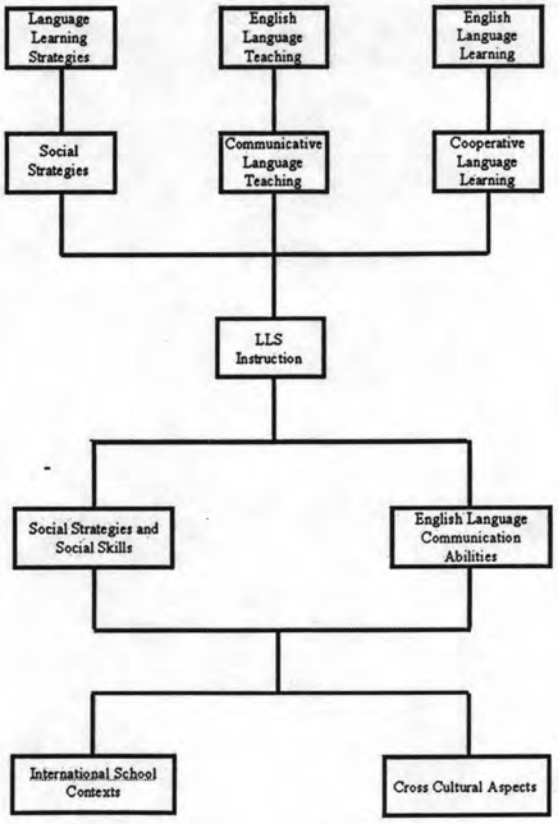
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review of this study on 'Effects of Social Strategies Instruction on Social Strategies Use and English Language Communication Abilities of Primary Students in Schools Using International Baccalaureate Curriculum' covers different key aspects focusing in the study. These major components are (1) Language Learning Strategies (LLS) with the concentration on social strategies, (2) approaches of language teaching and learning with the concentration on young learners, (3) Language Learning Strategies Instruction, (4) social strategies and social skills, (5) children's English language communication abilities, and (6) an overview of international education and cross cultural aspects. The review also covers various research conducted with young language learners and research on international education worldwide. These aspects can be outlined as follows:

Figure 2.1

Outline of Literature Review



2.1 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

The background of language learning strategies (LLS) can be traced back to 1970s when most researchers had a primary concern on "identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language." (Rubin and Wenden, 1987). Lists of strategies and other features presumed to be essential for all good second language learners are varied from being an accurate guesser, willing to make mistakes, and even further to monitoring their own behaviors. A number of these characteristics have been validated by early researchers such as Rubin, Wong-Fillmore, Tarone, Naiman, and Bialystok which had provided basic concepts and guidelines of LLS during the process of foreign language learning.

2.1.1 Definitions of LLS

The term language learning strategies has been defined by many researchers. Back in 1975, Rubin stated that LLS are the techniques or devices that learners use to acquire a second language knowledge while Stern in the same year defined LLS as approaches to learning which govern the choice of specific techniques. Bialystok (1978) wrote that LLS are methods or conscious enterprise for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language. The last group of researchers in 1970s, Naiman et al. (1978) suggested LLS are generally more or less deliberate approaches to learning.

Later on, Tarone (1983) defined LLS as attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language – to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence. Cohen (1984) added LLS are mental operations that learners used to accomplish learning task. Then, Rubin came back in 1987 stressed that LLS are set of operations, steps, plans and routines of what learners do to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information, to regulate learning. Within the same year, Wenden referred LLS to language learning behaviors learners actually engage in, strategic knowledge about learning, to learn and regulate a second language learning. Together, Wenden and Rubin (1987) defined LLS are what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning.

Between the end of 1980s and the beginning 1990s, another set of researchers stepped in to expand the definitions of LLS in depth. Starting with Chamot in 1987 whose explanation to LLS is techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information. Oxford (1989) began her LLS definition as steps taken by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage and retrieval of information. Then, a year later, she amplified that LLS are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation (Oxford, 1990). In 1993, Oxford finally concluded that LLS are specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students often intentionally use to improve their progress in developing second language skills. The latest LLS definition is from Embi in 1996, which stated that LLS can be defined as the plans and / or actions that learners take to enhance their process of language learning.

All of these LLS definitions may be combined as ways to help students become more successful in their efforts to learn and communicate in foreign languages. The application of foreign language learning and use strategies is viewed as one vehicle for promoting greater success. A strategy is considered to be "effective" if it provides positive support to the students in their attempts to learn or use the foreign language (Cohen et al., 1996).

2.1.2 Characteristics of LLS

Even though the terminology is not always uniform, researchers such as Wenden & Rubin (1987) may be using "learner strategies" while O'Malley & Chamot (1990) referred them as "learning strategies" and Oxford (1990) adopted the term "language learning strategies", there are a number of basic characteristics in the generally accepted view of LLS. First, LLS are learner generated; they are steps taken by language learners. Second, LLS enhance language learning and help develop language competence, as reflected in the learner's skills in listening, speaking, reading, or writing the second / foreign language. Third, LLS may be visible e.g. behaviors, steps, techniques or unnoticed such as thoughts and mental process.

Finally, LLS involve information and memory, which are, for examples, vocabulary knowledge, grammar rules, etc.

Two main sets of LLS characteristics proposed at different time by different researchers, namely Wenden (1987) and Oxford (1990) are illustrated below.

2.1.2.1 Wenden (1987)

- Learning strategies refer to specific actions or techniques; they are not features which describe a learner's broad language learning approach e.g. deep, surface, etc.
- Some of the learning strategies will be observable; whereas, others will not be observable.
- Strategies are problem oriented, that is, learners use them to respond to a learning need.
- LLS can contribute directly or indirectly to learning.
- Although these strategies may be consciously deployed, they can become automatized aster a prolonged period.
- LLS are behaviors which are amenable to change.

2.1.2.2 Oxford (1990) suggests twelve characteristics that LLS:

- contribute to the main goal of communicative competence.
- allow learners to become more self-directed.
- expand the role of teachers.
- are problem-oriented.
- are action basis.
- involve many aspects of the learner, not just cognitive.
- support learning both directly and indirectly.
- are not always observable.
- are often conscious, but can become automatic.
- are teachable.
- are flexible.
- are influenced by a variety of factors.

2.1.3 Typologies of LLS

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars, for instance Rubin 1981, Stern 1983, O'Malley and Chamot 1985, and Oxford 1990. However, most of these attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes. The following typologies of those aforementioned researchers are discussed as follows.

2.1.3.1 Rubin (1981), who pioneered much of the work in the field of strategies, makes the distinction between strategies contributing directly to learning and those contributing indirectly to learning. According to Rubin, there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These are:

A. Direct Strategies
   - *Cognitive Strategies*: clarification / verification of new knowledge, guessing, inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, problem-solving, practice, memorization, monitoring
   - *Metacongnitive Strategies*: oversee, regulate / self-direct language learning, planning, prioritizing, goal-setting

B. Indirect Strategies
   - *Social Strategies*: exposed oneself to activities in target language, self-management, practice acquired knowledge
   - *Communication Strategies*: using prior knowledge to remain in conversation, seeking opportunities to hear more of the target language and to produce new utterances.

2.1.3.2 Stern (1983): According to Stern, there are five main language learning strategies. These are as follows:

A. Management and Planning Strategies - These strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner can take charge of the development of his own program when he is helped by a teacher whose role is that of an advisor and resource person. That is to say that the learner should employ these following strategies:

- *Self-directed learning*
- *Setting goals*
- *Monitoring progress*
- *Self-evaluation*

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

- *Clarification*
- *Verification*
- *Guessing*
- *Inductive reasoning*
- *Deductive reasoning*
- *Practice*
- *Memorization*
- *Monitoring*

C. Communication and Experiential Strategies - Communication strategies are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication. These strategies are:

- *Circumlocution*
- *Gesturing*
- *Paraphrasing*
- *Asking for repetition and explanation*

D. Interpersonal Strategies - These strategies are suggesting language learners to monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. It is recommended that learners should be:

- *Seeking contact with native speakers*
- *Getting acquainted with target culture*

E. Affective Strategies - It is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. In some cases, the feeling of strangeness can be evoked by the foreign language. In some other cases, language learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of the target language. Good language learners are more or less conscious of these emotional problems. Affective strategies help language learners to have:

- *Positive attitude towards target language*
- *Ability to cope with emotional difficulties*

2.1.3.3 O'Malley and Chamot (1985) divide LLS into three prominent groups as follows:

A. Metacognitive Strategies - It can be stated that metacognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the main metacognitive strategies, it is possible to include:

- *Advance organizers*
- *Directed attention*
- *Selective attention*
- *Self-management*
- *Advance preparation*
- *Self-monitoring*
- *Delayed production*

- *Self-evaluation*
- *Self-reinforcement*

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

- *Repetition*
- *Resourcing*
- *Directed physical response*
- *Translation*
- *Grouping*
- *Note-taking*
- *Deduction*
- *Imagery*
- *Recombination*
- *Auditory*
- *Representation*
- *Keyword*
- *Contextualization*
- *Elaboration*
- *Transfer*
- *Inferencing*

C. Socioaffective Strategies - As to the socioaffective strategies, it can be stated that they are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others. They can be exaggerated as below.

- *Cooperation with peers*
- *Social-mediating activity*
- *Transacting with others*
- *Question for clarification*

2.1.3.4 Oxford (1990) sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence and divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into 6 groups. In Oxford's system, metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication. Oxford's typology of language learning strategies is shown in the following.

