachers, curriculum developers, and students. Better pedagogy might lead to higher English proficiency, thus strengthening the role of English as a global language in the Indonesian context (see sub-subsection 1.2.2.1 in Chapter 1 for the status and role of English in Indonesia).

These research implications indicate the significance and contributions of the study that I could address only after the long process of the research, starting from designing the study up to the drawing of its conclusions. Along the research process, in hindsight, unavoidable limitations occurred at some stages of the research process. For this study, I noted limitations on the stage of the data collection, which I explain more in the next section.

6.5 Research limitations and recommendations

Two limitations are prominent. First, the proficiency test used to collect the quantitative data was not a 'real' TOEFL test because there was no fund to do so and if so, it would have been too demanding for the students (see sub-subsection 3.5.1.2 for details of the test). Instead, the study implemented a TOEFL Practice Test that had very unlikely been seen by the students. Although this test is not likely to challenge the validity of the data and results of the data analysis, it would still be more advisable to use a 'real' test, with all of its rigorous standards, for higher validity of data and findings.

Second, since the TOEFL Practice Test did not provide a measurement of students' speaking proficiency as the consequence of there being no examiner for the spoken section of the test in the EFL context, students' speaking grades achieved at GUM were adopted as the parameter. Remembering that the students' speaking grades were obtained at different times and given by different assessors, the degree of the homogeneity of the grades was relatively low. It would certainly have been better if, for example, TSE or IELTS speaking scores could have been obtained. This would be recommended for future research of this kind.

With the aid of the 'real' TOEFL or IELTS test containing a speaking test as its data collection instrument, future research is recommended to replicate this study with a larger number of participants, students studying English at various universities in the Indonesian context. It is also recommended that future research focus its investigation on strategy use for listening, reading, or writing skills. It can also probe the strategies for L2 in general.

Another recommendation relates to the research implications for curriculum developers at GUM. As mentioned in section 6.4, to incorporate strategy training into the curriculum, curriculum developers could either set up one or more subjects devoted to the training or design syllabi that allow an integration of training into teaching materials. If setting up subjects is the choice, and the removal of any subjects from the current curriculum must be avoided to comply with the government regulation, then the credit value of some compulsory subjects not directly related to the discipline could be reduced. Alternatively, the total number of credit points for elective subjects could be reduced. Currently, students are required to take a minimum of eight and a maximum of 20 credit points for such subjects. If the minimum number is changed to six, two credit points could be allocated for strategy training. This arrangement would not affect the total amount of credit value students have to meet before

graduating, and at the same time, they would benefit from strategy training. If integrating strategy training into teaching materials is the choice, a specific policy would be needed to regulate their design. Seminars and workshops should also be conducted to provide a medium for disseminating knowledge and ideas on preparing and implementing strategy training in this way.

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APPENDICES 1-13

Appendix 1: Competency-based curriculum of the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters, Gajayana University of Malang

Applicable from the Academic Year of 2007/2008

Item	Subject		Semester	Credit	Prerequisite
	Code	Name			
A. PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT					
1	AUU111	Civic	1	3	
2	AUU112	Islam	1	3	
	AUU113	Christianity	1	3	
	AUU114	Catholicism	1	3	
	AUU115	Hinduism	1	3	
	AUU116	Buddhism	1	3	
3	SIC121	Bahasa Indonesia I	2	2	
4	SIC131	Bahasa Indonesia II	3	2	SIC121
Number of credits				10	
B. DISCIPLINE AND SKILLS MASTERY					
1	SIC241	Philosophy of science	4	2	
2	SIP251	Introduction to research methodology	5	2	
3	SIB261	Integrated course I	1	4	
4	SIB223	Integrated course II	2	4	SIB261
5	SIB217	Structure of English I	1	4	
6	SIB224	Structure of English II	2	4	SIB217
7	SIB234	Structure of English III	3	2	SIB217-SIB224
8	SIB242	Structure of English IV	4	2	SIB217-SIB234
9	SIB218	Speaking I	1	4	
10	SIB225	Speaking II	2	4	SIB218
11	SIB235	Speaking III	3	2	SIB218-SIB225
12	SIB243	Speaking IV	4	2	SIB218-SIB235
13	SIB219	Listening I	1	2	
14	SIB226	Listening II	2	2	SIB219
15	SIB236	Listening III	3	2	SIB219-SIB226
16	SIB244	Listening IV	4	2	SIB219-SIB236
17	SIB2110	Reading I	1	2	
18	SIB227	Reading II	2	2	SIB2110
19	SIB237	Reading III	3	2	SIB2110-SIB227
20	SIB245	Reading IV	4	2	SIB2110-SIB237
21	SIB228	Writing I	2	4	
22	SIB238	Writing II	3	4	SIB228
23	SIB246	Writing III	4	2	SIB228-SIB238
24	SIB252	Writing IV	5	2	SIB228-SIB246
25	SIL239	Introduction to linguistics	3	2	
26	SIK2410	Introduction to literature	4	2	
Number of credits				68	
C. PROFESSIONAL EXPERTISE					
1	SIP367	Linguistic research	6	2	SIP251

2	SIP368	Literary research	6	2	SIP251
3	SIL347	Phonology	4	2	SIL239
4	SIL353	Morphology	5	2	SIL239, SIL247
5	SIL361	Syntax	6	2	SIL239, SIL247, SIL353
6	SIL371	Semantics	7	2	SIL239, SIL247, SIL353, SIL361
7	SIK355	Poetry	5	2	SIK2410
8	SIK356	Prose	5	2	SIK2410
9	SIK357	Drama	5	2	SIK2410
10	SIM373	History of England	7	2	
11	SIM364	History of English language**	6	2	
12	SIM365	History of English literature**	6	2	
13	SIB358	Translation I	5	2	SIB228
14	SIB362	Translation II	6	2	SIB228, SIB358
15	SIB363	Business English I	6	2	SIB228, SIB238
16	SIB372	Business English II	7	2	SIB363
17	SIO359	Practical secretary*	5	2	
18	SIO3510	Introduction to computer*	5	2	
19	SIO376	Language teaching methodology*	7	2	
20	SIB369	English for tourism and hotels*	6	2	
21	SIB3610	English for banking*	6	2	
22	SIN3611	Japanese I*	6	4	
23	SIN377	Japanese II*	7	4	SIN3611
24	SIN3612	French I*	6	4	
25	SIN378	French II*	7	4	SIN3612
Number of credits				58	
D. PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIOUR					
1	SIC433	History of Indonesian culture	3	2	
2	SIC4311	History of modern thoughts	3	2	
3	SIL448	Sociolinguistics	4	2	
4	SIM4310	English cultural background I	3	2	
5	SIM449	English cultural background II	4	2	
6	SIM454	English cultural background III	5	2	
7	SIM466	English cultural background IV*	5	2	
8	SIP474	Linguistic seminar	7	2	SIP251, SIP367
9	SIP475	Literary seminar	7	2	SIP251, SIP368
10	SIP482	Thesis	7	6	SIP474, SIP482
Number of credits				24	
E. SOCIAL INTERACTION					
1	SIC522	Indonesian people and culture I	2	2	
2	SIC532	Indonesian people and culture II	3	2	SIC522
3	SIC5411	Indonesian society and arts	4	2	
4	AUU581	Society service	8	3	
Number of credits				9	
Total number of subjects				69	
Total number of credits				169	

*: elective subject, **: compulsory subject students choose only one



L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

Research Questionnaire

Directions:

Part I

This part contains questions about some of your personal information relevant to this study. The information collected from this part will be used purely for data analysis purposes. It will not appear in the report of the results of the study.

Part II

This part contains statements about learning English speaking skills, some of which are adapted from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) designed by Oxford (1990). Please read each statement and show your response by circling 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

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

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is *very rarely* true of 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. If you have any questions, let the researcher know immediately.

Questionnaire:

Part I:

1. What is your Student Identification Number?
2. What is your gender? Female/Male (please circle one).

Part II:

Item	Statement	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	1	2	3	4	5
2	I use rhymes to remember new English words	1	2	3	4	5
3	I review English lessons often	1	2	3	4	5
4	I say or write new English words several times	1	2	3	4	5
5	I try to talk like native English speakers	1	2	3	4	5
6	I practise the sounds of English	1	2	3	4	5
7	I use the English words I know in different ways	1	2	3	4	5
8	I start conversations in English	1	2	3	4	5
9	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English	1	2	3	4	5
10	I try to find patterns in English	1	2	3	4	5
11	I try not to translate word-for-word	1	2	3	4	5
12	When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures	1	2	3	4	5
13	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English	1	2	3	4	5
14	If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	1	2	3	4	5
15	When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use an Indonesian expression	1	2	3	4	5
16	When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I ask for help from the person I am addressing	1	2	3	4	5
17	I avoid certain situations or topics during a conversation in English because they are too difficult	1	2	3	4	5
18	I select topics of conversation in English	1	2	3	4	5
19	If I cannot think of English words to say a message, I make the idea simpler	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	1	2	3	4	5

21	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	1	2	3	4	5
22	I repeat silently to myself when someone is speaking English	1	2	3	4	5
23	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	1	2	3	4	5
24	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	1	2	3	4	5
25	I look for people I can talk to in English	1	2	3	4	5
26	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	1	2	3	4	5
27	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	1	2	3	4	5
28	I notice my English mistakes and use the information to help me do better	1	2	3	4	5
29	I think about my progress in learning English	1	2	3	4	5
30	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	1	2	3	4	5
31	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake	1	2	3	4	5
32	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	1	2	3	4	5
33	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	1	2	3	4	5
34	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary	1	2	3	4	5
35	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	1	2	3	4	5
36	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	1	2	3	4	5
37	I practise English with other students	1	2	3	4	5
38	I ask for help from English speakers	1	2	3	4	5
39	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 3: TOEFL Practice Test

Section 1: Listening comprehension (see the DVD inside the back cover of the thesis)

50 questions 40 minutes

In this section of the test, you will have an opportunity to demonstrate your ability to understand conversations and talks in English. There are three parts to this section with special directions for each part. Answer all the questions on the basis of what is stated or implied by the speakers in this test. When you take the actual TOEFL test, you will not be allowed to take notes or write in your test book. Try to work on this Model Test in the same way.

Part A

Directions: In part A, you will hear short conversations between two people. After each conversation, you will hear a question about the conversation. The conversations and question will not be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

1. (A) Car repairs should be done at a garage.
(B) The price was not too high.
(C) The garage took advantage of the woman.
(D) The car had serious problems.

2. (A) Have a party.
(B) Attend the international students' association.
(C) Go to work.
(D) Get some rest.

3. (A) Leave immediately.
(B) Watch the game on TV.
(C) Start to play.
(D) Eat a sandwich.

4. (A) He went to see the foreign student advisor.
(B) He went to Washington.
(C) He wrote to the Passport Office.
(D) He reported it to the Passport Office.

5. (A) It is the policy of the bank.
(B) The man was not helpful at all.
(C) Her account at the bank is in order.
(D) The check should be cashed.

6. (A) Ask Dr. Tyler to clarify the assignment.
(B) Show a preliminary version to Dr. Tyler.
(C) Let her see the first draft before Dr. Tyler sees it.
(D) Talk to some of the other students in Dr. Tyler's class.

7. (A) Dr. Clark is a good teacher.
(B) Statistics is a boring class.
(C) Two semesters of statistics are required.
(D) The students do not like Dr. Clark.
8. (A) He cannot do them.
(B) They are finished.
(C) It will be a difficult job.
(D) They will be ready Saturday afternoon.
9. (A) A concert.
(B) An art museum.
(C) A flower shop.
(D) A restaurant.
10. (A) He is at lunch.
(B) He is at the office.
(C) He is in class.
(D) He is at home.
11. (A) Take the ten o'clock bus.
(B) Come back in five minutes.
(C) Go to New York another day.
(D) Call the airport.
12. (A) A teacher.
(B) A textbook.
(C) An assignment.
(D) A movie.
13. (A) Make corrections on the original.
(B) Make copies.
(C) Deliver the copies to Mr. Brown.
(D) Find the original.
14. (A) She was Sally Harrison's cousin.
(B) She was Sally Harrison's sister.
(C) She was Sally Harrison's friend.
(D) She was Sally Harrison.
15. (A) The desk drawer won't open.
(B) The pen is out of ink.
(C) She cannot find her pen.
(D) She is angry with the man.
16. (A) John is usually late.
(B) John will be there at eight-thirty.
(C) John will not show up.
(D) John is usually on time.

