

**SOCIOCULTURAL DETERMINANTS OF THE
CHOICE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNING STRATEGIES AMONG
LEARNERS IN TANZANIA**

BY

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**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
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DECLARATION

This thesis is my own work and has not been presented to any other university for an academic award.

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DEDICATION

To my daughter Larvin Lumonya.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the sociocultural determinants of the choice of Language Learning Strategies by the learners of English in the Tanzanian context. The study had hypothesized that gender, religion and learning context were significant determinants of this choice. To test these hypotheses, data were collected from a total of 549 respondents drawn from both secondary schools and one university. The data were collected through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation. The t-test computed using the SPSS version 20 was used to test the hypotheses at the significant level of $p \leq .05$ in the mean scores of the reported use of the Language Learning Strategies overall, the six strategy categories identified by Oxford (1990) and individual strategy items in relation to the three the independent variables of gender, religion and learning context. In summary, the results of the study are the following: first, in terms of overall strategy use, the learners studied were moderate strategy users (with a Mean of 3.4). Second, metacognitive and social strategies were reported to be the most frequently used strategies with means of 3.87 and 3.603 respectively while memory and compensation strategies were reported to be the least frequently used with the means of 3.14 and 2.909 respectively. Third, religion was found to be a significant determinant ($t=3.641$, $df=508$) while gender with t score of 1.824, $df=508$ and learning context (urban or rural) with a t score of $-.0662$, $df=267$) were not. However, learning context (university vs. secondary) was a significant factor ($t=3.631$, $df=508$). The results from the interviews and classroom observations “new” strategy items which were not in the SILL were noted: *giving examples instead of the definition, describing the object or situation and the use discourse filler, specifically the Kiswahili word “nanili”*. These three are compensation strategies. Others include: *avoiding eye-contact, preparing and practising in advance and dressing decently*. These latter are affective strategies. From the results, a number of pedagogical implications have been suggested. First, the most preferred strategies (metacognitive and social) would form the core of training of teachers of English who in turn train language learners. Second, material developer, instructors should tailor culture-appropriate materials and tasks. Third, since a number of learners were not familiar with some specific strategies, the teachers of English should be trained in strategy research and evaluation to be able to explore their students’ strategy preferences and eventually instruct them on how to use strategies that are more conducive to foreign language learning.

SUPERVISORS

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

MOEC-	Ministry of Education and Culture
TIE-	Tanzania Institute of Education
TGNP-	Tanzania Gender Networking Programmes
CCM-	Chama Cha Mapinduzi
BAKWATA-	Baraza Kuu la Waislam Tanzania
ATR-	African Traditional Religions
ESL-	English as a Second Language
EFL-	English as a Foreign Language
L1-	First Language
L2-	Second Language
LLS-	Language Learning Strategies
URT-	United Republic of Tanzania
SILL-	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
IBQ-	Individual Background Questionnaire
SBI-	Strategy-Based Interview
SPSS-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SCT-	Socio-Cultural Theory

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Operational definitions

The terms used in this research may carry different interpretations in different contexts. So, to avoid ambiguity, the following key terms are operationalized and illustrated: language learning strategy, sociocultural determinants, gender, religion, learning context, ESL learning context, EFL learning context, hybrid learning context, strategy inventory for language learning, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

1.1.1 Learning Strategy

The term “strategy” comes from the ancient Greek term “strategia”, which means “generalship or the art of war”. The warlike meaning of “strategia” has faded out but the ideas of control and goal-directedness remain in the current conceptualisation of the word. Oxford (1990), defines LLSs as “specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques students use—often consciously—to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the L2” (p.1). In this study, a working definition of LLSs from a sociocultural point of view, which is rather qualitative and starts with society and its culture rather than the individual, is that language learning strategies are the learners’ conscious, socially mediated plans, techniques, steps, tactics, abilities or actions and learning behaviours whether observable or unobservable which directly or indirectly facilitate the comprehension, retention, retrieval and application of information for language learning and acquisition.

1.1.2 Sociocultural Factors

A society is large group of people who live together in an organised way, making decisions about how to do things and sharing the work that needs to be done (Gleason

1961). Culture, on the other hand, refers the beliefs, values, and material objects that create our way of life (Condon 1973) and it establishes a context of cognitive and effective behaviour for each person. Condon adds that it influences individual estimation and attitudes and can also have an effect on practical aspects of life such hobbies. Culture and language are related. Language is not only the product of culture, but also is a symbol of culture (Gleason 1961, p. 20). Sociocultural determinants are the large scale forces within cultures and societies that affect thoughts, feelings and behaviour of individuals (Linayage, et al 2010, and p.172). Such determinants include a person's religious inclination, gender and ethnicity. A sociocultural perspective to language learning taken in this study, therefore, emphasizes the interdependence of social, cultural and individual processes in the construction of knowledge in English language. With regard to the present study, gender and religion as sociocultural determinants of the choice of learning strategies in the Tanzanian learning context were investigated.

1.1.3 Language Learning Context

The learning context can include the teachers, the peers, the classroom climate or ethos, the family support, the social, cultural tradition of learning, the curriculum, and the availability of input and output opportunities (Gu, 2003). Language learning context, in particular, refers to the situation in which input and learner output are fashioned (scaffolded by the language teacher or peers) so that learners will attend to form and take risks towards the ultimate goal of improving their linguistic expertise (Segalowitz, Freed and Dewey 2004,p.180). In this study, I considered three notions of learning context: the macro-context (the Hybrid context), the location of the school, (either in the rural or urban setup), and the level of education, (either secondary school or university).

1.1.4 English as a Second Language (ESL) Learning Context

English as a Second Language refers to language-learning situations involving instruction of English in an English-speaking community or country to students whose first language is not English (Oxford & Shearin 1994). Such a learning context provides and promotes opportunities for language use and therefore generates use of language learning strategies. In a general education context, it is a term used to describe learners who speak English as a second language as opposed to the native language they speak at home. Strevens's (1992) clarification on the role and status of English in ESL environments is "English is a second language when it has special standing, such as being acceptable in the courts of law, being medium of instruction in major sectors of the educational systems, being used in regional or national administration, being used on radio or television and where there are major newspapers published in English". (p.36) Strevens's observation befits the Tanzanian context only to some extent.

1.1.5 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learning Context

English as a Foreign Language refers to learning of a non-native language in the environment of one's native language (Gass and Selinker 2008). According to Strevens (1992), "English is a foreign language within a community when it has no special standing but is simply another language". In such a situation English is not a medium of everyday communication (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). EFL learning contexts also involve English being learned in the classroom for a limited period of time each week and when there is no immediate purpose for using English for communicative functions. This is true of the Tanzanian context (see Chapter Three). According to Richards et al (1992, pp.123-124), English in such countries is only taught as a subject in schools but not used as the medium of instruction in education as well as the language of communication (for example, government, business, industry and politics) within the country. Tomlinson (2005) argues

that EFL is learned by people who already use at least one other language and who live in a community in which English is not normally used. This community is inevitably influenced by norms that are not those of English-speaking countries and those norms influence the teacher's and learner's expectations of the language learning process (p.137).

1.1.6 Hybrid English Language Learning Context

This is a type of context which befits the description of neither ESL nor of EFL but is rather a blend of the two. In other words, a hybrid context bears characteristics of both ESL and EFL. For example, constitutionally, English in Tanzania is a second language and the official language; hence the language of instruction at secondary school and higher levels of education. English is also used in the media. There are a few mainstream newspapers in daily circulation such as *The Guardian* and *The Citizen*, and also English television channels and programmes especially through satellite systems like *Zuku* and *Star Times*. English is also taken as the medium of communication in international relations. This language situation looks like an ESL one. Despite this, the linguistic status and roles of English in the country have generally been reduced to those of a foreign language. For instance, it is widely acknowledged that English is rarely heard outside the classroom and even in many of the classroom activities and lecture halls, explanations of concepts are done in Kiswahili, yet it is constitutionally the medium of instruction and communication from secondary schools to higher education (see Chapter Three for details). One cannot, therefore, out rightly regard English in the Tanzanian learning context as ESL or EFL but a blend of both ESL and EFL, a Hybrid learning context as referred to in this study.

1.1.7 Strategy Inventory for Language learning (SILL)

SILL is a questionnaire which was designed by Oxford (1990) to investigate learners' use of the language learning strategies that promote success in language learning. There are two different versions of SILL: one for native English speakers learning a foreign language containing 80 items (Version 5.0); another one for ESL or EFL learners containing 50 items (Version 7.0). This study has adopted Version 7.0 of the SILL. The SILL adopted for the secondary school students was translated into Kiswahili (see appendices 2 and 4).

1.1.8 Memory strategies

Memory strategies are those strategies help the language learner to learn the meaning of a new word or concept and also remember what has been learnt. They reflect principles such as arranging things in order, making associations and reviewing. (Oxford 1990, p. 38). Specific examples of memory strategies include: using the new word in a sentence, reviewing, using mnemonics among others.

1.1.9 Cognitive strategies

These are mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information in order to improve in the language (Williams and Burden 1997, p.148). They include: reading a wide variety of materials in English for pleasure, watching TV shows, movies and other programmes in English among others.

1.1.10 Compensation strategies

These are strategies which help the language learner to overcome communication difficulties caused by some limitations in grammar and vocabulary (Oxford 1990, p48)

they include guessing the meaning of a word from the context, switching to L1, use of gestures among others.

1.1.11 Meta-cognitive strategies

According to Williams and Burden (1997, p.148), meta-cognitive strategies involve awareness of what one is doing and strategies one is employing as well as knowledge about the actual process of learning. They help the language learners to arrange and plan their learning in an effective way (Oxford 1990, p.136). Meta-cognitive strategies include paying attention, reading ahead of the instructor, seeking out practice opportunities, monitoring other people's errors and avoiding the same among others.

1.1.12 Affective strategies

Affective strategies relate to the affective aspects of the learner and so, they are strategies which help the language learner to manage his/her anxiety, emotions, motivation, attitudes, tolerance and culture shock (Oxford 1990, p. 140). They include encouraging oneself through positive self-talk, rewarding oneself, practising thoroughly in advance among others.

1.1.13 Social strategies

Since language is a social behaviour, these are strategies which help the language learner work well with others when engaged in a language task (Oxford 1990, p.145). They include working or practicing language with peers, asking the teacher, peers for help, asking questions for clarification among others.

1.1.14 Gender

According to Butler (1990), gender is the repeated stylization of the body, a set of repeated acts within a highly rigid regulatory frame that congeal over time to produce the appearance of substance, of a ‘natural’ kind of being” (p.32). Gender is not something you acquire once and for all at an early stage of life, but an on-going accomplishment produced by your repeated actions (Cameron, 2004). In study, I perceive one’s *gender* not to be equivalent to his/her *sex*; though, most of the time, building on the biological base that one has from birth, he/she constructs it through his/her life with the experiences which take place first in the family then in society. The social context and culture one lives in shapes ones gender identity accompanied with unique individual experiences. As a consequence, every society has a distinct gender identity and any individual living in them may or may not comply with the presumed gender identity.

1.1.15 Religion

According to Geertz (1973, P.90) religion is a system of symbols which act to establish powerful, pervasive and long-lasting moods, attitudes and motivations in people. Religion, in this study, is taken to a system of beliefs which influences the learners’ attitudes, value-attachments and motivations towards English language, its native speakers and the western culture. Christianity and Islam were the two major religious groups which were considered in this study.

1.2 Background to the study

During the last couple of decades, there has been a growing concern with the cultural, social, political, economic and technological changes in the world. In order to keep up with these changes, people all over the world are trying to learn a second, even a third language in order to meet the needs created by all these changes. Language has been

at centre stage in these changes and so language learning is one of the most important needs and it has become a necessity in people's lives.

Language learning, as crucial as it, is related to many factors including sociological, psychological, cognitive psychological, biological and cross-cultural factors. Among these factors, Dornyei and Skeha (2003) stated that individual differences in general and learning strategies in particular, are considered essential factors that determine how learners could achieve success at language learning. To improve learners' second language learning, studies have been conducted to establish the relationship between these factors and language learning.

Effective language learning has therefore become one of the areas of concern in the field of ESL/EFL learning which researchers and applied linguists have given much attention to. Because of this concern, the field of applied linguistics during the past decades witnessed a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches of language learning and teaching. Consequently, a shift of attention has taken place in second language acquisition research from the *products* of language learning to the *processes* through which learning takes place (Oxford, 1990). This means that the teacher as an educator is not only to impart knowledge to learners but also what is considered more important, to equip the learners with the abilities and skills to be able to learn in self-directed way. The study and teaching of Language Learning Strategies is one of the ways of achieving learner autonomy (see chapter 2) in language learning. Since ultimately, (like the proverbial horse led to water but which must do the drinking itself), even with the best teachers and methods, students are the only ones who can actually do the learning, there is need to explore strategy use in different cultural backgrounds.

The choice and use of Language Learning Strategies is not automatic. Research on LLSs (Oxford 1990a; Cohen 1987; and O'Malley and Chamot 1990 among others) has shown that there are a number of factors that influence their choice. These factors include

proficiency level, motivation, gender, self-efficacy, ethnicity, cultural background and learning environment. In this study, gender, religion and learning context as sociocultural determinants of the choice of LLS in the Tanzanian context were investigated.

The choice of the three variables was motivated by a number of observations. First, it is the hybrid Tanzanian language learning context. This is a type of context which befits the description of neither ESL or of EFL rather it is a blend of the two. In other words, a hybrid learning context bears characteristics of both ESL and EFL (see a detailed discussion of the Tanzanian learning context in Chapter Three, section 3.3). In such a learning context, language learners rarely apply cognitive strategies such as practising naturalistically or using the target language for actual communication.

Second, in language learning strategy research, many studies across different cultures show more frequent strategy use by females than males, especially the social-based strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Politzer, 1983). However, some findings revealed that males employed more strategies than females (Wharton, 2000), and some even suggested that there were no significant differences between males and females on their use of language learning strategies (Chang, 1990; Chou, 2002). These studies thus provided rich insights into interpreting the gender issues in the studies of LLS. However, since the results are inconclusive, the present study was conducted in the Tanzanian setting in a bid to contribute to this debate.

Third, Oxford (1993) and Radwan (2011, p.115) call for the need to examine the relationship between LLSs and various factors in a variety of settings and cultural backgrounds. Cultural backgrounds of learners have been shown to have an effect on the use of LLSs (see Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Rubin, 1975). Oxford, (1996b); Oxford & Nyikos, (1989) asserted that culture and national origin strongly influenced the kinds of strategies used by language learners. However, most of these studies adopted quite loose groupings of learner identity associated with the students' country of origin and reported

general findings linked to these existing descriptions. Specifically, these studies tended to investigate strategy preferences of students in a country as a whole rather than considering the learners' ethnic, religious, and linguistic backgrounds. Hence, the summary profiling of LLSs preferences reported in different countries has not explored strategy preferences of specific cultural groups, marked by their ethno-linguistic or ethno-religious variables within a country. The present study sought to fill this gap by investigating the role of religion, gender and learning context in strategy preference in the Tanzanian context.

Lastly, there is lack of empirical data on the role of religion in language learning in general and language learning strategy use in particular yet of late religion has become a major force in mood, value and attitude formation and attachment to the target culture and eventually the target language.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Despite evidence in the existing research that the use of LLSs is influenced by a number of factors among them religion, gender and learning context, most of these studies were carried out in countries where, arguably, one religion was clearly dominant, where gender equity has a long standing history and also focused on learners' strategy use in ESL contexts in which English is widely used as the medium of instruction and communication and a few in EFL contexts. However, very little has been done on a Hybrid language learning context and in contexts where both Islam and Christianity seem to be religions with more or less equal in number and influence. This study sought to establish the influence of religion (Christianity or Islam), gender (Male or Female) and learning context (Rural or Urban; University or Secondary school) on the choice of LLSs in the Tanzanian context.

1.4 The Objectives of the Study

It follows from the statement of the problem above that the aim of this study was to investigate the potential influence of gender, religion and learning context on the choice of LLS among learners of English in the Tanzanian Hybrid English learning context. The specific objectives were the following:

- a) To establish the language learning strategy profile of language learners in the Tanzanian context as whether high, moderate or low strategy users.
- b) To determine whether gender is a significant factor in terms of number and types of strategies chosen by learners of English in the Tanzanian context.
- c) To find out whether religion (Christianity or Islam) significantly determines the number and type of strategies chosen by learners of English in the Tanzanian Hybrid English learning context.
- d) To establish whether learning context (Rural vs Urban and University vs Secondary School) determines the number and types of strategies chosen by learners of English in the Tanzanian Hybrid English learning context.

1.5 Justification of the Study

First, the present study attempted to investigate the choice of LLS among the learners of English in Tanzania. It is hoped that this research will initiate further research in this area as it is important for language learners in Tanzania to be exposed to various strategies so that teachers of English language would not need to ‘spoon-feed’ students. Put it differently, this study will encourage learner autonomy by exposing and encouraging self-directed methods in language learning and acquisition. This will be a step towards the application of the Communicative Language Teaching approach to language teaching and learning.

Second, it was hoped that insights provided by the study might be used to raise learners’ awareness of their strategy options, and to suggest possibly useful strategies

which they might consider including in their own strategy repertoires. The endeavour was underpinned by the argument in LLS learning that learners are capable of taking an active role in their own learning by the use of LLSs, that these strategies can, themselves, be learnt, and that it is possible to facilitate this process by raising awareness and by providing encouragement and practice opportunities.

Third, learners of a language must be able to create or seek out opportunities to learn most effectively based on their own learning strategies which can enhance the acquisition of English. In order to do so, they must be given the prospect and opportunity to understand and identify their own language learning path. The exposure of available language learning strategies can assist students to further maximize their ability in language learning. The awareness of what works best for them in learning can be reflected in students' capability in understanding and solving problems or completing tasks. This study is important as the awareness of selecting the appropriate LLSs can be a major factor in contributing to students' success in their language learning.

Fourth, the rationale for learner strategy research is that if researchers can identify a list of strategies that successful language learners use, then less effective and successful learners may benefit from applying the same strategies in their own learning. This study will provide empirical evidence of language learning in general and English as a second language in particular in order to assist teachers, administrators, policy makers, researchers, curriculum developers, publishers, and learners in the Hybrid learning environments, on the LLS preferred in the Tanzanian context.

Fifth, English language teachers and instructors are hoped to gain insights into student's learning strategies and these insights would eventually enable them to tailor culture-appropriate tasks for their students in the classroom so that students would benefit most in the learner-centred curriculum. It will also give an opportunity to the teachers of language at all levels of education in such teaching and learning environments to better

understand their students' needs, including the necessity of equipping students with the right tools for language learning. This need is pressing because of lack of personnel and resources that enhance the teaching and learning of the English language.

Moreover, it is generally recommended that research on language strategies be conducted in a variety of different contexts under different conditions (Politzer and McGroarty, 1985; Green and Oxford, 1995). The significance of doing research in different educational contexts lies in the fact that the way learners behave in one learning context is not necessarily the same as or similar to what learners do in other environments. Williams and Burden (1997) adds that the use of learning strategies is heavily influenced by the whole context of the learning situation, including the classroom culture and ethos. For a long time, earlier works have focused on either ESL cases in Europe where language of communication is English or EFL learning contexts but mostly in the Asian countries. Very little research has been done in the African context where the language learning contexts are neither purely ESL nor EFL (Chimbaganda, 2006; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Seyoum, 2009). This study attempted to explore the strategy use patterns in the Tanzanian hybrid learning context.

Lastly, this study is unique in the sense that it breaks away from the stereotypic traditional way of looking at language learners as nationals or continentals. Earlier studies would give labels such as Asian, Hispanics, and Taiwanese. The present study takes a socio-cultural approach to the study of language learning and use in which gender; religion and learning context are considered as some of the factors that determine the use of strategies even within a group of nationals. This was out of the belief that even a speech community cannot be homogeneous.

1.6 Scope and Delimitations

Language learning is a complex process that involves a number of intertwined factors. The social context factors cover all activities influencing language learning

behaviour within a society. The social context variables include sociolinguistic factors, socioeconomic factors and sociocultural factors. This study focused on the sociocultural factors. These are factors which bear upon motivation, such as relative social status of L1 and L2, the instrumental value of the L2, the cultural value of the L2 as well as the political factors should be considered together with the social opportunities to make contact in the second language and the opportunities for learning the language offered in the school. Due to limitations of time and resources, only three sociocultural factors, namely gender, religion and learning context, were considered in the present study.

With regard specifically to language learning, learning takes place at all levels of learning, from primary school to higher levels of learning. In this study, only language learners at secondary school and university level were considered. Learners at these two levels are believed to have had formal instruction in English for a period of at least seven years. In this study, questionnaires, individual interviews and observation (particularly for university learners) were employed. These are not the only data collection techniques in language learning strategies research. There are other tools such as use of protocols, use of diaries and use of focus group discussions that would probably yield insightful results but which were not employed in the present study because of the nature and type of data which were sought for.

1.7 Review of the Literature

1.7.1 Literature on Gender and Language Learning Strategies

In the study of gender influence on the choice and use of LLS, Politzer (1983) investigated 90 college English language students in the US. He found that Hispanics used more social, interactive strategies while Asian groups educated in traditional didactic settings chose memorisation strategies. Though this is a cross-cultural study, it has relevant implications for the proposed study in the sense that the Tanzanian learning

setting is instructional rather than functional. This means that learners of the English language are taught mainly the language skills for grammatical competence rather than creating an interactive language context for the learners to engage in the language so as to achieve communicative competence.

In a related study, Bacon and Finnemann (1990) investigated the impact of gender on learners' beliefs and strategies by administering a 109-item questionnaire to 938 university learners of Spanish. In their findings female learners reported a higher level of motivation and a greater use of strategy than male learners. Their research also showed that female learners employed compensation strategies most compared to all other strategies and also they showed a higher level of interacting socially with the target language while male learners preferred to use analytic strategies. This study investigated both the affective (beliefs) and the cognitive (LLS) aspects of individual learner differences. Though the study is relevant to the proposed study, one cannot tell whether it is gender or learner's beliefs that has more influence on the use of LLS.

Green and Oxford (1995) investigated the differences of LLS among 374 Hispanic male and female students at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez. Of the 374 students, 124 were high level (intermediate) students, 129 were middle level (basic) and 121 were low level (pre-basic). Employing the survey method, they reported that female learners employed more strategies than their male counterparts. In addition frequent strategies used by female students were based on memory, meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies. They attributed this to the fact that gender differences vary within and across cultures and so women and men use different approaches to language learning. This study is relevant to the present study in that they both investigate the role of gender in the choice of LLS. They both consider language learners at university level; however, the present study involves secondary school level language learners as well.

In a more recent study, Alhaisoni (2012) used SILL with 701 Saudi EFL undergraduates to examine the relationship between type and frequency of language learning strategies and gender and proficiency level. The results showed that cognitive and metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used and affective strategies and memory strategies were the least frequently used. The results also showed that there was no significant gender difference in strategy use in all the other strategies except for social strategies. Females were found to use social strategies significantly more often than males. Females also used strategies in general much more frequently than the males. Furthermore, the findings showed that highly proficient students used all strategies more than low-proficiency students. This study is relevant to the present study. They both focus on learners at higher levels of learning and also on a learning context in which English is not the language of communication; however, Alhaisoni's study is conducted in an EFL setting in which Arabic is the language of communication whereas the present study is conducted in a hybrid setting in which Kiswahili is widely the language of communication.

In another study, Zeynali (2012) investigated whether or not differences exist between female and male Iranian learners in the use of LLS. A total of 149 learners at Tabriz, Iran were involved in the study. Data were collected using a modified version of the SILL. The results showed that there was a significant difference in strategy use between the male and female students. Female learners showed higher overall strategy use than the male learners. Females also tended to use more social/affective strategies than males. The above reviewed literature focus on the influence of gender on LLS use at university level of language learning.

With regard to lower levels of education, Kaylani (1996) examined the relationship between gender and the strategy use of 255 high school learners of the English language in Jordan. Oxford's (1990) Arabic version of SILL was administered. The MANOVA

statistical analysis showed that memory, cognitive, compensation and affective strategies were more preferred by females. She attributed this to the fact that successful female language learners are compelled to use more cognitive, memory and affective strategies in order to get affirmation from teachers, parents and friends. This study is relevant to the present study in a number of ways. Firstly, it focuses on strategy use and gender of high school language learners. It employs the data collection instruments adopted by the present study though in this study the Kiswahili version of the SILL was used.

In another study, Athina, (2011) explored patterns of reported language learning strategies by 763 EFL Greek-speaking 6th graders in elementary school in relation to their proficiency level, motivation to learn English and gender. Using the SILL as the elicitation tool, it was observed that girls were better strategy users than boys. It appeared that girls deployed 26 strategies a lot more than boys not only because of probable greater maturity but also because of higher motivation.

Other studies revealed that males reported using LLS significantly more than females did. Wharton (2000) investigated the gender differences in self-reported strategy use of university students in Singapore with Chi-square statistics. His findings showed that male students favoured more variety of learning strategies than female students. Wharton suspected that “previous language learning experience or bilingualism may be more important than ethnicity, and possibly also gender, as a factor that significantly affects learning strategy use” (p. 234). He concluded that a combination of socialization and physiology may probably be the reason that caused gender-related differences (p. 235).

El-Dib, (2004) investigated language learning strategies in Kuwait with the aim to establishing the link between gender, language level and culture in a Hybrid context. The results suggested that males reported using more strategies than females. This was attributed to the social-cultural context. According to El-Dib (2004), a society or social context that is gender sensitive may play a role in females’ adoption of strategies different

from those adopted by the males. He adds that “females in a conservative society where they may not have many opportunities to socialise with speakers of English may have classrooms as the only venue for using strategies to learn English. Males in such a society, on the other hand, exercise more freedom in travelling, socialising and going to movies which allow them to select naturalistic strategies or more of social strategies”. (p. 91)

In study in which 214 Taiwanese students in the International College of Ming Chuan University, Jia-Jing (2010) observed a significant difference in the strategy use between male and female students. Further, males reported to employ more learning strategies than females did. Findings by Wharton (2000), El-Dib (2004) and Jia-Jing, (2010) all showed significant differences in strategy use with males having a greater strategy use.

Some studies failed to see any significant difference between the genders. For instance, using the SILL, the results of Al-Otaibi's (2004) study of 237 Saudi students in an intensive English language programme demonstrated that there were no statistically significant differences in the use of any of the six strategy categories. Though related to the present study, unlike the present study which is set in an L1 immersion learning setup, it is set in an intensive English language programme.

Nisbet et al. (2005), explored the relationship between LLS and English proficiency of Chinese university students. The sample consisted of 168 junior English majors at Henan University in Kaifeng, China. Of the 168 students, 139 were females and 29 were males, aged from 19 to 27. The results of the data indicated that there were no significant differences among the males and females in using LLS. This was attributed to the fact participants in the study were English majors who had motivation enough to study English.

In a more recent study, Ghazi and Samar (2012) investigated the relationship between learning and communication strategies used by male and female college learners

and their levels of proficiency in reading English as a second language. Using the SILL, the results revealed no statistically significant difference between males and females in the overall strategy use. Furthermore, the results of the Univariate Analysis revealed no statistically significant differences across gender with regard to the use of strategy categories except with metacognitive strategies in favour of the females. This observation was attributed to the fact that strategy use is context specific and is also a variable across different linguistic and cultural situations.

The above reviewed studies were set in different cultural and learning contexts, and since the cultural milieu in which both males and females live and the opportunities given to each within that cultural context determine the types of strategies used by either sex, it will be worthy investigating the Tanzanian cultural context as well. It is also noted that the findings on gender and LLS use are contradictory and inconclusive. This study, therefore, contributes to this debate.

1.7.2 Literature on Religion and language Learning Strategies

According to Al-Shuwairekh (2001) in his study of vocabulary learning strategies among Saudi Arabian language learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language, Muslim students reported greater strategy use in both non-dictionary use for discovering the meanings of new words and expanding lexical knowledge than their non-Muslim counterparts. As for the individual strategy items, only 15 out of 63 varied significantly according to religious identity in which 11 out of 15 items showing significant variation were used significantly more by Muslim students than by non-Muslims. Although this study demonstrates the importance of social factors in strategy use, it is task-based, that is, it only focused on vocabulary learning. It also focused on language learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language.

A study by Liyanage (2004) compared ethnicity/nationality and religion with a view to seeing which one had a greater influence on the use of LLS, indicated that ethnicity and

religion jointly predicted the meta-cognitive, cognitive and social affective strategies of ESL learners in Sri Lanka. He also discovered that the religious identity of the learners, rather than their ethnic identity, is important in determining their selection of learning strategies. Liyanage's study is important to the present research because of the shared ethno-religious approach to the use of LLSs. Unlike earlier studies that looked at respondents as a whole ethnic group of nationals or region (Hispanics, Asians, Chinese and so on), in ethno-religious approach it is assumed that even within a country or continent, the learners' socialisation and so their language learning will be influenced by their religious backgrounds.