A. Memory Strategies

- *Creating mental linkages*: there are three subsets of this memory strategy which are grouping, associating / elaborating, and placing new words into a context.
- *Applying images and sounds*: different ways to enhance this strategy are using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, and representing sounds in memory.
- *Reviewing well*: i.e. structured reviewing
- *Employing action*: using physical response or sensation and using mechanical techniques fall under this strategy.

B. Cognitive Strategies

- *Practicing*: can be performed through repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturalistically.
- *Receiving and sending messages*: involve activities such as getting the idea quickly and using resources for receiving and sending messages.

- *Analyzing and reasoning*: reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating and transferring are for this type of strategy.
- *Creating structure for input and output*: include taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.

C. Compensation Strategies

- *Guessing intelligently*: by using linguistic clues as well as using other clues.
- *Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing*: eight different behaviors varied from 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 circumlocution or synonym are included in this strategy.

D. Metacognitive Strategies

- *Centering your learning*: can be implemented by overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, and delaying speech production to focus on listening.
- *Arranging and planning your learning*: prior activities to the lesson like finding out about language, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, and seeking practice opportunities are ideally.
- *Evaluating your learning*: i.e. self-monitoring and self-evaluation.

E. Affective Strategies

- *Lower your anxiety*: learners can adopt these strategies of using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation, using music and using laughter to calm themselves.

- *Encouraging yourself*: making positive statements, taking risks wisely, and rewarding yourself are amongst positive behaviors enhancing encouragement.
- *Taking your emotional temperature*: listening to your body, using checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing your feeling with someone else will help learners taking control of their emotions.

F. Social Strategies

- *Asking questions*: can be in form of asking for clarification or verification as well as asking for correction when information gap occurs.
- *Cooperating with others*: either with peers or with proficient users of the new language are the most common groups.
- *Empathizing with others*: by developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings as much as the situation allows.

2.1.4 Importance of LLS to Second Language Learning

When learning a new language, learners need not only to focus on the content but need to pay attention to ways to learn the target language as well. Since the amount of information to be processed by language learners is high in language classroom, learners use different language learning strategies in performing the tasks and processing the new input they face. LLS are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning. They provide valuable clues to language teachers about how their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom (Hismanoglu, 2000). The use of a wide variety of LLS appropriately can improve language skills of learners in a better and more efficient way. Different LLS help language learner to achieve his learning goals in various ways; for example, metacognitive strategies improve organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation, cognitive strategies include using

previous knowledge to help solve new problems while social strategies include asking native speakers to correct their pronunciation, or asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem. Developing skills in these three strategies of metacognitive, cognitive, and social can help language learner build up learner independence and autonomy whereby he can take control of his own learning.

Within communicative approaches to language teaching a key goal is for the learner to develop communicative competence in the target foreign language, and LLS, as mentioned earlier, can help students in doing so. Lessard-Clouston (1997) stated that LLS contribute to the development of the communicative competence of the students. The importance of communication strategies then became familiar amongst researchers as a key aspect of strategic competence, especially after Canale and Swain's (1980) influential article. Their piece initiated a number of works appeared about communication strategies in second / foreign language teaching. An important distinction exists, however, between communication strategies and LLS; that is the former strategies are used by speakers intentionally and consciously in order to cope with difficulties in communicating in a second / foreign language (Bialystok, 1990) while LLS are used more generally for all strategies that second / foreign language learners use in learning the target language. It can be concluded that communication strategies are therefore just one type of LLS. Taking that into account, language teachers aiming at developing the communicative competence of the students should be familiar with LLS. As Oxford (1990) stated, LLS are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence.

Besides developing the communicative competence of the students, teachers who train students to use LLS can help them become better language learners. Helping students understand good LLS and training them to develop and use such good LLS can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Early research on good language learners by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman et al. (1978) suggested a number of positive strategies that language learner employs. These strategies are ranging from using an active task approach in and monitoring his second / foreign language performance to listening to the radio in the target language and speaking with native speakers. A

study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also suggested that effective second / foreign language learners are aware of the LLS they use and why they use them.

However, a caution regarding LLS must also be noted. Although research into the good LLS revealed a number of positive strategies so that such strategies could also be used by bad language learners trying to become more successful in their learning, there is, unfortunately, always the possibility that bad language learners can use the same good LLS while becoming unsuccessful owing to some other reasons. At this point, it should be strongly stressed that using the same good language learning strategies does not guarantee that bad learners will also become successful in language learning since other factors may also play role in success. In fact Vann and Abraham (1990) found evidence suggesting that both 'good' and 'unsuccessful' language learners can be active users of similar LLS. Though it is important that they also discovered that their unsuccessful learners apparently lacked what are often called metacognitive strategies, which would enable them to assess the task and bring to bear the necessary strategies for its completion. It appears, then, that a number and range of LLS are important if language teachers are to assist students both in learning the second / foreign language and in becoming good language learners.

2.1.5 Social Strategies in Focus

Social strategies (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Rubin and Wenden 1987:23-27). They instead help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies were significantly associated with L2 proficiency in studies by the South African EFL study by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) and the investigation of native-English-speaking foreign language learners by Oxford and Ehrman (1995).

In relation to language communication abilities, Oxford (1990) states that social strategies are used not only for listening and speaking but, in fact, are helpful and essential to all four language skills. The relationship between social strategies and language abilities are elaborated as follows.

2.1.5.1 Asking Questions

This set of strategies includes both asking for clarification or verification and asking for correction. These two strategies are used differently in the four communication abilities. The first strategy is used more often in listening and reading while the latter can be found a lot with speaking and writing.

Asking for clarification in listening involves asking the more proficient speaker to slow down, paraphrase, repeat, explain, or clarify what he or she has said. Asking for verification in listening means making sure whether the message is understood correctly. Learners may also use the strategy of asking for clarification or verification when reading the new language. Usually they ask someone more proficient in the target language, although students at the same proficiency level can often provide clarifying or verifying information. In jigsaw listening or reading exercises, or in other activities involving these two skills, this strategy is commonly used (Oxford, 1990).

Asking for correction is mostly used in speaking and writing, because errors which are most obvious to other people occur in producing the new language. It is related to the strategy of self-monitoring, in which students notice and correct their own difficulties. In a spoken conversation, learners can ask the other person for correction of important problems. However, the other person cannot be expected to correct all errors made by the learner, because this would intimidate the learner, halt the conversation, and turn the conversation partner into a 'speech cop' (Oxford, 1990). In writing difficulties, language learners should ask for correction as well. However, the kind and amount of correction depends on the level of the learner and the purpose of the writing.

2.1.5.2 Cooperating with Others

Because language in all aspects is a social act, cooperating with other people is essential. This cooperation requires that the learner interact well with both peers and more proficient users of the target language. Working with peers promotes using variety of language skills (Oxford, 1990). Activities with a common goal or reward such as games, simulations, and other active exercises challenge students to develop their abilities to cooperate with peers as well as to communicate the target language. For example, having a daily telephone conversation with language learning partner enhances listening and speaking practice and the authentic language use itself.

Also, cooperating with proficient users of the new language applies to all four skills. When used for listening and speaking, this strategy involves taking specific steps to enhance communication with proficient language users. For example, language learners can ask their L1 friends to observe and inform of the listening needs. While in reading and writing, students can encounter proficient language users on the job, in the classroom, or on a trip and practice the target language in real-life situations.

2.1.5.3 Empathizing with Others

This set of strategy involves developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. Both of the strategies help practicing the four skills appropriately. Background knowledge of the new culture often helps learners understand better what is heard or read in the new language. Such knowledge also helps learners know what is culturally appropriate to say aloud or in writing (Oxford, 1990). Help students sharpen their cultural understanding by injecting short cultural discussions into classroom activities, and by comparing and contrasting behavior in the students' native culture and the target culture.

For becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings, it can bring learners closer to the people they encounter, helps them understand more clearly what is communicated, and suggests what to say and do. Oxford (1990) states that observing the behavior of others during face-to-face communication often sharpens

this awareness. Listening carefully to what is said, and what is left unsaid, enables learners to become more aware of the mindset of other people. In addition, learners can become aware of the feeling of others as expressed in writing. They can sense the feelings of people with whom they communicate informally through letters, notes, or memos and formally through novels, stories, and articles.

The matter of LLS has been long investigated since the 1970s, and still receives much attention in the field of language learning, especially in the ESL/EFL learning contexts. In compatible with Communicative Language Teaching and Cooperative Language Learning, Oxford's social strategies (1990) could possibly be introduced to the young language learners in order to develop communication abilities. As children learn language through socializing and interacting with others, social strategies of asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others help them work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language.

2.2 Children's Second Language Teaching and Learning

2.2.1 Learning through Socializing

The major theme of Vygotsky's theory is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development. Unlike Piaget's notion that children's development must necessarily precede their learning, Vygotsky argued that social learning precedes development. Vygotsky (1978) states: "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological)." Piaget believed that cognitive development consists of four main periods of cognitive growth: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operations, and formal operations (Saettler, 331). Piaget's theory suggests that development has an endpoint in goal. Vygotsky, in contrast, believed that development is a process that should be analyzed, instead of a product to be obtained. According to Vygotsky, the development process that begins at birth and continues until death is too complex to to be defined by stages (Driscoll, 1994; Hausfather,1996).

Vygotsky's Social Development Theory rests on two main principles: the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The MKO refers to anyone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner, with respect to a particular task, process, or concept. The MKO is normally thought of as being a teacher, coach, or older adult, but the MKO could also be peers, a younger person, or even computers.