17. (A) She does not agree with the man.
(B) She needs a larger home.
(C) She regrets the cost of their vacation.
(D) She thinks that houses are very expensive.
18. (A) He did not make a presentation.
(B) He got confused during the presentation.
(C) He should have spoken more loudly.
(D) He did a very complete job.
19. (A) He has decided not to mail the invitations.
(B) He wants to get Janet's opinion.
(C) He is waiting for Janet to answer the phone.
(D) He does not want to invite Janet.
20. (A) The baby is asleep.
(B) The baby is very active.
(C) The baby is not staying with the woman.
(D) The baby is just about to start walking.
21. (A) The results of the tests are not available.
(B) The experiment had unexpected results.
(C) He has not completed the experiment yet.
(D) It is taking a lot of time to do the experiment.
22. (A) She does not put much effort in her studies.
(B) She is very likable.
(C) She prefers talking to the woman.
(D) She has a telephone.
23. (A) See the doctor.
(B) Get another job.
(C) Go to the counter.
(D) Buy some medicine.
24. (A) She will try her best.
(B) She has to save her money.
(C) She is still undecided.
(D) She needs an application.
25. (A) She is glad to meet Robert.
(B) She is surprised to hear from Robert.
(C) She does not enjoy talking with Robert.
(D) She was ready to call Robert.
26. (A) The man must stop working.
(B) There is a little more time.
(C) The test is important.
(D) It is time for the test.

27. (A) The woman's roommate took a different class.
(B) The book is very expensive.
(C) The textbook may have been changed.
(D) The course is not offered this semester.
28. (A) Sally may get a bike for Christmas.
(B) Sally already has a bike like that one.
(C) Sally likes riding a bike.
(D) Sally may prefer a different gift.
29. (A) He does not want to give Carol a ride.
(B) He does not have a car.
(C) He cannot hear well.
(D) He does not know Carol.
30. (A) Take a break.
(B) Go to work.
(C) Do the other problems.
(D) Keep trying.

Part B

Directions: In this part of the test, you will hear longer conversations. After each conversation, you will hear several questions. The conversations and questions will not be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen. Remember, you are not allowed to take notes or write on your test pages.

31. (A) Whether to introduce the metric system in the United States.
(B) How the metric system should be introduced in the United States.
(C) Which system is better – the English system or the metric system.
(D) How to convert measurements from the English system to the metric system.
32. (A) Now the weather on radio and TV is reported exclusively in metrics.
(B) Road signs have miles marked on them, but not kilometres.
(C) Both the English system and the metric system are being used in signs, packages and weather reports.
(D) Grocery stores use only metrics for their packaging.
33. (A) He thought that a gradual adoption would be better for everyone.
(B) He thought that only metrics should be used.
(C) He thought that only the English system should be used.
(D) He thought that adults should use both systems, but that children should be taught only the metric system.
34. (A) Unfriendly.
(B) Patronizing.
(C) Uninterested.
(D) Cooperative.

35. (A) To change his travel plans.
(B) To arrange a time to pick up his tickets.
(C) To reserve a hotel room.
(D) To make a plane reservation.
36. (A) The man can save money by staying an extra night.
(B) The man should have called earlier.
(C) She needs the man to come into the office.
(D) She will mail the tickets to the man.
37. (A) Travel on May 19 as planned.
(B) Wait for a cheaper fare.
(C) Stay an extra day in Atlanta.
(D) Return on Sunday.
38. (A) Go back to his hotel.
(B) Pack his suitcase.
(C) Call a different travel agent.
(D) Go to the travel agent's office in the afternoon.

Part C

Directions: In this part of the test, you will hear several short talks. After each talk, you will hear some questions. The talks and questions will not be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

39. (A) Private industry.
(B) Advances in medicine.
(C) Space missions.
(D) Technological developments.
40. (A) Contact lenses.
(B) Cordless tools.
(C) Food packaging.
(D) Ultrasound.
41. (A) To monitor the condition of astronauts in spacecraft.
(B) To evaluate candidates who wanted to join the space program.
(C) To check the health of astronauts when they returned from space.
(D) To test spacecraft and equipment for imperfections.
42. (A) Archaeologists and astronauts were compared.
(B) Astronauts made photographs of the Earth later used by archaeologists.
(C) Archaeologists have used advances in medical technology developed for astronauts.
(D) Space missions and underwater missions are very similar.
43. (A) Transportation on the Pacific Coast.
(B) History of California.
(C) Orientation to San Francisco.

- (D) Specifications of the Golden Gate Bridge.
44. (A) Golden Gate.
(B) San Francisco de Asis Missions.
(C) Military Post Seventy-six.
(D) Yerba Buena.
45. (A) Gold was discovered.
(B) The Transcontinental Railroad was completed.
(C) The Golden Gate Bridge was constructed.
(D) Telegraph communication were established with the East.
46. (A) Eighteen miles.
(B) 938 feet.
(C) One mile.
(D) Between five and six miles.
47. (A) The term “essay.”
(B) Prose writing.
(C) Personal viewpoint.
(D) Brainstorming.
48. (A) The work of Alexander Pope.
(B) The difference between prose and poetry.
(C) The general characteristics of essays.
(D) The reason that the phrase “personal essay” is redundant.
49. (A) It is usually short.
(B) It can be either prose or poetry.
(C) It expresses a personal point of view.
(D) It discusses one topic.
50. (A) They will prepare for a quiz.
(B) They will write their first essay.
(C) They will read works by Pope.
(D) They will review their notes.

Section 2: Structure and written expressions

40 questions 25 minutes

This section is designed to measure your ability to recognize language that is appropriate for standard written English. There are two types of questions in this section, with special directions for each type.

Directions: Questions 1- 15 are incomplete sentences. Beneath each sentence you will see four words or phrases, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen. After you read the directions, begin work on the questions.

1. Neon is said to be inertdoes not react easily with other substances.
(A) because of it
(B) because it
(C) it is because
(D) is because it
2. Nearly every aspect of economic life is affected by
(A) they are seasonal variations
(B) variations are seasonal
(C) that seasonal variations
(D) seasonal variations
3. Microscopes make small things appear larger than
(A) really are
(B) are really
(C) are they really
(D) they really are
4. Social reformer Jane Addamsa prominent role in the formation of the National Progressive party in 1912.
(A) playing
(B) who played
(C) played
(D) to play
5. From birth, nightjar chicks solicit food by walking to the front of an adult bird, reaching up, and
(A) they peck at its bill
(B) peck at its bill
(C) pecking at its bill
(D) at its bill they peck
6., glasses can correct most sight defects in healthy eyes.
(A) When well fitted
(B) Well fitted when
(C) Well fitted if
(D) If well fitted when
7. Jim Thorpe, Pennsylvania, a town in the eastern part of the state, was namedone of the greatest American athletes.
(A) in honour of
(B) the honours
(C) for honoured
(D) to honouring
8. Ball-point pens requirethan fountain pens do.
(A) the thicker the ink
(B) an ink and thicker
(C) a thicker ink
(D) the ink is thicker

9.took office as the first Superintendent of Public Instruction for the territory of New Mexico.
- (A) J. Francisco Chaves, who
 - (B) If J. Francisco Chaves
 - (C) J. Francisco Chaves
 - (D) In that J. Francisco Chaves
10. The city of Montrealover 70 square miles.
- (A) covers
 - (B) that covers
 - (C) covering
 - (D) is covered
11.he has created striking stage settings for the Martha Graham dance company, artist Isamu Noguchi is more famous for his sculpture.
- (A) But not
 - (B) Nevertheless
 - (C) In spite of
 - (D) Although
12. A logarithm isin algebra as an exponent.
- (A) known what
 - (B) known what it is
 - (C) what is known
 - (D) what it is known
13. New York’s Statue of Liberty was designed to be a beacon for ships and a monument
- (A) the two
 - (B) in addition to
 - (C) as well
 - (D) together
14. Automaton programmed to perform a given taskthe flexibility and adaptability of human beings.
- (A) without
 - (B) lack
 - (C) minus
 - (D) not having
15. Author Edith Wharton thoroughly understood the society
- (A) she had grown up
 - (B) which had she grown up in
 - (C) in which she had grown up
 - (D) she had grown up in it

Directions: In questions 16- 40 each sentence has four underline words or phrases. The four underlined parts of the sentence are marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Identify the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed in order for the sentence to be correct. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the

letter of the answer you have chosen. After you read the directions, begin work on the questions.

16. Body temperature is usually highest inside the afternoon or evening.
A B C D
17. Marine biology, the study of oceanic plant and animals and their ecological relationships,
A B
has furthered the efficient development of fisheries.
C D
18. The advantages of computerized typing and editing are now being extending to all the
A B C
written languages of the world.
D
19. Adult education programs must be designed so the diverse needs of the participants in
A B C D
mind.
20. At end of the Civil war the United States was ready to resume with a roaring surge the
A B C
westward expansion which had been interrupted for four years.
D
21. Book keepers maintains detailed records of business transactions.
A B C D
22. Many people are unawares that prairies once existed in what is now the state of Michigan.
A B C D
23. Most talc is used in ceramics and roofing because it resists fire good.
A B C D
24. A critical question about the monolithic stone statues of Easter Island is “Why they were
A B C
all made alike?”
D
25. Oberlin College awards degrees to both sexes as early as 1837, but coeducation in
A
American colleges did not spread until the second half of the century.
B C D
26. Ordinary a tornado breaks up suddenly and dissipates less than four hours after it has
A B C
formed.
D
27. The period during when people learned to smelt iron is called the Iron Age.
A B C D
28. Though Art Tatum was totally blind in one eye and had only slight vision in another, he
A B C
became an internationally renowned jazz musician.
D
29. Operation PUSH, founded in 1971 by the Reverend Jesse Jackson, provides educational
A
assistance to children live in economically depressed communities.
B C D

30. Industrial management is the aspect of business management that was most prominent in
 A B C D
 the United States for the past eighty years.
31. Sharing corporate stocks with employees can be an effective way to promote harmonious,
 A B C
 efficiency, and equitability in the workplace.
 D
32. Tons of boulders were leaved scattered by glaciers all over what was to become the New
 A B C
 England landscape.
 D
33. The way of reasoning whereby people do conclusions by logical inference from given
 A B C D
 premises is called the deductive method.
34. Earlier or later, all lakes are influenced by eutrophication, a process in which lake
 A B
 sediment lowers the depth of the water and drains oxygen from it.
 C D
35. Jekyll Island has been one of Georgia's state parks in 1954.
 A B C D
36. Helen Vendler's essays present key insights into and vital analyses the works of major
 A B C D
 British and American authors.
37. Bells are frequently made from bronze, an alloy of approximately three part copper and
 A B C D
 one part tin.
38. Some small magazines are put out by two or three persons, but the big, general
 A B
publication are tremendously complicated operations.
 C D
39. The leaves of the yucca are usually point, stiff, and narrow, with sawlike or fibrous edges.
 A B C D
40. Documentary evidence indicates that portraiture became an established art form in the
 A B C
 Hudson Valley region around the 1660.
 D

Section 3: Reading comprehension

50 questions 55 minutes

Directions: In this section, you will read a number of passages. Each one is followed by approximately ten questions about it. For questions 1- 50, choose the one best answer, (A), (B), (C), or (D), to each question. Then, find the number of the question on your answer sheet, and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen. Answer all of the questions following a passage on the basis of what is stated or implied in the passage.

Questions 1 through 10 are based on the following passage.

Napoleon Bonaparte's ambition to control all the area around the Mediterranean Sea led him and French soldiers to Egypt. After losing a naval battle, they were forced to remain there for three years. In 1799, while constructing a fort, a soldier discovered a piece of stele (a stone pillar bearing an inscription) known as Rosetta stone, in commemoration of the town near the fort. This famous stone, which would eventually lead to the deciphering of ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics dating to 3100 B.C., was written in three languages: hieroglyphics (picture writing), demotic (a shorthand version of Egyptian hieroglyphics), and Greek. Scientists discovered that the characters, unlike those in English, could be written from right to left and in other direction as well. The direction in which they were read depended on how the characters were arranged. Living elements (animals, people, and body parts) were often the first symbols, and the direction that they faced indicated the direction for reading them.

Twenty-three years after the discovery of the Rosetta stone, Jean François Champollion, a French philologist fluent in several languages, was able to decipher the first word – Ptolemy – the name of an Egyptian ruler. This name was written inside the oval called a “cartouche.” Further investigation revealed that cartouches contained names of important people of that period. Champollion painstakingly continued his search and was able to increase his growing list of known phonetic signs. He and an Englishman, Thomas Young, worked independently of each other to unravel the deeply hidden mysteries of this strange language. Young believed that sound values could be assigned to the symbols, while Champollion insisted that the pictures represented words.