1.7.3 Literature on Learning context and Language Learning Strategies

Literature on the role of contextual factors in language- learning is evident. For instance, Politzer's (1983) study among a group of Hispanics, which documented the relationships between learning behaviour and achievement, revealed that these may depend heavily on contextual factors such as the type of evaluation (linguistic or communicative tests), course level, and teaching methods.

Kouraogo (1993, p.167) discusses the use of LLSs in input-poor environments, which he defines as "language learning contexts where learners have little opportunity to hear or read the language outside or even inside the classroom". Citing the examples of learning EFL in Burkina Faso and French in US high schools, Kouraogo posits a lack of motivation and real opportunities to practice the language as major problems. This problem may be found in many parts of the world and as it was noted earlier, it is an epitome of the Tanzanian context.

LoCastro (1994), for instance, examined the strategies which successful Japanese learners of English used to learn language in a large class environment. Using group interviews and the SILL, the study found that when the students were in junior and senior high school, they were mainly interested in passing the examination and employed

memorization strategies to do this. In addition, they all looked to the teacher for motivation because of the large class size. In university settings, however, the learners were motivated to learn English because they saw it as a language of international communication: their passport to go abroad.

A study by Segalowitz, Freed and Dewey (2004), which compared regular classroom, study abroad, and intensive domestic immersion programs, also showed that the learning context affected various dimensions of second-language fluency in French. They added that local contextual features such as students' definition of the task, features of the task, and participant structures influenced L2 learners' opportunities to acquire academic English in cooperative learning.

A study by Gan (2009) investigated English learners among university students in mainland China and Hong Kong. Hong Kong was a settlement of the British Empire from 1839 to 1997. Now, Hong Kong is one of the special administrative regions of China and has a different education system from mainland China. Although mainland Chinese and Hong Kong students share a similar cultural background, for example the Confucian tradition, they have different social environments and contexts. The findings of this study suggest that social environments and contexts are more important than cultural traditions in learning strategy use and motivation.

In conclusion, different language learning settings exhibit varying conditions because of a host of difficulties like classes being too large (LoCastro 1994), input-poor environments, or even insufficient and untrained teachers (Kouraogo 1993). It has been hypothesized that learning context influence the use of LLS. These studies are relevant to the present study in the sense that they epitomise the Tanzanian learning context. (See a detailed discussion about the Tanzanian learning context in (chapter Three).

1.8 Theoretical Framework: Cognitive Approach and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

1.8.1 The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive approaches to language learning have the view that language is not separate from other aspects of cognition. This approach draws on recent developments in neurobiology which link language acquisition to brain activity (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 38). To be more specific, the information processing approach in psychology is based on the notion that complex behaviour is composed of simple processes viewed to be autonomous and can thus be studied independently. Humans are considered to be active with a mind that is a general-purpose, symbol-processing system of limited capacity (McLaughlin and Heredia 1996). This limitation refers to restrictions on attention focusing at a given point in time as well as on information processing ability with respect to an individual's knowledge and expectations. Learning of complex skills entails routinisation or automatisation of earlier use of controlled processes, which require a lot of attention, control and more time for their activation (McLaughlin, Rossman and McLeod 1983).

This approach is applicable in second language acquisition, which is thought to be a complex cognitive skill as it involves internal representations that guide performance. McLaughlin and Heredia (1996) argue that learning is a gradual movement from controlled to automatic processing via practice, that is, repeated activation. The result of this continuing movement is a constant restructuring of a learner's interlanguage, which may be destabilised temporarily exhibiting L2 errors. Thus, some variability of learner language can be accounted for as well as the issue of fossilization where some controlled erroneous constructions appear to become automatic and, therefore, difficult to delete or alter.

Anderson (1983: 25-26) described three stages of skill acquisition: the cognitive stage, the associative stage and the autonomous stage. During the cognitive stage,

language learners acquire mainly declarative knowledge which can be verbally described. In the associative stage, errors are gradually detected and eliminated. Connections among the components of the skill are consolidated and the declarative knowledge gradually take a procedural form. In the autonomous stage, performance of the skills becomes improved, refined and automatic, through practice. The learning environment plays a key role in the automisation of the skills. . Based on Anderson's (1983 Cognitive theory, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) concluded that "learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks; consequently, they may be represented as procedural knowledge which may be acquired through cognitive, associative and autonomous stages of learning" (p.52).

The present study, therefore, hypothesized that the best way to understand both L1 and L2 learning is through understanding the processes used by language learner to learn new information and skills. The cognitive approach, though important to this study, does not fully take care of the other intervening language learning factors such as the role of the social and cultural context, hence, the Sociocultural Theory, which harmonises the learner's cognitive process in language processing and the sociocultural context, was employed .

1.8.2 Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

1.8.2.1 The theory itself

The Socio-Cultural Theory, also known as the Socio-Psychological Theory, responds to the need of SLA to account for the influence of social interaction, contextual and psychological factors. The Russian psychologist L. S. Vygotsky (1931-1997) laid the theoretical foundations of Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT). The SCT focuses on the sign systems used in a particular cultural context and how those signs impact both interactions between individuals (socially), and changes within individuals (psychologically). Fundamental to sociocultural theory is Vygotsky's concept of the mediated human mind.

The natural mind is organized into the higher mind as symbolic, culturally-shaped artifacts are introduced and incorporated into thought processes. “Higher, or "cultural" mental functions, for instance, abstract reasoning, logical memory, language, voluntary attention, planning, decision-making and so on have their origin in human interaction and appear gradually during the process of radical transformation of the lower functions” (Offord, 2005). The artifacts employed by the mediated mind are passed down from generation to generation, and transform to match the psycho-social demands of the new generation. Language evolves in this way, creating the need for such immediate sources. The psychological tools which mediate culture, including such artifacts as music, art and numeracy, help humans to establish and manage meaning in both psychological and social activity.

Vygotsky categorized knowledge into spheres of activity called genetic domains. His idea of sociocultural evolution explores the dialectical relationship between artifacts (language, music, art and inventions) and their culture of origin. Ontogenesis describes how children internalize mediational tools and learn to regulate their own physical and mental behaviour. This presupposes that mediational tools are introduced externally and later appropriated for self-initiated purposes. Finally, micro-genesis highlights mental development over a later period in life, as in the case of second language acquisition.

Vygotsky conceived of development as a progression through three stages of regulation. The first stage, *object regulation*, behaviour is deferential to objects in the immediate environment. This is well-illustrated in the conduct of young children, who have not learned to respond appropriately to linguistic cues in disciplining their own behaviour. This is followed by *other-regulation*, where behaviour can be managed with external linguistic mediation. The last stage is *self-regulation*, where the individual has full control of mediational tools and can purposely appropriate them. Moving from stage two to three is characteristic of ontogenesis where the internalization of mediational tools

marks maturity. Self-regulation is also where such phenomena as private speech and self-talk also come to the fore. These mediational tools are not meant for communication with others; but rather, speak to the psychological needs of the individual.

A final tenet of SCT is the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This refers to a developmental stage where the learner interacts with a mediational tool or with someone. It is within this externally supported zone that the learner can achieve beyond his or her unmediated capabilities. The ZPD is marked by collaborative contact and negotiated meaning. When two individuals pose themselves as expert and novice, the event can be viewed as scaffolding; when the two are on more equal footing, they work together to reach intersubjectivity.

As with Vygotsky's concept of higher mental capabilities being shaped by cultural artifacts, language learner identity is shaped by the cultural artifacts of the target culture, including language. Learner identity emerges out of language presentation and use, the conditions of the learning context and a developing history of experience. Learners progress to self-regulation in the target language by appropriating linguistic signs for their own communicative purposes. A Vygotskian view of this process highlights learner agency, which gives rise to goal orientation, perlocutionary acts and intersubjectivity. Thus, for Vygotsky, "linguistic signs are never arbitrary. They are created, used, borrowed, and interpreted by the individual for the purposeful actions in which he/she is engaged. Language emerges from social and cultural activity, and only later becomes an object of reflection" (Kramsch, 2000, pp. 133-134). The preferred tools and communicative goals of each learner influence the development of both their collective and individual identities.

In the first phases of acquisition, the learner displays more dependence on mediational tools provided by the context. Many foreign language learners begin by acquiring more concrete lexical items which can be represented by pictures and/or sound,

physically demonstrated, or manipulated in some way. This externalized, sensory mediation gives way to other-mediation, where social encounters redirect both language and identity emergence.

Sociocultural theory offers a framework for understanding learners as they move from object regulation to self-regulation. When learners face challenging cognitive tasks, they revert to earlier phases of regulation, enlisting the use of more externalized mediational tools (Lantolf, 2000).

1.8.2.2 Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory in Relation to Language Learning Strategies

The Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT) provides a very important underpinning background to the roles of LLSs in facilitating second language acquisition. According to Vygotsky, an individual's cognitive system is a result of social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). Such interaction is vital for the development of language acquisition both in formal learning contexts and in natural settings. This theory views Second Language Acquisition as a social semiotic construct. It predicts that learning occurs as a result of mentorship and socio-cultural activity. The form-meaning associations that learners make are situational and cultural-based, and the resulting symbols, that is, the knowledge of the L2 mediate conscious thought relating to those situations and cultural phenomena (Lantolf, 1994). The prediction is that the meta-linguistic knowledge will vary in important ways depending on the context of learning and that learners' knowledge of various levels of linguistic representation (sociolinguistic, phonological, lexical and strategy knowledge) will vary widely from one learning context to another because each context is defined by a unique set of situations and culture (Lantolf and Appel, 1994). A similar argument that the choice of LLS is determined by socio-cultural factors is taken by the present study.

As discussed in the preceding section, internalisation, the zone of proximal development and mediation constitute the core concepts or tenets of SCT (Lantolf, 2000,

p.1). Vygotsky maintained that higher psychological functions originate in interaction between individuals (inter-psychological level) before they are transferred within the individual (intra-psychological level). The central concept for SCT is the mediation of human behaviour with tools and signs systems. A tool could be as simple as a textbook or visual materials (Donato and McCormick, 1994), or symbolic language (Kozulin, 1990). Such tools allow us to regulate our environment (Lantolf, 1994, p.418). External social speech is internalised through mediation (Vygotsky, 1978). In this way, SCT link society to the mind through mediation. Language as a tool of the mind bridges the individual understanding of us and particular contexts and situations within the world. Donato and McCormick (1994) also state “social processes and mental processes can be understood only if we understand the tools and signs that mediate them”.

Based on his theory of the *Zone of Proximal Development*, a learner will be able to perform at a level beyond the limit of his or her potential with the scaffolding of a teacher or a more capable peer (Vygotsky, 1978). With such scaffolding and assistance, the learner then gradually becomes more independent in his/her learning. As the learner becomes increasingly equipped with what it takes to be an independent and autonomous learner, the scaffolding should be gradually removed. The scaffolding provided by the teacher in the learning process encompasses all kinds of support to facilitate and enhance learning. LLSs are precisely a kind of scaffolding that teachers can provide. In other words, teachers can teach students new strategies and can help them sharpen their existing ones. Equipped with LLSs through instruction, learners will be able to employ them on their own to continue with their learning process even with the absence of the teacher’s support, after all, teachers will not be there for learners after they leave the learning environment. With the gain of “self-control and autonomy through strategy use” (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989), learners will be able to continue their journey in the learning of either a second or a foreign language. In a classroom situation, Donato and McCormick (1994)

say that collaborative work among language learners provides some opportunity for scaffolded help as in expert-novice relationships in the everyday setting.

Socio-cultural linguists see language acquisition in social terms. For them, L2 learning is a matter of problem solving in a master-apprentice relationship. Language learning means joining a second culture and is seen as a process of group socialisation, where language is a tool for teaching group traits, values, and beliefs. Language learning becomes difficult where learner's cultural values and beliefs and practices conflict with those of the second culture. Alegre (2001) says that the more a classroom reflects the actual culture of the target language, the more students would increase not only their communication skills, but also their ability to transcend culture by internalising the tools and symbols that define that culture.

The arguments in the present study are in line with Vygotsky's rationale for Mediation, the Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding since enhancing learners' potential beyond their mental level is at the heart of the concept of language learning strategies.

1.9 Hypotheses of the Study

Based on the Study Objectives, the Literature reviewed and Theoretical Framework above, the following hypotheses were tested:

- a) H_0 : Gender is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- b) H_0 : Gender is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- c) H_0 : Religion is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- d) H_0 : Religion is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- e) H_0 : Learning context is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.

- f) H_0 : Learning context is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.

1.10 Methodology

1.10.1 Research approach

This study employed a mixed approach in which quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed. The results of the study were then integrated. The reasons for employing a mixed approach were: first, to achieve a fuller understanding of the strategies and strategy choices. Second, a mixed approach was employed to verify or validate the results in the quantitative method by integrating them with those in the qualitative to see where they converge or diverge before making conclusions. Quantitative data were collected through questionnaires at Phase I while qualitative data were collected through interviews and classroom observations at Phase II of the study.

1.10.2 The site of the study

This study was carried out in Tanzania mainland. The United Republic of Tanzania was coined on the 28 October, 1964 as a merger between the Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. This was a union of two tire systems of government: the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania which is sovereignty to deal with all union matters and non-union matters in Tanzania mainland while the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar which deals with non-union matters in Zanzibar. The reasons for the merger was the strong spirit of African unity which was aimed at the formation of the east African community as a building block for the establishment of the proposed united states of Africa. Tanzania mainland was chosen as the study site because of its religious plurality (see the censuses figures in Table 12). It is not dominated by one religious group as it is the case of Zanzibar. Two major parts of the country: the north (Kilimanjaro, Mara and Mwanza region) and the south (Mtwara, Lindi and Songea region), were targeted.

1.10.3 The Participants

The targeted population of this research was secondary school learners and university learners of English in Tanzania mainland at Phase I and II. Language learners at secondary school and university levels were involved because, first, they have had formal instruction in English for a period of at least seven years. Second, because they are believed to be aware of their own learning strategies and they are also in a position to discuss these strategies. This was important since the study used questionnaires and interview techniques in data collection.

At Phase I, one university and eight secondary schools were involved in the study. St. Augustine University of Tanzania, the Mtwara Centre (where the researcher teaches) was picked using the convenient sampling procedure and only English language learners were involved. Then using stratified random sampling procedure, secondary schools from each of the two regions (the North and the South of Tanzania mainland) were grouped in strata of religion (Christian and Islamic), learning context (rural and urban) out of which four schools based on the subgroupings of rural Christian, rural Muslim, urban Christian, urban Muslim were randomly selected from each region. The secondary school students were then grouped into strata of male and female before being randomly selected to participate in the study. Form two students did not participate because at the time of collecting the data they were preparing and sitting for their national examinations. A total of 349 secondary school students (see Table 1 below) and 200 university students participated in the filling in of the questionnaires. On scrutinising the questionnaires during the analysis, thirty nine questionnaires had to be discarded as invalid because of the following reasons: in some the filling in was incomplete and in others, the respondents had circled more than one answer. On discarding 39 questionnaires, a total of 510 were finally analysed. Such a large sample size was appropriate since the study set to establish

statistical significance. According to Dornyei (2007, p.100), the larger the sample size, the higher the chances of reaching a statistical significance.

Table 1 Sampled Secondary schools at Phase I

Region	School	Religion	Setting	Number of respondents
North	Kirinjiko Islamic school- Kilimanjaro	Islam	Urban	41
	St. Constantine secondary	Christianity	Urban	50
	Kanyigo Islamic Seminary-Bukoba	Islam	Rural	40
	Maase Luteran secondary-Monduli	Christianity	Rural	45
South	Amana Islamic school	Islam	Rural	44
	Free Pentecostal Church Secondary-Lindi	Christianity	Rural	47
	Mtwara Islamic secondary-Mtwara	Islam	Urban	42
	St. Aquinas secondary	Christianity	Urban	50
TOTAL				349

At Phase II where qualitative data were collected using interviews and observations, a total of twenty participants: sixteen from six secondary schools and four from the university, were involved. Two schools (Kanyigo Islamic and Amana Islamic) were not involved at this phase due to difficulties in accessing the school and some uncooperativeness from the school administration respectively. However, using extreme case sampling procedure, the respondents (at university and secondary schools) who had scored highly in the SILL questionnaires, were sampled to participate in the interviews (see Table 2 below for details).

Table 2 Personal details of the 20 interviewees

Id code	Gender	Religion	Learning context	Education Level	Region
S1	Male	Christianity		University	
S2	Female	Christianity		University	
S3	Male	Islam		University	
S4	Female	Islam		University	
S5	Female	Christianity	Urban	St. Aquinas Secondary	North
S6	Male	Islam	Urban	Kirinjiko Islamic Secondary	North
S7	Female	Christianity	Urban	St. Aquinas Secondary	South
S8	Female	Islam	Urban	Kirinjiko Islamic Secondary	North
S9	Male	Islam	Urban	Mtwara Islamic Secondary	South
S10	Female	Islam	Urban	Mtwara Islamic Secondary	South
S11	Male	Christianity	Urban	St. Constantine Secondary	North
S12	Male	Christianity	Rural	Maase Lutheran Secondary	North
S13	Male	Islam	Urban	Kirinjiko Islamic Secondary	North
S14	Female	Christianity	Rural	Maase Lutheran Secondary	North
S15	Female	Islam	Urban	Kirinjiko Islamic Secondary	North
S16	Male	Christianity	Urban	St. Aquinas Secondary	South
S17	Male	Islam	Urban	Mtwara Islamic Sec.	South
S18	Male	Christianity	Rural	Free Pentecostal Church Sec.	South
S19	Female	Christianity	Rural	Free Pentecostal Church Sec.	South
S20	Female	Islam	Urban	Mtwara Islamic	South

1.10.4 Data collection procedure

1.10.4.1 During the Pilot study

Before conducting the main study, a pilot study was administered. A total of thirty seven participants, nine university students and twenty eight from secondary school

formed the sample for the pilot study. The number of participants was within the range proposed by Lightbown and Spada (2006) who says that “the sample size in pilot study ranges from twenty to bigger samples of sixty five.” Based on the observations noted during the pilot study, it became apparent that a Kiswahili version of the SILL should be used in the main study. It was also apparent that some of the questionnaire items should be revised with special attention to issues of simplicity, comprehensibility, and contextual appropriateness. The participants were engaged in an informal conversation in order to get their views on areas of difficulties in the SILL questionnaire. The participants in the pilot study singled out strategy items 5, 6, 22, 25, 35, 45, 46 and 48 which were rather difficult to understand. To avoid any misunderstandings of these items in the actual study, they were revised. Table 3 below presents the original and the revised versions of the questionnaire items.

Table 3 Description of the Revised Version of the SILL

Strategies Category	Item No	Original item	Revised Item
Memory	5	I use rhymes to remember new words in English	I use rhymes, similar sound endings to remember new English words
Memory	6	I use flashcards to remember new words in English	I use flashcards, mnemonics, vocabulary lists etc. to remember new words in English
Cognitive	22	I try not to translate word-for-word	When I read materials written in English language, I try not to translate them word-for-word into Kiswahili
Metacognitive	35	I look for people I can talk to in English	I look for people or opportunities that I can use to practice my English
Compensation	25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, English I use gestures	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English I use gestures, simply give examples, or switch to Kiswahili to keep the conversation going,
Social	45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the teacher or my colleagues for help in English
Social	46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	when others make mistakes in speaking English, I notice their mistakes and keep myself from making the same ones
Social	48	I ask for help from competent speakers	I ask my friends to edit my English English writings

For item 5, the original statement was “*I use rhymes to remember new English words*”. However, from the pilot study, the comments were that the word rhyme was not quite familiar to the participants. Therefore in the revised version, the researcher expounded on the term by adding the appositive “similar sound endings” to help the participants get the

meaning faster. The revised version was thus *“I use rhymes, similar sound endings, to remember new words in English”*. Concerning item No. 6, the original statement was *“I use flashcards to remember new words in English”*. Since the term “flashcards” was again not familiar to the participants, the researcher decided to add other memory boosters such as mnemonics and vocabulary list but retained the term itself since some could tell what flashcards are. So the item was revised to *“I use flashcards, mnemonics, vocabulary lists etc. to remember new words”*. Item No 22 was also revised. The original statement was *“I try not to translate word-for-word”*. Some participants did not know what exactly the statement meant. The researcher therefore paraphrased it as *“when I read materials written in English language, I try not to translate them word for word into Kiswahili”*.

Concerning item No 25, which read, in the original version, *“when I can’t think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures”* the participants apart from the use of gestures also indicated that they often switch to Kiswahili or use the Kiswahili discourse filler “nini”. The item was therefore revised to *“when I can’t think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures, simply give examples, or switch to Kiswahili to keep the conversation going”*. It was also necessary to revise strategy No 35 whose original statement was *“I look for people I can talk to in English”*. This statement was revised to *“I look for people or opportunities that I can use to practice my English”*. The revision was done after realising that the statement limits the respondent from considering other opportunities that can be capitalised on for practice. The revision, therefore, widens the scope for the participants. Strategy item No 45 was also revised. The original statement was *“if I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again”*. The interpretation of the participants was that “the other person” excludes the fellow students and/or teachers and since there is very little use English outside the classroom, the researcher thought it wise to mention the peoples who are always interact with students. The item was therefore revised as *“if I do not understand*

something in English, I ask the teacher or my colleagues for help". Strategy No 46 whose original statement was *"I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk"* was revised to *"When others make mistakes in speaking English, I notice their mistakes and keep myself from making the same ones"*. This revision was necessitated by the fact that it is rare to find native speakers of English in Tanzania, therefore, to many participants, this statement would not be applicable. Lastly, Item 48 which was *"I ask for help from competent English speakers"* was revised to read *"I ask my friends to edit my English"*. This was done to eliminate repetition of the same idea as that in item 45.

After translating the English language version of the SILL into Kiswahili, the content validity of the questionnaire was ascertained. This was done by checking a) whether the questionnaire included an appropriate, representative sample of all possible items measuring different types of the Language Learning Strategies and b) whether the items were worded clearly and effectively enough in Kiswahili to measure the strategies. Clarity of the questionnaire items was also ascertained through the nature of responses obtained by the researcher from the respondents.

The 50 items in the Kiswahili version were tested for validity and reliability. According to SPSS Cronbach's alpha results in Table 4 below, the internal reliability coefficient in the Kiswahili version of the SILL for a total of 50 strategy items was .899 which was very high. In other words, the questionnaire was proven to be a reliable instrument in investigating the LLS use.

Table 4 The Results of the Reliability Analysis of the Translated Version of the SILL

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on translated version	No of Items
.893	.899	50

1.10.4.2 The Main Study

For the purpose of obtaining data that would extensively capture the choices of LLSs and use among learners of English in Tanzania, the study was conducted at two phases. At phase I, the Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire were administered. The participants' background information, that is, religion, gender and the learning contexts, was elicited through the IBQ, while the learners' strategy profiles were elicited through the SILL, a special questionnaire designed by Oxford (1990). The questionnaire uses five Likert-type responses for each strategy item, ranging from 1 ('never or almost never true of me') to 5 ('always true of me') and the students are asked to respond to each item based on an honest self-assessment of their LLS use. The following reporting scale was used to indicate the frequency of use of strategies in learning English: (1) 'High Use' (3.5–5.0), (2) 'Medium Use' (2.5–3.4), and (3) 'Low Use' (1.0–2.4) (Oxford, 1990).

Based on Oxford's (1990) categorization, the 50 individual strategy items in the SILL were grouped into six groups: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social. The scale score for each group is the total scale score of the individual items in that group. The Kiswahili version of the SILL was used. This version was important in the Tanzanian context because, first, answering a 50 item questionnaire in English would be time-consuming and difficult to understand for respondents whose LI was not English. So, a translated version would put the learners at ease and also eliminate possible ambiguities.

The researcher contacted the principals of the sampled schools to obtain their consent for conducting the investigation in their schools. To better guarantee the support of the principals as well as the teachers of the student participants, the researcher offered a one- to three-hour workshop to the teachers of English who were interested in learning

more about language learning strategies. This offer was not only a friendly gesture but was also intended to help the teachers better understand the focus of the study.

Then the researcher administered the questionnaires in person. This was done for the following reasons. One, it would avoid any influence in the filling in the questionnaires because of the teachers' presence. Secondly, to clarify some issues to the respondents should the need arise. Before the respondents filled in the questionnaires, the researcher explained to them the purpose and the procedures of the questionnaire and also assured them that the intention was to understand how they learned English. The researcher explained to the students that (a) answers they would put down would not affect their grades or their teachers' impressions; (b) the questionnaire results would represent groups rather than individuals; (c) the researcher was not going to focus on individual students' questionnaire results; and (d) the student participants would eventually be helping teachers improve their English teaching and helping all Tanzanian students learn English more effectively. Students were encouraged to ask questions at any time during the process. The whole process took about 30-50 minutes, including the researcher's explanation, the distribution and collection of the questionnaire, and the actual time spent completing the questionnaire.

At phase II, semi-structured individual interviews were conducted. The aims of the interviews were: first, to get an overview of the strategy preferences with a view to discovering any other strategies that were not in the SILL; second, to validate the quantitative data collected from phase I of the study by focusing on questions gleaned from those strategy items in the SILL which were shown to have been significantly affected by gender, religion and learning context. The respondents were identified by the admission numbers, for the case of secondary schools, and phone numbers for university respondents. Appointments were arranged in consultation with the school administration

on Sundays for the secondary school participants and any free day for the university participants.

The observation method was also employed at phase II. The researcher computed a list of the observable strategies. On this observation list the observed strategies would be checked off and any other strategy observed would be noted down. This was particularly applied among the students in the university where the researcher teaches, although some were also evident among the secondary school students during the interviews. Not all strategies were directly observable, however. (see chapter four for the observation check list).

1.10.5 Data Analysis Procedures

After data collection, each questionnaire was examined individually and coded for statistical analysis using SPSS version 20. First, the researcher conducted descriptive statistics, including percentages, means and standard deviations to summarise the learners' responses to strategy preference. Secondly, independent t-tests were conducted. The t-test tested the hypotheses of equality of means of the groups in gender, religion and learning context. To determine the statistical significance throughout the study, significance levels of $p \leq .05$ was used

1.11 Structure Of the Study

In this chapter, the background to the study and the statement of the problem were discussed. The aim and the objectives of the study that served as a guide to the study were stated. The significance of the study was also discussed followed by a discussion of the theoretical framework that guided the study. Related literature was then reviewed and the knowledge gaps identified. Finally, the methodology that was employed in this study was presented.

Chapter Two presents problematic issues from the conceptualisation of second language learning strategies and the characteristics of learning strategies. Oxford's (1990)

classifications of LLSs which was taken in this study will be presented followed by the expected effect of LLSs on language learning.

Chapter Three presents the key sociocultural variables: gender, religion and learning context in the Tanzanian mainland. In this chapter too is a discussion of the Tanzanian education system, the language policy and the sociolinguistic situation.

In Chapter four, a presentation of the results of the strategy profile of Tanzanian language learners, their strategy category preferences, the results of gender, religion and learning context as sociocultural determinants is made.

In Chapter five, a detailed discussion of the results is presented. Chapter six is the conclusion where a summary of the major findings of the study, pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research are presented.

CHAPTER TWO:

SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES REFOCUSED

In this chapter, I refocus on language learning strategies with a view to shedding more light on three issues: the conceptualisation of what LLSs are, the characteristics of LLSs, the classification system taken in the present study and the role of LLSs in language acquisition.

2.1 Problematic Issues about L2 Learning Strategies

Researchers on language learning strategies have had different opinions on what strategies are and what qualifies to be LLSs. A sample of earlier definitions of L2 learning strategies, as discussed in section 1.1 of Chapter One, reveals a number of problematic issues. The first one of these is the lack of clarity concerning the perception of strategies as behavioural and, hence, observable processes, or as mental processes, or as both (Ellis, 1994, p.531). Wenden (1991) and Oxford (1990) perceive learning strategies as behavioural while Schmeck (1988), Kirby (1988) and Dansereau (1985) perceive them as “a set of (mental) processes”. However, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and Weinstein and Mayer (1986: 315) openly support the dual character of strategies as both mental and behavioural. However, to eliminate the discrepancy, Oxford (1992/1993) includes a more general term, that is, “steps”, which could accommodate both behavioural and mental steps.

The second problematic issue refers to the terminological variety concerning the precise nature of the behaviours that are supposed to count as learning strategies. For example, Stern (1983, p.4) distinguishes between “strategies” and “techniques”, while Oxford (1989, p.235) refers to strategies also as behaviour or actions. Strategies are also referred to as specific actions, behaviours, steps, techniques (Oxford 1992/1993, p.18); thought and behaviour (O’Malley and Chamot 1995,p.1); techniques and tricks (MacIntyre

1994, p.185); approaches (Ellis 1994, pp.76-77); processes (Cohen 1998, p.4); specific attacks or moment-by-moment techniques (Brown 2000, pp.122-127); tactics and skills (Schmeck 1988, p.5 and Kirby 1988, p.230). In the face of “too many fuzzy synonyms”, Oxford and Cohen (1992) suggest the inclusion of related topics within a smaller number of broad strategies. Finally, Cohen (1998, pp.5-6) offers a compromise to the terminological muddle in the literature, which includes “strategy”, “technique”, “tactic”, “move”, “macro-strategies”, and “micro-strategies” among other terms. Cohen says that “a solution to the problem would be to refer to all of these simply as *strategies*, while still acknowledging that there is a continuum from the broadest categories to the more specific or low-level”. It should be noted that throughout the thesis the term “language learning strategies” is conventionally employed since it has been used most widely in the existing literature.