The Zone of Proximal Development is the place where a student can perform a task under adult guidance or with peer collaboration that could not be achieved alone. Vygotsky believed that this life long process of development was dependent on social interaction and that social learning actually leads to cognitive development. This phenomena is called the Zone of Proximal Development. Vygotsky describes it as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978: 16). In other words, a student can perform a task under adult guidance or with peer collaboration that could not be achieved alone. The Zone of Proximal Development bridges that gap between what is known and what can be known. Vygotsky claimed that learning occurred in this zone.

Therefore, Vygotsky focused on the connections between people and the cultural context in which they act and interact in shared experiences (Crawford, 1996). According to Vygotsky, humans use tools that develop from a culture, such as speech and writing, to mediate their social environments. Initially children develop these tools to serve solely as social functions, ways to communicate needs. Vygotsky believed that the internalization of these tools led to higher thinking skills. When Piaget observed young children participating in egocentric speech in their preoperational stage, he believed it was a phase that disappeared once the child reached the stage of concrete operations. In contrast, Vygotsky viewed this egocentric speech as a transition from social speech to internalized thoughts (Driscoll, 1994). Thus, Vygotsky believed that thought and language could not exist without each other.

2.2.2 English Language Teaching Approach - Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. Unlike the audio-lingual method of language teaching, which relies on repetition and drills, the communicative approach can leave students in suspense as to the outcome of a class exercise, which will vary according to their reactions and responses. The real-life simulations change from day to day. Students' motivation to learn comes from their desire to communicate in meaningful ways about meaningful topics.

CLT suggests that grammatical structure might better be subsumed under various functional categories. In CLT we pay considerably less attention to the overt presentation and discussion of grammatical rules than we traditionally did. A great deal of use of authentic language is implied in CLT, as we attempt to build fluency (Chambers, 1997). Much more spontaneity is present in communicative classrooms: students are encouraged to deal with unrehearsed situations under the guidance, but not control, of the teacher. The importance of learners' developing a strategic approach to acquisition is a total turnabout from earlier methods that never broached the topic of strategies-based instruction. And, finally, the teacher's facilitative role in CLT is the product of two decades or more are slowly recognizing the importance of learner initiative in the classroom. Followings are the six interconnected characteristics as a description of CLT (Brown, 2001).

2.2.2.1 Classroom goals are focused on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence. Goals therefore must intertwine the organizational aspects of language with the pragmatic.

2.2.2.2 Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.

2.2.2.3 Fluency and accuracy are seen as complimentary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more

importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.

2.2.2.4 Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. Classroom tasks must therefore equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.

2.2.2.5 Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.

2.2.2.6 The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing bestow of knowledge. Students are therefore encouraged to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with others.

Common to all versions of CLT is a theory of language teaching that starts from a communicative model of language and language use, and that seeks to translate this into a design for an instruction system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviors, and for classroom activities and techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 158).

2.2.3 English Language Learning Approach – Cooperative / Collaborative Language Learning

Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) is part of a more general instruction approach also known as Collaborative Learning (CL). Cooperative Learning is an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. It seeks to develop classrooms that foster cooperation rather than competition in learning. Advocates of CLL in general education stress the benefits of cooperation in promoting learning:

> Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals. Within cooperative situations, individuals seek outcomes beneficial to themselves and all other group members. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's

> learning. It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal such as a grade of "A".
> (Johnson et al., 1994: 4).

In second language teaching, CLL has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of CLT. It is viewed as a learner-centered approach to teaching held to offer advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods. In language teaching, its goals are (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 193):

2.2.3.1 to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities

2.2.3.2 to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings (e.g., content-based, foreign language classrooms, mainstreaming)

2.2.3.3 to enable focused attention to particular lexical items; language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks

2.2.3.4 to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies

2.2.3.5 to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate

Cooperative or collaborative learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups. But it is not the group configuration that makes cooperative learning distinctive; it is the way the students and teachers work together that is important. With learning strategy training, teacher helps students learn how to learn more effectively. In cooperative learning, teachers teach students collaborative or social skills so that they can work together more effectively. Indeed, cooperation is not only a way of learning, but also a theme to be communicated about and studied (Jacobs 1998, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2001: 164).

A curriculum or classroom that is cooperative usually involves the learner-centered characteristics. As students work together in pairs and groups, they share information and come to each others' aid. They are a "team" whose players must

work together in order to achieve goals successfully. Research has shown an advantage for cooperative learning on such factors as "promoting intrinsic motivation, heightening self-esteem, creating caring and altruistic relationships, and lowering anxiety and prejudice" (Oxford 1997: 445). Included among some of the challenges of cooperative learning are accounting for varied cultural expectations, individual learning styles, personality differences, and overreliance on the first language (Crandall 1999).

Cooperative learning does not merely imply collaboration. To be sure, in a cooperative classroom the students and teachers work together to pursue goals and objectives. But cooperative learning is more structured, more prescriptive to teachers about classroom techniques, more directive to students about how to work together in groups than collaborative learning (Oxford 1997: 443). In cooperative learning models, a group learning activity is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners. In collaborative learning, the learner engages with more capable others e.g. teachers, advanced peers, etc. who provide assistance and guidance (Oxford 1997: 444). Collaborative learning models have been developed within social constructivist schools of thought to promote communities of learners that cut across the usual hierarchies of students and teachers.

2.3 Language Learning Strategies Instruction

This part of the literature review looks at LLS instruction as a teaching approach to guide language learners towards the efficient use of learning strategies while learning a second or foreign language. Regardless of language learning experiences, both novice and competent language learners need instruction in how to use LLS efficiently as a way to improve language learning and performance (Cohen, 1998). The followings review different methods of LLS instruction as well as present different teaching models of LLS.

2.3.1 Direct Instruction

There are two common approaches to LLS instruction i.e. direct and indirect. Direct instruction informs learners of the value and purpose of learning strategies and

helps learners to use, identify and develop learning strategies in a systematic way as they learn the target language (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). In the direct approach to strategy instruction, the teacher raises learner awareness of the purpose and rationale for strategy use, identifies the specific strategy being used, and systematically provides opportunities for practice and self-evaluation (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1987). Through this direct and integrated approach to strategy instruction learners become reactive learners as they increase their awareness, practice, use and monitoring of the language learning strategies they are using while learning a second or foreign language. The learner outcome is an efficient learner who has developed the skills to successfully organize and conduct their own learning events (Wenden, 1987).

The psychologist aspect of direct instruction is explained by Zimnayaya (1991) who argued for the importance of establishing relationships between motives (the purpose of the activity) and goals (a supposed result of the activity). In other words, language learners should not only understand the meaning of every assignment, they should understand its structure and see how they can use the knowledge and experience acquired in future communicative settings. When this happens, direct or explicit teaching of strategies is fruitful and beneficial for the language learners (Dornyei, 1995). The direct instruction follows these three stages: (1) explanation, (2) exploration, and (3) expression, a sequence familiar in cognitive learning theory and one that has been used successfully to introduce diverse aspects of a language (Savignon & Sysoyev, 2002).

2.3.1.1 *Explanation*: This first stage of direct instruction is theoretically oriented. Teachers explain to language learners the role and importance of a particular LLS in a second / foreign language learning.

2.3.1.2 *Exploration*: This second stage is practically oriented. When a particular LLS has been explained, learners work in pairs or small groups to become acquainted with and study real-life examples of the taught LLS.

2.3.1.3 *Expression*: For this third and final stage, learners work in pairs or small groups to practice use of LLS in simulated communicative contexts. At the conclusion of this practice period, language learners reflect on their experience and exchange views about the use of LLS.

2.3.2 Indirect Instruction

The second instructional approach is in contrast to the direct strategy instruction. In indirect strategy instruction, students work through materials and activities designed to elicit the use of specific strategies, but students are not informed of the name, purpose or value of the specific learning strategy (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). It is mainly student-centered learning through an inquiry-based model of instruction which seeks a high level of student involvement in observing, investigating, drawing conclusions, or forming hypotheses. The role of teacher in an indirect instruction shifts from director to facilitator and/or supporter. The teacher arranges the learning environment, provides opportunity for students' involvement, and provides feedback to students when appropriate (Martin, 1983).

Indirect instruction is often a slower way of exposing students to the material than direct instruction but students often achieve a better understanding of the material and ideas under investigation. It encourages students to become a more active learner as well as enhances students' creativity and problem-solving skills.

The most common form of indirect strategy instruction is textbook rubrics. Language textbooks are filled with instructions such as: 'Read the text, are any of your ideas mentions?' 'Close your book, can you remember the advice?' 'In pairs, practice the shop dialogue.' These rubrics assume that learners will identify and use the appropriate metacognitive, memory and social strategies. The cues for learners to use specific strategies such as self-monitoring, memorizing and co-operation respectively are embedded in these textbook rubrics (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995; Cohen, 1999). The assumptions underlying indirect strategy instruction is learners will learn to use LLS cued by the material and activities presented in textbook rubrics (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995).

2.3.3 Model of Language Learning Strategies Instruction

A number of models for teaching learning strategies in both first and second language contexts have been developed (Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998; Graham & Harris, 2003; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris, 2003; O' Malley & Chamot, 1990;

Oxford, 1990; Pressley, El-Dinary, Gaskins, Schuder, Bergman, Almasi & Brown, 1992). These instructional models share many features. All agree on the importance of developing students' metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies and suggest that this is facilitated through teacher demonstration and modeling. All emphasize the importance of providing multiple practice opportunities with the strategies so that students can use them autonomously. All suggest that students should evaluate how well a strategy has worked, choose strategies for a task, and actively transfer strategies to new tasks.