1. All of the following languages were written on the Rosetta stone except
 - (A) French
 - (B) demotic
 - (C) Greek
 - (D) hieroglyphics
2. All of the following statements are true except
 - (A) Cartouches contained names of prominent people of the period
 - (B) Champollion and Young worked together in an attempt to decipher the hieroglyphics
 - (C) One of Napoleon's soldiers discovered the Rosetta stone
 - (D) Thomas Young believed that sound values could be assigned to the symbols
3. The word “deciphering” in line 5 is closest in meaning to
 - (A) decoding
 - (B) downfall
 - (C) discovery
 - (D) probing
4. The first word deciphered from the Rosetta stone was
 - (A) cartouche
 - (B) Ptolemy
 - (C) demotic
 - (D) Champollion
5. Napoleon's soldiers were in Egypt in 1799 because they were
 - (A) celebrating a naval victory
 - (B) looking for the Rosetta stone

- (C) waiting to continue their campaign
- (D) trying to decipher the hieroglyphics

6. The person responsible for deciphering the first word was

- (A) Champollion
- (B) Young
- (C) Ptolemy
- (D) Napoleon

7. Why was the piece of newly discovered stele called the Rosetta stone?

- (A) It was shaped like a rosette
- (B) It was to honour Napoleon's friend Rosetta
- (C) The town near the fort was called Rosetta
- (D) The fort was called Rosetta

8. In line 1, "ambition" is nearest in meaning to

- (A) aspiration
- (B) indolence
- (C) indifference
- (D) apathy

9. What is the best title for the passage?

- (A) Napoleon's great discovery
- (B) Deciphering the hieroglyphics of the Rosetta stone
- (C) Thomas Young's great contribution
- (D) The importance of cartouches

10. In which lines of the reading passage is the direction for reading hieroglyphics discussed?

- (A) lines 5-8
- (B) lines 9-11
- (C) lines 13-15
- (D) lines 17-19

Questions 11 through 20 are based on the following passage

Sequoyah was a young Cherokee Indian, son of a white trader and an Indian squaw. At an early age, he became fascinated by "the talking leaf," an expression that he used to describe the white man's written records. Although many believed this "talking leaf" to be a gift from the Great Spirit, Sequoyah refused to accept that theory. Like other Indians of the period, he was illiterate, but his determination to remedy the situation led to the invention of a unique eighty-six-character alphabet based on the sound patterns that he heard.

His family and friends thought him mad, but while recuperating from a hunting accident, he diligently and independently set out to create a form of communication for his own people as well as for other Indians. In 1821, after twelve years of work, he has successfully developed a written language that would enable thousands of Indians to read and write.

Sequoyah's desire to preserve words and events for later generations has caused him to be remembered among the important inventors. The giant redwood trees of California, called "sequoias" in his honour, will further imprint his name in history.

11. What is the most important reason that Sequoyah will be remembered?
- (A) California redwoods were named in his honour
 - (B) He was illiterate
 - (C) He created a unique alphabet
 - (D) He recovered from his madness and helped humankind
12. The word “squaw” in line 1 is closest in meaning to
- (A) woman
 - (B) teacher
 - (C) cook
 - (D) trader
13. How did Sequoyah’s family react to his idea of developing his own “talking leaf?”
- (A) They arranged for his hunting accident
 - (B) They thought he was crazy
 - (C) They decided to help him
 - (D) They asked him to teach them to read and write
14. What prompted Sequoyah to develop his alphabet?
- (A) People were writing things about him that he couldn’t read
 - (B) He wanted to become famous
 - (C) After his hunting accident, he needed something to keep him busy
 - (D) He wanted the history of his people preserved for future generations
15. In line 5, the word “illiterate” means most nearly the same as
- (A) fierce
 - (B) poor
 - (C) abandoned
 - (D) unable to read and write
16. It is implied that Sequoyah called the written records “the talking leaf” because
- (A) they played music
 - (B) when he observed white people reading, they seemed to understand what was written
 - (C) he was going mad, and he thought the leaves were talking to him
 - (D) it was the only way that the Great Spirit had of communicating with them
17. Sequoyah could be best described as
- (A) determined
 - (B) mad
 - (C) backwards
 - (D) meek
18. What is the best title for the passage?
- (A) Sequoyah’s determination to preserve the Cherokee language
 - (B) The origin of the Cherokee language
 - (C) Sequoyah’s madness leads to a new language
 - (D) The origin of the “Sequoia” trees in California
19. In line 2, “fascinated” is closest in meaning to
- (A) absorbed

- (B) exasperated
- (C) confused
- (D) imaginative

20. All of the following are true except

- (A) Sequoyah developed a form of writing with the help of the Cherokee tribe
- (B) Sequoyah was very observant young man
- (C) Sequoyah spent twelve years developing his alphabet
- (D) Sequoyah was honoured by having some trees named after him

Questions 21 through 30 are based on the following passage

The mighty, warlike nation existed in Mexico from 1195 to 1521. The high priests taught the people that the sun would shine, the crops would grow, and the empire would prosper only if the gods were appeased by human sacrifices and blood offerings from all levels of their society. The priests practised forms of self-mutilation, such as piercing their tongues with thorns and flagellating themselves with thorn branches. They collected the small amount of blood produced by these practices and offered it to Huitzilopochtli and Quetzalcoatl, their chief gods. They insisted that all Aztecs needed to make some sort of daily sacrifice. Warriors were promised a place of honour in the afterlife if they died courageously in battle.

The Aztecs were constantly at war in order to have enough captives from battle to serve as sacrificial victims. The prisoners were indoctrinated before their deaths into believing that they, too would find a place of honour in the afterlife and that their death insured the prosperity of the great Aztec nation. After being heavily sedated with marijuana or a similar drug, they were led up the steps to the top of the ceremonial centres where they accepted their fate passively, and their palpitating hearts were removed from their bodies as an offering to the gods.

21. Why did the Aztecs offer human sacrifices?

- (A) They were cruel and inhuman.
- (B) They believed they had to pacify the gods.
- (C) They wanted to force the citizens to obey.
- (D) They wanted to deter crime.

22. Before the sacrifices, the victims were

- (A) tortured and harassed
- (B) fed and entertained
- (C) brainwashed and drugged
- (D) interrogated and drugged

23. In what manner did the victims accept their destiny?

- (A) submissively
- (B) rebelliously
- (C) violently
- (D) notoriously

24. The word “appeased” in line 3 is closest in meaning to

- (A) glorified
- (B) assaulted

- (C) angered
- (D) satisfied

25. What is the best title for the passage?

- (A) The Aztecs' need to offer human sacrifice
- (B) Aztec victims
- (C) The history of the mighty Aztec nation
- (D) Aztec high priests

26. What did the Aztecs believe the gods craved in order to ensure the people's survival?

- (A) sunshine
- (B) blood
- (C) thorns
- (D) drugs

27. Which of the following is not given as the reason for offering human sacrifice?

- (A) The sun would not rise
- (B) The crops would not grow
- (C) The warriors would not be famous
- (D) The empire would not be successful

28. Why were the victims willing to accept their fate?

- (A) They liked to see the sun shine.
- (B) They wanted everyone to see them at the top of the ceremonial centres.
- (C) They were made to believe they would have a place of honour in eternity.
- (D) They liked to take drugs.

29. Which of the following is described as a form of self-torture that the high priests practised?

- (A) indoctrination
- (B) heavy sedation
- (C) piercing their tongues
- (D) sacrificing victims

30. In line 1, the word "mighty" is closest in meaning to

- (A) primitive
- (B) unimposing
- (C) meticulous
- (D) powerful

Questions 31 through 41 are based on the following passage

Petroleum products, such as gasoline, kerosene, home heating oil, residual fuel oil, and lubricating oils, come from one source – crude oil found below the earth's surface, as well as under large bodies of water, from a few hundred feet below the surface to as deep as 25,000 feet into the earth's interior. Sometimes crude oil is secured by drilling a hole into the earth, but more dry holes are drilled than those producing oil. Either pressure at the source or pumping forces crude oil to the surface.

Crude oil wells flow at varying rates, from about ten to thousands of barrels per hour. Petroleum products are always measured in forty-two-gallon barrels.

Petroleum products vary greatly in physical appearance: thin, thick, transparent, or opaque, but regardless, their chemical composition is made up of only two elements: carbon and hydrogen, which form compounds called hydrocarbon. Other chemical elements found in union with the hydrocarbons are few and are classified as impurities. Trace elements are also found, but in such minute quantities that they are disregarded. The combination of carbon and hydrogen forms many thousands of compounds which are possible because of the various positions and unions of these two atoms in the hydrocarbon molecule.

The various petroleum products are refined by heating crude oil and then condensing the vapours. These products are the so-called light oils, such as gasoline, kerosene, and distillate oil. The residue remaining after the light oils are distilled is known as heavy or residual fuel oil and is used mostly for burning under boilers. Additional complicated refining processes rearrange the chemicals structure of the hydrocarbons to produce other products, some of which are used to upgrade and increase the octane rating of various types of gasoline.

31. All of the following are true except
(A) Crude oil is found below land and water
(B) Crude oil is always found a few hundred feet below the surface
(C) Pumping and pressure force crude oil to the surface
(D) Many petroleum products are obtained from crude oil
32. The word “minute” in line 13 is closest in meaning to
(A) instant
(B) huge
(C) insignificant
(D) timely
33. Many thousands of hydrocarbon compounds are possible because
(A) the petroleum products vary greatly in physical appearance
(B) complicated refining processes rearrange the chemical structure
(C) the two atoms in the molecule assume many positions
(D) the pressure needed to force it to the surface causes molecular transformation
34. In line 21, the word “upgrade” is closest in meaning to
(A) improve
(B) counteract
(C) charge
(D) unite
35. Which of the following is true?
(A) The various petroleum products are produced by filtration.
(B) Heating and condensing produce the various products.
(C) Chemical separation is used to produce the various products.
(D) Mechanical means, such as centrifuging, are used to produce the various products.
36. The word “opaque” in line 10 means most nearly the same as
(A) transparent
(B) turbid
(C) light
(D) crude

37. How is crude oil brought to the surface?
(A) expansion of the hydrocarbons
(B) pressure and pumping
(C) vacuum created in the drilling pipe
(D) expansion and contraction of the earth's surface
38. All of the following are listed as light oils except
(A) distillate oil
(B) gasoline
(C) lubricating oil
(D) kerosene
39. What are the principal components of all petroleum products?
(A) Hydrogen and carbon
(B) Residual fuel oils
(C) Crude oils
(D) Refined substances
40. The word "condensing" in line 16 is nearest in meaning to
(A) cooling
(B) expanding
(C) diluting
(D) refuting
41. The word "they" in line 13 refers to
(A) impurities
(B) minute quantities
(C) hydrocarbons
(D) trace elements

Questions 42 through 50 are based on the following passage.

In the United States, presidential elections are held in years evenly divisible by four (1884, 1900, 1964, etc.). Since 1840, American presidents elected in years ending with zero have died in office, with one exception. William H. Harrison, the man who served the shortest term, died in pneumonia only several weeks after his inauguration.

Abraham Lincoln was one of four presidents who were assassinated. He was elected in 1860, and his untimely death came just five years later. James A. Garfield, a former Union army general from Ohio, was shot during his first year in office (1881) by a man to whom he wouldn't give a job. While in his second term of office (1901), William McKinley, another Ohioan, attended the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, New York. During the reception, he was assassinated while shaking hands with some of the guests. John F. Kennedy was assassinated in 1963 in Dallas only three years after his election.

Three years after his election in 1920, Warren G. Harding died in office. Although it was never proved, many believe he was poisoned. Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected four times (1932, 1936, 1940, and 1944), the only man to serve so long a term. He had contracted polio in 1921 and eventually died of the illness in 1945.

Ronald Reagan, who was elected in 1980, and re-elected four years later, suffered an assassination attempt but did not succumb to the assassin's bullets. He was the first to break

the long chain of unfortunate events. Will the candidate in the election of 2000 also be as lucky?

42. All of the following were election years except

- (A) 1960
- (B) 1930
- (C) 1888
- (D) 1824

43. Which president served the shortest term in office?

- (A) Abraham Lincoln
- (B) Warren G. Harding
- (C) William McKinley
- (D) William H. Harrison

44. Which of the following is true?

- (A) All presidents elected in years ending in zero have died in office.
- (B) Only presidents from Ohio have died in office.
- (C) Franklin D. Roosevelt completed four terms as president.
- (D) Four American presidents have been assassinated.