The third problematic issue in defining learning strategies is whether they are to be seen as subconscious or as conscious actions which learners employ intentionally. Chamot (1987, p.71) clearly refers to strategies as “deliberate actions”. Schmeck (1988, p.5-6) and Kirby (1988, p.230), in the same vein, admit to the intentionality of strategies claiming that strategies “involve choice or decision making”. Oxford (1990, p.12), however, feels that a certain amount of practice and use can make learning strategies automatic, that is, unconscious, which is often very desirable for language learning. Thus, Oxford keeps referring to the often, but not always, intentional nature of the use of strategies (Oxford, 1992/3, p.18; 2003a, p. 9). Oxford and Cohen (1992) clearly assert the conscious element of strategies, which is inherent in the definition of “strategia” itself. Furthermore, drawing on Schmidt (1994, p.16-18), who explicitly connects language learning with consciousness in the form of either focal or peripheral attention on the part of the learner, Cohen (1998, p.6) stipulates that “if a learner’s behaviour is totally unconscious so that the given learner is not able to identify any strategies associated with it, then the behaviour

would simply be referred to as a *process*, not a *strategy*". As a result, he considers the element of consciousness inextricably bound with the nature of language learning strategies (Cohen, 1998, p.4; Cohen and Weaver, 1998, p.1). In complete agreement with Cohen's view, Anderson (2005, p.757) posits that "strategies are the conscious actions that learners take to improve their language learning" because the learner is actively involved in their selection and use. The position taken in this study is that strategy use falls on a continuum, that is, they can be seen as part of a subconscious to conscious continuum. For instance, linking a word to a visual image may well be at the subconscious end of the continuum but planning a week's revision would be at the conscious end.

In spite of the contention on features of strategies, a core characteristic of them is provided by Cohen (1998, p.8), who states that "with some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively" in particular L2 learning tasks. Oxford (2003a, p.8) and Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003, p.315) are in total agreement with the neutrality of strategies until they are considered in context. In fact, Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003) assert that a strategy is positive and useful if it fulfils the following conditions:

- (i) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand,
- (ii) (ii) the strategy fits the particular student's learning style preferences to one degree or another, and
- (iii) (iii) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies.

2.2 Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies

In a bid to explain exactly what language learning strategies are, Oxford (1990, pp.9-14) provides a list of twelve basic features of learning strategies which are the following:

- i) They contribute to the main goal - communicative competence. Learning strategies can foster particular aspects of that competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic competence (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.151).
- ii) They allow learners to become more self-directed. Self-direction is particularly important for language learners since they will not always have the teacher around to guide them as they use the language outside the classroom. Moreover, an appropriate use of learning strategies helps learners to take control of their own learning (Oxford 1990, p.10).
- iii) They expand the role of teachers. As Oxford (1990) states, “the teacher instructs. This is where he or she explains exactly what the students should do”. Teachers traditionally view themselves as authority figures, identified with roles like director, manager and leader. Therefore, a new role of becoming facilitator or adviser may discomfort some teachers who feel that their position is being challenged.
- iv) They are problem orientated. In other words, learning strategies are used because there is a problem to solve, a task to complete, or an objective to attain (Williams and Burden 1997 p.152).
- v) They are specific actions taken by learners. That is, they are specific behaviours accomplished by learners to enhance their learning. These behaviours, for example, include learning for a language task, guessing the meaning of the word, self-evaluating and taking notes.
- vi) They include many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive. Learning strategies are not restricted only to mental processes that the learner deals with while learning a foreign language. Strategies also include meta-cognitive functions like planning, evaluating; emotional, social and other functions as well.

- vii) They support learning both directly and indirectly. (See a detailed discussion of the classification of direct and indirect strategies that influence language learning in the next section of this chapter).
- viii) They are not always observable. The degree of observability regarding learning strategies is questionable, since some are not readily observable to the language teacher. For example, regarding cooperating, a strategy in which a learner cooperates with someone else is immediately observable. However, the mental associations, an important memory strategy used while learners are working on some task, cannot be seen. Consequently, teachers very often find it difficult to know about learning strategies their learners use (Oxford, 1990, p.12).
- ix) They are often conscious. The level of consciousness can be seen as a rather controversial issue.
- x) They can be taught. Unlike learning styles, for example, learning strategies can be taught. This can be done through strategy training, which is an essential part of language education. Its goal is to help learners become more aware of the strategies they use, to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate ones. Cohen (1998, p.69) adds that to explore ways that the learners can learn the target language more effectively.
- xi) They are flexible. That is, they are not always found in predictable patterns. Williams and Burden (1997: 152) state that learners exert choice over the way they use, combine and sequence strategies. However, according to Oxford (1990, p.13) learners sometimes combine strategies in a predictable way. For instance, in reading a text, learners often preview the passage by skimming or scanning, then they read it more closely while they use guessing to fill any gaps, and finally they organize the material by taking notes and summarizing.

xii) They are influenced by a variety of factors. Williams and Burden (1997, p.152) suggest that there are a number of factors influencing strategy choice: the stage of learning, task requirements, degree of awareness, age, sex, general learning style, personality motivation and purpose for learning the language.

Oxford (1990, p.13) points out that on the basis of recent studies, learners who are more aware, advanced and motivated seem to use a greater range of appropriate strategies. Regarding motivated learners, motivation is related to the way learning strategies are used by learners. For instance, those who want to learn a foreign language only for interpersonal communication will use different strategies from those learners who want to fulfil graduation requirements.

As indicated in the above description, some learning strategies are behavioural and thus can be directly observable; others are mentalistic and not directly observable. In addition to this, strategies are sometimes labelled as belonging to “successful” or “unsuccessful” learners. Strategies have also been divided according to whether they influence language learning directly or indirectly.

2.3 Oxford's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

There are many language learning strategies which have been studied and classified in various ways by many researchers. Many scholars in the field (e.g. Bialystok 1978, Rubin 1987, O'Malley and Chamot 1990, and Oxford, 1990) have proposed different taxonomies of LLS. However, most of these attempts to classify LLSs reflect more or less the same categorization. The present study was guided by the classification by Oxford (1990) which is discussed in detail here below.

Oxford (1990) provides the most extensive classification of LLS developed so far. Generally speaking, Oxford's taxonomy consists of two major language learning strategy categories: the direct and indirect strategies as it can be seen in Table 5 below

Table 5 Oxford's Classification System of Language Learning Strategies

	Primary strategies	Definition	Secondary strategies
Direct Strategies	Cognitive strategies	To learn and produce language by various methods	Practicing Analysing and reasoning
	Memory strategies	To store new information in memory and retrieve it later	Imagining sound Reviewing well
	Compensation strategies	To compensate for missing knowledge	Guessing intelligently Inferring messages
Indirect Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	To monitor, evaluate, and plan learning	Organisational planning Evaluating learning
	Affective strategies	To monitor the emotions Attitudes and motivation	Lowering anxiety Encouraging yourself
	Social strategies	To work with others to get input and practice	Asking questions Cooperating with others

(taken from Oxford 1990, p. 37)

2.3.1 Direct strategies

These are language behaviours that directly involve the use of the target language. All direct strategies require mental processing of the language. The three groups of direct strategies (memory, cognitive and compensation) do this processing in a different way and for various purposes (Oxford, 1990, p.37). One should realize that direct strategies are aimed at learners' ability to identify what is important, unknown and uneasy for them in the process of learning.

Memory strategies

Memory strategies, sometimes called mnemonics, are important in the process of learning of foreign language since a lot of information (for instance, a large amount of vocabulary) is necessary to remember. According to Oxford (1990), memory strategies

reflect principles, such as arranging things in order, making associations and reviewing. All these principles must be meaningful to a learner since a meaning is included there. Memory strategies regarding correct reviewing help transfer information from the basic fact level to the skill level, where knowledge is more automatic. Moreover, it is more easily retrieved and less probable that the knowledge will be lost after a period of time when it is not used. Memory strategies often involve pairing different types of material. That is, to give verbal labels to pictures, to create visual images of words and phrases (p. 38 – 40). Memory strategies are divided into four groups: Creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing actions. Oxford (1990) gives a classification of memory strategies in detail as shown below:

A. Creating Mental Linkages

- 1) Grouping.
- 2) Associating/Elaborating.
- 3) Placing new words into a context.

B. Applying images and sounds

- 1) Using imagery.
- 2) Semantic mapping.
- 3) Using keywords.
- 4) Representing sound in memory.

C. Reviewing well

- 1) Structured reviewing.

D. Employing action

- 1) Using physical response or sensation.
- 2) Using mechanical techniques.

Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are considered to play an important role in the process of learning a foreign language. Williams and Burden (1997, p.148) define cognitive strategies as 'mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information'. Oxford (1990) divides this major group into four sets of strategies: practising, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. Strategies for practicing belong to the most significant cognitive strategies; however, learners do not always become conscious of it.

Strategies for receiving and sending messages are indispensable tools since they can help learners to locate the main idea through skimming or scanning. Another strategy, using resources, is supportive for both comprehension and production as it helps learners to take advantage of a range of resources. Many learners tend to “reason out” the new language by making a formal model in their minds which is based on analysis and comparison. They incline to create new rules and revise them when new information is available. Even if this process is remarkably valuable, the learners sometimes unreasonably transfer these rules or expressions from the mother tongue directly to the new language. Where the rules do not relate closely as is the with English and Swahili languages, the strategy becomes difficult to be applied. Nonetheless, it is considered to be a normal phase of language learning. Sometimes it may happen that some language learners stuck in this phase as they misuse or overuse some of the analysing and reasoning strategies (ibid, pp.43-46).

Oxford’s (1990) classification of cognitive strategies is the following:

A. Practicing

- 1) Repeating
- 2) Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems
- 3) Recognising and using formulas and patterns
- 4) Recombining
- 5) Practicing naturalistically

B. Receiving and sending messages

- 1) Getting the idea quickly
- 2) Using resources for receiving and sending messages

C. Analysing and reasoning

- 1) Reasoning deductively
- 2) Analysing expressions
- 3) Analysing contrastively (across languages)
- 4) Translating
- 5) Transferring

D. Creating structures for input and output

- 1) Taking notes
- 2) Summarizing
- 3) Highlighting

Compensation strategies

Compensation strategies help learners to overcome difficulties caused by some limitations in the field of knowledge. With help of these strategies the learners can use the new language either for comprehension or production. Oxford (1990) states that compensation strategies are intended to make up for an insufficient learner's range of grammar and vocabulary. Two sets of compensation strategies are identified: Guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Guessing strategies include using a variety of clues either linguistic or non-linguistic to enable learners guess the meaning when they do not know all words (p. 48). It is important to mention that not only beginners are those who employ guessing. Advanced learners and even native speakers use guessing when they haven't heard something well enough, when they don't know a new word, or when the meaning is hidden between the lines (ibid).

Compensation occurs not only when we want to understand the new language but also in its production. Compensation strategies for production can be described as helping learners to keep on using the language, so that they obtain more practice. To become more fluent in what the learners already know ensure using the strategies such as approximating or adjusting message. Additionally, the learners should not, for instance, avoid asking someone for help to provide the missing information in the target language (ibid, pp.49 - 50). A system of compensation strategies according to Oxford (1990) is as follows:

A. Guessing intelligently in listening and reading

- 1) Using linguistic clues
- 2) Using other clues

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

- 1) Switching to the mother tongue
- 2) Getting help
- 3) Using mime or gesture
- 4) Avoiding communication partially or totally
- 5) Selecting the topic
- 6) Adjusting or approximating the message
- 7) Coining words
- 8) Using a circumlocution or synonym

2.3.2 Indirect strategies

Indirect strategies only support and manage language learning indirectly, that is, without the inclusion of target language. Oxford (1990) says that they are interrelated with direct strategies and are (in a way) their exact opposite. Indirect strategies are useful in all language situations and are applicable to the four language skills namely reading, writing, listening and speaking (p.135). Indirect strategies focus on convenient psychological climate that provides the learners suitable environment for language learning and makes it easier. These strategies fall into three categories namely metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Metacognitive strategies

According to Williams and Burden (1997), metacognitive strategies involve an awareness of what one is doing and the strategies one is employing, as well as knowledge about the actual process of learning (p. 148). Oxford (1990) states that language learners are quite often overwhelmed by a large amount of new things regarding unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing grammatical rules, different writing systems, and additionally, different styles of teaching. All these things can cause confusion and loss of interest in language learning. It is suggested that to get back learner's focus, conscious use of metacognitive strategies, namely paying attention and linking with already known material, is necessary (p. 136 – 137). In general, metacognitive strategies help learners to arrange and plan their language learning in an effective way, notice and learn from errors and evaluate their overall progress. Oxford (1990) identifies the following groups and subgroups of meta-cognitive strategies:

A. Centring your learning

- 1) Overviewing and linking with already known material
- 2) Paying attention
- 3) Delaying speech production to focus on listening

B. Arranging and planning your learning

- 1) Finding out about language learning
- 2) Organizing

- 3) Setting goals and objectives
- 4) Identifying the purpose of a (purposeful listening/speaking/reading/writing)
- 5) Planning for a language task
- 6) Seeking practice opportunities

C. Evaluating your learning

- 1) Self-monitoring
- 2) Self-evaluating

Affective strategies

The affective side of the learner is probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure. Concepts such as self-esteem, emotions, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, cultural shock, inhibition, risk taking, and tolerance for ambiguity refers to the term affective. With respect to already mentioned factors, language learners can control them through affective strategies. Positive feelings and emotions can make language learning more enjoyable while, on the contrary, negative feelings can hinder development. Regarding positive and negative emotions, the teacher can have a tremendous impact on the classroom atmosphere. Not only teachers' beliefs and attitudes can influence the way of the language learning. The teacher can significantly affect it by changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, by providing increased amounts of naturalistic communication, and finally, by teaching learners to use affective strategies (Oxford, 1990, pp.140-142). Oxford's (1990) classification of affective strategies is as shown below:

A. Lowering your anxiety

- 1) Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation
- 2) Using music
- 3) Using laughter

B. Encouraging yourself

- 1) Making positive statements
- 2) Taking risks widely
- 3) Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature

- 1) Listening to your body
- 2) Using a checklist
- 3) Writing a language learning diary
- 4) Discussing your feelings with someone else

Social strategies

Language, as a form of communication among people, is considered a social behaviour. In the process of language learning not only a learner but also other people are involved so that appropriate social language learning strategies are important to help in this procedure. Asking questions is one of the crucial social interactions. By asking questions, learners can get closer to the intended meaning and thus support their understanding. While conversing, asking questions indicates interest and involvement. Furthermore, the response of the conversation partner indicates whether the question was understood and provides an indirect feedback about the learner's production skills. In addition to asking questions, cooperating especially with more proficient users of the target language is important for language learners (ibid, p.145). On the whole, cooperation lacks a competition and it implies the presence of a group spirit so that the process of language learning can become more enjoyable and achievable. The system of the social learning strategies according to Oxford (1990) is as follows:

A. Asking questions

- 1) Asking for clarification or verification
- 2) Asking for correction

B. Cooperating with others

- 1) Cooperating with peers
- 2) Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C. Empathizing with others

- 1) Developing cultural understanding
- 2) Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

This study adopted Oxford's (1990) taxonomy because of the following reasons; firstly, as Ellis, (1994) observes, it is based on sound theoretical bases and describes the metacognitive and cognitive strategies more explicitly than other taxonomies. Secondly, Hsiao and Oxford, (2002) compared the measurement models of strategy taxonomy and concluded that Oxford's six-factor learning strategy taxonomy is the most consistent with

the learning strategy use of learners because the taxonomy is comprehensive, detailed and systematic. Third, it is reliable and valid across many different cultural groups. Fourth, it pieces up well with Vygotsky's Socio-psychological theory which guided the present study. Lastly, it connects individual strategies with listening, reading, speaking and writing skills (Oxford, 1996; Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

2.4 The role of Language Learning Strategies in L2 Language Learning

As noted earlier in section 2.2 above, language learning strategies have some characteristics which related to their roles in language learning. In this subsection the key contributions of LLS in language learning namely enhancing language learning success, achieving learner autonomy and boosting mastery of the language skills, are discussed below.

2.4.1 Language Learning Strategies and learning success

Learning strategies have recently become recognised as a major factor in language learning success (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley and Chamot 1990). Several models of mental processes and of L2 acquisition (McLaughlin 1987; MacIntyre 1994) have proposed that LLS appear to constitute one of the most important differences among individuals in L2 acquisition. The findings of many studies (e.g. Politzer and McGroarty 1985 and Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown 1999) suggest a strong relationship between the amount and type of strategy use and levels of success in language learning.

In research on the LLSs, the relationship between LLS and success in language learning is usually considered with reference to the concept of the good language learners (for instance, Naiman et al, 1978 and Rubin, 1981), or cross-sectional studies which attempt to identify the correlation between strategy use and achievement (Politzer and McGroarty 1985). Early studies on good language learners have suggested that the characteristics of good language learners and the strategies used would provide some

useful guidelines to those less successful. In the 1970s, Rubin (1975) initiated about good language learners research and showed that good language learners were determined by three variables: “aptitude, motivation, and opportunity” (p. 42). Good language learners not only had a higher degree of these three variables in learning language but shared similar characteristics. A good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser who has strong motivation to learn from a communication, prepares to focus on language form and meaning, and practices and monitors his or her own speech. In Rubin’s (1981) follow-up study, more learning behaviours of successful language learners were added: successful learners

- i) can decide the most suitable learning modes for themselves,
- ii) are organized,
- iii) are creative,
- iv) use all opportunities to practise,
- v) use memorization,
- vi) learn to live in uncertainty,
- vii) learn from mistakes,
- viii) use language knowledge,
- ix) use the situation and environment to improve understanding,
- x) guess intelligently,
- xi) memorize the words/sentences as a whole,
- xii) learn the form of sentences,
- xiii) use the skill of expression and
- xiv) use all kinds of literary forms

Oxford (1990) stated that “Successful learners tend to use strategies such as finding practice opportunities, guessing intelligently, using patterns, treating the language as a rule system, and communicating often in the language” (p. 362). O’Malley and Chamot (1990)

suggested that good language learners tend to explore various strategies and successfully apply them to language tasks. Chamot (2004), in her later study, altered the definition of good language learners as, “Strategic learners have metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet the task demands and their own learning strategies” (p. 14). Oxford (2003) argued that good language learners do not always employ the same strategies, and they use a relevant orchestration of strategies at specific learning tasks.

Less successful language learners tend to have fewer strategies than those who are successful learners. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) notes, “that less effective students not only had fewer strategy types in their repertoires but also frequently used strategies that were inappropriate to the task or that did not lead to successful task completion” (p. 140). However, the argument in this study is that it is likely that it is not so much how often learners’ use strategies as when and with what purpose they use them but rather the effectiveness of a strategy may depend largely on the characteristics of the given learner, the given language structure(s), the given context, or the interaction of these. The differences between more and less successful language learners are the management of their own strategies, the level of awareness they have of their own strategies, and the degree to which their strategies are efficiently applied to language learning tasks and in the appropriate learning context.

2.4.2 Language Learning Strategies and Learner Autonomy

Learners are being encouraged to learn how to learn and the importance of it is undoubted. It is important to help them become more effective, responsible and autonomous in learning a second or a foreign language. With respect to learning to learn, it is important to mention learner autonomy. In connection with language learning, Holec’s (1981) definition of learner autonomy seems to be one of the most

appropriate ones. He states:

To take charge of one's own learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, e.g. determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting method and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition....., evaluating what has been acquired (p. 3).

A learner's negative attitude towards making decisions about their own learning is one of the greatest barriers to the development of learner autonomy (Sinclair, 2000, p.7), therefore, an effort to develop positive learner's attitude towards his/her learning is a fundamental stage in gaining learner autonomy.

Theoretical definitions regarding autonomy consider the learners to be automatically willing to take over more responsibility for their own learning. Nevertheless, the willingness of learners is not in many cases innate to them and must be acquired either by natural means or by formal learning in a systematic, deliberate way. This Holec's view led to the development of a wide range of techniques and procedures known as "learning to learn" (ibid).

Despite the wide differences among theoretical approaches to learning, most language learning theorists would agree that learning is best achieved when learners actively contribute to the process. An active role means that learners are not simply passive receivers of information but have opportunities to work through it and internalize it (Rubin 1987, p.17).

The trend, since the early 1970s, towards increasingly learner-centred language teaching methodologies has been uncontested. These practices focus on changing the teacher's perspective and primarily on changing the learner by "making the learner a better learner" (Wenden 1991, pp.1-2). Besides Holec's (1981) treatment of autonomy as an attribute of the learner, the term has also been used to describe learning situations. For example, in his book on "self-instruction", which, according to Dickinson (1987, p.11), refers to situations in which a learner takes responsibility for his/her own learning

working without the direct control of a teacher, learner “autonomy” is described as the situation in which the learner is exclusively responsible for all the decisions regarding his/her learning and the implementation of those decisions (in full autonomy there is independence of the involvement of a teacher or institution or even specially prepared materials).

The issue of autonomy, therefore, is directly related to the concept of language learning strategies in L2 learning as “strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability” (Oxford 1992/1993, p.18). In particular, self-directed students gradually become more self-confident and proficient in the L2. On the other hand, teachers assume their new roles as facilitators, helpers, guides, and consultants, identifying students’ learning strategies, providing training on strategies and scaffolding learners become more independent (Oxford 1990, p.10).

In connection with communication and learning strategies, Littlewood (1996) provides a very interesting framework for developing autonomy in foreign language learning. He defines autonomy as the independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern a person’s actions and specifies the two main components of this capacity: *willingness* (depending on *motivation* and *confidence*) and *ability* (depending on *knowledge* and *skills*). As a basis for developing strategies, the three broad domains of a person’s autonomy can be broken down into more specific areas:

- *autonomy as a communicator*, which depends on ability for linguistic creativity and using strategies for communicating meanings
- *autonomy as a learner*, which depends on ability for independent work and using appropriate learning strategies
- *autonomy as a person*, which depends (in the foreign language learning context) on the ability to express personal meanings and to create personal learning contexts.

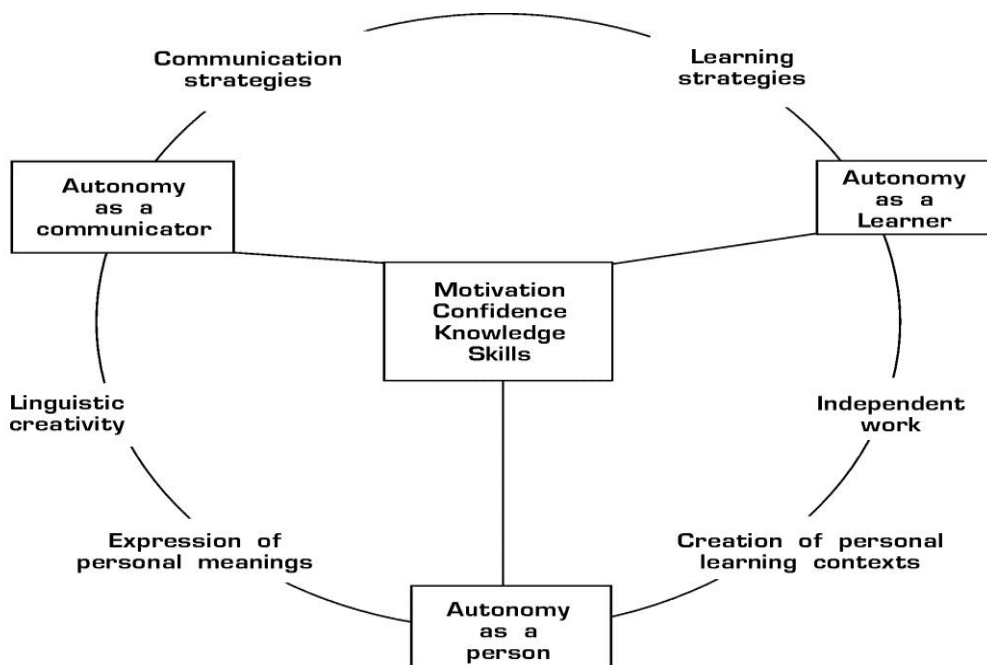


Figure 1 Framework for developing SLA autonomy (taken from Littlewood 1996,p.432)

The circular layout of Figure 1 illustrates how the three domains (communication, learning, and personal life) of autonomy (whose main components have been placed in the middle of the circle) and the areas of autonomy overlap, giving a “spill-over” effect on the other areas.

As Hsiao and Oxford (2002, p.369) note, the concept of autonomy in the L2 field is closely allied with Vygotsky’s concept of self-regulation in sociocultural psychology. In particular, according to Vygotsky (1978), as children grow into the intellectual life of those around them, social interactions with more competent adults or peers or teachers provide the child with assistance which is gradually removed when it is no longer needed by the independent learner. Eventually, social speech is internalized to guide action. Only when language is converted into internal speech can it come to organize the child’s thought, becoming an internal mental function. The end result of speech internalization is self-regulation. Developing towards autonomy, the individual (usually at the age of an adult) finally becomes a self-regulated member of society (McCafferty 1992, p.179).

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) provide specific applications of the concept of self-

regulation to L2 learning. In 1990, the two researchers laid the foundations for a new integrated-skill approach known as the “Tapestry Approach”. Like the weaver, the learner is in charge and determines the final product of the learning process. The instructional loom can produce a large, strong, and beautiful tapestry if all the strands of the tapestry, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages involved, are interwoven in positive ways. Apart from the strands mentioned above, there is a very crucial strand consisting of the four primary skills and related skills, such as knowledge of vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax, and meaning. Tapestry materials, which are content-based and task-based, are responsive to differences in students’ broad learning styles and demonstrate the optimal use of different learning strategies for different tasks. Effective teachers support the learners’ creativity, advise them on language use, encourage them, and provide them with cognitive feedback. As learners become more proficient in the L2, they rely upon less support.

Evidently, use of language learning strategies is intricately linked to learners’ development of autonomous control on their learning. Making decisions and assuming independent action while considering the context in which learning takes place builds students’ self-confidence towards advancement in the L2

2.4.3 Language Learning Strategies and Language Skills

The third aspect on the effect of LLS on language learning regards its role in language skills. The purpose of foreign/second language learning is to be able to communicate with others in the target language. Reaching this communicative competence goes hand in hand with the ability to understand and produce language structures in the target language. This ability is reflected in the language skills of two main categories. Firstly, the productive language skills are speaking and writing. These skills are given priority in the English syllabus (see the English syllabus, Ministry of Education and Culture (MEOC), 2005, p.ii). Secondly, the receptive skills are divided

into listening and reading. Among these language skills are areas which all of them share and engage, they are associated with vocabulary learning, grammar learning and translation. (Cohen 2010, p.167)

2.4.3.1 Language Learning strategies and the Listening skills

Vandergrift (2003) describes listening as probably the most useful skill for foreign language learning but at the same time the most demanding language skill to be mastered. But as Vandergrift mentions, training students in the employment of learning strategies can facilitate and foster comprehensibility of the input to which language learners are exposed (p. 84). Cohen (2010) divides listening strategies into three subcategories. Firstly, he mentions strategies which help increase the learners' exposure to L2, for example, listening to radio programs in L2, watching movies or TV shows in the target language. Secondly, into listening strategies incorporated into those strategies which enable learners to become more familiar with the sounds in L2. (p. 167). Among these strategies, we have making associations of new sounds of words with already familiar ones and imitating the speech of native speakers. Finally, strategies which help learners to understand better conversation held in L2. The author divides these strategies to three stages; the pre-listening strategies which incorporate the decision of what the learner will pay attention to in the conversation, while-listening strategies are focusing on word and sentence stress or paying attention to some part of the conversation, and finally strategies which should help learners to make educated guesses in case he/she did not understand the conversation well, (ibid, pp.167-268). Learners of English also use metacognitive strategies, especially comprehension monitoring, in order to orchestrate a number of strategies successfully.

2.4.3.2 Language Learning strategies and the Reading skills

As Gascoigne (2008) mentions, reading has traditionally been considered as an individual responsibility which allows students to reach large amounts of information

with which they can be provided both in and outside the classroom. But as the author mentions, historically there has not been much attention devoted to the process of reading in L2 since many researchers assumed that learners would employ strategies which they apply in their L1, (p. 67).

Among the reading strategies, Cohen (2010) urges for the use of those strategies which should help the learner organize the process of reading and understand the reading itself. Concerning the process of reading, the author suggests the learner to plan, monitor and check reading comprehension. In case learners come across an unknown word in the reading, the author provides them with two hints, firstly guess the meaning of the unknown word from context or use a dictionary, (p.168).