All three models begin by identifying students' current learning strategies through activities such as completing questionnaires, engaging in discussions about familiar tasks, and reflecting on strategies used immediately after performing a task. These models all suggest that the teacher should model the new strategy, thus making the instruction explicit. The CALLA model is recursive rather than linear so that teachers and students always have the option of revisiting prior instructional phases as needed (Chamot, 2005). The Grenfell and Harris (1999) model, on the other hand, has students work through a cycle of six steps, then begin a new cycle. The Cohen (1998) model has the teacher take on a variety of roles in order to help students learn to use learning strategies appropriate to their own learning styles. The Grenfell and Harris model provides initial familiarization with the new strategies, then has students make personal action plans to improve their own learning, whereas the CALLA model builds in a self-evaluation phase for students to reflect on their use of strategies before going on to transfer the strategies to new tasks.

In summary, current models of language learning strategy instruction are solidly based on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency.

Table 2.1

Models of Language Learning Strategy Instruction (Harris, 2003: 258)

SSBI* Model (Cohen, 1998)	CALLA** Model (Chamot, 2005)	Grenfell & Harris (1999)
Teacher as diagnostician: Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles.	**Preparation**: Teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks.	**Awareness raising**: Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
Teacher as language learner: Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes.	**Presentation**: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	**Modeling**: Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
Teacher as learner trainer: Trains students how to use learning strategies.	**Practice**: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	**General practice**: Students practice new strategies with different tasks.
Teacher as coordinator: Supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties.	**Self-evaluation**: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	**Action planning**: Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
Teacher as coach: Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress.	**Expansion**: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	**Focused practice**: Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.
	Assessment: Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	**Evaluation**: Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.

*Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction

**Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

2.4 Social Strategies and Social Skills

During the past two decades, a convincing body of evidence has accumulated to indicate that unless children achieve minimal social competence by about the age of 6 years, they have a high probability of being at risk into adulthood in several ways (Ladd, 2000, Parker & Asher, 1987). Recent research (Hartup & Moore, 1990,

Kinsey, 2000, Ladd & Profilet, 1996, McClellan & Kinsey, 1999, Parker & Asher, 1987, Rogoff, 1990) suggests that a child's long-term social and emotional adaptation, academic and cognitive development, and citizenship are enhanced by frequent opportunities to strengthen social competence during childhood.

Hartup (1992) notes that peer relationships in particular contribute a great deal to both social and cognitive development and to the effectiveness with which we function as adults. He states that "the single best childhood predictor of adult adaptation is not school grades, and not classroom behavior, but rather, the adequacy with which the child gets along with other children. Children who are generally disliked, who are aggressive and disruptive, who are unable to sustain close relationships with other children, and who cannot establish a place for themselves in the peer culture are seriously at risk" (Hartup, 1992, p. 1). The risks are many: poor mental health, dropping out of school, low achievement and other school difficulties, and poor employment history (Katz & McClellan, 1997).

Because social development begins at birth and progresses rapidly during the preschool years, it is clear that early childhood programs should include regular opportunities for spontaneous child-initiated social play. Berk and Winsler (1995) suggest that it is through symbolic/pretend play that young children are most likely to develop both socially and intellectually. Thus, periodic assessment of children's progress in the acquisition of social competence is appropriate.

2.4.1 Definitions of Social Skills

There have been many definitions of social skills presented in the relevant literature. In their review of literature, Korinek and Popp (1997) found many similarities among the definitions of social skills. They found that many definitions alluded to verbal and non-verbal behaviors such as words, facial expressions, and actions that result in positive social outcomes when used in interactions with peers and adults. Kolb and Hanley-Maxwell (2003) compiled definitions that give examples of behaviors considered social skills. They stated that social skills are an intricate set of skills that include communication, peer and group interaction, problem-solving and decision making skills, assertion, and self-management.

Ladd (1999) simply defined social skills as behaviors that seem to improve positive relational outcomes such as peer acceptance and friendship. Libet and Lewisohn (as cited in Gresham, 1981) defined social skill as an individual's ability to produce behaviors which are reinforced (positively or negatively) as well as an individual's ability to prevent behaviors that are punished or extinguished by others.

2.4.2 Social Skills in Focus

School is a place to observe positive social behavior from adults and socially competent peers. Most students will be able to replicate the positive behaviors in their future interactions. The direct and explicit instruction in social skills is essential for children in order to utilize these skills for positive social interactions (Gresham, 1981, 1982; Milson & Mehlig, 2002). There has been some evidence that the smaller group size and lower child-to-teacher ratio of self-contained special education classrooms provide more support for younger children to acquire social skills (Sontag, 1997). However, it was found that the social skills, when taught in a segregated setting, did not often generalize to other settings including the integrated classroom (Forness & Kavale, 1996; Korinek & Popp, 1997). The interactions of students could be greatly improved if systematic instruction of social skills takes place (Gresham, 1981).

Researchers have found that peer interactions and peer acceptance are indicative of not only social success, but are also related to areas including personal and academic success (Chandler, Lubek, & Fowler, 1992; Gresham, 1981). A student must display socially competent behavior, including social skills, in order to be accepted by their peer group (Gresham & Reschly, 1987).

In the general education classroom, academic instruction often takes precedence over social instruction. It has been suggested that most academic lessons provide the opportunity to integrate social skills instruction (Korinek & Popp, 1997). The integration of social skills in the general curriculum would benefit children by providing them with necessary social skills instruction in a natural setting with all types of peers (Sugai & Lewis, 1996). It could benefit students by allowing those with high levels of social competence to practice their skills with a variety of peers as well

as aiding those with lower levels of social competence in becoming more socially competent.

Teachers are critical in helping students develop character and social competence (Milson & Mehlig, 2002). Including social skills in academic lessons is something that teachers can do to promote this development. Teaching social skills is something that can be done by teachers, both special and general educators, but in order to be successful, they must contribute effort, practice, and attention to detail in their implementation of social skills instruction (Sugai & Lewis, 1996).

2.4.3 Importance of Social Skills to Social Strategies and Language Learning

Today, some schools implement a school-wide social program known as character education. Character education has been defined as "the process of developing in students an understanding of, commitment to, and tendency to behave in accordance with core ethical values" (Milson & Mehlig, 2002, p.47). Character education promotes positive social skills development for all school age children. The implementation of such programs is said to be in response to the moral decline in youth that has taken place in the past few decades. The blame for this decline in moral behavior has been placed in part on teachers and their lack of attention to character in schools. Teachers are considered a crucial part of character development in children, therefore, character education has begun to take precedence in some schools (Milson & Mehlig, 2002). Character education in the general education classroom is very similar to social skills instruction in the special education classroom, except character education is not often taught explicitly and directly. However, some proponents of character education believe that it should be taught as such (Milson & Mehlig, 2002).

Children should be directly taught social skills (Gresham, 1981; Sugai & Lewis, 1996). Many children, who lack the necessary social skills to achieve positive social interactions with peers and adults, do not acquire these skills through subtle observation. Some children may often experience social difficulties, which could negatively affect self-esteem, personal satisfaction, and growth. This in turn will likely affect the students' positive attitudes towards their education (Morris, 2002). There is also some evidence that deficits in social skills needed for positive teacher

and peer interactions can lead to academic, social, and emotional problems that can have negative affects in later life (Caldarella & Merrell, 1997).

An attempt should be made to avert later problems by beginning social skills instruction at a young age. Several reports commissioned by national organizations and leaders contain passages citing the importance of early intervention to promote social and emotional development of children (Fox, Dunlap, & Powell, 2002). The assumption seems to be that peer relationships, group acceptance, and future social satisfaction will be improved with the remediation of social skills deficits (Ringrose & Brinkman, 1996).

The teachers surveyed believed that social skills instruction could result in improved student-teacher relations, improved school environment, improved peer communication, and improved behavior of students at school. The teachers also believed that social skills training might assist students in vocational areas and job finding after school. These teachers were willing to participate in social skills instruction included in the school curriculum, but they felt that parents also had a role in social skills instruction (Bain & Farris, 1991).

2.4.4 Assessing Social Skills

Assessment is a vital step in social skills instruction. In order to identify who requires social skills instruction, understand problem social behaviors, identify functional replacement skills, plan useful social skills instruction, and evaluate the effectiveness of these plans, accurate and functional assessment of social skills is necessary (Sugai & Lewis, 1996). Assessment data should be used to determine the nature of performance deficits so that fitting intervention techniques can be utilized (Maag, 1992).

Social skills assessments have many purposes. Assessments can be given to groups or individual children to screen for general social competence. They can be used to gather information about the nature of a student's social skills problem. Assessments are conducted to aid in design and delivery of instruction and in selecting and modifying curriculum. Assessment data are used to monitor and

evaluate the progress students make in their social skills instruction (Sugai & Lewis, 1996).

Researchers suggest that a combination of techniques should be used for assessing social skills (Gresham, 1981; 1982; Gresham & Reschly, 1987, Maag, 1989; Sugai & Lewis, 1996). Gresham (1982) said that when assessing children, all three methods (behavioral observation, sociometrics, and teacher ratings) should be used. Although assessment is a necessary component of social skills instruction, some limitations to its use should be noted. Forness & Kavale (1996) found that measurements of efficacy rarely correspond with the precise components of the instruction.