45. How many presidents elected in years ending in zero since 1840 have died in office?

- (A) 7
- (B) 5
- (C) 4
- (D) 3

46. The word “inauguration” in line 4 means most nearly the same as

- (A) election
- (B) acceptance speech
- (C) swearing-in ceremony
- (D) campaign

47. All of the following presidents were assassinated except

- (A) John F. Kennedy
- (B) Franklin D. Roosevelt
- (C) Abraham Lincoln
- (D) James A. Garfield

48. The word “whom” in line 7 refers to

- (A) Garfield
- (B) Garfield’s assassin
- (C) a Union army general
- (D) McKinley

49. The word “assassinated” in line 5 is closest in meaning to

- (A) murdered
- (B) decorated
- (C) honoured
- (D) sickened

50. In line 14, “contracted” is closest in meaning to
- (A) communicated about
 - (B) developed
 - (C) agreed about
 - (D) notified

Appendix 4: Students' scores and grades

Research participants (N = 65)

Participant	Gender	Questionnaire mean score	TOEFL score*	Speaking grades**	
				Raw	Average
1	Male	3.74	583	A/A	A
2	Male	2.36	547	A/A	A
3	Male	2.77	543	A/A	A
4	Female	3.54	537	A/A	A
5	Female	3.13	530	A/A	A
6	Female	3.31	527	A	A
7	Female	3.18	503	C+/A	B+
8	Male	2.67	497	A/A/B+/A	A
9	Female	3.90	487	A/A/A/A	A
10	Male	3.38	497	B+/A	A
11	Male	3.00	493	A/A/A/A	A
12	Male	2.79	487	A/A/B+/B+	A
13	Male	3.18	490	E	E
14	Female	3.56	487	B/A	B+
15	Female	4.10	487	A/A/A/A	A
16	Female	3.67	483	B/A	B+
17	Male	2.90	480	B+/A/A/B+	A
18	Male	3.18	480	B/B+	B+
19	Female	3.33	460	B/B+	B+
20	Female	3.44	477	A/A/B+	A
21	Female	3.46	470	B+/B+/B+/A	B+
22	Female	3.21	473	B/B+	B+
23	Male	2.90	473	A/A	A
24	Male	2.72	470	C+/B+/B+/A	B+
25	Female	3.49	467	A/A/A	A
26	Male	3.69	463	B/B	B
27	Male	3.97	467	A/A/A/A	A
28	Male	3.44	467	B+/A/B+/A	A
29	Female	2.49	463	A/A/B+	A
30	Male	3.05	463	A/A/A/A	A
31	Male	2.59	467	A	A
32	Female	3.10	457	C/B+	B
33	Male	3.13	457	B/E	D+
34	Male	2.69	460	B	B
35	Female	3.18	457	B/B+	B+
36	Male	3.49	463	B/B+	B+
37	Male	3.05	450	B/B+/B+/B+	B+
38	Male	2.85	453	A/C	B
39	Male	3.18	433	A/B+/B+/B+	B+
40	Female	3.23	447	B/A	B+
41	Female	2.85	443	B+/B+/B+/A	B+
42	Male	3.59	443	B+/B+/A/A	A
43	Female	3.38	437	B/B+/B+/B+	B+
44	Male	3.51	433	B/B+	B+
45	Female	3.36	427	A/B/A/B	B+
46	Female	3.49	430	C+/B+	B
47	Male	3.26	437	B/B+	B+
48	Male	3.15	433	C	C
49	Female	2.90	417	B+	B+
50	Male	2.59	417	B+/B+/B+/B	B+
51	Male	3.69	433	B/A/B+	B+

52	Female	2.74	417	C+/B+	B
53	Female	3.08	390	C+/C/B	C+
54	Female	3.00	403	B+/A/B/B	B+
55	Female	2.87	417	B/B/B+/B+	B+
56	Male	3.13	407	B/B+/A	B+
57	Male	3.18	400	A/B+	A
58	Male	3.85	407	B/B+/B	B
59	Male	2.44	407	B/B+	B+
60	Female	3.10	390	B/B+	B+
61	Male	2.87	397	C+/C/B/B+	B
62	Male	1.56	397	D	D
63	Male	2.85	373	B/B+/B	B
64	Male	3.10	370	C/B/B+	B
65	Male	2.79	353	B/C+/D	C

*: 500 or above (advanced), 400-499 (intermediate), and 399 or below (elementary)

***: A (advanced); B+ and B (intermediate); C+, C, D+, D and E (elementary)

Selected students for the qualitative aspect of the study (N = 20)

Item	Participant	Pseudonym	Gender	Questionnaire mean score	TOEFL score*	Speaking grade**	
						Raw	Average
1	1	Adi	Male	3.74	583	A/A	A
2	3	Santo	Male	2.77	543	A/A	A
3	4	Ana	Female	3.54	537	A/A	A
4	5	Rani	Female	3.13	530	A/A	A
5	9	Yanti	Female	3.90	487	A/A/A/A	A
6	15	Sinta	Female	4.10	487	A/A/A/A	A
7	21	Inul	Female	3.46	470	B+/B+/B+/A	B+
8	24	Bambang	Male	2.72	470	C+/B+/B+/A	B+
9	25	Darmi	Female	3.49	467	A/A/A	A
10	29	Iyem	Female	2.49	463	A/A/B+	A
11	31	Bima	Male	2.59	467	A	A
12	34	Yono	Male	2.69	460	B	B
13	48	Pardi	Male	3.15	433	C	C
14	49	Tuti	Female	2.90	417	B+	B+
15	51	Sani	Male	3.69	433	B/A/B+	B+
16	53	Siti	Female	3.08	390	C+/C/B	C+
17	56	Bejo	Male	3.13	407	B/B+/A	B+
18	60	Ina	Female	3.10	390	B/B+	B+
19	64	Andi	Male	3.10	370	C/B/B+	B
20	65	Budi	Male	2.79	353	B/C+/D	C

*: 500 or above (advanced), 400-499 (intermediate), and 399 or below (elementary)

***: A (advanced); B+ and B (intermediate); C+, C, D+, D and E (elementary)

PROSEDUR [Procedures]

Tulis bagaimana anda melakukan masing-masing aktivitas yang tercantum di atas [Write how you do each of the above-stated activities].

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PENDAPAT [Opinions]

Tulis bagaimana aktivitas-aktivitas tersebut dapat membantu anda belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris [Write how the activities can help you learn to speak English].

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An example diary written by a student (Adi) in Indonesian:



L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

Diary template

Student Identification Number: (supplied)

Week: 1

AKTIVITAS

Tulis aktivitas-aktivitas yang telah anda lakukan, baik di dalam maupun di luar kelas, yang anda maksudkan untuk pembelajaran berbicara Bahasa Inggris dalam minggu ini. Berilah contoh-contoh.

Dalam minggu ini saya melakukan 3 aktivitas yang saya tuju untuk melatih kemampuan Bahasa Inggris saya: (1) Sore hari setelah magrib, saya berinteraksi dengan teman-teman dari luar negeri menggunakan fasilitas 'voice cha'; (2) Ikut serta sebagai anggota 'Gajayana Conversation Club' yang diadakan seminggu sekali; (3) Saya ikut proses dalam pelatihan drama berbahasa Inggris sebagai salah satu pemateri.

PROSEDUR

Tulis bagaimana anda melakukan masing-masing aktivitas yang tercantum di atas.

Untuk mempermudah dan menekan biaya chatting, saya menggunakan fasilitas Wifi yang ada di kampus. Untuk pengaturan waktu dan jadwal, saya menggunakan hand phone dan reminder di komputer. Untuk mempertajam kemampuan listening, saya juga mendengarkan drama berbahasa Inggris setiap malam menjelang tidur.

PENDAPAT

Tulis bagaimana aktivitas-aktivitas tersebut dapat membantu anda belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris.

Dengan berbicara langsung dengan native speakers, maka saya bisa secara langsung belajar mengenal bunyi dan dialek mereka. Seni peran juga sangat membantu saya untuk berlatih pengucapan yang benar beserta dialeknnya. Selain itu dengan menguasai seni peran ini, saya dapat menumbuhkan rasa percaya diri saya untuk berbicara menggunakan Bahasa Inggris.

The English version of the diary:

Di-Adi-English

Week 1

ACTIVITIES

Write activities you have done inside or outside classrooms this week that are intended for learning to speak English. Give examples

This week, I've done 3 activities intended for my English practice. First, after doing the sunset prayer, I interacted with my overseas friends using 'voice cha' facility. Second, I participated in Gajayana English Conversation Club whose activities take place weekly. Third, I participated in English drama training as one of the trainers.

PROCEDURES

Write how you do each of the above-stated activities.

To enable me to chat with my friends using the internet and to avoid the cost, I used the wireless facility owned by the university. To help me manage my time, I make use of 'reminder' facilities in my mobile phone and computer. To improve my listening skills, I also listen to English dramas before going to bed every night.

OPINION

Write how the activities can help you learn to speak English.

Speaking directly with native speakers of English enables me to practise with sounds and accents first hand. Acting (on a stage) can also help me practise to pronounce expressions correctly along with the proper dialect. Acting can also improve my self-confidence in speaking English.

L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

Interview protocols guide

A. Establishing a close rapport with the interviewee

First, ask the interviewee's student ID number. Second, explain the outline of the interview. Third, ask general questions about learning strategies. Fourth, ask what strategies they use for learning English in general, including four macro skills, vocabulary, and grammar.

List of questions:

- Menurut pendapat anda, apakah ada strategi tertentu untuk belajar Bahasa Inggris? (Kalau ada), tolong beri saya satu contoh [In your opinion, are there any strategies to learn English? (If any), please give me one example].
- Apakah anda menggunakan strategi tertentu untuk mengingat kata-kata baru Bahasa Inggris? (Kalau ya), tolong jelaskan kepada saya [Do you use any strategies to remember new English words? (If so), please describe the strategies].
- Apakah anda menggunakan strategi tertentu untuk belajar 'grammar'? (Kalau ya), tolong jelaskan kepada saya [Do you use any strategies to learn 'grammar'? (If so), please describe the strategies].
- Apakah anda menggunakan strategi tertentu untuk belajar 'listening', 'reading', 'speaking', dan 'writing'? (Kalau ya), tolong jelaskan kepada saya. [Do you use any strategies to learn 'listening', 'reading', 'speaking', and 'writing'? (If so), please describe the strategies]

B. Extracting core information

First, tell the interviewee about the shift of focus on to learning strategies for speaking skills. Second, ask questions about learning strategies for speaking skills.

List of questions:

- Strategi apa saja yang anda gunakan untuk belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? [What strategies do you use to learn to speak English?].
- Apakah anda praktik berbicara Bahasa Inggris dengan orang lain? [Do you practise speaking English with other people?]
- Ketika anda tidak tahu kata Bahasa Inggris di tengah berbicara Bahasa Inggris, apa yang anda lakukan? [When you do not know an English word in the midst of an English conversation, what do you do?].

- Menurut anda, apakah bahasa ibu membantu anda belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? [In your opinion, does your mother tongue help you learn to speak English?]
- Apakah anda menyukai topik-topik tertentu untuk percakapan Bahasa Inggris anda? [Do you prefer talking certain topics for your English conversations?].
- Apakah anda tetap belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris ketika tidak sedang bersama dosen anda? Apa yang anda lakukan? [Do you still learn to speak English when you are away from classrooms? What do you do?].
- Apakah anda memonitor perkembangan belajar bicara anda? [Do you monitor the progress of your learning to speak English?].
- Apakah anda merasa takut atau gugup pada waktu belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? Apa yang anda lakukan? [Do you feel anxious when you learn to speak English? What do you do?].
- Apakah orang-orang di sekitar anda membantu anda belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris? Siapa saja mereka? [Do people around you help you learn to speak English? Who are they?].

C. Thanking the interviewee

First, thank the interviewee for his/her time. Second, ask him/her to contact the researcher if he/she has extra information about learning strategies for speaking skills. Otherwise, ask him/her to write it as an extra note in the diary.

COMMITTEE FOR ETHICS IN HUMAN RESEARCH

Project number 09-91

Ms Sri Wahyuni
59 Summerville Crescent
Florey ACT 2615

APPROVED

Dear Ms Wahyuni

The Committee for Ethics in Human Research has considered your application to conduct research with human participants for the project entitled: **Learning strategies of Indonesian EFL tertiary students across L2 proficiency and gender: a case study at Gajayana University of Malang**

Approval is granted until 30/06/2011 the anticipated completion date stated in the application.

The following general conditions apply to your approval. These requirements are determined by University policy and the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2007):

- 1) **You must immediately report to the Committee anything which might warrant review of ethical approval of your project, including:**
 - (a) **serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants;**
 - (b) **proposed changes in the protocol; and**
 - (c) **unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.**
- 2) **Monitoring:** You, in conjunction with your supervisor, must assist the Committee to monitor the conduct of approved research by completing and promptly returning project

review forms, which will be sent to you at the end of your project and, in the case of extended research, at least annually during the approval period.