2.4.3.3 Language learning strategies and the Speaking

Speaking strategies are also called communication strategies. As Cohen (2010) indicates, training in the employment of learning strategies in speaking has been proven valuable in research carried out by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Dörnyei (1995, 1996). The strategies for speaking are divided according to situation in speaking. Firstly, as strategies prodding the practice for speaking can be mentioned practicing new grammatical structures for various conditions in order to check the mastery of the structure or considering the way a native speaker might say what the learner wants to express. Secondly, there can be found strategies helping learners be engaged in conversation, for example, initiating conversation in L2 or asking questions as the conversations are being held. Finally, the author mentions strategies helping learners to get out of a situation when they cannot think of a particular word in L2, for example, using synonyms, describing the word in a different way or using a word from L1 and pronouncing as it being a word in L2, (Cohen, 2010, p.168).

2.4.3.4 Language learning strategies and the Writing

In general, “process writing” in native language writing aimed to delve into the mental processes of writers during composition attracted great interest in writing strategies both in L1 and L2 fields. Cognitive models of L1 writing dominated the 1980s while since the mid-1990s, a socio-cognitive perspective of literacy development has prevailed. According to Bloom (2008), writing in foreign language lessons is often considered only as a supportive skill for other language skills. Moreover, the author adds that even in the field of language learning strategies, for instance, cognitive strategies such as note taking and highlighting are strategies which foster listening and reading rather than developing writing competence (p.103).

In order to master the competence for creating a piece of writing in L2, there are three stages of writing to which learners need to pay attention. The first stage is the pre-writing one for which O’Malley and Chamot, (1996) created K-W-L (Know, Want to know, Learned) chart which can help learners organize this stage of writing. Learners should firstly write down what they already know about the topic (K stage), then should realize what they need to know more about the topic or genre (W stage) and finally learners make clear of what they have learnt (L stage) as they look for the information they stated in W stage, (Bloom, 2008, p.109). In the second stage of writing, that is, drafting, teachers can facilitate the process of writing by supporting the use of cognitive strategies which can help to solve problems learners are facing during writing, for instance, rereading, substitution and strategic use of L2. The last stage of the writing process is revising. In this stage, learners are expected to revise their writing from different perspectives, for instance, the content of writing and problems identified by proof reading. This stage can be facilitated by the teacher providing the learners with checklist of items learners need to revise, (ibid, p.111).

Cohen (2010) advises language learners to plan writing beforehand, monitor the

process of writing and to be aware of different types of writing. In the process of writing itself, learners should review what has already been written and start writing when they are sure of making clear all ideas for it. The author also emphasizes the importance of rewriting single drafts, for example, based on received feedback, in order to finally create appropriate quality piece of writing, (p. 168).

2.4.3.5 Language learning strategies and vocabulary acquisition

As O'Malley et al. (1996) state, research on training learning strategies in vocabulary learning has reported dramatic improvements in the learners' ability to remember words in all cases. This research focused on fostering the associations of words in L2 with their equivalents in L1 (Cohen and Aphek, 1980) or on the use of specific varieties of associations (Atkinson and Raugh 1975, p.561)

Strategies for vocabulary learning are divided according to the stages of learning verbal material. In the first stage of learning process, memorizing of words, learners can foster the learning process by analysing the structure and meaning of words or by making mental images of the new language material. In the stage of reviewing vocabulary, Cohen (2010, p.169) finds particularly effective going over new language material often at first and then going repeatedly back to refresh the knowledge. In order to recall vocabulary, the author claims as essential to remember the situation where the learner came across the word. If a learner wants to make use of new language material, he/she should use the words learned or use familiar words when making up new sentences.

It appears that "deeper" vocabulary strategies, such as "forming associations" and the keyword method (a technique which starts with an acoustic link in L1, which sounds like the foreign word, and is subsequently connected with a visual link), lead to better retention than relatively "shallow" strategies such as rote memorisation (Schmitt, 2000, pp. 132-133). In recent research, mnemonics have been gradually de-emphasised, and the

importance of semantics and context has been underscored towards a more balanced and integrated approach in vocabulary learning while consistently adopt a variety of strategies in combination based on their beliefs about vocabulary learning or on other cognitive or social factors (Gu 2003). Athina, (2011, p.82) observes that students who developed routines and set goals for themselves were more successful than those who were unorganised, with no clear routines or intentions. This means that metacognitive and cognitive strategy categories are major strategy categories for vocabulary learning.

2.4.3.6 Language learning strategies and Grammar

Concerning grammar, Cohen (2010) provides us with three concrete cases. Firstly, for facilitating easier remembering of verb tenses, the author considers as useful the use of chants, song and acronyms. For remembering position of a pronoun in a sentence, learners should use model sentences and use phrases as a kind of mnemonics. In order to check the correct order of adjectives, learners can highlight all nouns with their corresponding adjectives in the same colour (p.169). This means that memory strategies and cognitive strategies are key to the learning of grammar of the target language.

2.4.3.7 Language learning strategies and translation

Although Athina (2011, p. 85) contends that translation might be advantageous for the organisation and syntactic complexity of the target language, especially, for learners at a lower proficiency level, when it comes to translating L1 material into L2, Cohen (2010) advises language learners to plan out what they wants to say and listen to what others have said and translate that language material into L1 in order to remember the concepts. In case learners want to work as much as possible in L2, they should try to put their L1 out of mind and focus on L2. (p.169). In addition to that, learners are also advised to avoid translating word-for-word rather go for semantic translation.

CHAPTER THREE

THE SOCIOCULTURAL VARIABLES IN THE TANZANIAN ENGLISH LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

After a discussion of the problematic issues about language learning strategies, in this chapter, a contextual overview of the independent variables of gender, religion and learning context is discussed in view of the Tanzanian context. The aim of this chapter is place the variables in their study context because of the potential for variation in strategy use from one setting to another.

3.1 Tanzania's Education System and Language Policy

3.1.1 Education System

The education system in Tanzania is based on the 7-4-2-3 system: 7 years of primary school education, 4 years of secondary school education leading to Ordinary level examinations, 2 years of secondary education leading to advanced level examinations, and 3 years of university education. In the second year of study at secondary school, there is a national assessment examination which allows those who pass to continue for an additional 2 years after which they sit for the Certificate of Secondary Examinations (CSEE) held in November. Those who qualify join the Advanced level secondary for 2 years then take the Advanced Certificate Examinations. This shows that education is highly valued in the Tanzanian society and examinations have been the long-established mechanism for this screening process. In other words, the national examinations taken at the ordinary level and advanced level are the students' purpose for learning. Those who pass them are expected to have a better future.

3.1.2 Tanzania's Language Policy

Language policy is a deliberate decision that gives a language a special status in the society (Haugen, 1987). It is a decision made by people with high political and legal status and concerns the choice of languages to be used in different spheres controlled by the

state, such as the parliament, schools, courts among others. Since these institutions are national, language choice also concerns the choice of national and official languages.

Tanzania, like many other African countries, is endowed with a wealth of indigenous languages. At last count, over 127 languages were spoken in this country of 37 million on the east coast of Africa (Gordon 2008). Tanzania differs from some of its neighbours in that a lingua franca, Kiswahili, is spoken as a second language by a vast majority of the population and is a straightforward choice for a national language. Kiswahili is a Bantu language in structure and vocabulary, making it closely related to many of the country's local languages, but it also draws a great deal of its vocabulary from Arabic due to the influences of coastal trade. Kiswahili is the mother tongue of the Kiswahili people living along the coast and in Zanzibar, as well as of the younger generations of city dwellers (Abdulaziz 2013, p.8). An estimated 30 million rural Tanzanians are second-language speakers, using their local language at home but Swahili for cross-tribal communication (Gordon 2008). In the absence of an ethnically neutral lingua franca, the main challenge remains: Which language is to be used as the medium of instruction. This is so because any choice will be seen to favour certain ethno-linguistic groups at the expense of all others.

Tanzania gained its independence from the British in 1961. Since that time, the language policy has always emphasized the use of two official languages: English and Kiswahili. However, the allocation of these languages has been changing overtime. Sometimes Kiswahili has been given high status over English, and sometimes it has been the opposite. According to Tumbo-Masabo & Mwansoko (1996) the Tanzanian language policy reveals three phases.

Phase one

This was the period before the Arusha Declaration (1961-67), when the country's ideology was capitalistic. Swahili had its first taste of official status during the German

colonial rule beginning in the late seventeenth century, when it was designated for nationwide use in education and colonial administration. After some controversy over whether German or Swahili should be used as the medium of instruction in schools, Swahili was eventually chosen. The most straightforward explanation for their decision is that since the goal of the government schools was to prepare Tanzanians for employment in the colonial bureaucracy, using the convenient lingua franca already spoken by nearly all potential employees both in schools and in colonial administration was most practical. The promotion of Swahili as a language of education and administration during German colonial rule was instrumental in its spread as a lingua franca in Tanzania (Roy-Campbell, 2001, p.42). When the British government took over administration of German East Africa following World War I, Kiswahili was preserved as the language of instruction in the first five years of primary school, but the medium of instruction in last three years of primary school and all of secondary school was switched to English (Rubagumya, 1991). Colonial administration was also now carried out in English. Roy-Campbell, (2001) argues that the British administration had a concrete plan to train a small minority of elite Tanzanians to assist in colonial administration, while for the rest of the population the aim was to maintain very low levels of education.

Phase Two

Tanganyika gained independence in 1961, with Julius Nyerere, a former secondary-school teacher and founder of TANU, as its first leader. His vision was of a country united under *ujamaa*, or “familyhood,” a political philosophy of socialism and self-reliance (Nyerere, 1967). Nyerere adopted an aggressive nation-building campaign that included promoting Swahili as the language of public life and transforming the educational curriculum of government schools to focus on the Tanzanian national experience. The establishment of Swahili as a national language was instrumental in the move towards self-reliance in general. Nyerere characterized the Arusha Declaration as a resolution that

radically changed the socio-economic and political policies of Tanzania by committing it to socialist ideology. Tanzania declared it would follow the ideology of socialism and self-reliance in February 1967. The use of Kiswahili continued to be emphasized in administration, politics, and education all over the country while English was the language of instruction at secondary school and higher education. But despite Nyerere's desire to re-imagine education through the new lens of self-reliance, English remained the language of instruction in secondary schools. However, the implementation of this policy faced serious problems with regard to higher education. One of the problems was that students experienced learning difficulties due to low proficiency in English when English was used as a medium of instruction in secondary schools. The problem of language instruction in secondary and higher education reached a climax in the late 1970s. During this period in time, it seemed that policymakers were on the brink of implementing a switch from English to Swahili in secondary schools. A study commissioned by the National Kiswahili Council, heightened concerns about existing policies and expectations of change (Lwaitama and Rugemalira, 1990). In February of 1982 the Presidential Commission on Education, appointed by Nyerere, recommended that a change from English to Swahili in secondary classrooms be effected starting in 1985. However, this was not implemented (ibid).

Phase Three

The third phase is the period beginning from 1983 to date. Not long after the Presidential Commission on Education's recommendations were made, policymakers were already beginning to change their minds. Today, the structure of official language use in Tanzanian education is much as it was just after independence: Swahili is the language of instruction in primary schools while English is used in secondary schools. According to the national website:

The main feature of Tanzania's education system is the bilingual policy, which requires children to learn both Kiswahili and English. English is essential, as it is the language which links Tanzania and the rest of the world through technology, commerce and also administration. The learning of Kiswahili enables Tanzania's students to keep in touch with their cultural values and heritage. English is taught as a compulsory subject in the primary education whereas at post primary education it is the medium of instruction. With regard to Kiswahili, it is the medium of instruction at primary education while it is taught as a compulsory subject at secondary education and as an option at tertiary education. (United Republic of Tanzania, 2005).

Economically and politically, the 3rd phase is the transition period during which Tanzania started slowly changing to a capitalist system. The new language policy that goes with this ideology was made public by the government in 1983 (Hikimany 1985). According to this policy, Kiswahili is allocated for use in social sectors and politics, primary education, and adult education. English, a language whose development in the country is sponsored by the British government, continues to be used in secondary and higher education, high court, and international communication. These differences in the allocation of language use seem to give English high status as a language of modern development and at the same time stagnate the development of Kiswahili in higher education. Surprisingly, the percentage of Tanzanians who have any knowledge of English is estimated at only 15% (Tibategeza, 2009). This means that Kiswahili is the language of wider communication. At the same time, the present situation with regard to language allocation does not affect the efforts of the language-development institutions. Tibategeza (2009:166) says Kiswahili dominates most of the day-to-day activities.

Despite English being the official language, it is rarely used, be it in government business, at the family level or as a language for socialisation. The learners of English only use it in class not even in school. Whenever they are outside the classroom or at home, they use Kiswahili or ethnic languages or code mix. Since most of them lack opportunities to practise the language, they fail to learn it effectively (Tibategeza 2009). This situation is the same even at higher levels of education including university level.

Rubanza (1996:85) and Tibategeza (2009:190) report that at the University of Dar es Salaam and at the main campus (in Mwanza) of the St Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT), students use Kiswahili whenever they are in their out-of-lecture-halls group discussions though they have to write their papers in English, the language of instruction at university level. The students also they request to ask questions or give contributions in Kiswahili during lectures.

Despite this linguistic situation in the country, many parents are under pressure to ensure their children get ‘proper’ English education. A good number of parents prefer taking their children to English medium schools so that the children can get a good foundation in the English language. As the pressure to learn English mounts, the language is still treated as a difficult puzzle that needs to be mastered rather than as a tool for communication.

3.1.3 The Secondary English Language Curriculum

The current English curriculum, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), was introduced in January 2005 to replace the 1996 English Language edition. The general objectives of CLT are to enable the student to:

1. Express oneself in both spoken and written English
2. Read widely for pleasure and for information
3. Perform a variety of writing tasks according to the required conventions
4. Use ones knowledge of English to demonstrate awareness and consciousness of basics of society and the part one can play in its development
5. Use knowledge of English in furthering one’s education
6. Communicate effectively with other speakers of English both inside and outside the country (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2005 p. ii)

Regarding the length of the English language exposure to the learners, there are about 194 teaching days in total in a year. Form 1 and 2 are allocated 7 lessons of English per week

while Form 3 and 4 classes are allocated 6 lessons of English per week. One lesson is 40 minutes. Each sub-topic in the syllabus is allocated a number of periods which are considered adequate for teaching. If, as noted earlier, there is very little usage of English even in the teaching of other subjects inside the classrooms, and even outside of the classroom/lecture halls, then it is clear that the language exposure given to the learners is not adequate. More still, the whole process of teaching is controlled by the government. The English language objectives above reflect the government's hope of making language learners who are capable of communicating in both spoken and written English effectively and fluently.

Despite changing the pedagogical approach to language teaching from the Traditional Grammar-Translation method to the Communicative Language Teaching approach in 2005, most English classrooms continue to be a place where students are expected to memorize sections of textbooks rather than practise communication (Rubanza, 2002). In such classrooms, the teacher is at the centre of all that happens and little opportunity is given to the learner to become autonomous or an active learner of English language.

In such a learning context, students who are not exposed to English in their daily lives are currently at a sharp disadvantage compared to those who are. In this way, insufficient English preparation might disadvantage the already disadvantaged in that they do not have outside contact with English to help them succeed in English-medium classes and exams. Inadequate command of English, regardless of the level of understanding of the subject matter, could cause a student to fail in national exams and eventually miss a chance of joining university. Not surprisingly, students do perform very poorly in the national exams and rates of failure are high: nearly 50% of Form IV leavers failed their national exams in English in 2012.

Regarding language policy, ideology and the implementation of language of instruction in Tanzania, Swilla (2009: 6) points out three key contradictions: first, while the government statements maintain that Kiswahili is the medium of instruction of primary education, English has been legalised as a Medium of Instruction in private primary schools. The majority of students in English medium schools are Tanzanians. Second, the Ministry of Education offers the English version of the primary school syllabus for use in English medium schools. Government primary schools use the Kiswahili version of the syllabus. Thirdly, since 2000 the government administers the English version of the national Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE) in English medium schools unlike in the past when the examinations were only provided in Kiswahili in such schools. Due to various language policy contradictions pointed out in her article, Swilla (2009) proposes that it is high time the government stated in its education policies and related documents that both English and Kiswahili are to be languages of education.

3.2 The Hybrid Learning Context in Tanzania

According to Batstone (2002 quoted in Segalowitz, Freed and Dewy, 2004, p. 16), learners are confronted with two contexts: *communicative context* and *learning context*. The former requires that the learner uses the L2 as a tool for exchanging information and participating in important social and interpersonal functions. In other words, it is sociolinguistic in orientation where a learner focuses on the use of the target language to convey meaning in an appropriate fashion according to contextual cues. The latter, on the other hand, is a psycholinguistic orientation in which input and learners output are fashioned (normally scaffolded by the teacher and colleague students) so that learners will attend to form and take risks toward the ultimate goal of improving their linguistic expertise. Furthermore, in communicative contexts, learners may or may not be as oriented toward furthering their linguistic development as they would be in a learning

context. Language learning context in the Tanzanian culture has a psychological orientation in which teaching and learning is focused more on form than on function.

English is considered as a second language (SL or L2) in situations where it is learnt after the first language (L1), and in some circumstances it is learnt as a third (L3) or fourth language (L4) or nth language (Donna, 1992). Furthermore, Colling-ham (1988, p.81) notes that a L2 requires “any level of fluency in more than one language, rather than its more traditional sense of complete fluency in two languages” Several studies reported the influence of ESL versus EFL differences on strategy use. The difference between learning a second language and learning a foreign language also depends on where the language is learned. A second language has social and communicative contexts in which learners can learn the language within the community in which it is spoken. By contrast, a foreign language doesn't have the same degree of social and communicative contexts (Oxford, 1990a). Learners of English as L2 usually live in a country where English is not the native language of the indigenous inhabitants and in such circumstances English is frequently used as a means of communication between speakers of different native languages. According to Omulando (2009, p.14), a second language is the language of particular activities such as education, commerce and politics, among others.

English learning in Tanzania is a case of hybrid context. This is a type of context which bears characteristics of both ESL and EFL. Constitutionally English in Tanzania is a second language and the official language; hence it is used as the language of instruction at secondary school and higher levels of education. English is also used in the media. There are a few mainstream newspapers such *The Guardian* and *The Citizen* in daily circulation, and also English television channels and programmes especially through satellite systems like *Zuku* and *Star Times*. It is also taken as the medium of communication in international relations. Despite this, the linguistic status and roles of English in the country have been reduced to those of a foreign language. For instance, it is widely acknowledged that English is rarely heard outside the classroom and even in many

of the classroom activities and lecture halls explanations of concepts are done in Kiswahili. One cannot, therefore, out rightly regard it as ESL or EFL but a blend of both.

3.3 The Gender issue in the Tanzanian Cultural and Learning Environment

According to Butler (1990), gender is the repeated stylization of the body, a set of repeated acts within a highly rigid regulatory frame that congeal over time to produce the appearance of substance, of a 'natural' kind of being (p.32). Gender is not something you acquire once and for all at an early stage of life, but an on-going accomplishment produced by your repeated actions (Cameron, 2004). As the authors indicate, one's *gender* is not equivalent to his/her *sex*; though, most of the time, building on the biological base that one has from birth, he/she constructs it through his/her life with the experiences which take place first in the family then in society. The social context and culture one lives in shapes one's gender identity accompanied with unique individual experiences. As a consequence, every society has a distinct gender identity and any individual living in them may or may not comply with the presumed gender identity.

In the Tanzanian context, gender bias manifest itself in a number of ways. In the education sector, for instance, according to Mbilinyi et al (1991), the much-fancied Tanzanian Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) declaration of 1967 did not include efforts to transform oppressive gender relations that prevailed within the education system. Mbilinyi et al (1991:20) say there was lack of policy to address gender issues in the education sphere in Tanzania. It was not until February, 1995 that Tanzania came up with the Education and Training Policy that had a gender consideration. Chapter 3 of the policy concerns issues of access and equity in education and training. Girl education is one of the issues highlighted in connection with access and equity. The policy categorically states that in order to raise the participation rate of females, "education and school systems shall

eliminate gender stereotyping through curricula, textbooks, and classroom practices” (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995, p. 9).

Despite this effort the curriculum reform to get rid of gender stereotyping and negative image of girls and women has neither been implemented in educational institutions nor effected by the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) responsible for curriculum development. (TGNP, 1993)

Gender disparity is quite pronounced in other sectors as well. Mkuchu (1994) singled out textbooks in the teaching and learning process which he claimed continued to reinforce gender oppressive relations. He says that despite policy statements indicating a move towards making textbooks gender friendly, gender stereotyping still prevails. According to Mkuchu, (1994) gender biased textbooks leads to the distortion of self-esteem of readers. The internalisation of the perceived gender role messages and expectations and also failure to live to such expectations would cause the individual to feel less about herself or himself and thus destroying one’s self-esteem. Gender stereotyped messages affect the learner’s self-concept, potential of achievement and perceptions of others. Children can thus be prevented from fulfilling their potential or mastering some subjects. This in the long run prevents boys and girls from learning some academic subjects leading them not to join careers related to these subjects.

In terms of access to education in the Tanzanian context, the girl child has more challenges. In primary school, girls and boys enjoy equal access to education (Ministry of Education, 2008), but this parity diminishes once students enter secondary school. By the time students reach Form five and six, boys are more than 50% represented than girls (TGNP, 1993). Reasons for this gender difference are multiple. For instance, parents are more likely to pay school fees for male children than female children, having greater hope for future earnings. What is more, while both boys and girls seek sponsorship for their studies, for girls, sexual relations or a promise of marriage are often expected in return for

such support (TGNP, 1993). These sexual arrangements can ultimately backfire, due to complications such as unwanted relationships and pregnancy. Pregnant students are eventually permanently forced out of school either formally or by extreme social pressure.

Culturally, while many secondary school girls talk about their desire for education, parity in terms of its capacity affect their increased independence from men. They at the same time face strong criticism from some members of their community for their pursuit of education. This earns them labels such as “prostitutes” for being too independent and modern. To make matters worse, school girl receive warnings that no one would want to marry a woman with too much education. It is in this context that women are understood by Tanzanian society. When a woman is educated, independent, urban and western oriented, they are seen as lacking respect for traditional authority. All these qualities are considered to be linked with, and even acquired by, their secondary school education.

Gender disparity is even more pronounced in religion. Islam, for instance, is claimed to exercise a lot of gender discrimination. Women are not allowed to freely interact with their opposite sex counterparts. This begins right in school and in the classroom in terms of sitting arrangements. Girls sit separately from the boys. The same is expected even outside of the classroom. Such restrictions deny the girl child the freedom of association that would facilitate language learning. This renders their social affiliation rather curtailed in some way.

3.4 Religion in the Tanzanian Cultural and Learning Environment

According to Geertz (1973, pp.90-91), religion is a system of symbols which act to establish powerful, pervasive, and long-lasting moods and motivations in people. Literature on language and religion show that religion is noted to be a major force acting on language change as religious facets may bring about not only cultural-linguistic change but may also account for language spread.

African societies are commonly depicted as very religious, which is evident in the vast number of Muslim, Christian and other faith groups that exist in most African countries. As Ellis and Ter Haar (2007) rightly put it, “Religion is an important and pervasive force in the African societies and so religious beliefs operate at every level of society” (p. 68). Religion, like glue, binds societies together. These depictions are relevant in Tanzania as well, which by any account must be described as a country where religion counts and where religious institutions play a very important role. According to Leurs et al (2011) faith-based organisations have an increasingly important position in social service provision in Tanzania, including schools.

Religion assumes an important cultural and social position in the Tanzanian society with considerable relevance for everyday activities and social relations. This may have been precipitated by the spread of Christian and Muslim movements that have been termed “fundamentalists” and which are commonly thought to espouse strict prescriptions for both religious practices and social role of religion. Cultural religion refers to the importance of religious practices in the everyday life of believers and by social religion to its importance for social identification and interaction. This study extends the conceptualisation of religion as politics to religion a socio-cultural function in the learning of English in general and the choice of Learning Strategies in particular. There is a broad literature that highlights the persistence of the tendency that religion in Africa is a permeable force in which all aspects of life and society are imbued with spiritual power and meaning (Bompani and Frah-Arp, 2010). Essentially, according to this view, African societies use the lens of religion as a fundamental component of social construction and social interpretation.

In Tanzania, the main religions are Christianity, Islam and traditional religions, often called ATRs (African Traditional Religions). This study excluded ATRs. Though it has been observed that ATRs have considerable influence on political dealings all over Africa

(Chabal, 2009), I excluded them because they are non-universal and non-expansionary in nature. In this study, therefore, I focused on the socio-cultural role of religion played by Christian and Muslim institutions and organisations in Tanzania mainland.

Islam has a long history in Tanzania, having set root in the area from the 9th and 10th centuries onwards (Tambila, 2006b, pp. 172-173). Christianity is much younger as the various Christian denominations began their actual missionary work only in the early 19th century, although there had been contacts at a much earlier stage (Tambila and Sivalon, 2006, pp. 225-228). Although there have been tensions between the two faith groups from the very beginning of their encounter in the Tanzanian area relations between ordinary Muslims and Christian believers have been cordial.

Heilman and Keiser contends that both religious groups may be expected to be relatively equal in terms of strength and numbers (2002, p. 703). Islam in sub-Saharan Africa is commonly seen as distinct from its Middle Eastern counterparts, in that a large part of African Muslims adhere to what is called Sufism. In the case of Tanzania, Abdulaziz and Westerlund (1997) mention that three quarters of the Muslim population can be described as Sufi and in terms of Muslim institutions, the vast majority of congregations and organisations are Sunni, as the Shia groups are mainly limited to Aga Khan Islamites, who are predominantly Asian.

With regard to Christianity, it is common believed that the Roman Catholic Church (RCC) and the Evangelic Churches had a close relationship to the government of Nyerere, in part because Nyerere was a devout catholic (Mbogoni, 2005). Through their influence on the government, the Catholics hoped to counter what it perceived to be two largest “undesirable tendencies” in society namely Communism and the influence of Islam (Mbogoni, 2005, pp. 128-130). The catholic had controlled a large part of the Missionary schools and so the spread of western education in colonial times. The concern that the Christian churches expressed was that Muslims were less tolerant of religious plurality in

Tanzania and therefore would seek to establish an Islamic state, if Muslims were to assume power. More realistically the RCC feared losing the opportunity and privileges from the government if Muslims took over.

Throughout the 1960s and most of the 1970s, the mainline churches were by far the most dominant Christian institutions in Tanzania, while Muslims were represented exclusively by the Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) dominated by the Baraza Kuu la Waislamu Tanzania (BAKWATA). Towards the 1970s, this started to change, the Pentecostal movement spread with increasing pace in Tanzania, and later various Muslim organisations emerged who challenged the position of BAKWATA. The revivalist groups were frequently confrontational as the Pentecostal groups engaged in crusades which were focused on the conversion of Muslims. The Muslim fundamentalist grouping in turn increasingly engaged in *Mihadhara*, that is, open-air comparative preaching sessions often including statements that were perceived blasphemous by Christians. The discourse also spread to newly established newspapers such as *Msemakweli* and *An-Nuur*, which thus emerged as religious media outlets (Mbogoni, 2005, pp. 171-180).

The bone of contention is discrimination. Muslims believe that they have been discriminated against for so long in terms of leadership, education and employment since the colonial times. The main issue around education was that Christians have maintained an educational advantage over the Muslims, which harks back to the colonial education system (Ishumi et al, 2006). The basis for these imbalances was laid down during the British colonial rule, as a shift occurred from a dual system of government and private schools to an emphasis on private sectors. It was mainly the missions who could afford the large scale construction of schools, which they undertook with particular intensity while the colonial government put little effort into provision of education. As a result, there was a clear imbalance in the number of Christian and public schools towards the end of

colonial rule. This scenario created a negative attitude among the Muslims who see anything associated with colonialists, in this case the English language and western culture, as a reminder of the bitter past since education in colonial Tanganyika was linked to social and economic mobility. The historical distribution of education opportunities is an important key to understanding Muslim complaints, then and now about their marginalisation.

The validity of these grievances has been the subject of an intensive debate, where the response from some Christian institutions has essentially been that Muslims were themselves to blame for the educational imbalances, since secular education had not been held in high regard in the Muslim community and institutions. This is evident even to date (Heilman and Keiser, 2002, p.702). From religious lens, English is seen as a language of colonialists and a tool for colonialism that threatens the fabrics of African traditions in general and the Islamic religion in particular. It is for this reason that Arabic and Kiswahili are preferred to English among Islamic masses. Such attitudes and value attachments eventually have a ripple effect that spreads to the language classrooms.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

This chapter focuses on data presentation. It describes the modes and procedures by which the data collected was processed in order to come up with findings of the study. Part 1 of this chapter reports the results of the quantitative study conducted at Phase I of this study and Part II the results of the qualitative study conducted at phase II. In this chapter, the data have been grouped according to gender, religion and learning context and the mean frequencies have been calculated according to these variables for each strategy item and overall items. By way of statistical measures, *t-tests* were used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences in the reported frequencies of language learning strategy use according to the variables: gender (male vs. female); religion (Islam vs. Christianity); learning context (urban vs. rural, university vs. secondary school setting). Where significant differences were found, patterns of high frequency of use (average=3.5 or above) and patterns of low frequency of use (average=2.4 or below). This was in reference to Oxford's (1990) frequency scale in Table 6 below.