Another factor that affects correspondence between assessment and instruction is that there is often vagueness in definitions and concepts about dimension of the social skills being assessed and those being used in instruction. Other problems noted include poor rationale for including certain items, failure to account for contextual factors that influence expression of social skills, and lack of differentiation between the various types of social skill deficits (Forness & Kavale, 1996). Gresham and Reschly (1987) also said that the methods, settings, and contents of social skills assessment methods greatly influence the type of information obtained.

In summary, social skills assessment is conducted for a number of reasons, but caution and multiple methods should be employed when assessing social skills. As stated earlier, social skills assessment is a vital step in preparing effective social skills instruction.

2.5 English Language Communication Abilities

Communication is a life long learning process beginning at birth. We communicate in many different ways like listening, speaking, gesturing, reading, and writing. Communication abilities help children to learn, form social relationships, express feelings, and participate in everyday activities. Some children, due to cognitive and/or physical impairments, may have difficulty expressing themselves clearly or understanding what is being said to them. For those children, assistive

technology can help to develop communication abilities, overcome communication problems, and provide a link between them and their daily life experiences.

2.5.1 Concept of Communication Abilities

The ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in ELT. However, many adults can identify personal needs to communicate in spoken and written English and many schoolchildren are aware of future needs for international communication and mobility. Even in contexts where it is harder to see future purposes for English language communication among schoolchildren, it is often nevertheless thought to be sensible to build potential for this.

The communicative movement in ELT encompasses all modes of language use. It has, as one of its bases, a concept of what it means to know a language and to be able to put that knowledge to use in communicating with people in a variety of settings and situations. One of the earliest terms for this concept was communicative competence (Hymes 1972). In coining the term, Hymes demonstrated a shift of emphasis among linguists, away from a narrow focus on language as a formal system, a focus most clearly seen in the work of Chomsky (1965) who used the term 'competence' to describe knowledge of language:

> We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language), and performance, the actual use of the language in concrete situations.
> (Chomsky 1965: 4)

For Hymes, adding the 'communicative' element to 'competence' meant adding:

> ... rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole. (Hymes 1972: 278)

Hymes, as a sociolinguist, was concerned with the social and cultural knowledge which speakers need in order to understand and use linguistic forms. His view, therefore, encompassed not only knowledge but also ability to put that knowledge into use in communication, and for that reason other terms thought to be more effective in describing what it means to know and to be able to use language knowledge have developed.

Hymes' work proved to be of substantial influence among English language educationists, coinciding as it did with growing dissatisfaction with the predominantly structural approaches to ELT in the 1960s and early 1970s. Moreover, other influences were at work in the ELT profession. As the field of English for specific purposes (ESP) developed to meet the professional or academic needs of English language users, course designers had to find ways of analyzing real-world tasks in order to identify their communicative demands and to specify these as learning goals. At the same time the Council of Europe, in response to the needs of professional mobility between countries, was setting up a syllabus based on functional and situational views of language. Both movements contributed strongly to the development of the 'communicative classroom'.

2.5.2 Pedagogical Implication

As the goals for ELT became more concerned with enabling learners to interact successfully with members of other societies, so the explorations of applied linguists into the components of communicative ability assumed increasing relevance and usefulness to the work of classroom teachers and materials designers. The key components, as identified by a number of researchers (Canale and Swain 1980, Faerchm, Haastrup, and Phillipson 1984, and Bachman 1990), can be listed as linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, and fluency. Their implications to language teaching and learning are illustrated in the table below.

Table 2.2

Implications of Communicative Language Ability for Teaching and Learning

(Hedge, 2000: 56)

Competence	**Implication**
Linguistic competence	- to achieve accuracy in the grammatical forms of the language - to pronounce the forms accurately - to use stress, rhythm, and intonation to express meaning - to build a range of vocabulary - to learn the script and spelling rules - to achieve accuracy in syntax and word formation
Pragmatic competence	- to learn the relationship between grammatical forms and functions - to use stress and intonation to express attitude and emotion - to learn the scale of formality - to understand and use emotive tone - to use the pragmatic rules of language - to select language forms appropriate to topic, listener, etc.
Discourse competence	- to take longer turns, use discourse markers, and open and close converstaions - to appreciate and be able to produce contextualized written texts in a variety of genres - to be able to use cohesive devices in reading and writing texts - to be able to cope with authentic texts

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Implications of Communicative Language Ability for Teaching and Learning

(Hedge, 2000:56)

Competence	Implication
Strategic competence	- to be able to take risks in using both spoken and written language - to use a range of communication strategies - to learn the language needed to engage in some of these strategies
Fluency	- to deal with the information gap of real discourse - to process language and respond appropriately with a degree of ease - to be able to respond with reasonable speed in 'real time'

2.5.3 Assessing Language Communication Abilities

The nature of children's language learning might be expected to generate a range of assessment issues in need of attention. Factors such as age, content of language learning, methods of teaching, and learning theories should be taken into consideration when assessing learners of different groups and different learning contexts. There are two main types of assessment i.e. teacher assessment and self-assessment. The following list provides some guideline and differentiates these two matters.

2.5.3.1 Teacher Assessment

Many different ways can be adopted by teachers when assessing their students. However, they should be in relation to the set language learning goals. By

making goals explicit, it will make assessment a much more straightforward process because they can act as a target or focus against which we can measure what was actually learnt. Moreover, the selection of assessment focus should also be in place. It is the precise aspect of language that is being attended to and assessed or measured. There may be more than one focus in the assessment. However, knowing which focus to be attended to will help ensure that assessment is fair and valid, because each can be assesses separately and the effect of one on assessment of the other can be minimized.

Possible assessment focuses for children's language learning are set out in the table below. To be effective in assessment, each focus would need to specify the actual items: words, discourse units, grammatical forms, and learning skills.

Table 2.3

Assessment Focus for Children's Language Learning

(Cameron, 2002: 230)

	Vocabulary	**Discourse**	**Grammar**
Oral Skills	Understanding meaning of words and chunks Recall of words and chunks Knowledge of thematic word sets Appropriate choice of words and chunks in discourse Pronunciation of words and chunks	Precision in talk Fluency in talk Response or initiation in conversational exchanges Understanding of sentence-level discourse Understanding or oral texts Production of extended discourse – retold and original	Complexity of clauses and phrases understood and produced Accuracy of morphology and syntax – used in understanding, in production Creative of whole-learnt chunks Metalanguage – understanding, use

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Assessment Focus for Children's Language Learning

(Cameron, 2002: 230)

	Vocabulary	**Discourse**	**Grammar**
Reading Skills	Sight vocabulary Letter-sound links	Understand of stories and other whole texts Sentence and text level reading strategies e.g. prediction	Working out accurate meanings
Writing Skills	Spelling Letter formation	Organization of texts at sentence level and above Precision and accuracy in conveying ideas	Accuracy in use of grammar
Learning Skills	Guessing words from context Organizing own work on tasks Setting targets for learning Using targets for learning Work with a partner Work in a group Self-assessment skills Dictionary use		

2.5.3.2 Self-assessment

This part of the review focuses on students' self-assessment, which can help them understand more about the language learning process and to become more independent. The followings are listed as benefits children getting through self-assessment:

- Learners can understand more about the learning process
- Learners can be motivated towards more involvement in their learning

- Teachers can understand more about individual pupils
- Learners will be better prepared to carry on learning, beyond the classroom
- A more equal relationship is created between teachers and learners

In Vygotsky terms, a student who learns to assess his or her own work moves from being 'other-regulated' to being 'self-regulated' or autonomous. It is commonly recognized in today's world that autonomous and self-regulated learners will be at an advantage in continuing to learn and adjust throughout their lives as technology and information develop rapidly and continuously (Cameron, 2002). Learner autonomous then is a good thing and to be encouraged. Young children can be helped to organize their resources, both internal and material. It is not unusual to see classes of five year olds who know where to keep their books and papers, how to tidy up the classroom, how to organize their work and how to decide in what order they will complete their classroom activities (Ellis, 1991).

However, in the foreign language classroom, the language used to organize such training will probably need to be the mother tongue, and so further decisions must be made about the value of the time required, and balancing between spending the time on developing learner autonomy or on language learning. Different techniques such as goal setting, portfolio assessment can be adopted in the development of learner autonomy. Being able to set realistic and useful goals for one's own language learning is one of the skills of autonomous learners and is part of the cycle that links self-assessment to learning. A portfolio, on the other hand, reveals both the capability and the progress of a learner. It can link assessment with teaching and with metacognitive development through including pupils in the evaluation of performance, thereby developing skills in pupils' self-assessment.

In summary, these processes will need to be modeled by the teacher first. With adults' assistance, children can learn how to assess themselves and grow on to the learner autonomous eventually.

2.6 Overview of International Education and Cross Cultural Aspects

Nowadays, it is very common to see more and more people traveling overseas or engaging in international activities, along with all the migration and relocation, international education has long been formed, and continuously growing in number, to serve the needs of these people. In the era of globalization, where deep understanding of multicultural issues at an international level and cooperation across nations are highly concentrated, and English proficiency is necessary, international education is regarded as one of the best options for them.

2.6.1 Characteristics of International Education

International education has long been recognized for bringing out full potential from a student. Its superior curriculum and teaching methods promote class participation through a small size of class, encouraging students to express their ideas, exchange their points of view, explore things freely and think rationally, contrasting sharply with the rote-learning method, in which students receive everything from teachers. Besides proficiency in the English language, being exposed to a diversified cultural learning atmosphere also broadens students' perspectives and enables them to learn about other cultures from classmates of varied nationalities, helping them to understand why people behave in different ways. These will help to bridge cultural gaps and enhance unity among different nationalities, which eventually lead to cooperation across nations and a peaceful world.