- 3) **Discontinuation of research:** You, in conjunction with your supervisor, must inform the Committee, giving reasons, if the research is not conducted or is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
- 4) **Extension of approval:** If your project will not be complete by the expiry date stated above, you must apply in writing for extension of approval. Application should be made before current approval expires; should specify a new completion date; should include reasons for your request.
- 5) **Retention and storage of data:** University policy states that all research data must be stored securely, on University premises, for a minimum of five years. You and your supervisor must ensure that all records are transferred to the University when the project is complete.
- 6) **Changes in contact details:** You should advise the Committee of any change of address during or soon after the approval period including, if appropriate, email address(es).

Please add the Contact Complaints form (attached) for distribution with your project.

Yours sincerely

Bronwyn Low
Secretary

Cc Dr Elke Stracke



L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

Research information sheet for participants

Thank you very much for showing interest in the study. My name is Sri Wahyuni. I am a lecturer at Gajayana University of Malang (GUM) currently doing a full time study for a PhD degree in Education at the University of Canberra, Australia. As part of the requirements of this degree, I have proposed a research study on the use of learning strategies for speaking skills related to L2/speaking proficiency and gender. The study aims to investigate the use of learning strategies for speaking skills among Indonesian EFL tertiary English majors with various L2/speaking proficiency and gender at GUM. To do this, I need to collect relevant information and evidence from students of the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Letters, GUM.

Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate, I sincerely thank you and greatly appreciate your decision. If later in your participation you choose to withdraw from the study at any stage for any reason, you can do so with no disadvantage of any kind to you. I, herewith, would like to emphasize that this study is not in any way an assessment and/or evaluation of your present study, so there is no need to feel intimidated or threatened during your participation in the study. I would also like to inform you that the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Canberra has been made aware of the general line of questions that will be asked in the interviews, but due to the nature of the open-question technique in the interviews, some specific unprepared questions are likely to appear depending on the development of the interviews. Should you experience any questions that may cause you to feel uncomfortable you have the right to decline to answer them.

If you agree to take part in the study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire and to sit for an English proficiency test. You may also be asked to write a learning diary and to attend an interview if you are chosen as the member of the sub-sample representing the whole body of research participants. A brief description of each task is presented as follows:

1. The questionnaire is in English. It requests some personal information (student ID number and gender) and statements, each of which requires your response by choosing the provided options. It will take about thirty minutes to complete.

2. The proficiency test is a paper-based TOEFL Practice Test that takes one hour fifty five minutes to complete.
3. The learning diary will contain your comments on what you do to learn to speak English. This will be written in Indonesian weekly for four weeks. It can be either handwritten or typed.
4. The interview contains open-ended questions about what you usually do in learning to speak English. It will be conducted in Indonesian and will be audio-recorded. Each interview will take about 30 minutes to complete.

The information and evidence you will provide through the above-mentioned different ways will serve as the raw data of the study which will be analyzed to generate insights into learning strategy use. These are expected to lead to future improvement in the English teaching-learning processes. Although you are asked to provide some personal information and to produce some individually identifiable information throughout the data collection processes, such information will be used purely for the data analysis only, and there will not be any individually identifiable or re-identifiable information in the written report of the results of this study, either in the PhD thesis or future published reports. Moreover, to secure confidentiality, I will be the only person having the access to the whole raw data containing individually identifiable or re-identifiable information. However, my research supervisors may need to inspect some parts of the collected data.

The collected data will be stored in such a way that its security is guaranteed. At the end of the study, any personal information will be destroyed immediately, except raw data on which the results of the study depend. This data will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will also be destroyed. A summary of the research findings will be made available for you should you want it.

If you have any questions about the study, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact:

1. Sri Wahyuni (the researcher)
Email: u124016@uni.canberra.edu.au
Telephone: +62 341 562411 (GUM), +61 2 62015656 (University of Canberra)
2. Dr. Elke Stracke (Primary Supervisor)
Email: elke.stracke@canberra.edu.au
3. Dr. Jeremy Jones (Secondary Supervisor)
Email: jeremy.jones@canberra.edu.au

Thank you very much for your time for reading this information sheet.

Appendix 9: Consent form for research participants



L2 SPEAKING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY INDONESIAN EFL TERTIARY STUDENTS ACROSS PROFICIENCY AND GENDER

Consent form for research participants

I (Name in capital letters)
have read the Information Sheet concerning this research study and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that:

1. my participation in this research study is entirely voluntary;
2. I am free to withdraw from the research study at any time without any disadvantage;
3. the data will be destroyed at the completion of the research study except that on which the results of the research study depend. This will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will also be destroyed;
4. this research study involves an open-questioning technique in which questions arise as the interview develops; however, if in the event that the line of questioning develops in such a way that I feel hesitant or uncomfortable, I can decline to answer any particular question(s) and/or may withdraw from the research study without any disadvantage of any kind;
5. the results of the research study may be published and available in the library but every attempt will be made to preserve my anonymity;
6. I can request for the summary of the research findings at the completion of the research study.

I agree to take part in this research study.

..... (Date)

..... (Signature of participant)

Appendix 10: Table of TOEFL converted score ranges

Number-right score range	Section 1 Converted score	Section 2 Converted score	Section 3 Converted score
48-50	65-68		65-67
45-47	60-63		61-64
42-44	57-59		59-60
39-41	55-56	62-68	56-58
36-38	53-54		55-56
33-35	51-52	58-61	53-54
30-32	49-50	55-57	51-52
27-29	48-49	52-54	49-51
24-26	46-47	49-51	48-49
21-23	44-45	46-48	45-47
18-20	42-44	45-45	42-44
15-17	39-41	41-43	38-41
12-14	35-38	38-40	31-36
9-11	32-33	34-37	31
0-8	31	31-32	31

(Based on: ETS, 2003, p. 392)

Appendix 11: Student interviews as recorded on a DVD (see the DVD inside the back cover of the thesis)

Appendix 12: Test of normal distribution

Test of normal distribution for students' scores of L2 proficiency test

Advanced students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		7
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.1465
	Std. Deviation	.46549
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.786
	Positive	.786
	Negative	-.593
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.199
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Intermediate students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		51
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.1956
	Std. Deviation	.39267
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.904
	Positive	.755
	Negative	-.904
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.070
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Elementary students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		7
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.7656
	Std. Deviation	.54562
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	1.205
	Positive	1.205
	Negative	-.334
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.379
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.003

a. Test distribution is not Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Test of normal distribution for students' speaking grades

Advanced students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		23
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.2051
	Std. Deviation	.48497
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.085
	Positive	.085
	Negative	-.079
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.407
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.996

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Intermediate students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		36
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.1595
	Std. Deviation	.33979
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.085
	Positive	.085
	Negative	-.072
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.512
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.956

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Elementary students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		6
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.8162
	Std. Deviation	.62921
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.327
	Positive	.282
	Negative	-.327
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.802
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.541

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Test of normal distribution for students' strategy use scores based on gender

Male students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		38
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.0601
	Std. Deviation	.46869
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.110
	Positive	.110
	Negative	-.079
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.678
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.748

- a. Test distribution is Normal.
- b. Calculated from data.

Female students

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Strategymeans
N		27
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.2621
	Std. Deviation	.34871
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.082
	Positive	.082
	Negative	-.075
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.427
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.993

- a. Test distribution is Normal.
- b. Calculated from data.

Iv-Bambang-03/11/09

00.19.38

A: Interviewer

B: Interviewee

1. A: This interview is recorded on 03 November 2009 at 09.30. Nomor indukmu berapa dik?
2. B: Ehm, 06410002.
3. A: Terima kasih. Hari ini kita akan berbicara tentang strategi belajar bahasa Inggris, pertama-tama bahasa Inggris secara umum, kemudian nanti kita fokus pada speaking. Ehm, menurut pendapatmu apakah ada strategi belajar tertentu untuk belajar bahasa Inggris secara umum?
4. B: Menurut saya, ada.
5. A: He eh. Tolong ceritakan dik.
6. B: Ya, kalau kita nggak..., menurut..., apa, strategi belajar yang bagaimana bu, itu?
7. A: Ehm, yang, yang sudah kamu pakai. Cara-cara yang kamu pakai supaya bahasa, belajar bahasa Inggris itu berhasil. Coba beri saya satu contoh saja. Apa yang sudah kamu lakukan?
8. B: Baca novel.
9. A: Oke. Membaca novel berbahasa Inggris ya?
10. B: Ya.
11. A: Oke. Kalau membaca novel berbahasa Inggris itu, bisa membantu kamu untuk meningkatkan skill yang mana dik?
12. B: Biasanya kalau itu, speaking.
13. A: Speaking ya?
14. B: Karena banyak vocab-vocab baru.
15. A: He eh. Oke. Oh, jadi kalau kamu mbaca, terus kamu dapat vocab baru?
16. B: Ya.
17. A: Jadi kamu bisa meningkatkan vocab?
18. B: Biasanya gitu.
19. A: Oke. Kalau vocabnya bagus, berarti speakingnya bagus, gitu? Oke.
20. B: Tergantung (tertawa).
21. A: (Tertawa). Oke, masih ada faktor yang lain ya?
22. B: Ya.
23. A: Oke, sekarang coba kita fokus pada vocabulary dik ya, karena kamu tadi bilang dengan membaca novel berbahasa Inggris vocabmu menjadi meningkat. Caramu bagaimana dik, untuk meningkatkan vocab yang kamu peroleh dari novel berbahasa Inggris itu?
24. B: Cara?
25. A: Selama ini, apa yang kamu lakukan?
26. B: Ya, mungkin, kalau ada kata, kadang di novel itu ada kata yang tidak saya mengerti. Itu saya kumpulkan, dan saya cari artinya. Biasanya gitu.
27. A: Hem, caramu mengumpulkan kata-kata yang kamu tidak tahu itu bagaimana? Kamu nulis di lembar ja..., lembar terpisah gitu?
28. B: Ya seperti itu. Kadang ya cuma saya ingat-ingat tok.
29. A: Oh, gitu. Cuma diingat-ingat?
30. B: Ya.
31. A: Tapi artinya sudah dicari di kamus ya?

32. B: Kadang di kamus tidak ada artinya (tertawa).
33. A: He eh, terus bagaimana, kalau pas seperti itu?
34. B: Ya, gimana bu ya, ya cumak, gimana itu, dinalar aja bu artinya.
35. A: Dinalar ya?
36. B: Ya.
37. A: Berarti kamu ngelihat, kamu mengira-ira artinya itu dari, dari kalimat di situ ya, dari konteksnya?
38. B: Ya, ya, dari kalimat.
39. A: Mungkin kamu melihat kamus, kalau di kamus nggak ada, atau kamu lagi tidak ingin melihat kamus, kamu menggunakan perkiraan dari konteks ya?
40. B: Ya.
41. A: Oke. Terus sekarang ini dik, misalnya kamu sudah tahu arti kata itu dari kamus, atau sudah tahu arti itu dari guessing dari konteks ya, terus caramu untuk mengingat kata-kata itu supaya nempel terus di memorymu supaya nanti bisa kamu pakai pas dibutuhkan itu gimana?
42. B: Ya itu yang susah bu (tersenyum).
43. A: (Tertawa). Terus, selama ini apa yang sudah kamu lakukan untuk masalah itu?
44. B: Untuk masalah itu...
45. A: Untuk membuat nempel lama, gitu, di memorymu?
46. B: Ya itu yang susah. Sampai sekarang belum bisa.
47. A: Belum bisa?
48. B: Bagaimana caranya.
49. A: E, tapi kamu sudah pernah melakukan cara tertentu untuk membantu kamu dalam hal itu atau ndak pernah?
50. B: Belum pernah.
51. A: Belum pernah ya. Berarti cuma melihat arti...
52. B: Kadang, kalau dipakai untuk speaking, kadang, kadang kan kita nervous bu, kadang di sini ingat, tapi kita mau bicara, presentasi gitu, langsung hilang.
53. A: Oh, gitu?
54. B: Ya (tertawa).
55. A: (Tertawa) meskipun sudah dihafalkan, kalau pas nervous juga hilang ya?
56. B: Hilang.
57. A: Oke, sekarang gini dik, bayangkan ya, e, bayangkan kamu tidak akan presentasi sih nggak ya, terus kamu menemukan kata. Supaya kata itu agak, supaya kamu bisa inget gitu, yaopo caramu. Kamu ngapalke, apa mbok baca berkali-kali, apa bagaimana?
58. B: Kadang kalau dihafalkan itu sulit, kadang sulit, kadang, kadang inget kadang nggak, tapi kadang-kadang ya inget sendiri, gitu. Tiba-tiba.
59. A: Inget sendiri?
60. B: Ya.
61. A: Oke. Inget sendiri, tiba-tiba, tapi kamu udah mbaca, udah beberapa kali mbok baca?
62. B: Ya.
63. A: Atau mbok tempelkan di tembok gitu?
64. B: Nggak (tertawa).
65. A: Nggak ya? Nggak pernah pakai itu?
66. B: Nggak pernah (tertawa).
67. A: Kamu cuman nulis di kertas yang terpisah, kamu cari artinya, terus kamu baca, terus nanti kamu tiba-tiba kamu bisa inget?
68. B: Ya.