Table 6 Strategy Use Frequency Scale (taken from Oxford, 1990, p.300)

High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

4.1. Part One: Quantitative data from questionnaires

4.1.1 Results of the IBQ and SILL questionnaires

The Individual Background Questionnaire (IBQ) and the SILL questionnaire (see Appendices 1 and 2, respectively) were given to the respondents. Both questionnaires were administered at the same time and were filled in the presence of the researcher. The IBQ was geared towards collecting information on the learners' background. This background information was used to determine how these various factors influenced the type and frequency of use of language learning strategy. The SILL, on the other hand, was meant to collect information about the language learner's strategy use profile in terms of the frequency of use.

In both questionnaires (IBQ and SILL), the study ensured that there was a fair representation of the target population on the various variables which were investigated. The demographic information is presented in Tables 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 below.

Table 7 Gender Distribution of the Participants

Gender	No.	%
Male	233	45.7
Female	277	54.3
Total	510	100.0

Table 8 Religious Affiliation of the Participants

Religion	No.	%
Christianity	255	50.0
Islam	255	50.0
Total	510	100.0

Table 9 Type of School at Primary School Level

Type of Primary School	No.	%
English medium	50	9.8
Kiswahili Medium	460	90.2
Total	510	100.0

Table 10 Level of Education

Level of Education	No.	%
University level	200	39.2
Secondary school level	310	60.8
Total	510	100.0

Table 11 Learning context

Learning Context	No.	%
Urban Learning	127	24.9
Urban-Rural	241	47.3
Rural Learning	142	27.8
Total	510	100.0

Table 12 Relative amount of Language Used Outside the classroom/Lecture Hall

Language	No.	%
English	21	4.1
Kiswahili	327	64.1
Local languages	7	1.4
Code-mix	155	30.4
Total	510	100.0

4.1.2 The Strategy Profile of the Sample

The first research objective was to establish the strategy profile for the whole group. This involved three aspects: first, to establish the overall strategy use for the sample; second, to establish the sample's strategy preference of the six strategy categories; third, to find out the most frequently used strategies and the least used strategies. The following were the results.

4.1.2.1 The Overall Strategy Use

In a bid to establish the overall strategy use among the English language learners, Oxford's (1990) key for the classification of the strategy frequency scale was adopted. In it, *high use* ranges from 3.5-4.4 (usually used) and 4.5-5.0 (almost always or always used), *medium use* ranges from 2.5-3.4 (sometimes used) while *low use* ranges from 1.0-1.4 (never or almost never used) 1.5-2.4 (usually not used). Table 13 below shows the overall strategy use.

Table 13 The Overall Strategy Use by the total sample of 510 respondents

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Overall strategy use	1.2	5.9	3.350	0.70

For the entire group of the students, the overall mean of strategy use was 3.35 (SD= 0.7) on the 5-point Likert scale. According to Oxford's (1990) key to understanding mean scores, the figure 3.35 is medium.

4.1.2.2 Results of the Six Strategy Categories

Table 14 The whole Sample's Frequency of Strategy Use by Strategy Category

Strategy category (most used to least used)	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		SD	Strategy Rank
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Freq. Level	Statistic	
Meta-cognitive strategies	1.3	7.0	3.874	HIGH	0.71	1
Social strategies	1.0	5.0	3.603	HIGH	0.74	2
Cognitive strategies	1.3	4.7	3.289	MEDIUM	0.58	3
Affective strategies	1.3	5.0	3.277	MEDIUM	0.73	4
Memory strategies	1.4	5.0	3.142	MEDIUM	0.61	5
Compensation Strategies	1.0	8.7	2.909	MEDIUM	0.85	6

In relation to the six strategy categories, meta-cognitive strategy category, the mean for which was 3.874 (SD= 0.71) and social strategy category, the mean for which was 3.603 (SD= 0.74) fall in the High level of strategy ranking by Oxford's (1990) frequency scale.

4.1.2.3 The Most and Least Reported Strategies for the Whole Sample of 510 respondents

Table 15 Learning Strategies ranked from the Most to Least used by the whole sample

Rank	Strategy Item	No.	Mean	SD
1	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	510	4.23	.925
2	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	510	4.13	1.060
3	If I do not understand something in English, I ask for help	510	4.12	.996
4	I think about my progress in learning English.	510	4.11	1.005
5	I use the English words I know in different ways.	510	4.01	1.048
6	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	510	3.99	.990
7	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake	510	3.98	1.083
8	I review English lessons often	510	3.95	1.058
9	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	510	3.92	1.102

10	I practise English with other students.	510	3.81	1.121
11	I practise the sounds of English	510	3.80	1.040
12	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	510	3.77	1.089
13	I ask for help from English speakers	510	3.68	1.160
14	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better	510	3.59	1.258
15	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	510	3.57	1.752
16	I look for people or opportunities I practise my English with	510	3.56	1.225
17	I say or write new English words several times.	510	3.47	1.190
18	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	510	3.46	1.294
19	I ask questions in English	510	3.43	1.153
20	I notice if I am tensed up or nervous when I am studying	510	3.43	1.208
21	I watch TV shows or go movies or listen to radio programmes spoken in English	510	3.41	1.328
22	I ask my friends to correct my English	510	3.39	1.296
23	I try to find patterns in English.	510	3.38	1.204
24	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well	510	3.37	1.314
25	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	510	3.36	1.231
26	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I am learning in English	510	3.34	1.043
27	I connect the sound of a new English word and the image/picture to help me remember	510	3.32	1.240
28	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember	510	3.31	1.140
29	I first skim an English passage then go back to read carefully	510	3.28	1.291
30	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used	510	3.27	1.357
31	I try to talk like native English speakers	510	3.21	1.269
32	I try to guess what the other person will say next	510	3.19	1.815
33	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	510	3.19	1.267
34	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand e.g. prefixes and suffixes	510	3.15	1.319
35	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English	510	3.15	1.276
36	I start try to start conversations in English	510	3.14	1.159
37	I remember new English words or phrase by remembering their location on the page, board or screen	510	3.09	1.312
38	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	510	3.05	1.321
39	I physically act out new English words	510	3.05	1.297

40	I look for words in my own language that are similar in pronunciation to the new English words	510	3.03	1.289
41	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid of using English	510	3.02	1.334
42	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures or switch to L1/Kiswahili	510	2.96	1.366
43	When I read materials written in English, I try not to translate word-for-word into Kiswahili	510	2.90	1.338
44	I use rhymes, similar sound endings, to remember new English words	510	2.88	1.238
45	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	510	2.83	1.315
46	I read for pleasure in English	510	2.77	1.281
47	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English	510	2.67	1.391
48	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	510	2.62	1.395
49	I read English without looking up every new word	510	2.55	1.294
50	I use flashcards to remember new English words	510	2.08	1.165

The results in Table 15 above showed that the meta-cognitive strategy of “*I pay attention when someone is speaking in English*” (No 32) tops the list with a very high mean of 4.23 (SD= 0.925). The second mostly reported strategy is also a meta-cognitive one, namely “*I try to find out how to be a better learner of English*” (No 33), with a mean of 4.13 (SD= 1.04). The third place on the list is held by the social strategy of “*if I do not understand something in English, I ask the teacher or my friends for help*” (No 45) with a high mean of 4.12 (SD= 0.966). Out of the ten most frequently used strategy items, five are of the meta-cognitive type, two of social type while memory type, affective type and cognitive type had only one item each.

Regarding the least frequently used strategies in the whole sample, memory strategy of “*using flashcards to learn new English words*” (No 6) was reported the least, the mean of which was 2.08 (SD= 1.165). It was followed by compensation strategy of “*I read English without looking up every new word*” (No 27), the mean of which was 2.55 (SD= 1.294). Compensation strategies of “*To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses*” (No 24) and of “*I use Kiswahili words if I do not know the right*

ones in English” (No 26), with medium means of 2.62 (SD= 1.395) and 2.67 (SD= 1.391) respectively then followed. A cognitive strategy of “I read for pleasure in English” (No 16), the mean of which was 2.77 (SD= 1.281) was the fifth least reported strategy. Out of the ten least used strategy items, 4 belong to the compensation category while the memories, affective and cognitive have 2 respectively. The social and metacognitive category had no item among the ten least used strategy items.

4.1.2.4 Frequency of Strategy Use by Strategy Categories

Memory strategy use

Table 16 below shows the means and standard deviations of each strategy item with regard to the participants’ memory strategy use while Figure 2 summarises the differences in the participants’ use of memory strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

Table 16 The whole sample’s use of the Memory Strategy type

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
8	I review English lessons often	3.95	High	1.058	1
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English	3.34	Medium	1.043	2
3	I connect the sound of a new word and its image or picture to help me remember the word	3.32	Medium	1.240	3
2	I use new English words in a sentence to help me remember	3.31	Medium	1.140	4
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used	3.27	Medium	1.357	5
9	I remember new English words or phrases by associating them with their locations on the page, board, newspaper or road sign	3.09	Medium	1.312	6
7	I physically act out new English words	3.05	Medium	1.297	7
5	I use rhymes, similar word endings, of different English words to help me remember new English words	2.88	Medium	1.238	8
6	I use flashcards or vocabulary list or booklets to remember new English words	2.08	Low	1.165	9

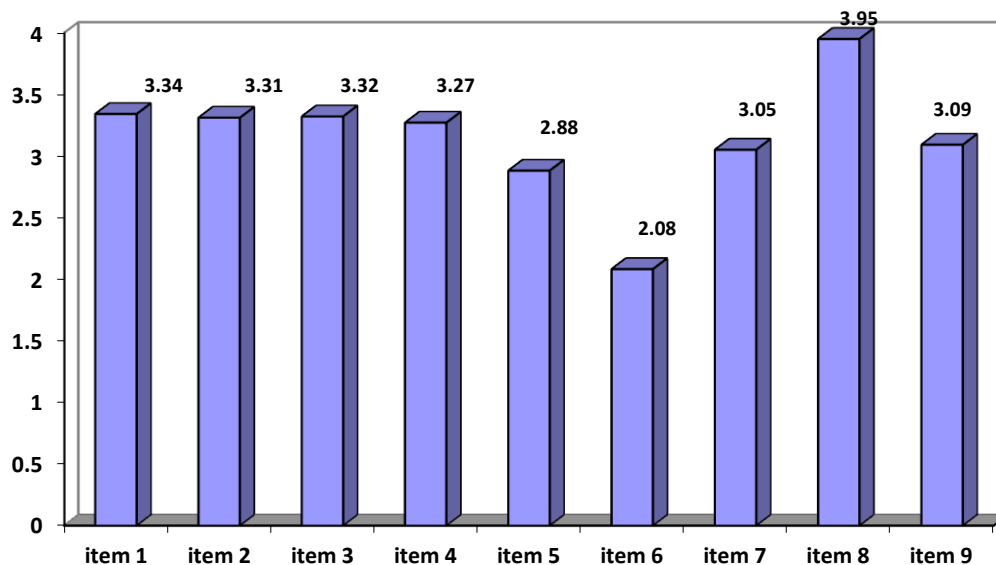


Figure 2: Memory Strategy Use by the whole sample

From Figure 2 above, it can be observed that most frequently used memory strategy item is item 8 ($M=3.95$), *reviewing of the lesson quite often*. In comparison, item 6 ($M=2.08$), *using flashcards/ vocabulary lists to remember new English words* was found to be the least frequently used memory strategy by the participants.

Cognitive strategy use

Table 17 shows the means and standard deviations of each item in the participants' cognitive strategy use. In addition, Figure 3 summarises the participants' use of cognitive strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

Table 17: The whole sample's Use of the Cognitive-type Strategy

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
13	I use the English words I know in different ways	4.01	High	1.048	1
12	I try to talk like native English speakers	3.80	High	1.040	2
10	I say or write new English words several times	3.47	Medium	1.190	3
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English or listen to radio spoken in English	3.41	Medium	1.328	4
20	I try to find patterns in English	3.38	Medium	1.204	5
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports	3.36	Medium	1.231	6

	in English				
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully	3.28	Medium	1.291	7
11	I try to talk like native English speakers	3.21	Medium	1.269	8
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand e.g. prefixes and suffixes	3.15	Medium	1.319	9
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English	3.15	Medium	1.276	9
14	I start try to start conversations in English and talk like native English speakers	3.14	Medium	1.159	11
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English	3.03	Medium	1.289	12
22	When I read materials written in English language, I try not to translate them word for word into Kiswahili	2.90	Medium	1.338	13
16	I read for pleasure in English	2.77	Medium	1.281	14

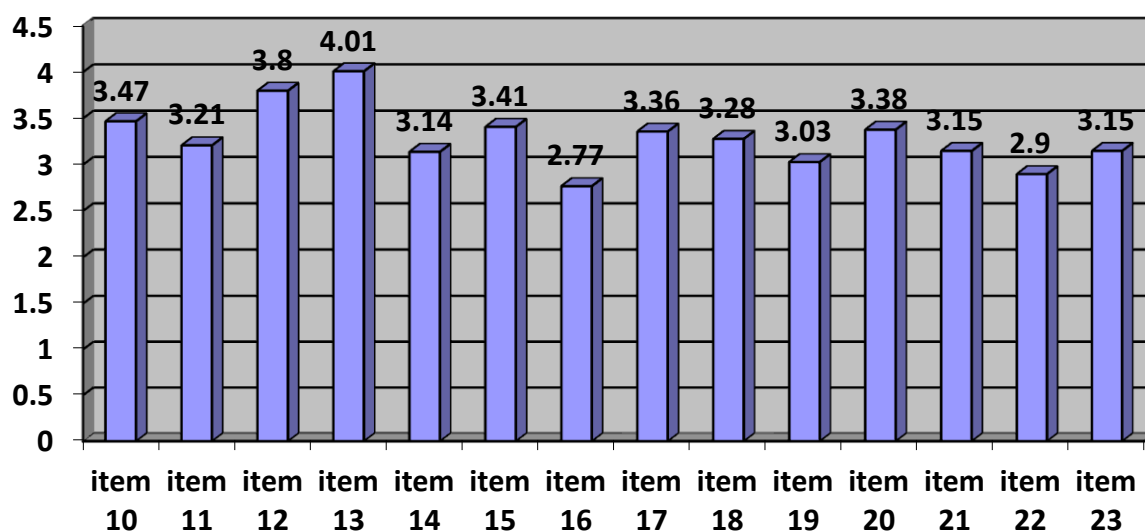


Figure 3: Cognitive Strategy Use by the whole sample

As seen in Figure 3 above, item 13 (M=4.01), concerning the *use of English words in different ways* was found to be the most frequently used cognitive strategy, while item 16 (M=2.77), regarding students' habit of reading English for pleasure, was found to be the least frequently used.

Compensation strategy use

With regard to compensation strategies, Table 18 presents the means and standard deviations of each item while Figure 6 summarises the participants' use of compensation strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

Table 18: The whole sample's Use of the Compensation-type strategy

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	3.46	Medium	1.294	1
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English	3.19	Medium	1.815	2
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures, simply give examples, or switch to Kiswahili to keep the conversation going	2.96	Medium	1.366	3
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English	2.67	Medium	1.391	4
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	2.62	Medium	1.395	5
27	I read English without looking up every new word	2.55	Medium	1.294	6

The above information can be visualised in Figure 4 below.

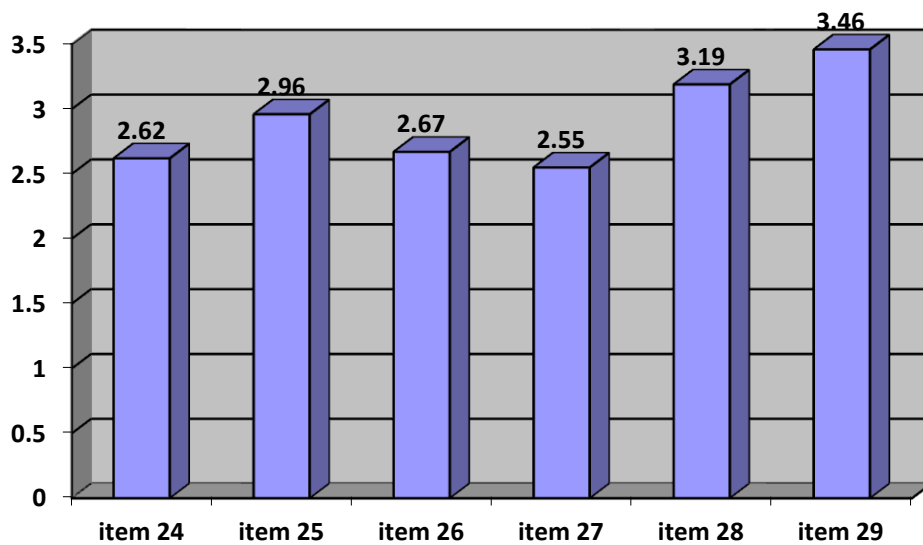


Figure 4: Compensation Strategy Use by the whole sample

As shown in Figure 4 above, item 29 (M=3.46) medium use, concerning the *use of synonyms* was reported to be the most frequently used compensation strategy. On the other hand item 27 (M=2.55), “*when I read English materials and come across a new word, I do not look up every new word*”, was reported to be the least frequently used compensation strategy. This shows that the participants are used to looking up every new word they encountered when reading English materials.

Meta-cognitive strategy use

The results of the participants’ use of meta-cognitive strategies are presented in form of means and standard deviations in Table 19 below while Figure 5 summarises the participants’ use of metacognitive strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

Table 19 The whole sample’s Use of the Meta-cognitive-type Strategy

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	4.23	High	.925	1
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	4.13	High	1.060	2
38	I think about my progress in learning English	4.11	High	1.005	3
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	3.99	High	.990	4
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	3.92	High	1.102	5
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	3.77	High	1.089	6
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better	3.59	High	1.258	7
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	3.57	High	1.752	8
35	I look for people I can talk to in English	3.56	High	1.225	9

The above data can be visualised in Figure 5 below.

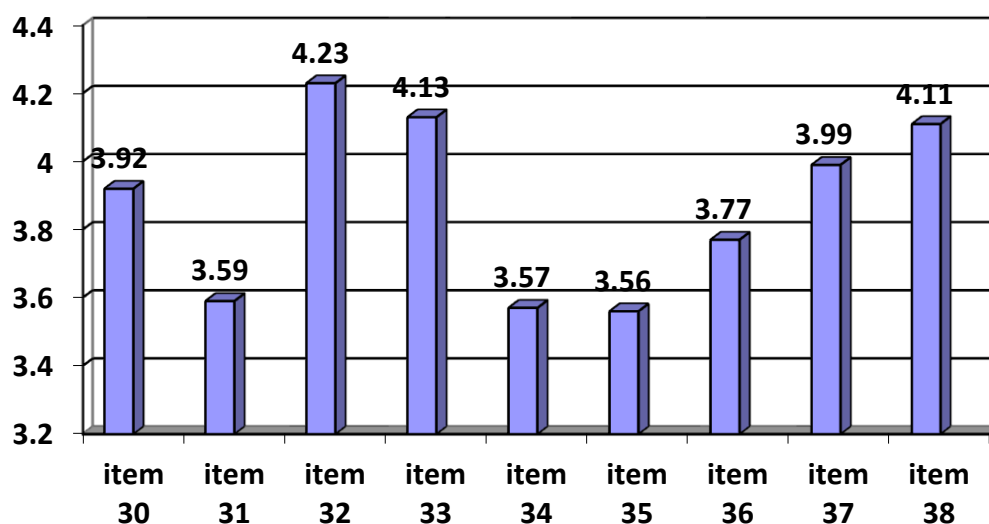


Figure 5: Metacognitive Strategy Use by the whole sample

Affective strategy use

When it comes to the participants' use of affective strategies, Table 20 presents the means and standard deviations of each item and Figure 6 summarises difference in the participants' use of affective strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

As seen in Figure 6 below, item 40 ($M=3.98$), "*I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake*", was found to be the most frequently employed affective strategy by the participants. In the participants' use of affective strategies, item 43 ($M=2.83$), "*I write down my feelings in a language learning diary*", was found to be the least preferred affective strategy among the participants. The results suggested that participants rarely jot down feelings about their English learning.

Table 20 The whole sample's Use of the Affective-type strategy

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake	3.98	High	1.083	1
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	3.43	Medium	1.208	2
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	3.37	Medium	1.314	3
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	3.05	Medium	1.321	4
39	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid of using English	3.02	Medium	1.334	5
43	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	2.83	Medium	1.315	6

The information in Table 20 above can be visualised in Figure 6 below.

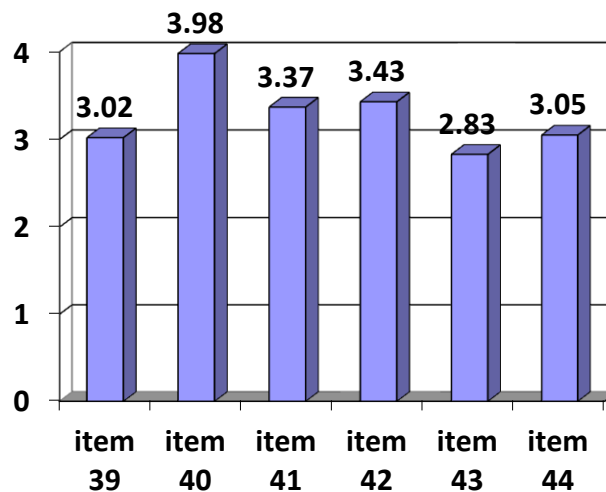


Figure 6: Affective Strategy Use by the whole sample

The results showed that language learners involved in this study *noticed when they felt tensed up when speaking in English* but still brave through it by self-encouragement however, they rarely *keep diaries of their feelings*.

Social strategy use

Concerning the participants' use of social strategies, Table 21 shows the means and standard deviations of each item, and Figure 7 better presents differences in the participants' use of social strategies by plotting the means in a bar graph.

Table 21: The whole sample's Use of the Social-type strategy

No.	Strategy item description	M	Level	SD	Rank
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the teacher or my colleagues for help	4.12	High	.996	1
47	I practice English with other students	3.81	High	1.121	2
48	I ask my friends to edit my English writings	3.68	High	1.160	3
49	I ask questions in English	3.43	Medium	1.153	4
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	3.39	Medium	1.296	5
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	3.19	Medium	1.267	6

The results in Figure7 below show that item 45 (M=4.12), “if I do not understand something in English I ask the teacher or my colleagues for help”, was reported the most frequently used social strategy while item 50 (M=3.19), *I try to learn about the culture of English speakers*, was reported the least employed social strategy by the participants.

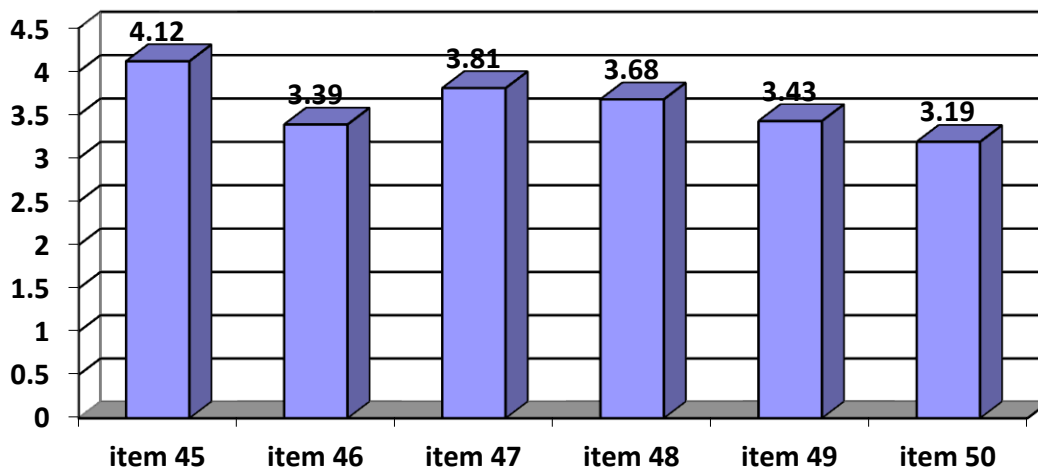


Figure 7: Social Strategy Use by the whole sample

The results showed that the participants tend to seek help from people who are more proficient than they whenever they do not understand something in English.

4.1.3 Gender as a Sociocultural Determinant

The second objective was *to establish whether gender was a factor in terms of the number and types of strategies chosen by the Tanzanian learners of English.*

4.1.3.1 Gender and Strategy Use

To establish whether gender was a factor in terms of the number and types of strategies chosen, an independent *t*-test was applied to test whether there was a significant difference between the male and the female learners' choice of strategies. As Table 22 below shows, the mean for the male students (M=3.411) was higher than that for the female students (Mean=3.297).

Table 22 Overall Strategy Use by Gender (N=510)

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df
Male	233	3.411	.648	1.824	508
Female	277	3.297	.738		

Based on the *t*-test analysis, no significant difference was found between male and female learners in overall strategy use ($t=1.824$, $df=508$, $p<.05$).

4.1.3.2 Gender and the six strategy category

Gender was examined also to establish whether there were any statistical significant differences with the six strategy categories. According to Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, it was assumed that the variances were equal. As a result, a test of the hypothesis using the equal variances assumed row of the *t*-test was done. Table 23 below summarises the results of the *t*-test.

Table 23 The Gender variable in the Use of Learning Strategy Types

Strategy Category	N for Male	N for Female	Mean for Male	Mean for Female	Male	Female	t	sig.
Memory	233	277	3.169	3.120	.555	.650	.904	.366
Cognitive	233	277	3.315	3.267	.529	.625	.926	.479
Compensation	233	277	2.948	2.875	.911	.795	.967	.076
Metacognitive	233	277	3.991	3.776	.602	.770	3.469*	.001
Affective	233	277	3.323	3.238	.653	.786	1.315	.189
Social	233	277	3.722	3.504	.636	.799	3.365*	.001

Table 23 above gives the results of the t-test of equality of means performed to examine the relationships between gender and the use of the six categories of language learning strategies. The statistics in the table show that there were no significant differences in the use of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and affective strategies by gender at the p value of .05. However, significant differences existed in the use of metacognitive strategies and social strategies ($t=3.469, df=508$) and ($t=3.365, df=508$) respectively at $p<.05$. Consequently, the male respondents reported using metacognitive strategies and social strategies more often than did the female respondents.

4.1.3.3 Gender and Use of Individual Strategies

Some individual strategy items were also believed to be significantly different with gender. Table 24 below shows the individual strategy items that were significantly different with gender.

Table 24 Language Learning Strategies which were found to be statistically different on the Gender variable

Item No	Strategy item & strategy category	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. 2 tailed
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new word in English (MEMORY)	Male	233	3.46	1.008	.066	2.520	.005
		Female	277	3.23	1.062	.064		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words (MEMORY)	Male	233	2.70	1.240	.081	3.015	.000
		Female	277	3.03	1.218	.073		
9	I remember new English words or phrase by remembering their location (MEMORY)	Male	233	3.21	1.258	.082	1.938	.05
		Female	277	2.99	1.350	.081		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my (METACOGNITIVE)	Male	233	4.03	.949	.062	2.083	.035
		Female	277	3.83	1.209	.073		
31	I notice my English mistakes (METACOGNITIVE)	Male	233	3.76	1.226	.080	2.875	.000
		Female	277	3.44	1.269	.076		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English (METACOGNITIVE)	Male	233	3.75	1.118	.073	3.207	.000
		Female	277	3.40	1.289	.077		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills (METACOGNITIVE)	Male	233	4.14	.852	.056	3.281	.000
		Female	277	3.86	1.077	.065		
38	I think about my progress in learning English (METACOGNITIVE)	Male	233	4.22	.925	.061	2.347	.015
		Female	277	4.01	1.060	.064		
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well (AFFECTIVE)	Male	233	3.56	1.213	.079	3.077	.000
		Female	277	3.21	1.374	.083		
48	I ask my friends to edit my English writings (SOCIAL)	Male	233	3.85	1.054	.069	3.014	.000
		Female	277	3.54	1.226	.074		
49	I ask questions in English (SOCIAL)	Male	233	3.57	1.036	.068	2.403	.015
		Female	277	3.32	1.234	.074		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers. (SOCIAL)	Male	233	3.33	1.210	.079	2.439	.015
		Female	277	3.06	1.302	.078		

(With equal variance assumed at $p < .05$)

From Table 24 above, it can be seen that a total of twelve strategy items showed statistical significant differences between genders. It is evident, therefore, that metacognitive strategies showed the relationship between strategy choice and gender.

Cognitive and Compensation strategy items did not show any significance at all.

4.1.4 Religion as a Sociocultural Determinant

The third objective was *to establish whether religion determined the number and type of strategies chosen by the Tanzanian learners of English language.*

4.1.4.1 Religion and Strategy Use

Table 25 Overall Strategy Use in relation to the respondents' religion

Religion	N	Mean	SD	t	df
Christianity	255	3.458	.680	3.641	508
Islam	255	3.24	.703		

The results in Table 25 above showed that the t-test for equality of Means for the overall strategy use between Christian respondents and their Muslim counterparts showed statistical significant differences ($t=3.641$, $df=508$, $p<.05$). The Mean frequency for the Christian respondents in the overall strategy use was 3.458; $SD= .680$ while the Mean of frequency for the Muslim respondents was 3.240; $SD =.703$. The results, therefore, showed that Christian respondents reported using the strategies more than did their Muslim counterparts.