International education has also proven to lead to the development of well-rounded students with strong academic and social skills. It also improves the chances of finding a job since employers today, in an increasingly globalized society, tend to seek qualified employees with knowledge of international issues and language skills (Widen Your Horizons with an International Education: *International Education Handbook 2004).*

2.6.2 Curricula of International Education

International schools in Thailand are primarily based on three systems comprising American, British, and the International Baccalaureate (IB). Each has its own system of instruction and assessment, which are illustrated below.

2.6.2.1 American Curriculum

At the national level the US Department of Education enforces federal mandates and provides funding, thus greatly affecting students' access to quality educational services. The department also conducts extensive research into best practices and disseminates research-based innovations to state and local schools throughout the USA.

At the state level, state departments of education and state boards of education play a strong central role in setting state, regional and local standards. These agencies provide a licensing process for teachers and provide funding, technical and other support to schools; they have as well an oversight role to verify that quality education is ensuing. State committees may recommend education materials, e.g. textbooks, if requested by local school officials. The individual states set standards, provide funds to local school boards and afford many other services (International Education in Thailand: Learning Opportunities with Excellence, A Guide to International Schools in Thailand, 2005).

Local school boards, comprising elected parents, establish and implement policy and ensure rigor and quality educational services for their respective communities. Local boards of education provide a powerful structure which makes certain research-based best practices issuing from federal, state and local levels are eventually delivered to the children in the community. Although there is no national curriculum in the United States, there is clear consensus regarding core subjects taught in schools throughout the country. For example, most schools teach mathematics; language arts (including reading, grammar, writing, and literature); science; social studies (including history, geography, citizenship, and economics); information technology; and physical education. In addition to required core courses,

schools offer electives that benefit students by meeting their individual needs and goals. Popular among these electives are performing arts; advanced academic courses such as math, science or technology; and foreign language. Beyond specific course content in the matter of critical thinking the American system remains the recognized leader in developing this vital skill in students (ISAT, 2005).

Regarding standards and their application in the American educational system, the term refers to what students will know and be able to do as a result of taking a course. The American system has regional education labs, which work jointly with federal and state agencies to support implementation of quality services. Based on educational research, standards provide a framework within which to implement proven innovations designed to enhance learning. Universities, state boards of education, top educators and other entities and individuals help to set standards for multi-state regions. High expectations for students, standardized assessments and additional measures determine learning outcomes and as well hold state and local schools boards accountable for implementing a quality education for all children (International Education in Thailand: Learning Opportunities with Excellence, A Guide to International Schools in Thailand, 2005).

2.6.2.2 British Curriculum

International schools following the British system often use the English National Curriculum as a basis for their educational programs. These are sometimes modified to reflect independent (i.e. private) school traditions. Schools are generally organized into a number of developmental Key Stages:

- The Foundation Stage covers - pre-kindergarten; Reception covers children 2+ to 5+ years of age.
- Key Stage 1: 5+ to 7+ years of age, Years 1 and 2
- Key Stage 2: 7+ to 11+ years of age, Years 3 and 6
- Key Stage 3: 11+ to 14+ years of age, Years 7 and 9
- Key Stage 4: 14+ to 16+ years of age, Years 10 and 11
- Senior Students: Years 12 and 13

A broad and balanced curriculum is taught across the four post-kindergarten Key Stages, with English, Mathematics, Science and Information Technology being regarded as core subjects. The Humanities, Creative and Performing Arts, Modern Languages and Physical Education are also provided as foundation subjects.

Many international schools use the UK government End of Key Stage tests in English, mathematics and science as benchmarks to assess student performance at various ages, though their use by schools is voluntary. On completion of Key Stage 4, most students sit the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examination of the equivalent international exams (IGCSE) in the core and a selection of other curriculum subjects. These examinations are regarded as good preparation for the pre-university qualification courses offered by British international schools: the International Baccalaureate (IB) or the Advanced (A) level, in Years 12 and 13 (International Education in Thailand: Learning Opportunities with Excellence, A Guide to International Schools in Thailand, 2005).

Although organizational details may differ the characteristics of British schools in an international context include emphasis on academic rigor, the provision of effective pastoral care for all students and the commitment to comprehensive and stimulating sports, performing arts, extra-curricular activities, and day and residential visit programs.

2.6.2.3 International Baccalaureate (IB) Curriculum

The International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) offers three coordinated programs of study for children 3-19 years of age. All three programs have a similar pedagogical base and are learning centered and inquiry based, with the aim of developing well-rounded, reflective, and compassionate young adults. In addition to providing a rigorous academic program of high standards, the IBO approach places a strong emphasis on the ideals of international understanding and responsible global citizenship. These three programs are as follows:

- The Primary Years Program (PYP) for students aged 3 to 12
- The Middle Years Program (MYP) for students aged 11 to 16
- The Diploma Program for students in the final two years of school before university

The Primary Years Program (PYP) - The Primary Years Program (ages 3-12) offers a comprehensive, inquiry-based approach to learning that focuses on the total growth of the developing child and addresses the academic, social, physical, emotional and cultural needs of younger learners. PYP sets high standards and expectations for student learning, incorporating five essential elements: concepts, skills, attitudes, actions and knowledge. This rigorous transdisciplinary program broadens minds and imparts an international perspective.

The Middle Years Program (MYP) - The Middle Years Program (ages 12-16) is a five-year program that naturally follows the PYP and serves as an excellent preparation for the IB Diploma Program. The framework provides discipline, challenging standards, skills, creativity and flexibility that aid a student's individual growth towards self-reliance and responsible participation in society. Embedded within the MYP are five core areas of interaction and these provide common perspectives as well as connections among the eight required academic subjects. The MYP model accentuates the interrelatedness and holistic nature of knowledge while recognizing the independence and integrity of each discipline, all the while preparing students for future study in various subjects.

The Diploma Program (IB Diploma) - The IB Diploma Program (ages 16-19) is one of the most comprehensive, challenging and intellectually stimulating courses of study offered in preparation for university entrance. The program provides a balanced educational experience with a global perspective and is designed for committed, academically capable students. Students must select one subject from each of the six subject group: Language A, Language B, Individuals and Societies, Experimental Sciences, Mathematics, and the Arts and Electives, giving both breadth and depth to a student's academic program. The IB Diploma also has three further elements providing additional academic specialization as well as

recognition of interests outside the classroom; these elements are Theory of Knowledge, the Extended Essay, and Creativity, Action, Service (CAS) (ISAT, 2005).

2.6.3 The IB Primary Years Program in Focus

The overview of Primary Years Program (PYP) is illustrated as follows:

2.6.3.1 Introduction to PYP

The Primary Years Program (PYP) is a transdisciplinary program of international education designed to foster the development of the whole child aged 3 to 12. It focuses on the total growth of the developing child, touching hearts as well as minds and encompassing social, physical, emotional and cultural needs in addition to academic development.

The PYP draws on research and best practice from a range of national systems with a wealth of knowledge and experience from international schools to create a relevant, engaging, challenging and significant educational framework for all children. Curriculum documents are published in English, French and Spanish but schools may offer the program in other languages under certain conditions.

2.6.3.2 PYP Curriculum Framework

The curriculum framework consists of five essential elements: concepts, knowledge, skills, attitude, and action. The knowledge component is developed through inquiries into six transdisciplinary themes of global significance, supported and balanced by six subject areas. The PYP framework is illustrated by the hexagon below:

Figure 2.2

IB Primary Years Program Framework

(www.ibo.org)

The curriculum framework is further structured around three interrelated questions.

- What do we want to learn? *The written curriculum.*
- How best will we learn? *The taught curriculum.*
- How will we know what we have learned? *The learned curricul*um

2.6.3.3 Assessment in PYP

In PYP, teachers assess students by selecting or designing methods of assessment appropriate to the learning outcomes they intend to capture. Teachers also take into account the diverse, complicated and sophisticated ways that individual students use to develop and demonstrate their understanding.

The prime objective of assessing students' learning and performance is to give feedback to:

- Students—to encourage the start of lifelong learning
- Teachers—to support their reflection on what to teach and how to teach it
- Parents—to highlight their child's learning and development.

2.6.4 International Education in Thailand

Education in Thailand can be said to have begun in the 13th century, when Sukhothai was Thailand's capital. Two types of education existed then: the one provided by the Royal Institution of Instruction (Rajabundit) to princes and sons of nobles, and the other provided by the Buddhist monks to commoners. In 1728, after the fall of Ayutthaya in 1767, King Rama I founded Bangkok and revolutionized education by reforming the Buddhist Church and allowing modern technology, in the form of a printing press, to enter Thailand.

When English was slowly emerging to be the lingua franca of the Far East during the early Bangkok Period, a number of treaties were concluded with foreign powers. As a result, King Rama IV tried to modernize education by decreeing that English would be one of the new educational requirements, as it had become a major medium of communication with foreigners. Policies for further modernizing education were further pursued by King Rama V. He opened a school in the palace for princes and sons of young nobles in 1871. Soon afterwards, he set up an English school to prepare princes and court children for further studies abroad (International Schools in Thailand, 2002).