69. A: Oke. E, itu saja yang selama ini kamu lakukan untuk meningkatkan vocabularymu, untuk vocabulary?
70. B: Ya, mungkin bu, itu aja (tertawa).
71. A: Oke. All right. Oke. Sekarang mari kita fokus pada speaking ya dik ya.
72. B: Ya.
73. A: Ehm, selama ini, apa saja, cara-cara apa saja, strategi-strategi apa saja yang sudah kamu lakukan supaya speakingmu menjadi berhasil, belajar speakingmu berhasil?
74. B: Itu yang susah.
75. A: He eh.
76. B: Ya, paling ikut, cuma ikut kuliah itu aja bu.
77. A: Ikut kuliah speaking ya?
78. B: Ya.
79. A: Oke. Ikut kuliah speaking, yang pertama. Coba sekarang ceritakan kepada saya dik, pada waktu kamu kuliah speaking, itu kenapa sih kuliah speaking kok bisa membantu kamu meningkatkan speaking bahasa Inggrismu?
80. B: Ya, karena berbicara Bahasa Inggris itu bu, mungkin.
81. A: Oke, di dalam kelas, berbicara Bahasa Inggris?
82. B: Ya, ya.
83. A: Oke, jadi kamu terpaksa harus berbicara Bahasa Inggris...
84. B: Ya, pertama itu (tersenyum).
85. A: Ehm, he eh.
86. B: Tapi nggak cuma speaking aja, yang lain kan harus bicara Bahasa Inggris juga.
87. A: Di mana?
88. B: Yang kuliah yang lain.
89. A: Oh, gitu?
90. B: Ya.
91. A: Oke. Jadi tidak hanya kuliah speaking, tapi kamu datang di perkuliahan semua mata kuliah, itu bisa membantu kamu berbicara Bahasa Inggris?
92. B: Ya.
93. A: Hem, karena di perkuliahan kamu ngomong Bahasa Inggris?
94. B: Ya.
95. A: Oke. Ada cara lain dik?
96. B: Ya, paling cumak apa, itu, belajar nyanyi-nyanyi sama anak-anak itu.
97. A: Oh ya, he eh, belajar nyanyi sama anak-anak, pakai Bahasa Inggris ya?
98. B: Ya, bu. Lagunya Bahasa Inggris semua (tersenyum).
99. A: Oke, oke. Kenapa dik lagu bahasa Inggris itu kok bisa mbantu kamu berbicara?
100. B: Kan, kalau kita nyanyi Bahasa Inggris, otomatis kan terbiasa bu dengan Bahasa Inggris itu. Terbiasa.
101. A: Terbiasa dalam hal apa? Pengucapan ya?
102. B: Ya, pengucapannya. Ya.
103. A: Oke, kalau pengucapannya udah terbiasa, bahasanya menjadi bagus, terus ngomongnya juga bagus?
104. B: Ya.
105. A: Oke. Ada cara lain dik?
106. B: Cara lain, ndak (tertawa).
107. A: Misalkan: perkuliahan, kemudian nyanyi-nyanyi bahasa Inggris...
108. B: Ya mungkin itu aja bu, kalau saya.
109. A: Itu aja ya?
110. B: Ya.

111. A: Dik, kamu pernah ndak praktek ngomong gitu, sama temen-temen kuliah, atau sama temen di luar sana?
112. B: Jarang (tersenyum).
113. A: Jarang. Kalau jarang, berarti, pernah ya?
114. B: Ya cumak satu kali, dua kali.
115. A: Ya. Sama teman kuliah ya?
116. B: Ya. Sama temen kuliah.
117. A: Ehm, kalau kamu ngomong sama temen kuliahmu itu kalau pas kapan dik?
118. B: Pas ngumpul, ngumpul gitu bu, ngumpul-ngumpul, iseng-iseng, iseng-iseng...
119. A: He eh, kalau pas nggak ada mata kuliah ya?
120. B: Ya.
121. A: Oke. Kalau sama temen di luar dik? Sekali dua kali pernah berbicara?
122. B: E, nggak pernah.
123. A: Nggak pernah ya. Kalau chattingan dik?
124. B: Saya nggak pernah chattingan bu (tertawa).
125. A: Nggak pernah chattingan ya?
126. B: Nggak pernah.
127. A: Oke. SMSan, tilfun-tilfunan pakai Bahasa Inggris?
128. B: Sekali dua kali.
129. A: Sekali dua kali ya? Biasanya sama siapa itu? Sama temen kuliah atau temen...
130. B: Temen kuliah.
131. A: Temen kuliah ya. Oke, nek menurut pendapatmu, kaya SMSan, sama tilfun-tilfunan itu bisa mbantu kamu berbicara Bahasa Inggris ndak dik?
132. B: Ya, kalau..., bisa bu, sebenarnya bisa.
133. A: He eh, he eh, cumak mungkin dari sisi banyak atau tidaknya yang nggak tahu ya?
134. B: Ya, ya.
135. A: Oke, tapi sedikit banyak, ada, ada manfaatnya ya? Oke, jadi basically, basically kamu datang kuliah, ndak peduli mata kuliah apa, sama nyanyi-nyanyi. Itu yang paling fokus ya, sering kamu lakukan dik ya?
136. B: Ya. Sering.
137. A: Oke. Terus, ini dik, e, nek menurut pendapatmu, bahasa Indonesia atau Bahasa Jawa itu, bisa mbantu kamu bbericara Bahasa Inggris atau nggak dik?
138. B: Kayaknya nggak bisa e bu (tersenyum).
139. A: Nggak bisa ya? Ehm, lha nek kamu pas ngomong Bahasa Inggris, terus stuck misalnya, itu kamu suka ndak pakai bahasa, kata-kata Bahasa Indonesia?
140. B: Maksudnya bu?
141. A: Kamu nyampur gitu, nyampur bahasa Inggris dengan kata-kata Bahasa Indonesia nek pas kamu ndak ngerti apa yang harus kamu katakan dalam Bahasa Inggris.
142. B: Ya (tersenyum).
143. A: Pernah melakukan itu?
144. B: Pernah (tertawa). Sering (tertawa).
145. A: (Tertawa) sering ya? Oh, ya berarti, artine Bahasa Indonesia bermanfaat.
146. B: Ya, bermanfaat, kaya gitu. Dikit bu.
147. A: (Tertawa) oke.
148. B: Oh, gitu ya kegunaannya.

149. A: Kalau Bahasa Jawa pernah nggak yang kaya gitu dik? Pakai kata-kata bahasa Jawa?
150. B: Sering itu bu (tertawa).
151. A: Sering ya?
152. B: Apalagi kalau temen-temen kan nggak semuanya anak kuliah bu, ada yang, anu, jadinya ya dicampur-campur gitu.
153. A: Oh, oke. Kalau kamu pas ngomong sama anak-anak yang nggak kuliah gitu, pakai clemong-clemong pakai Bahasa Inggris, tapi nyampur pakai Bahasa Jawa gitu, atau Bahasa Jawa campur Bahasa Inggris gitu?
154. B: Ya, kadang Jawa tok (tertawa).
155. A: (Tertawa) oke, oke. Gini dik, kalau ini, kalau, tadi kan kamu bilang ya, ehm, kalau pas kamu bingung, nggak tahu kata Bahasa Inggrisnya, kamu nyampur pakai Bahasa Indonesia atau Bahasa Jawa. Ada cara lain ndak dik, kalau kamu pas bingung ndak ngerti kata Bahasa Inggris, itu, ada cara lain nggak?
156. B: Kadang anu, apa itu, satu kata itu bisa menjadi satu kalimat bu.
157. A: He eh?
158. B: Dijelaskan gitu.
159. A: Oh, oke. Oke, kamu mendeskripsikan?
160. B: Ya. Seperti itu.
161. A: Berarti kamu nggak, nggak pakai satu kata yang kamu mau, tapi terus kamu deskripsikan?
162. B: Ya.
163. A: Oke. Ada cara lain, selain...
164. B: Mungkin itu saja.
165. A: Gitu ya?
166. B: Ya.
167. A: Pernah pakai bahasa isyarat nggak dik? Kalau pas kamu nggak ngerti, terus pakai isyarat?
168. B: Sering bu (tertawa).
169. A: (Tertawa) pakai bahasa tubuh gitu. Sering ya?
170. B: Ya.
171. A: Oke. Ada lagi?
172. B: Udah. Nggak ada bu.
173. A: Tadi..., kamu pernah nanya ndak dik? Nanya ke, misalnya pas kamu ngomong ya, terus stuck kaya gitu, terus kamu nanya ke orang yang sedang kamu ajak berbicara. Pernah nggak dik?
174. B: (Berpikir).
175. A: Atau kamu pasang wajah yang kaya bingung gitu, kemudian kamu punya harapan dia membantu kamu?
176. B: Sering itu bu, sering kaya gitu.
177. A: (Tertawa). Oke.
178. B: Misalnya, sering.
179. A: Sering ya?
180. B: Ya.
181. A: Itu biasanya kamu lakukan sama dosen atau sama sesama teman?
182. B: Itu pas waktu kuliah speaking itu, sama temen-temen itu.
183. A: Hem, dan juga sama dosen ya?
184. B: Kalau ke dosen nggak.
185. A: Nggak ya?
186. B: Jarang.

187. A: Ke sesama teman ya?
188. B: Ya.
189. A: Oke. Oke. Nha, kita lanjutkan. Pada waktu kamu ngomong Bahasa Inggris dik, kamu suka milih-milih topik tertentu apa ndak dik?
190. B: Ya. Suka.
191. A: Jadi, jadi, kalau ada topik yang kamu suka, terus gimana, kalau topiknya kamu suka, terus rasanya gimana? Kamu terus jadi ngomong lancar...
192. B: Bukan, bukan, topik yang kita pilih, yang kita suka itu, gimana ya, untuk njelasinnya gampang pakai Bahasa Inggris. Kalau topiknya yang lain, kadang nggak siap jadinya ngeblank, nggak bisa, nggak bisa njelasin.
193. A: Oh, he eh. Kalau topiknya kamu suka, terus kamu gampang menjelaskan, jadinya ngomongmu ya lancar?
194. B: Ya, seperti itu.
195. A: Kalau topiknya sulit kamu nggak bisa njelasin, nantinya nggak bisa ngomong, gitu?
196. B: Ya.
197. A: Oke. Biasanya topik apa dik yang kamu suka dik, yang membuat kamu ngomongnya lancar kaya gitu?
198. B: Kadang itu... (Berpikir).
199. A: Lagu-lagu kali ya?
200. B: Ya, seperti itu.
201. A: Lha topik yang kamu nggak suka dik? Apa dik?
202. B: Biasanya itu, kaya, topik apa itu, aborsi, itu bu.
203. A: Aborsi?
204. B: Ya.
205. A: Kenapa dik kok...
206. B: Itu njelasinnya kaya, obat-obatnya itu yang sulit.
207. A: (Tertawa) obat-obatnya yang sulit?
208. B: Ya.
209. A: Oke, jadi terbentur pada vocabularynya ya?
210. B: Ya, ya.
211. A: Karena vocabularynya terbatas, akhirnya terus ngomongnya nggak bisa lancar gitu ya?
212. B: Ya.
213. A: Oke. Kalau situasi dik, misalnya situasi percakapan itu berubah, misalnya, ada yang formal, ada yang non formal, kaya gitu tuh mempengaruhi berbicara Bahasa Inggrismu atau ndak?
214. B: Ya, mempengaruhi juga bu.
215. A: He eh, gimana dik? Tolong jelaskan dik.
216. B: Ya, kadang, ya itu tadi bu, biasanya ngeblank, nggak bisa berpikir lagi. Hilang (tertawa).
217. A: Kalau formal?
218. B: Kalau formal, itu bu, nervous.
219. A: He eh, nervous, ya? Oke. Kalau yang non formal, kamu bisa lebih, bisa lebih baik ya?
220. B: Ya.
221. A: Oke. Kalau pas kamu nervous, tadi kamu bilang ya kamu nervous, pas nervous gitu, biasanya apa yang kamu lakukan dik untuk mengurangi rasa nervous itu?
222. B: Gimana bu ya (tertawa), kadang diem.