4.1.4.2 Religion and the Six Strategy Category.

Table 26 below presents the results of the six strategy categories and religion.

Table 26 The religion variable in the use of the learning strategy types

Strategy category	N for Christ	N for Islam	Mean for Christ	Mean for Islam	SD for Christ	SD for Islam	t	p
Memory	255	255	3.208	3.076	.599	.611	2.464	.014
Cognitive	255	255	3.434	3.144	.524	.603	5.801	.000
Compensation	255	255	3.004	2.814	.901	.785	2.542	.011
Metacognitive	255	255	4.009	3.739	.699	.687	4.387	.000
Affective	255	255	3.375	3.180	.699	.745	3.044	.002
Social	255	255	3.720	3.487	.662	.789	3.609	.000

The t-test results for equality of Means performed to find out if there were any significant differences between the strategy categories and religion showed that all the six strategy categories were significantly different. Cognitive ($t=5.801$, $df=508$), metacognitive ($t=4.387$, $df=508$) and social strategy category ($t=3.609$, $df=508$) showed statistical differences on the religion variable. Metacognitive strategy category were used by both Christian and Muslim respondents at a high frequency (Christianity Mean=4.009, Islam, Mean=3.73) while social strategies were used at a high frequency by Christian respondents (Mean=3.720) and medium frequency by Muslim respondents (Mean=3.487). All the other strategy categories were of medium use frequency by both Christian and Muslim respondents. The results also showed that the Christian respondents used all the six strategy categories more often than their Muslim counterparts.

4.1.4.3 Religion and Use of individual strategies

Table 27 below summarises the results of individual strategy items and their significance level in relation to religion.

Table 27 Learning strategies which were found to be statistically different on the religion variable

Item No.	Strategy item	Religious affiliation	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. 2-tailed
1	I think of relationships between what I already and new things I am learning in English (MEM)	Christian	3.46	1.096	.069	2.647	.005
		Islam	3.22	.974	.061		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember (MEM)	Christian	3.42	1.101	.069	2.184	.025
		Islam	3.20	1.168	.073		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word (MEM)	Christian	3.33	1.233	.077	.071	.005
		Islam	3.32	1.251	.078		
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture (MEM)	Christian	3.46	1.315	.082	3.228	.000
		Islam	3.08	1.372	.086		
9	I remember new English words or phrase (MEM)	Christian	3.22	1.322	.083	2.201	.025
		Islam	2.96	1.293	.081		
14	I try to start conversations in	Christian	3.27	1.119	.070	2.574	.01

	English (COG)	Islam	3.00	1.186	.074		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English (COG)	Christian	3.67	1.246	.078	4.448	.000
		Islam	3.16	1.360	.085		
16	I read for pleasure in English (COG)	Christian	2.98	1.250	.078	3.709	.000
		Islam	2.56	1.281	.080		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English (COG)	Christian	3.74	1.114	.070	7.333	.000
		Islam	2.98	1.226	.077		
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage (COG)	Christian	3.47	1.206	.076	3.432	.000
		Islam	3.08	1.345	.084		
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar (COG)	Christian	3.19	1.291	.081	2.837	.005
		Islam	2.87	1.269	.079		
20	I try to find patterns in English. (COG)	Christian	3.40	1.182	.074	.368	.035
		Islam	3.36	1.227	.077		
22	I try not to translate word-for-word (COG)	Christian	3.09	1.367	.086	3.308	.000
		Islam	2.70	1.282	.080		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read (COG)	Christian	3.39	1.231	.077	4.341	.000
		Islam	2.91	1.278	.080		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation (COMP)	Christian	3.09	1.377	.086	2.179	.03
		Islam	2.83	1.345	.084		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones (COMP)	Christian	2.83	1.384	.087	2.625	.005
		Islam	2.51	1.383	.087		
27	I read English without looking up every new word (COMP)	Christian	2.67	1.323	.083	2.164	.03
		Islam	2.42	1.255	.079		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word (COMP)	Christian	3.59	1.220	.076	2.163	.03
		Islam	3.34	1.356	.085		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English (METCOG)	Christian	4.05	1.032	.065	2.710	.005
		Islam	3.79	1.155	.072		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information (METCOG)	Christian	3.79	1.243	.078	3.669	.000
		Islam	3.38	1.243	.078		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English (METCOG)	Christian	4.34	.849	.053	2.552	.01
		Islam	4.13	.986	.062		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English (METCOG)	Christian	4.27	1.076	.067	2.903	.000
		Islam	4.00	1.029	.064		
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time (METCOG)	Christian	3.73	2.165	.136	2.028	.04
		Islam	3.41	1.190	.075		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English (METCOG)	Christian	3.75	1.150	.072	3.546	.000
		Islam	3.37	1.269	.079		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible (METCOG)	Christian	3.89	1.065	.067	2.534	.01
		Islam	3.65	1.101	.069		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills (METCOG)	Christian	4.09	.968	.061	2.291	.02
		Islam	3.89	1.003	.063		
39	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid	Christian	3.15	1.397	.087	2.199	.025

	of using English (AFF)	Islam	2.89	1.258	.079		
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am (AFF)	Christian	4.09	1.053	.066	2.424	.015
		Islam	3.86	1.102	.069		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying (AFF)	Christian	3.55	1.169	.073	2.356	.015
		Islam	3.30	1.236	.077		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel (AFF)	Christian	3.21	1.261	.079	2.801	.005
		Islam	2.88	1.361	.085		
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk (SOC)	Christian	3.56	1.192	.075	2.960	.000
		Islam	3.22	1.375	.086		
47	I practice English with other students.(SOC)	Christian	3.91	1.058	.066	2.141	.003
		Islam	3.70	1.173	.073		
49	I ask questions in English (SOC)	Christian	3.64	1.088	.068	4.093	.000
		Islam	3.23	1.182	.074		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers (SOC)	Christian	3.34	1.266	.079	2.707	.005
		Islam	3.04	1.253	.078		

(with equal variance assumed at on $p < .05$)

(MEM=memory, COG=cognitive, COMP=compensation, METCOG=metacognitive, AFF= affective and SOC=social)

A total of thirty four out of fifty strategy items showed statistical significant differences with religion. It is interesting to note that, among the strategy items which were statistically significant on the religion variable, a total of six items belong to the memory strategies. These were “*I watch TV shows spoken in English*” strategy Item No 15 ($t=4.488$, $df=508$), “*I read for pleasure in English*” strategy No 16 ($t=3.709$, $df=508$), “*I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English*” strategy Item No 17 ($t=7.333$, $df=508$), “*I first skim an English passage before I read over the passage*” strategy No 18 ($t=3.432$, $df=508$), “*I try not to translate word-for-word*” strategy Item No 22 ($t=3.308$, $df=508$) and “*I make summaries of information that I hear or read*” strategy Item No 23 ($t=4.341$, $df=508$). 2 metacognitive and 2 social strategy items were also significant on the religion variable. These were “*I notice my English mistakes and use that information*” strategy No. 31 ($t=3.669$, $df=508$), “*I try to find out how to be a better learner of English*” strategy Item No 33 ($t=2.903$, $df=508$), “*I look for people I can talk to in English*” strategy Item No 35 ($t=4.093$, $df=508$), “*when others make mistakes in*

speaking, *I notice their mistakes and keep myself from making the same ones*” strategy Item No 46 ($t=2.960$, $df=508$) and *“I ask questions in English”* strategy Item No 49 ($t=4.093$, $df=508$). Only 1 memory strategy item *“I remember a new English word by making a mental picture”* Item No 4 ($t=3.028$, $df=508$) was highly significant with religion.

Although compensation and affective strategy items showed significant differences, the significance levels were not high. Of note too is the fact that a compensation strategy Item No 27 *“I read English without looking up every new word”* registered a low frequency use among the Muslim students ($M=2.42$) while strategy Item No 26 *“I make up new words if I do not know the right ones”* was just at the medium use cut of point ($M=2.51$). In all the strategy items that were significant with religion, Christian respondents used more strategies than their Muslim counterparts.

4.1.5 The Tanzanian Learning Context

The fourth objective was *to establish whether learning context determined the number and type of strategies chosen by the Tanzanian learners of the English language*

4.1.5.1 Learning Context (Urban or Rural) and overall strategy use

The t-test of the overall strategy use and the learning context was performed to establish if any significant difference existed. The results are displayed in Table 28 below.

Table 28 Learning context and overall strategy use

<i>Learning Context</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
Urban	127	3.407	.7400	-.0662	267
Rural	142	3.410	.6653		

The table above shows that there was no significant difference in the overall strategy use between learners who schooled in a rural learning context and those who schooled in

an urban one. The overall strategy use was $t=-.0662$; $df=267$, $p<.05$). The rural learning context had a mean strategy use of 3.407; $SD=.740$ while the urban learning context had a mean strategy use of 3.410; $SD=.665$. This shows that learning context did not differ in terms of strategy use.

4.1.5.2 Learning Context (urban or rural) and Use of strategy categories

From the data, it emerged that there was a significant difference between the rural and the urban learning contexts in the use of the memory strategies ($t=-2.007$; $df=267$, $p<.05$). The rest of the strategy categories showed no significant differences with the nature of the learning context. This can be seen Table 29 below

Table 29 Use of strategy categories in relation to Learning Context

Strategy category	N for urba	N for rural	Mean for urban	Mean for rural	SD for urban	SD for rural	t	df	Sig. 2 tailed
Memory	127	142	3.138	3.289	.6101	.6172	-2.007	267	.046
Cognitive	127	142	3.403	3.319	.5389	.5495	1.260	267	.209
Compensation	127	142	2.961	2.887	1.036	.7966	.654	267	.514
Metacognitive	127	142	3.946	3.940	.7327	.6362	.072	267	.943
Affective	127	142	3.364	3.373	.8013	.6643	-.109	267	.914
Social	127	142	3.633	3.656	.7205	.7278	-.267	267	.790

4.1.5.3 Individual Strategy Items and Learning Context (Urban or Rural)

Individual strategy items were also investigated to find out which ones were significantly different with learning context. The results of t-test of the strategy items are as displayed the Table 30 below.

The results of significance levels of individual strategy items and learning context showed that seven strategy items were significantly different out of which four were Memory strategies. Memory strategy of “*I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember*” No 2, ($t=2.098$, $df=267$, $p=.05$); “*I connect the sound of a new English word*”

No 3 ($t=-2.191$, $df=267$, $p=.05$); “*I use rhymes to remember new English words*” No 5 ($t=-2.012$, $df=267$, $p=.05$) and “*I review English lessons often*” No 8 ($t=-2.110$, $df=267$, $p=.05$). Cognitive strategies included “*I watch TV shows spoken in English*” No 15 ($t=3.583$, $df=267$, $p=.05$) and “*I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English*” No 17 ($t=3.203$, $df=267$, $p=.05$) both showing a high significance with learning context. There was only 1 social strategy “*I ask questions in English*” No 49 ($t=2.309$, $df=267$, $p=.05$) which was significantly different.

Table 30 Learning strategies which were found to be statistically different on the learning context variable

Item No	Strategy items & strategy categories	Learning context	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. 2 tailed
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember (MEMORY)	Urban	127	3.53	1.104	.098	2.098	.037
		Rural	142	3.24	1.142	.096		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word (MEMORY)	Urban	127	3.24	1.211	.107	-2.19	.029
		Rural	142	3.56	1.182	.099		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words (MEMORY)	Urban	127	2.69	1.212	.108	-2.01	.045
		Rural	142	3.00	1.283	.108		
8	I review English lessons often (MEMORY)	Urban	127	3.83	.998	.089	-2.11	.036
		Rural	142	4.09	.996	.084		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English (COGNITIVE)	Urban	127	3.80	1.222	.108	3.583	.000
		Rural	142	3.27	1.226	.103		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English (COGNITIVE)	Urban	127	3.65	1.101	.098	3.203	.002
		Rural	142	3.19	1.254	.105		
49	I ask questions in English (SOCIAL)	Urban	127	3.63	1.153	.102	2.309	.022
		Rural	142	3.31	1.118	.094		

With regard to the mean scores between the urban and the rural learning contexts in relation to use of memory strategies showed clearly that students who attended rural schools used more these strategies than their urban counterparts. The mean scores for

strategy items No.3, No.5 and No.8 were (urban=3.24, rural=3.56; urban=2.69, rural=3.00; urban=3.83, rural=4.09) respectively.

4.1.5.4 Learning Context (University vs. Secondary School) and Overall strategy use

In this study, university and secondary school settings were considered as an aspect of learning context. Independent t-tests were conducted to establish if there were any significant differences with the overall strategy use among the English language learners in the Tanzanian context. The results of the overall means, standard deviation and significance levels and learning context are as displayed in Table 31 below

Table 31 Learning context (university vs. secondary) and overall strategy use

<i>Education Level</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
University	200	3.493	.6561	3.631*	508
Secondary	310	3.246	.7106		

From Table 31 above, it can be seen that the t-test for equality of means showed that the overall strategy use between learners in the university and those in the secondary setting were significantly different. Learning context (university vs. secondary) was, therefore, a significant determinant in choice of LLSs. The overall strategy use is ($t=3.631^*$, $df=508$) at $p<.05$. The mean frequency of university students with overall strategy use was 3.493; $SD= .6561$ while the mean of frequency of secondary school learners was 3.246; $SD =.7106$. This, therefore, clearly shows that university learners of English are better overall strategy users compared to the secondary school ones.

4.1.5.5 Learning Context (University or Secondary School) and the six strategy categories

The results of the six strategy categories and the learning context, university and secondary school are as shown below.

Table 32 Learning context (university vs. secondary) and the Six Strategy Categories

Strategy category	N for Univ.	N for Sec.	Mean for Univ.	Mean for Sec	SD for Univ.	SD for Sec.	T	df	Sig. 2 tailed
Memory	200	310	3.211	3.098	.5440	.6429	2.044	508	.041
Cognitive	200	310	3.342	3.255	.5240	.6160	1.652	508	.099
Compensation	200	310	3.194	2.725	.8389	.8054	6.322	508	.000
Metacognitive	200	310	4.068	3.749	.6501	.7122	5.118	508	.000
Affective	200	310	3.478	3.149	.7061	.7147	5.046	508	.000
Social	200	310	3.668	3.501	.6737	.7725	1.605	508	.109

With regard to the six strategy categories in relation to learning context, it can be seen from Table 32 above that memory strategy category ($t=2.044$, $df=508$), compensation strategy category ($t=6.322$, $df=508$), metacognitive strategy category ($t=5.118$, $df=508$) and affective strategy category ($t=5.046$, $df=508$) at 5% significance level showed statistical significant differences with learning context. However, cognitive ($t=1.652$, $df=508$) and social strategy categories ($t=1.605$, $df=508$) were insignificant. The most frequently reported learning strategies were the metacognitive ones ($M= 4.068$ for university students; $M=3.749$ for secondary school students). The least reported learning strategies were compensation strategies ($M=3.194$ for university students; $M=2.725$ for secondary school students).

4.1.5.6 Learning Context (University vs. Secondary School) and individual strategy types

Results of individual strategy items and their significance levels with the level of education were as presented in the table below.

Table 33 individual strategy items that were significant on the university vs. secondary level variable

Item No	Strategy item & Strategy Category	Level of education	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. 2 tailed
1	I think of relationships between what I already (MEM)	University level	200	3.47	1.022	.072	2.318	.02
		Secondary school level	310	3.25	1.050	.060		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can (MEM)	University level	200	3.45	1.083	.077	2.160	.03
		Secondary school level	310	3.22	1.168	.066		
4	I remember a new English word by making a (MEM)	University level	200	3.60	1.224	.087	4.416*	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.06	1.398	.079		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words (MEM)	University level	200	2.61	1.147	.081	-4.06	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.05	1.264	.072		
9	I remember new English words or phrase (MEM)	University level	200	3.40	1.207	.085	4.328	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.89	1.341	.076		
12	I practice the sounds of English (COG)	University level	200	3.67	.952	.067	-2.24	.025
		Secondary school level	310	3.88	1.086	.062		
16	I read for pleasure in English (COG)	University level	200	3.03	1.196	.085	3.616	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.61	1.309	.074		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English (COG)	University level	200	3.62	1.106	.078	3.856	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.19	1.279	.073		
22	When I read materials written in English I try	University level	200	3.16	1.332	.094	3.620	.000

	not to translate then word-for-word into Kiswahili (COG)	Secondary school level	310	2.73	1.317	.075		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read (COG)	University level	200	3.39	1.197	.085	3.359	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.00	1.305	.074		
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses (COMP)	University level	200	3.01	1.371	.097	5.206	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.37	1.354	.077		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in (COMP)	University level	200	3.23	1.283	.091	3.589	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.79	1.393	.079		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones (COMP)	University level	200	2.91	1.362	.096	3.134	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.51	1.390	.079		
27	I read English without looking up every new word (COMP)	University level	200	2.93	1.290	.091	5.521	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.30	1.237	.070		
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next (COMP)	University level	200	3.39	2.385	.169	1.983	.045
		Secondary school level	310	3.06	1.313	.075		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a synonym (COMP)	University level	200	3.70	1.215	.086	3.330	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.31	1.323	.075		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information (METCOG)	University level	200	3.93	1.087	.077	5.075	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.36	1.312	.075		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English (METCOG)	University level	200	4.36	.795	.056	2.398	.015
		Secondary school level	310	4.15	.993	.056		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English (METCOG)	University level	200	4.32	.939	.066	3.257	.000
		Secondary school level	310	4.01	1.116	.063		

34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time (METCOG)	University level	200	3.93	2.267	.160	3.789	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.34	1.268	.072		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible (METCOG)	University level	200	3.93	.982	.069	2.553	.01
		Secondary school level	310	3.67	1.144	.065		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills (METCOG)	University level	200	4.23	.788	.056	4.551	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.83	1.073	.061		
38	I think about my progress in learning English. (METCOG)	University level	200	4.26	.909	.064	2.729	.01
		Secondary school level	310	4.01	1.052	.060		
39	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid of using English (AFF)	University level	200	3.40	1.303	.092	5.366	.000
		Secondary school level	310	2.77	1.296	.074		
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am tensed up (AFF)	University level	200	4.14	.891	.063	2.724	.01
		Secondary school level	310	3.87	1.180	.067		
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well (AFF)	University level	200	3.61	1.185	.084	3.366	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.21	1.370	.078		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying (AFF)	University level	200	3.60	1.103	.078	2.606	.01
		Secondary school level	310	3.32	1.261	.072		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am (AFF)	University level	200	3.23	1.214	.086	2.553	.01
		Secondary school level	310	2.93	1.374	.078		
49	I ask questions in English (SOC)	University level	200	3.64	1.048	.074	3.200	.000
		Secondary school level	310	3.30	1.201	.068		

(with the equal variance assumed, df=508 at 5% confidence level)

4.1.6 A Summary of the Significant Differences between the Sociocultural Variables and the use of the different Strategy Categories

Table 34 Use of the six strategy categories in relation to the sociocultural variables ($p < .05$)

Strategy Category	Gender	Religion	Learning Context	Education Level
Memory	.366	.014	.046	.041
Cognitive	.479	.000	.209	.099
Compensation	.076	.011	.514	.000
Meta-cognitive	.001	.000	.943	.000
Affective	.189	.002	.914	.000
Social	.001	.000	.790	.109
Overall Strategy Use	.185	.004	.569	.0415

Regarding strategy categories and the sociocultural variables, the memory strategy category was significantly different on the religion variable, learning context (urban vs. rural), and education level (university vs. secondary). However, there was no significant difference on the gender variable in relation to the memory strategy. The cognitive strategy category was only significantly different on the religion variable, but insignificantly different with gender, learning context and level of education. Compensation strategy category showed significant differences with religion and with level of education but there was no significant differences with gender and learning context. Metacognitive strategy category showed the significant difference with gender, religion and level of education except with learning context.

Religion and level of education were significantly different with affective strategy category. However, gender and learning context showed no significant differences with affective strategy category. Finally, social strategy category showed significant

differences with gender and religion but there were no significant differences with learning context and education level.

4.2 Part Two: Quantitative data from Interviews and Observations

4.2.1 Results from the Interviews

Phase II of the study involved the performance of one-on-one semi-structured interviews which lasted 45 minutes on average. A total of twenty respondents, randomly selected from the six secondary schools and one university were interviewed. Sixteen were secondary school learners while four were university language learners. The participants were assigned identification codes ranging from S1 to S20. (see Table 2)

The conduct of the interviews primarily aimed at validating the quantitative data collected, from phase I of the study. The questions asked first focused on the strategy categories in general seeking for responses on what strategies the participants employed. Second, special focus was given to questions gleaned from those strategy items of the SILL questionnaire which were shown to have been significantly affected by gender, religion and learning context. A special focus was given to those which were significantly different on at least two out of the three sociocultural variables (gender, religion and learning context). These were strategy items number 1, 2, 3, and 5 from among the memory strategies; items number 15 and 17 from among the cognitive strategies; items number 30, 31, 35 and 37 from among the metacognitive strategies and items number 49 and 50 among the social strategies (See appendix 10).

4.2.1.1 Interviewees' answers to the first question. The question was: ***“When the teacher/lecturer introduces a new English word or when you come across a new English word during reading, what strategies do you use to discover its meaning? And how often do you use them?”***

According to the interviews, the strategy that was highly employed by the respondents in discovering the meaning of new items was *asking for help from friends or the teacher/lecturer*. Nineteen out of twenty participants employed this strategy. S5, for instance, said that *“when I can't guess the meaning of a word in context, I always ask my colleagues for help. In case they don't know as well, I then consult the teacher.”* S9 prefers this strategy because *“colleagues we share the L1 can explain the meaning and give examples in L1 for better understanding.”* S8 and S17, on the other hand, preferred consulting their teachers because they believe the teacher's answer is contextualised and that the meaning of a word is given as it occurs in the sentence. S15 only consults her colleagues because her teacher of English is not approachable. S1, S6, S5 and S7 usually ask their colleagues first before consulting their teachers/lecturers. S4 usually writes down the item and then asked her elder brother when she gets home while S14 normally asked her father when she goes home in the evening.

The use dictionary was reported to be the second frequently used strategy. Nine of the respondents reported using it quite often. S2, for instance, says *“when I can't guess the meaning of an item in context, I will look for meaning from the dictionary. I have an electronic dictionary on my mobile phone”*. Despite this being a common strategy, S10 and S17 admitted not using a dictionary often because of the multiplicity of meanings. S17 says *“the meanings in the dictionary are hard to understand and most of the time you get more than one meaning and wonder which is which.”* An interesting finding is that out the nine participants, two were university students, five schools in urban settings while only two schooled in rural schools. S14 was from a rural boarding school.

The third strategy reported by six out of the twenty participants was *guessing word meanings in the context in which it is used*. S1, for instance, said that “*I read the sentence several times whilst trying to discover the meaning of the word and look at the general meaning of the paragraph and of the passage*”. S4 reported using guessing but at the same time admitted that it was not an easy task. S7 said that she used guessing only during reading since there is enough time to look back and forward for cues. She said “*I only try guessing from the context when reading a passage. This is hard to do during listening because sometimes the teacher moves too fast to get time to reflect and anticipate what the word means.*” Of note here is that out of the six, four were university students while the other two S7 and S13 were from urban secondary schools.

S5 and S12 reported *using book glossary* to get meaning of words. S7, S9, S10, S15, S16, S18 and S19 reported that sometimes they *ignore the word* when they fail to get any help from colleagues or the teacher. S7 says “*well, if I don’t know the meaning and my friends also can’t help, what else will I do. I ignore the word.*” S10 “*English has many difficult words. You can’t get the meaning of all the difficult words, especially during reading. I sometimes ignore and move on reading.*”

From the above data, it emerged that the strategy of *asking friends or the teacher/lecturer*, was the most commonly reported vocabulary learning strategy among the learners of English who were interviewed. The second commonly reported strategy was *the use of dictionary* while *Guessing from the context* comes third. However, guessing from the context seems to be more common among the more proficient English language learners, mostly university students. It was also observed that the participants who come from rural schools (S8, S9, S10, S18, and S19) made little effort in discovering the meaning of new items. They would simply ignore the new items.

4.2.1.2 Interviewees' answers to the second question. The question was “*what strategies do you use to remember new English words or information? And how often do you use?*”

From the data analysis, it was observed that eighteen out of the twenty participants who were interviewed usually *review English lesson*. S3, for instance, reported that “*I revise regularly and immediately after a lesson to memorise.*” S7 reported not using the strategy of reviewing because with him “*once the teacher has explained something properly in class, it sticks. I don't have to review to internalise it.*” S17, on the other hand, did not report reviewing to memorise. He said “*I rarely review at home because of the too much disturbance. We stay in town and there is usually a lot of noise in the evening up to past midnight.*”

The second frequently reported memory strategy was *associating the new English word or information with something that is already known*. This strategy was reported by fourteen respondents. A closer examination of the respondents revealed that the synonyms used were the Kiswahili ones. S1, for instance, said that “*I always connect the new English word with what I already know, especially in Kiswahili, a language that I understand most.*” Only a few of the respondents reported using English synonyms. For instance, S5 associated a new English word with another familiar word in English so as to remember.

The third frequently reported memory strategy was *associating the new English word with the source or context in which it was met*. A total of thirteen participants reported using it. S10, for instance said that “*I usually associate the new word with the context in which I met it, for example on the page, the event and even the person who used it. This helps me to recall the word faster.*” S6, on the other hand, related the new word to the sentence in which it was used. S4, S5 and S18 reported associating the new English word with the event or their own experiences. S4, for example, reported that “*I usually recall a word or information faster when I relate it to an event or personal experience.*”

Nine participants (S1, S2, S3, S5, S7, S11, S14, S16 and S17) reported using the new English word in writing so as to remember. This included using the new word in a sentence. On the contrary, only four respondents (S3, S7, S11 and S16) reported using new English words in a conversation. Surprisingly, all these respondents were the same ones who used new words in writing. S1 says thus “*I use new English words in writing emails, notes and reports and sometimes in speaking.*”

It was also observed that seven participants (S2, S4, S11, S13, S15, S16 and S18) reported using rhymes and homonyms to memorise new words or information. They remember new words faster by associating them with similar sounding words or words with a similar shape. S11, for instance, reported that “*I always connect new English words with words with similar sound or shape.*”

Five of the respondents (S2, S3, S5, S7 and S15) reported taking notes during the lesson to help them remember. S1, for instance said “*I also take notes during lectures to help me recall what was taught.*”

Only three participants (S1, S4 and S6) reported associating new English words with a mental image or picture. S1, for instance, reported “*I normally form mental images which I associate with the word or even the sound of a new word in English.*” S2 reported associating concrete words with their shapes in order to remember.

The use of repetition was also reported as a memory strategy during the interviews. Repeating words orally to memorise was reported by four participants (S3, S6, S9 and S17). S3, S6, S7, S14 and S19 on the other hand, reported using mnemonics quite often to help them remember new information. S8, S18 and S20 reported associating new English words with antonyms so as to remember.

In summary, the participants employed a number of memory strategies. The most frequently employed memory strategy being *reviewing regularly*, followed by *associating new English words with what already exists, especially Kiswahili synonyms*. The

participants also preferred *associating the new English items with the context in which they are used*, including the person who used it, the event or experience in which it was encountered and the page, board or screen from where it was read. Other memory strategies reported by the sample include *associating words in Kiswahili and L1 which are similar in shape or/and pronunciation with the new English words, forming a mental images with which they associate the sound and concrete new English words, use of repetition, taking notes, practicing the new word by using them in writing and in conversations*. It emerges from the data that sound-word-image association techniques are highly preferred by seemingly more proficient language learners, especially, the university students while association of new English words with the context was preferred by both the high proficient and the low proficient learners according to the SILL scores in phase I. It also emerges that in practicing the new English words the majority of the language learners did it more in writing than in speaking.

4.2.1.3 Interviewees' answers to the third question. The question was: "*what strategies do you use to improve your English language? And how often do you use them?*"

From the data analysis, it appeared that a number of different cognitive strategies were employed by the sample in order to improve their language learning. The most frequently reported strategy by the sample was *paying attention when someone is speaking*. This strategy was reported by all the interviewees. S3 reported thus "*I mostly listen keenly to the lecturer and pick a lot of information.*" It appeared that some respondents not only listen to their instructors but also go to the extent of listening to tapes, CDs and radio to improve their English. S4, for instance, said "*I like listening to speeches by famous people in the world. I have a collection of them such as president Obamas and the others.*" S8 admitted that there are just no people who speak English in

her village and so, to improve her language, she has to pay attention when her teacher of English is teaching.