The Department of Education became a full-fledged Ministry of Education in 1892, as a result of King Rama V's experimental administrative and political reforms. By virtue of the 1892 Declaration, the control of private schools, in their rudimentary form, was introduced. Such a development marked the private sector's first

involvement in education. What followed were landmarks in the development of Thailand's education system. Since then, and all the way up to the present day, all the efforts made by the Ministry of Education have been geared towards one direction: to provide educational services for a better quality of life and society.

Today, the advent of modern technology and increased globalization has brought forth immense challenges as well as opportunities for everyone. Now, more than ever, a child's education is the key to a successful and fulfilling future. A school that offers opportunities for cross-cultural dynamics and interaction is, therefore, an important tool for global understanding.

There have been international schools in Thailand since 1957. Providing education without any restriction or limitation on nationality, religion or ideology, international schools expose students to a diverse cultural and ethnic setting. They adopt an international curriculum, wit English as the medium of instruction. Originally, international schools in Thailand were developed for the children of foreign expatriates. With the pressing demand of increased globalization, however, the number of Thais attending international schools has grown considerably over the years. In effect, international schools have mushroomed all over the country, reaching almost 100 in number. (ISAT, 2005).

Today, the international schools here play an important role in Thailand's bid for further industrialization, by providing a more globalized environment for Thais as well as foreign expatriates.

2.6.5 Cross Cultural Aspects in Language Teaching and Learning

All reflections on foreign language study resemble an attempt to look back to the period when people communicated freely among themselves, lived happily and were not divided by language, customs and culture, i.e. the times before the Tower of Babel was erected. The Scriptures view the mixing of the languages, which is seen today as an example of the world's diversity, as a curse, a second punishment for the original sin.

The ability of representatives of different nationalities and cultures to communicate freely guarantees success not only of the free exchange of information, knowledge and cultural values, but also for overcoming religious and national feuds. Regardless of the success of this undertaking however, negative experience will be just as valuable for us. Sometimes it does not provide answers to questions, but drives us towards discoveries in other fields of science.

The mastery of a foreign language, as is well known, presupposes not only familiarity with the rules of grammar, but also a certain store of words and the specifics of their usage. The ability to speak a language, and consequently the evaluation of the level of language skills, is inextricably linked with understanding the history, culture, and customs of the people speaking this language.

2.6.5.1 Cultural Element in Foreign Language Study

There are numerous theories in foreign language teaching. Each of them has its place and importance in the teaching process. Over the past few years, multilingualism has been viewed as a necessity for the existence of globalization. The ability to speak several languages is linked not only with economic, but also, and to a much greater degree, with general educational issues, as a factor for the overall political and cultural development of the individual. For this reason, the cultural element acquires particular importance in foreign language teaching, i.e. the emphasis is put on the cultural specifics of the people whose language is being studied. Mastering a foreign language is transformed from a form of enlightenment into a mechanism for developing culture, a means of forming a view of the world and man inside it. Mastering a foreign language runs parallel to familiarization with the greatest works of the foreign art and literature. Of special importance is the approach whereby study of the target language is seen not as an end, but as means for accessing the essence of a different culture, a different national character and mentality. This facilitates the gradual "fostering" and development of tolerance to the foreignness, otherness. Tolerance is not only forbearance, but the acknowledgment of another viewpoint, another personality and culture.

2.6.5.2 Intercultural Study and Intercultural Competence

The cultural ethnolinguistic concept of foreign language teaching presupposes not taking the communicative approach and purely communicative competence as the objective of training to extremes. It would be more precise to speak of communicative orientation of the learning process. Intercultural competence comes to the fore. In other words, foreign language teaching becomes intercultural teaching, learning how to understand the foreigner, aimed at overcoming xenophobia and existing stereotypes. Such intercultural training includes the following components:

- Linguistic: lexis, grammar, speech patterns, etc.
- Historical: differences in the assessment of the two countries' past
- Practical: rules necessary for orientation in the country
- Aesthetic: differences in lifestyle, clothing, etc.
- Ethical: differences in the norms of behavior
- Stereotypical: established stereotypes in attitude towards the own culture and the target culture
- Reflective: personality changes as a result of the intercultural training

The intercultural training is distinctively dialogical in character. The new approach to foreign language teaching also requires new methods, means and forms of teaching. This is particularly true for the development of a new type of textbooks, new generation textbooks. In this type of educational process, the source culture and the target culture play an important role. They are being compared and juxtaposed, as a result of which a new type of linguistic personality is formed. It shapes a new attitude to national identity, to target and source culture.

2.6.5.3 Main Aspects in a Reform of the Traditional Educational System

The solution to this problem necessitates a reform of the traditional educational system, the main aspects being: early foreign language training, use of the foreign language as a training method (bilingual training, whereby different subjects

are taught both in the source and target language), increase in the number of languages studied on a modular principle, i.e. not all aspects of the language are studied but only certain ones; use of multimedia in foreign language teaching, development of methodology for teaching a second foreign language, taking into account the linguistic experience of the learners and the opportunities for a more intensive learning process; expanding the exchange programs for school and college students; expanding the specialization programs for language teachers; development of new curricular for early foreign language teaching, bilingual training and other forms with specific learning objectives.

2.7 Research on Young Language Learners

2.7.1 Research on LLS and Second Language Learning

There has been relatively less research done on social strategies in general. This limitation may help explain why social strategies are far less frequently found, particularly within young children. This section then reviews a number of related research on different types of strategies used by young language learners.

2.7.1.1 Young Language Learners' Use of Conversation-initiation Strategies and Social-interaction Strategies

In a study of first-grade Spanish speakers in the U.S., Wong Fillmore (1976) found a student, Nora, who was far superior to the other children in learning ESL. By the end of the school year, Nora had learned more English than many of her peers would in two years or more. Nora's distinguishing characteristic was that she seized every possible opportunity to use her English skills when interacting with other children. She initiated more interaction with native English speaking peers than did the other Spanish-speaking children. She used guessing frequently. Nora gave the impression that she could speak English fluently by employing whatever she knew and not worrying about details. This kept her in conversations that would otherwise have ended, and it allowed her oral proficiency to continue to grow as she was included in conversations and activities. In this study, most ESL learners initiated far fewer interactions with native speakers than did Nora.

Not surprisingly, a different study by Wong Fillmore (1985) found that many Chinese ESL learners with imperfect or weak English skills were reluctant to initiate conversations with native English speakers. Since not all young ESL students are likely to initiate conversations with their native English-speaking peers, native English-speaking children must often start conversations, with ESL learners responding. Hirschler (1994) studied interactions initiated by five native English-speaking preschool children in a classroom that was comprised half of native English speakers and half of ESL learners (speakers of Spanish or Khmer). Just as Wong Fillmore found wide variation in how often ESL learners initiated classroom discussion with native English speakers, Hirschler's native English speakers varied greatly in how often they initiated talk with ESL learners. The mean was once every 15 minutes during the time they spent together. Although responding to a native speaker's overtures can be a very important learning strategy, ESL learners responded less than half the time, which Hirschler partly explained by saying that some native-speaker utterances were not designed to elicit responses or were too long for ESL learners to respond to. Native English-speaking girls, compared with their male peers, spent far more time with ESL learners and much more often encouraged ESL learners to speak. This coincides with other research, summarized by Garvey (1990), suggesting that young girls, compared with young boys, show greater communicative competence and attentiveness to their partners' speech. According to Hirschler, native English-speaking children who want to help second language learners should be trained in strategies such as repetition, restatement, and request for clarification. Although Hirschler did not mention it, these same behaviors are useful learning strategies for L2 learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

In yet another investigation of the oral ESL development of children from Hispanic and Chinese backgrounds in grades three to five, Wong Fillmore, Ammon, McLaughlin, and Ammon (1985) found that Chinese students did best in classrooms that were strongly teacher-directed, while Hispanic students appreciated more opportunities to interact with native English-speaking peers. The two ethnic groups used various types of different learning strategies, with Chinese students relying on strategies that did not involve social interaction and Hispanic students preferring socially-based strategies. In this study of elementary-school children, as in

many investigations involving older L2 learners (Oxford, 1996), choice of learning strategies was related to linguistic/ethnic background.

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) examined the ESL learning strategies of 14 young Mexican-American children in a bilingual classroom. Their definition of strategies was based on an expanded concept of oral communication strategies developed by Elaine Tarone (1981). The children in the Chesterfield and Chesterfield study were observed over a focused period of days at the beginning and end of a preschool year, as well as in the first grade. The study found that these children frequently used observable language learning strategies, often involving social interaction, and that strategy use comprised a large proportion of these children's activities. The researchers proposed a hierarchical development (natural order) of children's language learning strategies. This study of learning strategies, based as it was on Tarone's categories, was possible because these Hispanic students were comfortable with social interaction.

2.7.1.2 Young Language Learners' Use of Cognitive Strategies (e.g., overgeneralization, analogy) and Error-avoiding Strategies (e.g., simplification)

Investigations of young learners' L2 learning strategies have often focused on natural or semi-structured oral communication as a window into the learning strategies these students use. For instance, Bautier-Castaing (1977) examined the learning of French syntax by 60 Francophone children, as well as 75 children of various nationalities who were learning French as a second language (FSL) and had been in France for less than nine months. Participants were aged four to eight. French utterances were gathered and analyzed according to types of errors in French syntax during a test in which pictures were used as conversation-prompts. Frequent learning strategies among the FSL students included cognitive strategies, such as overgeneralization of linguistic rules and analogy, and error-avoiding strategies, such as simplifying structures. Bautier-Castaing asserted that these strategies reflected the "creative construction" process, in which language learners actively construct their concept of the new language.