223. A: Diem?
224. B: Ya.
225. A: Lha kalau pas diem gitu, kamu ngapain? Mikir, atau cuman diem, terus diem aja gitu.
226. B: Ya, sambil mikir bu. Diem sambil mikir. Ya, “Ini mau ngomong apa?” Biasanya gitu.
227. A: Hem, oke, kalau sudah ketemu, terus kamu mencoba katakan?
228. B: Ya.
229. A: Oke. Ada cara lain dik, untuk mengurangi rasa nervous itu?
230. B: Cuma itu tok (tersenyum).
231. A: Ada orang yang percaya bahwa dengan menganggap orang-orang di sekitarnya itu tidak ada, itu bisa mengurangi nervous.
232. B: Terlalu PD bu.
233. A: Terlalu PD?
234. B: (Tertawa).
235. A: Kamu nggak pernah melakukan itu?
236. B: Ya sering sih, tapi kalau, gimana ya, kalau seumpama speaking gitu, kita presentasi, kalau terlalu PD, kalau kita udah menguasai materi, seperti itu. Kalau belum kan ya...
237. A: Nggak bisa ya?
238. B: Nggak bisa (tertawa).
239. A: Jadi nek menurut kamu harus ada persiapan sebelumnya gitu ya?
240. B: Ya.
241. A: Kalau sudah siap berarti kamu, nervousnya akan berkurang?
242. B: Ya.
243. A: Siap dulu?
244. B: Ya, siap dulu.
245. A: Ada juga orang yang gini dik, dengan bernafas dalam (menarik nafas panjang) misalnya.
246. B: Nggak membantu itu.
247. A: Kadang-kadang?
248. B: Nggak membantu itu.
249. A: Nggak membantu ya?
250. B: Nggak.
251. A: Oh ya?
252. B: Nggak membantu, kalau saya.
253. A: Kamu pernah melakukan itu ya?
254. B: Nggak pernah.
255. A: Oh, oke. (Tersenyum). Oke, then. Ehm, terus ini dik, ehm, tadi kan kamu bilang bahwa kamu belajar Bahasa Inggris terutama pada waktu perkuliahan, nggak peduli kuliah speaking atau kuliah yang lain. Tapi di luar sana kadang-kadang kamu masih belajar Bahasa Inggris apa nggak dik? Terutama untuk speaking dik?
256. B: (Berpikir).
257. A: Selain nyanyi-nyanyi sama temen, terus...
258. B: Nggak pernah bu.
259. A: Nggak pernah ya?
260. B: Nggak pernah.
261. A: Oke. Berarti kamu cuman fokus pada perkuliahan, sama yang nyanyi-nyanyi itu ya?
262. B: Ya, ya, ya.

263. A: Oke. Terus ini dik, selama ini kamu pernah nggak dik kamu memperhatikan perkembangan belajar Bahasa Inggrismu, terutama untuk yang speaking? Secara nyadar gitu kamu memperhatikan, “Oh selama ini aku itu naik, oh turun, oh hancur”.
264. B: Oh, ya.
265. A: Ya?
266. B: Ya.
267. A: Gimana? Tolong ceritakan. Kamu sudah semakin meningkat atau...
268. B: Kayanya, ya, ya ada peningkatan dikit gitu bu. Sedikit.
269. A: Ya, he eh. Ya, meskipun sedikit, tapi ada peningkatan ya? Dari waktu ke waktu, terus meningkat ya?
270. B: Ya ada peningkatan. Dulu kayanya presentasi di depan itu nggak berani.
271. A: Nggak berani?
272. B: Nggak berani.
273. A: Sekarang?
274. B: Kalau sekarang berani.
275. A: Ya, he eh, bagus. Oke. Pertanyaan yang terakhir dik. Selain temen-temenmu, temen-temen ngeband, sama temen-temen kuliah, dan juga dosen, ada ndak dik orang-orang disekitarmu yang bisa membantu kamu belajar berbicara Bahasa Inggris?
276. B: Kalau..., nggak ada bu, cuman temen-temen aja.
277. A: Gitu ya?
278. B: Ya.
279. A: Kalau anggota keluarga? Di rumah?
280. B: Nggak ada.
281. A: Nggak ada ya? Secara langsung itu nggak ada yang bisa mbantu ya?
282. B: Nggak ada.
283. A: Kalau secara tidak langsung dik?
284. B: Maksudnya?
285. A: Misalnya dukungan moral, kalau ngomong, ngobrol gitu, kalau pas kamu punya kesulitan tentang belajar Bahasa Inggris terus kamu ngobrol sama ibu?
286. B: Oh, nggak pernah (tersenyum).
287. A: Nggak pernah ya? Sama adik kakak?
288. B: Adik, nggak. Karena nggak punya bu (tertawa).
289. A: Nggak punya adik tah?
290. B: Nggak punya.
291. A: Kakak?
292. B: Nggak punya.
293. A: Kamu sendirian to?
294. B: Sendirian.
295. A: Oh, alah (tertawa). Nggak pernah ngobrol sama bapak ibu tentang belajar bahasa Inggris?
296. B: Nggak pernah. Paling, sama kakak ponakan itu, sama...
297. A: Kakak sepupu?
298. B: Ya.
299. A: Oke. Itu bisa mbantu kamu nggak dik? Kalau ngobrol sama kakak sepupu misalnya. Itu bisa mbantu kamu, ndak tahu, mungkin bisa menjadi rileks, atau menjadi...
300. B: Nggak. Kalau kakak sepupu itu nggak bisa kayanya, soalnya orangnya basiknya bukan orang Inggris. Teknik, teknik apa itu, nggak tahu.
301. A: Teknik ya?

302. B: Ya.
303. A: Oke. Ya udah. Selama ini kamu pernah nyari-nyari bule, atau nyari orang asing supaya kamu bisa latihan Bahasa Inggris atau nggak dik?
304. B: Oh itu dulu, sekali cuman. Sama temen.
305. A: Gimana? Ceritakan.
306. B: Cuman foto, cumak minta foto (tersenyum).
307. A: Minta foto?
308. B: Ya.
309. A: Tapi pakai Bahasa Inggris to?
310. B: Ya, tapi yang ngomong temen saya. Saat itu sama..., siapa itu, Shun'an itu bu.
311. A: Oh. Kamu sendiri, kamu nggak ngajak ngomong?
312. B: Nggak.
313. A: Nggak ya?
314. B: Nggak boleh sama si..., siapa itu, sama guidenya itu.
315. A: Oh, oke. Cuma minta foto tok gitu?
316. B: Ya, cumak minta foto.
317. A: Lha ini dik, kalau les Bahasa Inggris dik? Kamu pernah nggak dik?
318. B: Dulu SD, SD pernah bu, sekali.
319. A: SD yo?
320. B: Itu kan..., sebenarnya saya nggak suka gitu, nggak suka terus waktu masuk SMP gurunya itu killer gitu lho bu.
321. A: (Tertawa).
322. B: Guru Bahasa Inggrisnya killer, konsekuensinya, mau nggak mau harus belajar gitu.
323. A: Terus lama-lama jadi suka Bahasa Inggris, malahan?
324. B: Ya.
325. A: Oke, terus SMA masuk, oh, masih suka Bahasa Inggris? Terus...
326. B: Terus masuk sini.
327. A: Oke, he eh, he eh, he eh. Oke, ehm, kayanya sudah semua, e, masih ada ndak dik, masih ada nggak yang bisa kamu sampaikan tentang strategi belajar yang selama ini sudah kamu pakai, atau yang dalam waktu dekat akan kamu pakai yang belum sempat kita bahas?
328. B: Kayanya nggak ada.
329. A: Nggak ada ya? Oke, nanti kalau kamu tiba-tiba kepikiran, e, tolong hubungi saya, atau kamu tulis di diary.
330. B: Ya, ya.
331. A: Oke, oke. Terima kasih atas waktunya.
332. B: Ya

Iv-Bambang-03/11/09-English

00.19.38

A: Interviewer

B: Interviewee

1. A: This interview is recorded on 03 November 2009 at 09.30. What's your student ID number?
2. B: Um, 06410002.

3. A: Thanks. Today we're going to talk about learning strategies, firstly, for English as a whole and later, for Speaking. Um, in your opinion, are there any strategies you can use to learn English as a whole?
4. B: To me, there are.
5. A: Uh-huh. Please tell me about it.
6. B: Well, if we don't..., learning strategies like what?
7. A: Um, those you have used. Techniques you have used, so that your English learning is successful. Please give me one example. What have you used?
8. B: Reading novels.
9. A: Okay. Reading English novels?
10. B: Yes.
11. A: Okay. What language skill is it useful for?
12. B: It's normally useful for Speaking.
13. A: Speaking?
14. B: It's useful because I can get many new words.
15. A: Uh-huh. Okay. Oh, so, when you read, you get some new words?
16. B: Yes.
17. A: So, can you improve your vocabulary?
18. B: It's normally like that.
19. A: Okay. When your vocabulary is good, your speaking skills also improve. Is it like that?
20. B: It depends... (Laughing).
21. A: (Laughing). Okay. Are there any other influencing factors?
22. B: Yes.
23. A: Okay, now, let's focus on vocabulary because you've said that you can improve your vocabulary by reading English novels. What ways have you used to improve your vocabulary through English novels?
24. B: Ways?
25. A: So far, what have you done?
26. B: Well, when I find words that..., in the novels there are words that I don't understand. I collect them and look them up in the dictionary. That's what I usually do.
27. A: I see. How do you collect those words? Do you write them on a separate piece of paper?
28. B: Yes, I do it in that way. I sometimes simply try to memorise them.
29. A: Oh, I see. You simply memorise them?
30. B: Yes.
31. A: But you've looked up their meaning, haven't you?
32. B: I sometimes can't find their meaning in the dictionary (laughing).
33. A: Uh-huh, then, what do you do to solve that problem?
34. B: Well, what do I do? I simply use my common sense to get the meaning.
35. A: Using common sense?
36. B: Yes.
37. A: Does it mean you see..., you guess the meaning from the sentence, from the contexts of the word?
38. B: Yes, yes, from the sentence.
39. A: When you can't find the word meaning in the dictionary or when you don't want to use the dictionary, you can guess the word meaning from its contexts?
40. B: Yes.

41. A: Okay. Now, say you've known the meaning of the word from the dictionary or from your guess based on the word contexts, how do you store those words in your memory so that you can retrieve them easily later?
42. B: That's the hardest part (smiling).
43. A: (Laughing). What have you done to solve such problem, then?
44. B: That problem...
45. A: To store the words in your memory?
46. B: That's hard. I haven't been able to do so.
47. A: Not yet?
48. B: How can I do it?
49. A: Er, have you ever tried any ways to solve it or not?
50. B: Not yet.
51. A: Not yet? Thus, you only look up...
52. B: If I use it in speaking, well, because of nervousness, I remember the words here but once I need them for speaking, to deliver a presentation, for instance, I forget them completely.
53. A: Oh, really?
54. B: Yes (laughing).
55. A: (Laughing) although you have memorised them, you forget them completely when you are nervous?
56. B: Simply disappearing.
57. A: Okay, now, imagine that you aren't going to deliver a presentation and you find a new English word. To store the word in your memory, what do you do? Do you "chant" it repeatedly; read it again and again; or what?
58. B: It's normally hard to memorise them. It's normally hard. At one time I can remember them, but at another time I forget them. However, I sometimes unconsciously recall them. All a sudden, I can remember them.
59. A: Accidentally remembering them?
60. B: Yes.
61. A: Okay. All a sudden you can remember them, but before that, you have read them repeatedly, haven't you?
62. B: Yes.
63. A: Or, do you stick some written new words on the wall, for instance?
64. B: No, I don't (laughing).
65. A: No? You've never used such strategy?
66. B: Never (laughing).
67. A: All you do is writing the new words on a separate piece of paper; you look up their meaning in the dictionary; you read them repeatedly; and all a sudden you can remember them?
68. B: Yes.
69. A: Okay. Er, is that the only strategy that you have used for your vocabulary, so far? For the vocabulary?
70. B: Yes. I reckon that's the only one (laughing).
71. A: Okay. All right. Okay. Now, let's focus on speaking skills.
72. B: Yes.
73. A: Um, um, so far, what ways, what strategies have you used so that your study for your speaking skills successful?
74. B: That's the hard thing.
75. A: Uh-huh.
76. B: Well, all I have used is attending lectures, ma'am.