The second frequently reported cognitive strategy was *watching TV, video and movies in English*. A total of thirteen participants (S1, S2, S3, S5, S7, S8, S11, S12, S13, S16, S17, S18 and S20) reported using this strategy. S2, for instance, said that “*I watch English TV programmes such as Straight Talk Africa on I TV and also the BBC world news. I also watch gospel TV channels like that by Prophet T.B Joshua from Nigeria.*” Much as it appeared that they watch TV to improve their English, three of them (S16, S17 and S18) reported that they mostly watched soccer, in particular, the English Premier League. S16, thus reported “*...I always watch TV English programmes especially the English Premier League matches every weekend.*” S19 and S20 reported watching gospel videos and movies respectively. It again appeared that most of those who claimed to be watching movies could not mention even a single movie by name but on being asked the Kiswahili ones, they mentioned a number of them including a synopsis of each. S20 admitted this fact and reported thus “*I do watch movies. Yes. But I love Swahili movies more.*” S8 also reported watching TV but mostly she listens to Kiswahili news.

The participants also reported *reading* as a strategy to improve their English learning. However, it appeared that apart from newspapers, most of the other materials were those stipulated in the curriculum or by the instructor's. Out of the ten respondents who reported reading English materials, only S4 read for pleasure. At university, she studies literature which demands for a lot of both intensive and extensive reading. S4 said “*I always read English materials such as the readers and newspapers. During my free time I read the Bible and story books not for literally analysis but for entertainment.*” S7 read but only prescribed set books in the syllabus. S18 sternly explained why he rarely read newspapers. He said “*No. rarely do we receive newspapers in our local town. In fact, even the Kiswahili ones come by bus and so we receive them a day after. I do read but*

mostly course books when given an assignment.” It seems accessibility to these authentic materials is an issue to the majority. With the exception of S6 and S18, eight out of the ten respondents were either university students (S1, S3 and S4) or they school in urban schools where accessibility to newspapers is possible and easier. It was also noted that there was a low reading culture among the participants. Only S4 read for pleasure. Seven respondents (S2, S4, S6, S11, S12, S14 and S19) reported reading religious books, either the Bible or the Koran. S4 and S6 read the Koran quite often. S6, for instance, reported “*whenever I am free, I go to the Madrassa. I read the Koran and recite versus in Arabic.*” S19, on the other hand, reported reading the Bible regularly because of the responsibility she had in church. She said “*I always read the Bible. In fact I lead the English services in my church on most Sundays.*”

Listening to religious tapes, videos and channels was also reported by a number of respondents. A total of eight respondents reported using it as a strategy to improve their English. However, S4, who is a Muslim, admitted that mostly their religious materials are in Arabic. English is used very minimally. S2, for instance, said “*I also watch gospel TV channels like that by Prophet T.B Joshua from Nigeria.*”

S13, S14 and S16 also reported talking to the teacher, the father and to a native speaker respectively. S14, said “*I sometimes talk to my father in English.*” while S19 reported thus “*In our church, we sometimes receive visitors who are non-Tanzanians. I always talk to them in English. One time, we had a white man in our church. I used to give him directions to the market.*”

In summary, the strategies for improving English learning which were mostly reported were the following in the order of preference: *paying attention when someone is speaking, watching TV English programmes and listening to the radio for English programmes, reading materials in English, reading and watching/listening to religious materials and talking to other people in English.* Those who reported watching TV

programmes, movies, videos and reading English language newspapers mostly were from the urban setting except for S8 and S18 or the university. Those who reported listening to/watching and reading religious materials in English were mostly Christian students at both secondary and university level. A few of the learners who watch TV English programmes are motivated by other factors such as soccer entertainment.

4.2.1.4 Interviewees' answers to the fourth question. The question was: "*when you fail to remember the exact word during writing or a conversation in English, what kind of strategies do you employ to avoid pausing? And how often do you use them?*"

The most frequently reported compensation strategy by the sample was *switching to Kiswahili or L1*. This strategy was reported being used regularly by fifteen respondents in total. S1 reported that "*well, I usually use synonyms to the missing word, mostly Kiswahili words that means the same.*" The use of Kiswahili or L1 for a missing word in English, however, depended on the prevailing situation. For instance, S8 reported "*I sometimes switch to my mother tongue, especially, during group discussions comprising members who share a mother tongue.*" S12 also switched to Kiswahili or L1 "*if a large part of the audience shares my mother tongue.*" Interestingly *the use of English synonyms* was only reported by four respondents (S1, S2, S3 and S16), the first three who are university students.

The second frequently reported compensation strategy was the *use of gestures*. A total of fourteen participants reported using gestures to fill in the missing English word. S12, on the other hand, reported not using gestures. He gives the reason why "*I don't like using gestures. It is a sign of poor command of English unless when it only supplements the words.*" Closely related to gestures was the *use of examples*. S2, S9, S10, S12 and S20, reported giving examples in English and in Kiswahili to keep the conversation going. S12, for instance, said "*I sometimes give examples of things or situations instead when the*

appropriate English word disappears.” S10, on the same point, said *“I also occasionally describe or give examples even in Kiswahili instead of pausing.”*

Five participants (S3, S6, S7, S10 and S15) reported *creating or coining new words* as a compensation strategy. S3, for instance, said *“Yes. I do use any word even if it does not exist just to keep the conversation going.”* S6 seemed quite aware when and when not to coin new words in conversations. He reported thus *“I also occasionally use non-existent words, especially, if the teacher is not there because nobody will discover me.”*

A discourse filler-*nanili*, a Kiswahili word, was also frequently reported among the interviewees. The five respondents, that is, S4, S5, S10, S11 and S19 all reported using it quite often though unknowingly. S4, for instance, in her response to a question posed by the research says *“No. it’s not easy using mother tongue. Like when you talk of nanili...computer....”* When she was asked if she was aware of that the discourse filler used was a strategy, she responded thus *“Oh! Linanili? Am font of this, so it is also a strategy?”*

Participant S5 and S17 *avoid speaking*. S5 said that *“if I am not asked to speak, I always avoid talking because I fear being discovered poor in my English. My English background was very poor, you know.”*

In summary, it emerged from the data that the most frequently reported compensation strategy among the interviewees was *switching to Kiswahili*, followed by the *use of gestures*, then the *use of the discourse-filler, nanili*, *coining of new words*, the *use of synonyms*, *giving examples* and *avoiding communication*. Important to note is that the preference to Kiswahili again is evident here. Most language users prefer using a Kiswahili word or L1 word to other compensation strategies. The use of English synonyms seems to be dependent on the proficiency level. Mostly university students employed used English synonyms while the majority switched to Kiswahili words with the

same meaning. It is also evident that some strategies were unfamiliar to the respondents, particularly, the use the discourse filler, *nanili*.

4.2.1.5 Interviewees' answers to the fifth question. The question was: "*what strategies do you use to improve your English learning progress? And how often do you use them?*"

The metacognitive strategy of *paying attention when someone is speaking* was the most frequently reported strategy by the interviewees. This did not only involve listening to their teachers or instructors but also listening to other media. S7, for instance, said that "*when I listen to someone speaking English, especially over the radio or on TV, I always pay attention.*" S9 not only paid attention to gain more knowledge but also to notice mistakes in the speaker and try to avoid them when making a presentation next time.

The second frequently reported strategy was *preparing before class/lecture*. Seventeen out of the twenty participants reported using this strategy even though differently and for different reasons. S1, for instance, said "*I always prepare before class by reading through the lesson especially for the difficult topics.*" S4 said that she always prepares ahead of lectures so as to understand the concepts better. S7 always prepared before class because the teacher always gave them assignments in English. S5 and S20, on the other hand, admitted not preparing in advance. According to S5, the reason for this was that "*There are just too many activities, so finding time to prepare ahead of the teacher is not easy,*" while to S20 says "*I rarely prepare in advance, unless when it is an assignment. But when I suspect there is going to be a test or an examination, I read including what we have not been taught in class.*"

The third frequently reported metacognitive strategy *having clear goals for improving English skills and goals in the future*. This strategy was reported by ten out of the twenty interviewees (S1, S3, S5, S7, S11, S14, S15, S16, S18 and S19). S1, for example, reported "*I aspire to be a news anchor so I have to do well in English. I always*

practice regularly and test myself to see if I am improving” S5 aspired to be a lecturer of English at the university and so she makes a follow up to what has been learned and also regularly test herself while S7 wanted to get an A grade in the final examinations. She, therefore, listened to the radio and watches TV in order to improve her English skills.

Reported too was *looking for opportunities to use and practice English*. This strategy included item No. 30, 35 and 36 in the SILL (see appendix 2). A total of ten respondents reported using the three strategies concurrently. S1, for example, said *“I try to look for opportunities to use English, for example, by joining conversations in English.”* S14 said *“I sometimes talk to my father in English.”* S16 reported talking to non-Tanzanian visitors who come to his church. S2 said *“Yes. The three hours spend on English in a lecture is not enough, so I look for other opportunities to use English, for example, through reading and writing in English.”* S1, S2, S3, S4, S7, S11, S13 and S20 all reported writing letters, notes, messages and reports in English. Despite making such an effort, it emerged that most of them wrote only notes and assignment/reports in English but in writing text messages, they usually code-switch between English and Kiswahili. In other words, they are compelled to write in English because of assignments but not out of volition.

The strategy of *monitoring one own mistakes and noticing those in others so as to avoid them in future* was reported by eight participants (S2, S4, S11, S12, S15, S16, S19 and S20). S2, for instance, said *“I feel bad making a mistake twice in English. I am very keen on my mistakes and those of others so that I avoid them.”* S4 also reported *“I am always keen not to repeat the same grammatical mistakes.”* A number of them feel it is embarrassing to repeat a mistake you have made before. S15 said that *“I am always keen on my own mistakes. When someone errors, they are laughed at loudly. I try to avoid repeating them so that I am saved of that embarrassment.”*

S1, S2, S12 and S19 reported *monitoring their performance in English*. S9 said that “*I monitor my performance in English so that I don’t drop.*” S2 reported thus “*I always make sure I improve on what I have scored in English.*” S19 had a diary in which she recorded her performance in English and keeps a close monitoring.

It is also emerged from the data that *reviewing* and *self-evaluating regularly* were common strategies among the sample which was interviewed. Although, it sounds more of a memory strategy than metacognitive, a number of respondents mentioned it as a way of improving their English learning progress. Three participants (S1, S6 and S11) reported *looking for exercises or past papers to self-test regularly*.

S1 and S2 usually *create time to study English*. S2, for instance, claimed that the three hours slotted for English at the university were not enough for him to learn English effectively. So he always created more time to study English. S1, on the other hand, said that “*English is a challenging subject. It is practical-oriented, so I have created time to study it.*” Shockingly, was the fact that none of the respondents mentioned strategy No. 33 in the SILL (*I try to find out how to be a better language learner*). Even after being probed, none could explain how he/she went about it.

In summary, the most frequently used metacognitive strategies among the sample in the interviews were the following in the order of preference: *paying keen attention when someone is speaking, prepare in advance before class/lecture, monitoring one own mistakes and those of others so as to avoid them in future, having clear goal for improving English skills, looking for opportunities to practice English, monitoring one own performance in English and creating more time to study English*. It emerged from the results in the interviews that the language learners plan, execute and monitor their English learning. Shocking though was the finding that none of the respondents reported finding out how to be a better language learner yet it was reported to be the second frequently used

strategy in phase I. This observation wouldn't have been noticed were it not through the interviews.

4.2.1.6 Interviewees' answers to the sixth question. The question was: "what strategies do you use to manage or control your anxiety? And how often do you use them?"

From the responses, it emerged that the most frequently reported affective strategy among the sample was *noticing if I am nervous when using or studying English*. A total of sixteen respondents reported noticing when they were tensed. When asked the indicators of nervousness, some demonstrated an understanding of the emotional reactions of their bodies. For instance, S14 said "*I feel nervous. I sweat and tremble...*" while S4 said "*...especially during class presentations, my heart beat increases uncontrollably.*"

The most frequently reported affective strategy was *encouraging oneself even if one was afraid of making mistakes*. A total of eleven respondents (S1, S3, S6, S7, S11, S12, S15, S16, S18, S19 and S20) reported using *self-talk* in managing their anxiety. S6, for instance, reported thus "*I encourage myself by telling myself that I can. I tell myself that I am capable.*" S10 admitted that she always felt anxious before and during any public speaking. However, she said "*to cope with this, I talk to myself. I tell myself not to give up.*" Closely related to *encouraging oneself* was *capitalising on encouraging friends*. S14, for example, said that "*some of my friends encourage me. When they say yes and nod their heads in agreement, I feel encouraged to speak on.*"

Another frequently reported affective strategy among the interviewees was *avoiding eye-contact*. Half of the respondents (S1, S2, S4, S7, S9, S11, S13, S15, S17 and S18) reported using this strategy to avoid the tension. The respondents had different reasons why they avoided eye-contacts. For instance, S9 said "*I always avoid their eyes because when I look at them, they make fun at me then I get confused.*" S2 explained how he did that "*because I have poor eye-contact skills, so to avoid being tensed up, I send my eyes to the opposite wall then gradually try to look at my audience from the back seat to the front*

but not for long.” However, S4 focused his eyes on the positive and encouraging colleagues. He said *“I focus my eyes always on my friends who encourage me by sometimes nodding their heads in agreement.”*

Preparation and practice were also mentioned as strategies which help learners to avoid anxiety. S1, S8, S11 and S16 reported preparing effectively and rehearsing before the presentation. S16, for instance, reported *“I prepare in advance and practise thoroughly so that I don’t panic.”*

S5, S10 and S19 reported *rewarding themselves whenever they fared well*. The former, for instance, said that *“I occasionally go for lunch or for tea with my friends if the presentation was good.”* The latter, on the other hand, reported that *“when I fare badly in a presentation, I get disturbed all through and hate myself for it but when all goes well for me, I sometimes relax with my colleagues as we extend the talk about how it was.”*

S3 and S12 reported using slow deep breathing to release the pressure. S3 said *“I take slow deep breath to release the pressure in me. If there is an opportunity to even erase the chalk board, I sometimes do that as I summon the courage to speak.”*

S11, S13 and S20 admitted that they sometimes, unless compelled, avoid communication. S6 and S18, on the other hand, reported dressing decently to have confidence and also to conceal any signs of nervousness. S6, for instance, said *“whenever I know I am to speak in public, I always put on a jacket or pullover to avoid being discovered sweating.”* S8 always prepared thoroughly for presentation to avoid the tension.

In summary, the common affective strategies mentioned were the following in the order of preference: *noticing if I am tensed, using self-talk or encouraging statements, avoiding eye-contact, preparing and practising in advance, avoiding communicating, rewarding oneself if the presentation was successful and dressing to conceal signs of nervousness*. It emerged from the data that the respondents employed more new affective

strategies than those proposed in the SILL. For instance, *avoiding eye-contact, dressing decently to gain confidence or conceal nervousness, preparing and practising in advance, using slow, deep breathing and avoiding communicating*. However, the results also showed that some of the proposed strategies in the SILL were not familiar to the learners who were interviewed. These strategies were *recording how one feels in a diary and sharing how one feels with someone else*. The affective strategies reported, however, were employed without any particular pattern with regard to level of education, gender nor religion.

4.2.3.7 Interviewees answers to the seventh question. The question was: “what strategies do you use that help you work with other people in language learning process? And how often do you use them?”

Almost all the participants in the interviews reported using the strategy of *practising with others*. Only two out of the twenty participants (S8 and S20) preferred working on their own. S8, for instance, said that working in groups only derailed her. She reported thus “*I don’t like working in groups. Groups derail me. You argue for so long before agreeing on anything. I just don’t like group work.*” While S20, reported that she didn’t like working in groups because she was not used to it.

The second most frequently reported strategy was *asking colleagues or the teacher for help whenever faced with a difficult task*. This strategy was reported by sixteen out of the twenty participants. Some preferred asking their colleagues first before consulting the teacher. For instance S1 said “*when I do not understand something in English, I ask my friends for help. If they can’t help, I then ask the teacher.*” S10, on the other hand, said “*I always ask my colleagues for help. I also ask the teacher but not quite frequently.*” Some preferred asking their colleague rather than their teachers. S14 and S17, for instance, said that teachers are very busy so he finds it easier asking his colleagues for help. Others like

S12 preferred asking their teachers. S12, for examples, said “*I normally ask the teacher for help. Most students are weak and rely on me for help.*”

Five respondents (S1, S2, S16, S18 and S20) reported that they used the strategy of *asking questions*. However, some admitted that asking questions in English was not easy so at some point they switched to Kiswahili. S6, for instance, said “*I sometimes ask questions in English but I am much comfortable when I use Kiswahili.*” S2 also adds “*most of the time, I try asking a question in English, I can’t construct it properly. So I switch to Kiswahili for clarity.*” S9 admitted asking questions but most not in English. The reason given was that they are allowed to ask questions in Kiswahili by our teachers.

An interesting finding regarded the strategy of *trying to learn about the culture of English speakers*. The participants who reported using this strategy were S1, S2, S3, S11, S12, S14 and S19. All, except S3, were Christians. S3 on the other hand, was a language student at university level. According to S1, his desire to learn more about the English culture started when he encountered a native speaker of English. He said “*One time I had an opportunity of talking to a white man in our church. I loved it and I have always yearned for one more opportunity. I always listen to English speakers and even watch their TV programmes.*” S2, on the same note said “*I watch sermons and occasionally English movies. I love the way they do things.*” On the contrary, S15 said that she doesn’t like the English culture because it contradicts African culture. S6 and S10 admitted that they did not know much about the English culture.

Asking the speaker for clarification whenever a concept was not well understood was reported by five participants S1, S7, S11, S16 and S18. S1, for example, reported that “*if an issue is not clear to me, I always ask the speaker for clarification.*” S1, S3, S5 and S14 reported using the strategy of *asking colleagues or their teachers to correct them*. S3, for instance, said “*when I write something, I sometimes ask my colleagues or the teacher*

for corrections.” Some did not trust their colleagues. The latter, on the other hand, did not trust his colleagues. She said “*to my colleagues? No. they can’t correct me effectively.*”

In summary, the most frequently reported social strategy among the interviewees was *practising with others*. The second most frequently reported strategy was *asking for help from friends or the teacher/lecturer*. The third was *trying to learn about the English culture* then *asking for clarification* and *asking questions in English* and the least was *asking for correction*. The first two strategies seem preferred by language learners across the levels of education, religious affiliations and in both rural and urban settings. However, the two respondents who do not prefer practising in groups happened to be female Muslim students. The strategy of *trying to learn about the culture of English speakers* was reported being used mostly Christian learner.

4.2.2 Results from classroom observations

The strategies observed among the learners, especially, during the usual language lectures were noted down and also checked off the list of observable strategies. The essence of the observation was only to note some of the strategies among the language learners whom the researcher interacted with. The strategies observed in general were the following:

Compensation strategies

- i. Switching to Kiswahili or L1 when an English word can’t be recalled
- ii. Using gestures
- iii. Avoiding communicating
- iv. Using description or examples instead when the right English word can’t be recalled
- v. Using synonyms
- vi. Using discourse-filler word e.g. nanili/linanili

Metacognitive strategies

- i. Paying attention when someone is speaking in English or focusing on listening

Affective strategies

- i. Avoiding eye-contact

Social strategies

- i. Asking for help from the lecturer
- ii. Asking for help from colleagues
- iii. Working in groups
- iv. Asking the teacher for clarification
- v. Asking questions mostly through code-mixing-English and Kiswahili

4.3 Summary to Chapter four

This chapter focused on data presentation. Part 1 of this chapter reported the results of the quantitative study conducted at Phase I of this study and Part II reported the results of the qualitative study conducted at phase II. Data were analysed in relation to the sociocultural variables of gender, religion and learning context. The mean frequencies for overall strategy use, the six strategy categories, types and number of individual strategy items were also computed. By way of statistical measures, *t-tests* were used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences in the means of groups in relation to gender (male vs. female); religion (Islam vs. Christianity); learning context (urban vs. rural, university vs. secondary school setting).

CHAPTER FIVE:

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Discussion of the Results of the data from questionnaires

5.1.1 The Strategy Profile of Language Learners in the Tanzanian Learning Context

The results of the data from the IBQ and the SILL indicated that the Language Learning Strategy use was moderate, with a mean overall of 3.4. This falls in the upper bound of moderate strategy use ranking according to Oxford, (1990, p.300) (see table 12). It, therefore, means that learners in the Tanzanian context are moderate language learners. According to O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) less successful language learners tend to employ fewer strategies than the more successful ones.

The participants in the current study were found to be relative language learning strategy users, using all six categories of strategies at moderate levels, with an overall mean of 3.4. One possible explanation for this finding is that these participants studied English in a hybrid setting in which they did not need it for daily survival. Most studies conducted in EFL settings showed that English language learners used the strategies moderately. In ESL learning environments, studies (e.g. Green and Oxford 1995; Oh 1992 and Phillips 1991) showed that ESL learners tended to report high frequency of strategy use on the SILL. The sample involved in this study is different in the sense that language learning takes place in a hybrid learning environment. This could be the reason why the overall strategy use in the present study falls in the upper bound of moderate strategy use on the SILL. This means, partly like many EFL settings that learners lack exposure to authentic materials. They also lack interactive opportunities to practice the language; consequently, they have a limited strategy use. However, they seem to have a motivation to learn English. For example, passing in English is believed to open the door to success in life and to a better job in future. It is also a university entry

requirement in many universities in Tanzania.

In the present study, the subjects' use of LLSs as measured by the SILL ranges from high Mean (M=3.87) to medium Mean (M=2.909). Strategy categories were used in the descending order of metacognitive, social, cognitive, affective, memory and compensation, with the metacognitive strategies reported being used at an average mean of 3.87. These findings corroborate a number of earlier studies, for instance, a study conducted by Shamis (2003) on English language learning strategies used by Arabic-speaking English-major students enrolled at the An-Najah National University in Palestine. The results of Shamis' study, examining the language learning strategies of a group of Palestinian English-major students, showed that the highest rank was for metacognitive strategies, while the lowest was for compensation strategies. A similar case was observed among students from Asian countries like Japan, China, Korea and Taiwan as reported in some of the studies on Asian students (Sheorey, 1998; Oxford et al., 1990; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007 and Nisbet et al, 2005). Metacognitive strategies involve exercising "executive control" over one's language learning through planning, monitoring, and evaluating. These are techniques that are used for organizing, planning, focusing and evaluating one's learning.

Studies by Haifa (2010) and Radwan (2011) all showed that metacognitive strategies were the most preferred among language learners in EFL contexts. Haifa (2010) attributes this to the fact that learners majoring in English programmes typically have a strong instrumental motivation for learning English.

The preference for the metacognitive strategies among the sample involved in this study can be attributed to the learning culture and the education system in Tanzania where students have very limited opportunities to use functional practice strategies especially in large classes. Moreover, students are more concerned with passing exams and responding to questions that are directly related to the content in their prescribed

textbooks which are equally inaccessible. There is also the self/culturally imposed threat of failing the programme which pushes the language learners to monitor their progress.

As noted earlier (in Chapter Three), most students care about their progress in English performance. They monitor their performance progress since they are instrumentally motivated to learning English even though some of their English learning achievements do not turn out to be satisfactory as they would like them to be. In addition, secondary school students take tests and examinations seriously and they also care a lot about their scores. For them, the scores they receive mean a great deal because they show how well they have learned and how promising their chances of getting to prestigious high schools and eventually to university are. It is also a common practice that students compare their own scores with those of their classmates to see where they stand in their class. This is boosted through the rewarding of the best performers in respective subjects in most schools.

As Pintrich and Garcia (1994) observed, metacognitive knowledge and increase in academic performance go hand in hand. A high frequency use of metacognitive strategies seemed to prove that they were essential for successful language learning since these strategies provided a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process (Oxford, 1990b:136) and helping them to seek practice opportunities. Metacognitive strategies keep learners on the right track of learning which is crucial in a hybrid learning environment like the Tanzanian one.

Social strategies were the second most frequently used by the sample with a mean of 3.603. English learners in Tanzania learn English in a setting where this is not used for communicative needs in their social and economic daily lives. As a result, learners are naturally placed in what Kouraogo (1993) called an “input-poor” English learning environment, where they are exposed to an inadequate target language input. Furthermore, like EFL contexts, in such contexts, English teaching focuses on rote

memorization, translation of texts and identification of correct grammatical forms in reading. Students are not encouraged to ask questions (Al-Swelem, 1997). Thus, a lesser frequent use of social strategies is expected. Contrary to the present study's expectations, however, social strategies were the second most-preferred ones by the participants in this study. The majority of the participants used social strategies, such as asking the other person to slow down or to repeat or clarify when they did not understand something in English, to compensate for the lack of meaningful language input and the cultural context and the social support in the Tanzanian society. Such social strategies may be used to make up for learners' deficiencies in listening comprehension. Therefore, it can be said that social strategies basically function as compensation strategies for these learners.

The high use of social strategies could also be attributed to the development of multimedia and networking technologies, which have increased students' exposure to foreign cultures and more English input. The preference to social strategies can be attributed to the Tanzanian culture of socialism. Students have been brought up to appreciate the importance of working together. That is to say, students realise their peers can help them in their English learning and they look for assistance from them. This supports the extension of scaffolding to include Novice/Novice as well (Lightbown and Spada 2006, p. 48). Teachers also encourage students to form heterogeneous groups in English classes to help one another learn English. In this way, higher achievers can help their peers learn English better, and they can improve their own English abilities as well by teaching their classmates.

Of note too is the fact that metacognitive and social strategies fall in indirect strategies, according to Oxford (1990). This therefore indicates a higher preference of indirect strategies which only support and manage language learning indirectly without inclusion of the target language. Oxford (1990, p.155) says that indirect strategies are useful in all language situations and are applicable to the four language skills (reading,

writing, listening and speaking). Indirect strategies focus on a convenient psychological climate that provides the learner with a suitable environment for language learning and makes it easier for the learning to take place. A low affinity to direct strategies, which involve a direct manipulation of the target language, could be attributed to the low proficiency in English.

The least frequently used strategies were compensation strategies (Mean=2.909). Compensation strategies enable students to make up for missing knowledge in the process of comprehending or producing the target language. However, the present study revealed reluctance in the use of compensation strategies. For instance, they would not guess the meanings of words from the context when reading or listening to someone. This leads into an overreliance on the dictionary for meaning. A low use of compensation strategies was also reported in earlier studies by Hind (2010) and Magogwe and Oliver (2007) among language learners in Botswana. The low reportage of the use of compensation strategies in Botswana and Tanzania could be attributed to the fact that language learners in such settings rarely use English naturally.

Memory strategies (M=3.14) were found to be second least used strategies among the participants in this study. The same was found in Khalil's (2005) and Bremner's (1998) studies. Low use of memory strategies was an interesting finding because most instructional delivery systems in EFL/hybrid context (like the Tanzanian one) are frequently instructional and emphasize memorization. A likely explanation for this is that the rote learning, which the sample studied was used to, has very little to do with using visual images and sounds or creating mental linkages. The techniques in the SILL included *making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used; using rhymes to remember new words; and connecting the sound of a new English word and an image of the word to help remember the word*. In other words, the memory strategies considered effective involve an imaginative component as well as memory. It is possible

that the participants in the current study were not familiar with these mnemonics or specific techniques to enhance their memory, which could be why they reported using fewer strategies from this category.

Turning to individual strategies items, a close-look at some of them shows that the metacognitive strategy of *“I pay attention when someone is speaking in English”* (No 32) was reported to be the most frequently used, with a very high Mean of 4.23 (SD= 0.925). The second mostly used strategy was another metacognitive one, namely *“I try to find out how to be a better learner of English”* (No 33) with a high Mean of 4.13 (SD= 1.04). The social strategy of *“if I do not understand something in English, I ask the teacher or my friends for help”* (No 45), with a high mean of 4.12 (SD= 0.966). Out of the ten most frequently used strategy items, five are metacognitive, two are social, while memory, affective and cognitive strategies had only one item each.

This preference for metacognitive and social strategies can be attributed to the fact that since there are few opportunities for the language learners in such learning environments to engage with the language, any opportunity such as listening to someone speaking gives them a chance to imitate and learn. Another possible explanation for the preference for item No 32 can be that students use delayed production in order to maximise the learning. This relates closely to the compensation strategy.

The memory strategies of *“using flashcards to learn new English words”* (No 6) was reported the least used with a low Mean of 2.08 (SD= 1.165). The second least used strategy item was the compensation strategy of *“I read English without looking up every new word”* (No 27) with a Mean of 2.55 (SD= 1.294). The compensation strategies of *“To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses”* (No 24). This observation is similar to that made by Magogwe and Olivers in their (2007) study about Botswana learners of English. The low strategy use of flashcards can be attributed to the fact that language learners in this study had little knowledge about flashcards. It can also be

observed that language learners in the sample relied on the dictionary for meaning of new vocabularies they encountered in English. This is attributed to the fact that language learners in hybrid and EFL contexts have little exposure to the English language and, worse still, there are very few authentic materials to use. This is also the reason why they rarely read for pleasure.