In a study of young children's language development, Hopper (1972) expanded on the learning strategy of overgeneralization of linguistic rules and showed how this strategy is linked to successive differentiation of exceptions to the overgeneralized rules. Although this was not an L2 study, Hopper's description is relevant to the L2 situation. The sequence goes as follows. The child discovers a meaning or function to be communicated, along with a way to communicate it. Subsequently, the child overgeneralizes this rule to many situations. The child receives feedback on overgeneralization and sorts out those events in which the communication was effective and in which it was not. Based on this, the child formulates a new rule to deal with the unsuccessful overgeneralization. The new rule is then overgeneralized, and the child learns from other people's responses about whether the new rule fits. This cycle keeps on going, and gradually the child's linguistic knowledge becomes more specialized, detailed, and helpful.

2.7.1.3 Young Language Learners' Use of Private-speech Strategies, Especially During the Silent Period

However, lack of social interaction does not necessarily indicate that an L2 learner is not learning the language or not using learning strategies. Many learning strategies may be employed during a so-called "silent" period (cessation of verbal communication with native speakers) that often occurs early in the course of L2 development, as demonstrated in a study by Saville-Troike (1988). In this study, nine ESL learners (Chinese, Japanese, and Korean native speakers, aged three through eight) experienced a silent period. Video recordings with radio microphones under natural conditions revealed that most of these children, although not interacting in English with native English speakers or others, employed private speech (talking to oneself) for learning English. The private-speech learning strategies they used during this so-called silent period were: (a) repeating others' utterances, (b) recalling and practicing, (c) creating new linguistic forms, (d) substituting expressions using a mental paradigm, (e) expanding expressions based on syntactic knowledge, and (f) rehearsing for later overt social performance. The quantity and quality of the private speech of these children were related to the following: (a) level of cognitive development, (b) difficulty of the learning task, (c) social orientation, (d) learning style, and (e) linguistic elements being learned.

2.7.1.4 Young Language Learners' Use of Multiple Strategies

As part of a six-year longitudinal study of French, Spanish, and Japanese elementary immersion programs in the United States, Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) identified learning strategies used by more effective and less effective young learners in elementary school. Teachers were asked to rate their elementary immersion students as high-, average- and low-proficiency students. Additional data were collected using think-aloud interviews with 44 third- and fourth-grade students. Through their studies, the researchers concluded that the children, no matter what their proficiency level, were capable of describing their thinking and learning process in detail, thus showing that "metacognitive awareness begins at quite an early stage" (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999, p. 331).

2.7.1.5 Young Language Learners' Task-related Strategy Use

Pinter (2000) investigated task-related strategy use by 20 ten-year-old Hungarian children learning English as a foreign language. These children were paired up for four communication tasks: (a) Picture recognition – speaker A described his pictures while speaker B identified the pictures among his distractors, (b) Spot the difference – speakers A and B worked together on discovering differences between their sets of pictures, (c) Describe and draw – speaker A described his picture to B who had to draw it, and (d) Picture reconstruction – speakers A and B worked together to complete their pictures from the information obtained from each other. A total corpus of about 13,000 words was gathered from the children on the four tasks. Three major findings emerged from the data analysis:

- Learners used L1 in order to double check words or expressions not available in L2, and to engage in task-related discourse to establish common ground about the task before carrying it out. Task 4 in particular prompted a lot of use of the L1, but the tendency is the same everywhere.
- Learners appealed for assistance from the adult present with queries that were not absolutely essential for carrying out the task. They made use of the constant availability of the adult to satisfy their curiosity.

- Learners built patterns by repeating what they were comfortable with over and over again. They played safe and tried to exploit a given phrase as much as possible. This was especially noticeable for tasks 3 and 4.

Pinter concluded with three suggestions for future research: (a) the data should be further analyzed from various other perspectives, such as the communication strategies used, the quality of the meaning negotiations, and other features of the spoken output, (b) it would be crucial to compare/contrast this data with baseline data yielded in L1 on the same tasks to clearly isolate the effects of a foreign-language medium, and (c) the results should be handled with caution since the interactions were carried out under very special circumstances, out of the classroom, with an adult present all the time. Nonetheless, Pinter's study did provide information on what strategies children applied when performing communication tasks.

2.7.1.6 Young Language Learners' Strategy Use in Relation to Language Abilities

This section looks more closely at young children's strategy use as associated with L2 proficiency. Research cited earlier indicated that for some young learners, (e.g., those from Hispanic backgrounds), greater proficiency was associated with more frequent use of social strategies, including initiating or participating in peer interaction (Chesterfield & Chesterfield, 1985; Wong Fillmore, 1976; Wong Fillmore et al., 1985). However, one study showed that Chinese learners performed better without the use of social interaction strategies (Wong Fillmore et al., 1985).

In the Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) United States study described above, a close relationship emerged between strategy use and proficiency. More proficient foreign language learners in the elementary grades reported using more strategies – and more task-appropriate ones – than did average-proficiency or low-proficiency learners. On a reading task, high-proficiency learners focused more on sophisticated learning strategies, such as using background knowledge and making inferences, while low-proficiency learners depended on the strategy of phonetic decoding.

Based on a three-year Pilot Project for Modern Language (PPML) in Irish primary schools, Kiely (2002) examined the strategy use of fifth- and sixth-grade students. She interviewed 12 foreign language learners whose proficiency levels were defined as high, average, and weak, based on language teachers' ratings. Four items were included in the interviews: (a) *I learn new words by. . .*, (b) *I understand best when. . .*, (c) *I remember by. . .*, (d) *I enjoy learning best when. . .*. Children's responses were successfully categorized according to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) three strategy categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective. However, findings failed to support the expectation of a linear relationship between learners' proficiency and their strategy use.

Average-proficiency learners reported using strategies most frequently while high-proficiency learners reported the lowest frequency. Possibly a curvilinear pattern was present, as found in Phillips' (1990) study, but this was not investigated. In Kiely's study, low-proficiency learners relied more on cognitive strategies, while high-proficiency students used more social-affective strategies. Gunning (1997) investigated 107 fifth-grade Francophone students learning ESL in Québec, Canada. Students' ESL proficiency was identified as high, medium, or low based on the results of two criterion-referenced tests. To assess language learning strategies, Gunning employed the *Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* or *Children's SILL* (Gunning, 1997, adapted from the original *SILL*, Oxford, 1990). Gunning kept the original *SILL* structure but reduced the number of items, simplified the wording, and made sure that all items related to children's real-life experience. Lan (2003) gathered Children's *SILL* data and conducted a semi-structured interview with a subsample of 20 students. Results showed significant differences in strategy use according to children's proficiency levels. High-proficiency learners, compared with the other students, employed a greater number and greater variety of learning strategies. This pattern was similar to that found in numerous studies of adolescent and adult language learners. In Gunning's study, high-proficiency learners differed from medium- and low-proficiency groups in the frequent use of affective (emotion- and motivation-related) learning strategies, leading to the conclusion that helping children develop such strategies might reduce children's language-learning anxiety and increase their proficiency. Unlike many

studies with the original *SILL*, Gunning's investigation did not identify significant gender differences in the use of learning strategies.

2.7.2 Research on International Education

In the field of international education research, Mark Heyward (2002) defines intercultural literacy as the competencies, understandings, attitudes, language proficiencies, participation and identities necessary for effective cross-cultural engagement. A new multidimensional and developmental model for intercultural literacy is proposed with reference to his previous culture shock and corss-cultural adjustment models, and some implications for international schools are suggested. He recommends that international schools, which are in a unique position, should develop understandings and practice in relation to intercultural literacy.

In Michael Allan's study (2002) of "Cultural Borderlands: A Case Study of Cultural Dissonance in an International School", it describes an ethnographic case study in an international school in the Netherlands. Using a model borrowed from school improvement theory, it examines the process factors in an international education leading to both pragmatic and ideological outcomes. The study finds that a largely monocultural school culture, as is found in many international schools, cannot only cause problems for students from minority cultures but can also inhibit the intercultural learning of those from the majority student culture.

The study on emotional intelligence in the international curriculum by Patrick Sherlock in 2002 explores how to integrate the emotional intelligence into the international curriculum. Through the examination of several models of international education it is determined that values of open-mindedness, inclusion, respect and tolerance are more likely to be achieved within a curriculum that fosters the development of emotional intelligence (EI). The form that the curriculum might take is studied from the perspective of three theoretical models, and the thesis is presented that, in order for an international education to be experienced, both ideas and emotions must cross frontiers.

Conducted directly in Thailand, Barbara Deveney (2005) investigated aspects of Thai culture and its effects on Thai students in an international school. The research showed that the western teachers felt strongly that Thai culture does, indeed, impact on learning; in fact, many of them were more aware of this than the researcher had expected before beginning the investigation. Alongside the stereotypical behavior of the older students, such as non-participation and passiveness, there is some indication that culture can have a subtle effect on the content in creative writing: 'western' assumptions of behavior are not necessarily mirrored by 'eastern' assumptions.

Finally, the study by Ian Hill (2006) focuses on students' exposure to intercultural understanding in a number of educational settings. The results show that the effect of that exposure depends very much on the nature of the schools, the programs they offer, and their location. It also depends on the 'nature' of the students and how that affects their interaction with the school and its cultural context both within and without. The variables are many, the lines of influence are complex, and the whole process is full of nuances. Typologies of schools and students are used in an attempt to overcome these difficulties and arrive at some conclusions, including the need for an improved nomenclature of school types, which may form the basis for testing through future empirical research.