77. A: Lectures on Speaking?
78. B: Yes.
79. A: Okay. Attending lectures. That's the first strategy you've used. Now, please tell me how attending lectures can help you improve your speaking skills.
80. B: Well, because in the lectures, I speak English.
81. A: Okay, you speak English in the class?
82. B: Yes, yes.
83. A: Okay. The lectures force you to speak English...
84. B: Yes, that's the first (laughing).
85. A: Um, uh-huh.
86. B: I do it not only in speaking classes, but in all other classes. I speak English in those classes.
87. A: Where?
88. B: In the classes of other units that I take.
89. A: Oh, I see?
90. B: Yes.
91. A: Okay. So, it is not only the speaking classes but also the classes of other units. Attending all other units can help you improve your speaking skills?
92. B: Yes.
93. A: I see. It's because in each class you have to speak English?
94. B: Yes.
95. A: Okay. Are there any other strategies?
96. B: Well, maybe by playing music with friends.
97. A: Oh really? Uh-huh. Playing music with your friends? Do you sing English songs?
98. B: Yes, ma'am. All are English songs (laughing).
99. A: Okay, okay. How can English songs help you improve your speaking skills?
100. B: When we sing, we automatically get used to English, don't we? We become accustomed to English.
101. A: You get used to what? How to pronounce English words?
102. B: Yes, the pronunciation. Yes.
103. A: Okay. If your pronunciation is good, your English is good, and you also speak better?
104. B: Yes.
105. A: Okay. Do you use any other strategies?
106. B: No, I don't (laughing).
107. A: So, attending lectures and singing English songs?
108. B: Yes, that's all, ma'am. To me.
109. A: That's all?
110. B: Yes.
111. A: Have you ever practised to speak English with your peers or with off-campus friends?
112. B: Rarely (laughing).
113. A: Rarely. But, it means, you have, doesn't it?
114. B: Yes, only once or twice.
115. A: Yes. Do you do it with your peers?
116. B: Yes, classmates.
117. A: Um, when do you usually practise to speak English with your classmates?
118. B: When we gather together. When we are together, killing time...
119. A: Uh-huh, when there is no lecture?
120. B: Yes.

121. A: Okay. What about practising to speak English with off-campus friends?
Have you ever done it, once or twice?
122. B: Er, never.
123. A: Never? What about online chats?
124. B: I've never had any online chats ma'am (laughing).
125. A: Never having online chats?
126. B: Never.
127. A: Okay. What about writing text messages or making telephone calls in English? Have you?
128. B: Once or twice.
129. A: Once or twice? Whom do you write to? Classmates or...
130. B: Classmates.
131. A: Classmates? Okay. In your opinion, can exchanging text messages and making telephone calls be useful for the improvement of your speaking skills?
132. B: Well, if..., yes, they can.
133. A: Uh-huh, uh-huh. But, you aren't sure the degree of their contribution?
134. B: No, no.
135. A: Okay. So, more or less, they are useful? Okay. To recap, you basically attend lectures, any lectures, and sing English songs. Those are your focus? Those that you have used most frequently?
136. B: Yes. I often do those techniques.
137. A: Okay. By the way, do you think Indonesian or Javanese can be useful for you to learn to speak English?
138. B: I don't think so (laughing).
139. A: No? Um, when you speak English and you're stuck in the middle of a sentence, have you ever used Indonesian words as the solution?
140. B: What do you mean?
141. A: You mix English with Indonesian when you don't know the English of a word or when you don't know how to say things in English?
142. B: Yes (laughing).
143. A: Have you ever done it?
144. B: I have (laughing). Very often (laughing).
145. A: (Laughing) often? Oh, it means that Indonesian is rather useful.
146. B: Yes, it is. A little.
147. A: (Laughing) okay.
148. B: Oh, is that the use?
149. A: Have you used Javanese in such case? Have you used Javanese words?
150. B: Often (laughing).
151. A: Often?
152. B: My friends are not all university students, ma'am. Therefore, we mix codes.
153. A: Oh, okay. When you speak with those who aren't university students, you mix English and Javanese words, or vice versa, you speak Javanese but you insert one or two English words here and there?
154. B: Yes. Sometimes, we only speak Javanese (laughing).
155. A: (Laughing) okay, okay. Well, you've said that when you are confused not knowing the English of certain words you use Indonesian or Javanese words. Have you ever used any other strategies in addition to that?
156. B: Sometimes, I replace the word using many words building up a sentence.
157. A: Uh-huh?
158. B: I explain the word.

159. A: Oh, okay. Okay. You describe the word?
160. B: Yes. I do in that way.
161. A: Instead of using the word, you use some other words to describe it.
162. B: Yes.
163. A: Okay. Any other ways, in addition to...
164. B: That's all, I reckon.
165. A: That's all?
166. B: Yes.
167. A: Have you ever used gestures? When you are stuck, have you ever used gestures?
168. B: Often (laughing).
169. A: (Laughing) using body language? Often?
170. B: Yes.
171. A: Okay. What else?
172. B: That's all. There is no more, ma'am.
173. A: Well..., have you ever asked for help? Asking for help from the one you are talking to when you are stuck. Have you?
174. B: (Thinking).
175. A: Or, you show facial expression showing that you are lost with the expectation for your addressee to help you?
176. B: I often do it ma'am.
177. A: (Laughing). Okay.
178. B: For instance..., I often do it.
179. A: Often?
180. B: Yes.
181. A: Do you do it when you speak with your lecturers or with your peers?
182. B: I do it when attending lectures with my classmates.
183. A: I see. Do you do it to your lecturers, as well?
184. B: No, not to the lecturers.
185. A: No?
186. B: Very rarely.
187. A: Only to friends?
188. B: Yes.
189. A: Okay, okay. Let's continue. When you speak English, do you select any topics that you like to talk about?
190. B: Yes. I like doing it.
191. A: So, when you find a topic that you like, what do you do? If you like the topic, how do you feel? You speak more fluently?
192. B: No, no. When I talk about the topic that I chose, topic that I like, I find it easier to explain things about it in English. If talking about other topics, I may not be ready. My brain becomes 'blanked'. I can't explain things about the topic.
193. A: Oh, uh-huh. When you like the topic, you can explain things more easily and, hence, you can speak more fluently?
194. B: Yes, that's right.
195. A: When the topic is the one you dislike, you find it hard to explain things, and therefore, you can't speak?
196. B: Yes.
197. A: Okay. What topics do you like? The ones that make you speak English more fluently?
198. B: Normally... (Thinking).

199. A: Songs, I guess.
200. B: Yes, that's right.
201. A: What about topics that you dislike? What are they?
202. B: Topics, like abortion.
203. A: Abortion?
204. B: Yes.
205. A: Why?
206. B: It's hard to explain the medicine terms.
207. A: (Laughing) the terms for the medicines are difficult?
208. B: Yes.
209. A: Okay. It's a matter of vocabulary?
210. B: Yes, yes.
211. A: Because of lack of vocabulary, you can't speak English fluently.
212. B: Yes.
213. A: Okay. What about the situation of the conversation? For instance, it can be formal or informal. Does it influence you in speaking English?
214. B: Yes, it does, ma'am.
215. A: Uh-huh. How is it? Please, tell me.
216. B: Well, as I've said, my brain may become blanked. I may not be able to think. Lost (laughing).
217. A: When the situation is formal?
218. B: When the situation is formal, ma'am. I become nervous.
219. A: Uh-huh, nervous? Okay. Can you speak little better when the situation is less formal?
220. B: Yes.
221. A: Okay. You've just said that you're nervous when you speak in formal situation. What do you usually do to reduce the intensity of the feelings when you are nervous?
222. B: What do I do (laughing)? I'm normally silent.
223. A: Silent?
224. B: Yes.
225. A: When you're silent, what do you do? Do you think or simply keep silent doing nothing?
226. B: Well, I think, when I'm silent. I think about what I should say. I usually think in that way.
227. A: I see. Okay. Do you talk, once you find some ideas?
228. B: Yes.
229. A: Okay. Are there any other ways to reduce the intensity of your nervousness?
230. B: That's all (smiling).
231. A: Some people believe that by pretending that there is nobody around can help reduce such feelings.
232. B: That's over self-confident.
233. A: Over self-confident?
234. B: (Laughing).
235. A: You've never done it?
236. B: Well, I often do it but being confident can only happen when we master the subject matter of, for instance, public speaking or a presentation. If not...
237. A: You can't be confident?
238. B: No, I can't (laughing).

239. A: So, you reckon that there must be good preparation prior the presentation delivery?
240. B: Yes.
241. A: When you are ready, you don't feel nervous too much?
242. B: That's right.
243. A: Being ready, first?
244. B: Yes, be ready first.
245. A: Some other people use deep breath like this (taking a deep breath as a demonstration).
246. B: It doesn't work.
247. A: Sometimes?
248. B: It doesn't work.
249. A: It doesn't?
250. B: No.
251. A: Really?
252. B: To me, it doesn't help me.
253. A: Have you ever done it?
254. B: Never.
255. A: Oh, okay (smiling). Okay, then. Um, you've said that you study for your speaking skills when you attend lectures, regardless lectures for speaking units or other units. When you are away from the lectures, do you still study English, especially for Speaking?
256. B: (Thinking).
257. A: In addition to singing some English songs and...
258. B: Never.
259. A: Never?
260. B: Never.
261. A: Okay. So, you focus only on attending lectures and singing English songs?
262. B: Yes, yes, yes.
263. A: Okay. By the way, have you ever paid any attention to the progress of your English learning, especially speaking skills? You intentionally evaluate yourself, "Oh, I've achieved some improvement; Oh, my speaking skills get worse; Oh, my speaking skills are totally disastrous?" Have you?
264. B: Oh, I have.
265. A: Yes?
266. B: Yes.
267. A: How is it? Please, tell me. Have you achieved...
268. B: I believe I've achieved a little. A little.
269. A: Yes, uh-huh. Well, although it's a little, there is some improvement? Have you improved your skills from time to time?
270. B: Yes, there is some improvement. I used to be too scared to give a presentation in English in front of the class.
271. A: You didn't have any nerve to do it?
272. B: No.
273. A: Now?
274. B: I can do it, now.
275. A: Yes? Uh-huh, good. Okay. It's the last question. In addition to friends, friends in your band and classmates, and lecturers, are there any other people who can help you study for English speaking skills?
276. B: If..., no, there isn't. Only friends.

277. A: I see?
278. B: Yes.
279. A: What about family members? At home?
280. B: No.
281. A: Nobody? Nobody can help you learn English?
282. B: No, there isn't.
283. A: Even indirectly?
284. B: What do you mean?
285. A: For instance, moral support given by having informal chats about your English learning problems. Sharing with your mother, for instance?
286. B: Oh, never (smiling).
287. A: Never? Brothers or sisters?
288. B: Younger sibling... no, never. I have no younger siblings (laughing).
289. A: Don't you?
290. B: No.
291. A: Elder siblings?
292. B: No elder siblings, either.
293. A: No?
294. B: I'm an only child in the family.
295. A: Oh my god (laughing). You never shared your English learning problems with your parents?
296. B: Never. I may do it with a relative...
297. A: A cousin?
298. B: Yes.
299. A: Okay. Does it help you? Does sharing with a cousin help you become, for instance, more relaxed or...
300. B: No, it doesn't. My cousin doesn't have any English educational background. He majors in Engineering. I don't know which engineering, though.
301. A: Engineering?
302. B: Yes.
303. A: Okay. Forget it. By the way, have you ever sought for native speakers of English so that you can practise to speak English?
304. B: Oh, just once. Long time ago. I did it with a friend.
305. A: How was it? Please tell me.
306. B: We simply requested a picture of us together with him (laughing).
307. A: Picture taking?
308. B: Yes.
309. A: Did you ask for it in English?
310. B: Yes, but it was my friend who spoke. It was..., who's that, Bejo (a pseudonym, ma'am).
311. A: Oh. You didn't speak at all?
312. B: No.
313. A: No?
314. B: We weren't allowed to talk by his tour guide.
315. A: Oh, okay. So, you simply took pictures?
316. B: Yes, simply taking pictures.
317. A: What about attending private English course? Have you ever had any?
318. B: Long time ago, when I was at Primary School.
319. A: Primary School?

320. B: Well..., I actually didn't like English, but the English teacher at the Secondary School was a 'killer' teacher.
321. A: (Laughing).
322. B: The English teacher was a 'killer' teacher. Consequently, like or dislike, I had to learn English.
323. A: Through time, you unconsciously like it?
324. B: Yes.
325. A: Okay. In Senior High School you still like English, and...
326. B: Then, here I am, studying English at this university.
327. A: Okay, uh-huh, uh-huh, uh-huh. Okay. Um, it seems that we've covered all, er, do you still have any information about learning strategies you have been using so far or that you are going to use in the near future? Are there any strategies that we haven't talked about?
328. B: I don't think so.
329. A: No more? Okay, if you suddenly recall some later, can you contact me or write them as additional notes in the next learning diary?
330. B: Yes, yes.
331. A: Okay, okay. Thanks a lot for your time.
332. B: Don't mention it.