5.1.2 Results related to Gender as a Sociocultural Determinant

Based on the *t*-test analysis, no significant difference was found between the scores of the male and those of the female ones in relation to the overall strategy use ($t=1.824$, $df=508$, $p=.05$) at the significance level of .05 even though the male learners ($M=3.411$) reported using more strategies in general than did female ones ($M=3.297$). In relation to the six categories of language learning strategies, the results showed that significant differences existed between males and females in the use of metacognitive strategies ($t=3.469^*$, $df=508$) and social strategies ($t=3.365^*$, $df=508$). However, no significant differences were seen in the scores between male respondents and their female counterparts in the use of memory strategies ($t=.904$, $df=508$), cognitive strategies ($t=.926$, $df=508$), compensation strategies ($t=.967$, $df=508$), and affective strategies ($t=1.315$, $df=508$) at the significance level of .05.

Contrary to the widely held belief that female students are better at social strategy use than the male students, since they are reported to excel in establishing strong relationships and building vast social networks (Zeynali 2012; Hong-Nam and Leavell 2006; Yang 1996; Sy 1994; Sheorey 1999 and Oxford 1990), it was the male participants who reported using more social strategies in this study. This could be attributed to the sociocultural influence. According to Block (2002) “gender cannot be studied in isolation from other traditional sociological variables such as ethnicity, religion, social class and nationality-variables that cluster together to form an individual's self-identity at a given point in time” (p.54), and gendered activity is an outcome of *communities of practice*. As

in many other African traditional societies, the Tanzanian culture is patriarchal in nature and this inhibits female members from freely socialising and establishing relationships inside and outside their immediate circles.

The findings of this study are consistent with those of a few of the previous ESL and EFL studies which investigated gender and the strategy use of learners. The latter studies have shown that males are better strategy users than their female counterparts (Tran, 1988; Wharton, 2000; Peng, 2001; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Ghazi and Samar, 2012). For instance, Mohammad and Saeed's (2010) investigation compared the strategy use of male and female bilingual students in Iran. After running the independent t-test, the results showed that the difference between male and female bilinguals' strategy use was statistically significant in favour of the male ones. The authors attributed this to a number of factors: first, some negative cultural and social attitudes toward the female language learners. For instance, the opinion of the society toward the females' language learning is more negative in religious and traditional Eastern countries like Iran, where it is generally assumed that women need a foreign language less than men. Consequently, these factors decrease women's motivation for learning a foreign language. Second, males have more opportunities for interpersonal relationships than females in the Iranian EFL context both in the classroom and outside the classroom. These explanations cannot be ruled out with regard to the case of the Tanzanian learners.

5.1.3 Results related to Religion as a Sociocultural Determinant

The overall strategy use was found to be statistically significant between Christian learners and Muslim ones ($t=3.641$, $df=508$). The Mean frequency for Christian students in the overall strategy use was 3.458 while the Mean frequency of Muslim learners was 3.240. As noted earlier in Chapter Three, Christians have a positive attitude towards secular education and Western culture whose key agent is the English language. In

addition, since language learning is a social activity, Christians, both male and female, interact freely with others, including strangers.

With regard to religion and the six strategy categories, the results showed that all the latter were significantly different. Cognitive ($t=5.801$, $df=508$), metacognitive ($t=4.387$, $df=508$) and social strategy category ($t=3.609$, $df=508$) showed high significance at the level of $p=.05$. The metacognitive strategy category was used by both Christian and Muslim students at a high frequency (Christianity, Mean=4.009, Islam, Mean=3.73) while social strategies were used at a high frequency by Christian student (Mean=3.720) and medium frequency by Muslim students (Mean=3.487). All the other strategy categories were of medium frequency use by both Christian and Muslim students. This observation that religion is statistically significant with all the strategy categories supports the study by Liyanage et al (2010) who observed that religion was more significant in relation to strategy use than ethnicity among the Sri Lankan language learners of English. This can be attributed to the fact that religion plays a key role in value and attitude formation (See Geertz, 1973; Crystal, 1976 and Dornyei, 2005).

English language has been associated with Western culture which was widely propagated by Christianity. Religion has also been associated with the spread of languages in the world. The spread of Spanish and English on the one hand and Catholic and Protestant on the other in Latin America and Africa and Asia illustrates this. The spread of languages in the world, according to Omoniyi and Fishman (2006), has further gained momentum under globalisation and that “all sources of socio-cultural change are also sources of change in the sociolinguistic repertoire vis-à-vis religion, including religious change per se” (p.29). Language spread itself is the carrier of socio-cultural change. The current spotlight is on the worldwide spread of English (McGrath, 2000b), but the recurring strong social class restrictions upon its functional acquisition still limits it as a

language of religion in most settings where English is not also the language of the local mainstream (Fishman, 2006, p.27).

From the results, it emerged that Christians in Tanzania had a positive attitude towards the English language and valued it as the language of their religion. They have embraced televangelism and also watch both religious and secular TV programmes in English which expose them to more authentic use of English. The sermons are also conducted in English in a number of churches. Christian learners, therefore, have more exposure and opportunities to practice English hence are poised to be better English language learners and strategy users. The fact that studying L2 involves studying L2 culture and trying to understand other people (Kramsch, 1994) implies that Christian language learners are likely to learn English faster and more efficiently than their Muslim counterparts.

Islam in Tanzania, on the other hand, has helped the spread of Arabic and the Arab sociocultural values. Liyanage (2004), commenting about the Muslims in Sri Lanka observed that Muslims had preserved the religious doctrines from Arabia, while adapting to the social environment of South Asia. In East Africa, Islam has helped the spread of Arabic and Kiswahili, whose vast vocabulary borrows from Arabic. Abdulaziz (2013), commenting on Islam and early globalisation in the Indian Ocean world, says:

By the time of the arrival of the Portuguese in 1498 spearheading Christian European colonialism, Muslims of all origins controlled almost all parts and trade in the Indian Ocean world, sharing not only their Islamic faith but also their Arabic language, by then the most widely spread international language of religion, trade and learning (p. 8)

As noted earlier in Chapter Three, there has been a power play between Christian and Islamic institutions and faith. There is evidence of competition and conflict between religious groups in the same way that there is conflict and competition between ethno-linguistic groups. Such competition and conflicts manifest themselves in language

learning in general and language learning strategy use in particular since, as Geertz (1973) argues, the moods and motivations will be working in the background. This may explain the difference in strategy choice and use between the Christians and Muslims studied in the present study.

5.1.4 Results related to Learning Context as a sociocultural determinant

No significant difference was found in the overall strategy use between learners who studied in a rural learning context and those who studied in an urban one ($t=-.0662$, $df=267$, $p=.05$) The rural learning context had a mean overall strategy use of 3.407 while the urban learning context had a mean of 3.410, thus strategy use between the two learning contexts did not differ. However, there was a significant difference between the rural learning context (Mean=3.289) and the urban one ($M=3.138$) in the use of the memory strategies ($t=-2.007$, $df=267$, $p<.05$). The rest of the strategy categories showed no significant differences in the scores between the two the learning contexts. This finding was not surprising considering the fact that most rural schools in Tanzania are newly established and lacked facilities (Kalole, 2005). Language learners from such learning environments make use of memory strategies. It is also expected that in learning contexts where the educational system emphasises rote memorisation and passing of examination the use of memory strategies will be high. This observation supports Gan's (2009) argument that social environments and contexts are more important than cultural traditions in learning strategies and motivation.

As earlier explained, the level of education in this study was not considered as an aspect of proficiency but as a learning context. The t-test for equality of means of the overall strategy use between learners of English at university level and those at secondary level showed that the overall strategy use and the level of education were significantly different. The overall strategy use was ($t=3.631$, $df=508$) at the significance level $p<.05$.

The mean frequency of university students in the overall strategy use was 3.493 while the mean of frequency of secondary school learners was 3.246. A probable explanation for this finding could be experience, proficiency level and the nature of the tasks. University students are more experienced and more proficient in the English language than their secondary school counterparts.

Most studies focusing on academic level have revealed that the more experienced the language learners are the more language learning strategies they use (Bremmer 1998; Oxford and Burry-Stock 1995; Park 1997; Sheorey, 1999 and Wharton, 2000). This study's finding agrees with the previous studies. All the six strategy categories showed statistical significant differences in the scores between the learners at university and secondary level with the memory strategy category ($t=2.044$, $df=508$), the compensation strategy category ($t=6.322$, $df=508$), the metacognitive strategy category ($t=5.118$, $df=508$) and the affective strategy category ($t=5.046$, $df=508$). However, the cognitive ($t=1.652$, $df=508$) and the social strategy categories ($t=1.605$, $df=508$) showed no statistical significance. The most frequently used learning strategies for university students and secondary school students were the metacognitive ones ($M=4.068$ for university students; $M=3.749$ for secondary school students). The least reported learning strategies were the compensation strategies ($M=3.194$ for university students; $M=2.725$ for secondary school students). So, regardless of the level of education, the language learners in the present study had recourse to the same strategies, although at varying frequencies. Their preference for metacognitive strategies can be attributed to the instrumental motivation for learning English. At secondary school level, language learners would wish to pass in English since it is an entry requirement to university and is also believed to be the key to better jobs and a better future. To the university students, passing English is an indispensable requirement if they are to graduate from the department with a degree to

qualify them to teach English. The relative high use of metacognitive strategies has also been reported in other studies, including Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006); Magogwe and Oliver (2007) and Nisbet et al. (2005).

The low preference for compensation strategies is surprising considering the sociocultural and sociolinguistic factors which characterise EFL and hybrid contexts in which there is low proficiency in the language. For so long, due to a variety of social and political reasons, Tanzanian language learners have had little or no contact with native speakers of English. The use of the internet and other media such as satellite TV stations are not easily accessible to all language learners, because it is not widespread in Tanzania.

5.2 Discussion of the Results of the data from interviews and classroom observations

5.2.1 Results from the Interviews

5.2.1.1 Vocabulary learning strategies

One of the most crucial results emerging from the interviews was the significant role played by vocabulary learning. When the respondents were asked about what they do when they come across a new word or expression in the English language, most of them relied heavily on others for help. For most of the respondents, their first reaction was *asking friends or the teacher/lecturer or a family member*. Heavy dependence on others for solutions also revealed a number of several issues: first, the respondents have been inclined to rely on teachers, classmates or family members for help because of the availability of such resources around them and also because of the culture of socialism that was inculcated in them by the society. Second, they might seek help from others simply because they were not equipped with the strategies to tackle tasks by themselves. Finally, the respondents might have not known that they should try to figure out a way to answer their own questions and solve their own problems first before seeking help from others.

As was the case in the quantitative study, the *use of the dictionary* in discovering the meanings of new English words was also highly reported in the interviews. This is partly due to the lack of the ability to guess meanings from the context. Very few of the interviewees said that they would try to answer on their own by *guessing from the context*. Oxford (1990) contends that guessing is a strategy used by both beginners and advanced language learners including native speakers. However, regarding the Tanzanian context, guessing from the context appeared to be more common among the more proficient English language learners, mostly university students. The teachers of English should guide learners on the art of inferring meaning from the context.

It was also observed that the participants who come from rural schools (S8, S9, S10, S18, and S19) made little effort in discovering the meaning of new items. They would simply ignore the new items. This could also indicate their levels of frustration in learning a new language. The implications for this may be the following: first, they lacked the reference materials such as dictionaries. Second, some students, as observed earlier, have not been taught how to use a dictionary. This is seen where some students claimed that they would rather consult their teachers than the dictionary because there are usually many meanings in the dictionary and deciding on which is the most appropriate one is not easy for them.

5.2.1.2 Strategies used to remember new English items

Out of the four subcategories of memory strategies the results of the interviews indicated that the most frequently employed memory strategy was “*reviewing regularly*”. These result corroborates those of the quantitative study in which the most frequently used memory strategy item was item No. 8 (M=3.95), “*reviewing of the lesson quite often*”. A possible explanation for this is that the participants are examination oriented and hence, review their notes quite often. According to Oxford (1990) reviewing helps learners in

transferring information from the basic fact level to the skill level where knowledge automatisations takes place.

Among the strategies for creating mental linkages, “*associating new English words with what already exists, especially in Kiswahili*” was reported to be the second most frequently used strategy. This implies that most students who formed the sample of this study usually interpret English from the Kiswahili point of view. This scenario confirms the importance of bilingualism in L2 learning. This strategy relates closely to the analysing and reasoning subcategory of cognitive strategies. It is argued that many students tend to reason out new language by making a formal model in their minds which is based on analysis and comparison.

The participants in the interviews also reported “*associating the new English items with the context in which they were used*”. Other association strategies reported by the interviewees are a) *associating words in Kiswahili and L1 which are similar in shape or/and pronunciation with the new English words* and b) *forming a mental images with which they associate the sound and concrete new English words*. According to Cohen (2010), the first stage in vocabulary learning is memorisation. Here, learners foster the learning process by analysing the structure and meaning of words or by making a mental image of the new language material. It emerges from the qualitative data that *sound-word-image association technique* was only prevalent among the university students, while the *association of new English words with the context* was reported by both the high proficient and the low proficient learners according to the SILL scores in the questionnaires.

The strategy item No. 6 (M=2.08), *using flashcards/ vocabulary lists to remember new English words* was found to be the least reported memory strategy by the participants in the quantitative study. This strategy was not mentioned even once by the interviewees. This could be attributed to the fact that they were not informed of the usefulness of flashcards. It is interesting to note that Pei-Chuan (2006) observed the same scenario

among Taiwanese language learners. However, the teachers of English can help their students to appreciate the important role of flashcards at the end of their textbooks in a bid to memorize new English words.

5.2.1.3 Strategies for improving the English language

The results of the interviews showed that memory strategies were the least employed of all the strategy categories. The most frequently reported cognitive strategy was *paying attention*. This strategy, however, serves two functions, that is, as cognitive strategy and as metacognitive strategy. As a cognitive strategy, it serves as a source of information which involves listening. As was the case with metacognitive strategy use, it was reported by all the participants in the interviews. It was the most frequently used strategy item overall in the SILL with a very high Mean of 4.23. The students' preference to this strategy can be attributed to the fact that there are few opportunities for the language learners in such learning environments to engage with the language and so any opportunity such as listening to someone speaking gives them a chance to imitate and learn. The participants in the interviews reported listening to their teachers and even tapes of speeches by famous persons in the world. By doing this they pick a lot of information which helps them improve their language learning.

Another finding from the interviews showed that *watching English language TV programmes and listening to English radio programmes* was the second most frequently reported cognitive strategy. This supports the results in the SILL in which it was ranked fourth among the fourteen strategies in total. Those who reported watching English language TV programmes, movies, videos were mostly from the urban setting except for S8 and S18. Those who reported listening to/watching and reading religious materials in English were mostly Christian students at both secondary and university level. However, a

few of these learners who reported watching English TV programmes seem to be motivated by other factors such as soccer entertainment.

The strategy of *writing letters, notes, messages or reports in English* was reported third most frequently used cognitive strategy among the participants in the interviews. However, this strategy was mostly noted among the university students. This finding corroborates the results in the SILL in which item 13 (M=4.01), concerning the *use of English words in different ways* was found to be the most frequently used cognitive strategy. The results indicated that the participants in learning environments which emphasize memorisation practice a great deal so as to internalise the new English words learned. It is also attributed to the fact that language learners from EFL contexts have limited exposure to English language in their daily life thus to make up for this they look for different ways to use and practice their English. These results support Zare, (2010) and; Griffiths, (2008) studies.

The participants also reported *reading* as a strategy to improve their English learning. However, it emerged from the data that apart from newspapers, most of the other materials which were reported being read were those stipulated in the curriculum or by the instructor's. Surprisingly, out of the ten respondents who reported reading English materials, only one respondent (S4) reads for pleasure. An explanation to this could be partly because she studies literature at university which demands for a lot of both intensive and extensive reading. The poor reading culture was also evident in the quantitative study in phase I in which item No. 16 (M=2.77), regarding students' habit of reading English for pleasure, was reported the least frequently used cognitive strategy and fifth least frequently used strategy item overall in the SILL. A possible explanation to the poor reading culture could be as follows: first, the students have so many other subjects or courses to handle. Second, it could also be due to the students' negative attitude towards reading. Students regard reading English as a hard task due to limited vocabulary

repertoire. Third, authentic materials are not easily accessible to the majority of the learners. With the exception of S6 and S18, eight out of the ten respondents were either university students (S1, S3 and S4) or they school in urban settings where accessibility to newspapers is possible and easier. To help students enjoy reading English, teachers of English should try to introduce English reading materials that students can understand to help build their self-confidence first, and then introduce various kinds of English materials and encourage them to read.

Of note also was the crucial role played by religious materials: the Bible and the Koran. A number of the respondents reported reading religious books, either the Bible or the Koran, quite regularly. However, those who read the Koran and watched Islamic TV channels admit that Arabic was used mostly. The majority of those who reported listening to/watching and reading religious materials in English were mostly Christian students at both secondary and university level. This can be attributed to the role of religion in forming and shaping attitudes and values towards the target language (Geertz 1973; Crystal 1976 and Dornyei 2005). According to Linayage et al (2010) Christians seemed to have a positive attitude and value attachment to English as their language of religion.

5.2.1.4 Strategies for compensation of communicative competence.

The results of the interviews showed that the most preferred compensation strategy among the sample involved in the interviews was *switching to Kiswahili*, an aspect of overcoming speaking limitations. This finding supports the findings in the qualitative study in which item NO. 29 (M=3.46) medium use, concerning the *use of synonyms* was found to be the most frequently used compensation strategy. Shockingly, was the discovery that the synonyms reported to be used in the SILL were not English but rather the Kiswahili ones. Most of the respondents preferred using Kiswahili or L1 (to a very small extent) to English words. This could be attributed the following: first; the language

policy in Tanzania. Kiswahili enjoys a higher language status as a national and official language. It dominates as the language of education at all levels. Second, the Tanzanian socialism culture (Ujamaa) which promoted Kiswahili as the language of unity and a tool towards self-reliance. Third, it could also be due to the low English language proficiency and English vocabulary knowledge. These could be the reasons why the use of English synonyms was mostly reported among the university students only. According to Cohen (2010), compensation strategies for production are meant to help the learner keep on using the language so as to achieve fluency. If this is true, then learners in the Tanzanian context should minimise switching to Kiswahili or L1 and instead try approximating or adjusting the English they know.

The *use of gestures* was the second frequently reported compensation strategy in phase II. This finding contradicts the SILL results in which the use of gestures was ranked the ninth least frequently used strategy overall (Mean=2.96). The qualitative results could be true due to the fact that the learners in such learning environments have low language proficiency and so expressing themselves fluently and eloquently is an issue.

Another interesting finding concerns what language learners do when they come across a new word during reading or speaking. From the interview results, it emerged that most students heavily relied on their colleagues, teachers or family members for help (see section 5.2.1 above). The students also reported using a dictionary quite regularly in discovering the meaning of a new word. This tendency was also noted in the quantitative study in which item No. 27 (M=2.55), *when I read English materials and come across a new word, I do not look up every new word*, was found to be the least frequently used compensation strategy. The implication was that the participants are used to looking up every new word they encounter when reading English materials.

Overreliance on others and a dictionary for meaning may be attributed to the limited authentic English reading materials that would give them more exposure to the English

vocabulary. Looking up meanings in a dictionary during reading qualifies this tendency yet it is a poor reading habit. It usually slows down the rate of comprehension and speed (Pearson and Fielding, 1991). This could be a reason why most participants do not read English materials for pleasure. Teachers of English should discourage this poor reading habit.

Overreliance on others and on dictionary denies the learners the ability to guess meaning from the context. Very few of the interviewees said that they would try to answer on their own by *Guessing from the context*. As was the case in the SILL results, guessing from the context was ranked second last (Mean=2.62) among the six compensation strategies. Students should instead be encouraged to employ guessing meanings from the context whether it is in listening or reading. If this was done in reading, their reading flow will not be interrupted and it will also become easier for them to appreciate the fun of reading English.

It also emerged from the interviews that the respondents admitted *using of the discourse-filler-nanili*, a Kiswahili word. This was observed among the participants as a novel compensation strategy employed in the Tanzanian learning context. *Coining of new words, giving examples* and *avoiding communication* were other compensation strategies reported in the qualitative study although they do not appear on the SILL questionnaire.

5.2.1.5 Metacognitive strategies

It emerged that most language learners are aware of the possibility of taking the initiative in planning and managing their own learning. Self-reported effort on the student's part is linked to good performance. It is also noted that students were very aware of error-making and tried to avoid the same errors again as well as showing concern about the progress they made in English learning. Such metacognitive consciousness is likely to

come from the time-honoured tradition of the Grammar Translation method and the extreme emphasis placed on error-making in the Tanzanian culture.

The results of the interviews reveal that most students in the interviews *pay attention when someone is speaking English*. This finding corroborates the results of phase I in which item No. 32 (M=4.23), *I pay attention when someone is speaking English*, was the most frequently used metacognitive strategy among the participants. This can be attributed to the fact that since there are few opportunities for the language learners in such learning environments to engage with the language, any opportunity such as listening to someone speaking gives them a chance to imitate and learn. The prevalence of paying attention can also be attributed to the traditional practice in which learners are passive recipients of knowledge.

It also emerged from the interviews that the students highly reported *looking for opportunities to practice and use English*. Bialystok (1981) distinguishes between two types of practice: formal practice and functional practice. Functional practice consists of finding opportunities to use the language in communicative situations. Students always need opportunities to use newly acquired vocabulary and information, but in EFL and Hybrid learning contexts like the Tanzanian one, there are few such opportunities for natural interaction. Learners in such contexts, therefore, have to look for practice and usage opportunities to compensate. This is a move in the right direction. Schouten-Van Parrenen (1995) argues that information which students themselves choose to learn will be better integrated in the long term memory.

Shocking though was the finding that none of the respondents reported *finding out how to be better language learners* yet it was reported to be the secondly frequently used strategy in phase I. This wouldn't have been discovered were it not through the interviews.

It also emerged that the learners in this sample rarely *created more time to study English*. This finding agrees to the quantitative results which indicated that the learners

rarely planned their schedule so as they have enough time to study English. This is an issue of concern since the English curriculum as noted in section 3.1.3 Chapter three has not allocated enough time to English language so that there can be meaningful exposure of the learners to the language. Worse still is the fact that there is very little English usage outside the classrooms/lecture halls.

The fact that a number of students reported using a variety of metacognitive strategies such as *preparing in advance before class/lecture, monitoring one own mistakes and those of others so as to avoid them in future, having clear goal for improving English skills and monitoring one own performance in English*, is proof enough that the students appear to have direction in their own learning. Self-testing and reviewing constantly seem characteristic of the EFL learners (Ku, 1995; Lan, 2005). With regard to the Tanzanian learning context, the education system, the curriculum and the teaching methodology places a lot of emphasis on passing of examinations. There is also a lot of pressure from the society and the family on learners to pass their examinations since passing examinations is believed to be the key to a better future.

5.2.1.6 Affective strategies

According to the results of the interviews in phase II, the most frequently reported affective strategies were *noticing if I am tensed*, an aspect of taking one own emotional temperature and *using self-talk or encouraging statements*, an aspect of encouraging oneself. This finding corroborates the results of phase I in which item No. 40 (M=3.98), “*I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake*”, was found to be the most frequently employed affective strategy by the participants. This effort can be attributed to high motivation to take risks in learning English despite the low proficiency.

Another interesting result concerns the subcategory of taking emotional temperature. In the interviews it emerged that some of the proposed strategies in the SILL were not familiar to the learners at all. The strategies of *recording how one feels in a diary* and *sharing how one feels with someone else* appeared total new to the participants. The same scenario was witnessed in the quantitative study in which item No. 43 (M=2.83), *I write down my feelings in a language learning diary*, was found to be the least preferred affective strategy among the participants. The results suggested that participants rarely jot down feelings about their English learning nor share how they feel with others. This finding is in line with earlier studies (Chen, 2009; Wang, 2005; Pei-Chuan, 2006). This could be attributed to the fact the participants were unfamiliar or had never thought of this strategy. It can also be attributed to lack of a culture among EFL learners of keeping diaries about their language learning.

Interestingly, the participants mentioned more new affective strategies which they employ in different learning situations. These strategies included *avoiding eye-contact*, *preparing and practising in advance*, *avoiding communicating and dressing to conceal signs of nervousness*. Such important strategies would not have been discovered were it not from the interviews. With regard to avoiding eye-contact as an affective strategy, teachers should help students to appreciate the importance of eye-contact so as to gain fully from the non-verbal behaviour of speakers of English.

Managing the affective aspect is crucial in second language learning. The affective aspects of a learner can hinder learning to a very larger extent the fact being that in foreign language and hybrid contexts like the Tanzanian one, the learner is introduced to the target language when their affective is active, some as late as maturity age. The fact that the sociocultural factors such as religion, play key role in attitude, emotions, self-esteem, motivation and value-attachments, language learners should be helped in mastering the affective strategies of managing their anxiety. This is the essence of the Communicative

Language Teaching in which the teacher assumes the role of counsellor, guide and organiser of the communication procedures in the classroom and responds to learners' particular needs while monitoring, assisting and encouraging them in self-evaluation and group activities (Richards and Rodgers 2001). Teachers should, therefore, boost their learners' self-confidence so that the later can think positively and employ the strategy of encouraging oneself to speak or use English even when tensed up (Item No. 40).

5.2.1.7 Strategies that enhance working with others

The most preferred social strategy among the sample in the interviews was *practising with others*. Second most frequent strategy was *asking for help from friends or the teacher/lecturer*. These findings agree to the results of the SILL in phase I in which the strategy of asking others for help was the highest preferred with a Mean of 4.12 while practising with colleagues was second highest with a Mean of 3.81. This can partly be attributed to the Tanzanian culture of socialism (Ujamaa) in which students have been brought up to appreciate the importance of working together. It can also be attributed to the fact that the learning environment in developing countries like Tanzania is deprived of authentic teaching/learning inputs, hence to counter this, students teachers encourage students to form heterogeneous groups in English classes to help one another. This practice supports the argument in sociocultural approach for the need to scaffold in a language situation. Language learners in both phases seem to appreciate the important role their peers play in language learning, a move taken by Lightbown and Spada (2006, p. 48) on Novice/Novice scaffolding. This is also evident in the student's attempts in *asking for clarification* and *asking for correction from either their colleague or teachers*.

Asking their peers or teachers/lecturers for help, clarification and correction is a method they use to boost their English learning. Brown (1994, p.191) in her development and implementation of educational programmes, suggested that the active agents within

the zone of proximal development “can include people, adults, and children, with various degrees of expertise, but it can also include artifacts, such as books, videos, or computerised environment intended to support intentional learning. This is also emphasised by Rodgers and Freiberg (1994) who argues that classroom cooperation and interaction lead to additional gains in achievement and that learning from others can raise students’ motivation, creativity and interpersonal skills. Since the Tanzanian language learning environment is deprived of the second set of agents, its language learners appeared to rely on the first set, that is, peers and teachers for help. On the other hand, they had no motivation to learn the culture of the target language since, they rarely encounter native speakers and neither plan to go to an English speaking country, hence their motivation is instrumental. They also cherish their socialism culture which has for a very long time been inculcated through Kiswahili language.

As much as asking others for help is lauded in language learning, Nation (1990), on the other hand, questions its application in vocabulary learning. (Ibid) claims rightly that giving meaning prevents students from applying the strategy of repeated attention to new words which is important for vocabulary learning, and that giving meaning also takes away the opportunity for learners to use their guessing skill. Consequently, teachers should make clear to their students, especially, the less successful ones, the importance of the strategy of guessing and also train them in how to guess so as to effectively learn and internalise new vocabulary items.

One other interesting finding was that the two respondents who did not prefer practising in groups happened to be female Muslim students. This can be attributed to the fact that religion plays a key role in the socialisation of its members in the society in general. This behaviour is extended to the classroom. This observation corroborates Mohammad and Saeed’s (2010) finding in their investigation in the gender issue among Iranian EFL learners. Ibid note that males had more opportunities for interpersonal

relationships than females in the Iranian sociocultural context. As it was observed in the quantitative results, Christian students reported using more of the social strategies (Mean=3.720) than Muslim ones (Mean=3.487). This variation in the social strategy preference is attributed to the differences in attitude and beliefs.

The results for the questionnaires showed that item No. 50 (M=3.19), *I try to learn about the culture of English speakers*, was the least employed social strategy by the participants. In the qualitative study, this strategy was also least employed. One interesting finding was that, in the interviews, it was reported mostly by Christian learners. This finding is also attributed to the influence of religion on value attachment, beliefs and attitude formation. Western culture is affiliated to Christianity and its main tool of propagation is English (Dornyei, 2005). Islam, on the other hand, is affiliated to Arabic culture and has helped in the spreading of Arabic sociocultural values (Liyanage et al, 2010 and Abdulaziz, 2013). This observation supports the argument that the sociocultural context strongly influences language learning.

5.2.2 Discussion of the Results of data from classroom observations

It emerged from the results of the observations that some strategies which do not appear in the SILL questionnaire could be observed among the participants. Most of the strategies observed were of the compensation type. For instance, *switching to the Kiswahili or L1 when an English word can't be found, asking for help from colleagues, asking for help from the lecturer, working on tasks in groups and using gestures*, were Other compensation strategies observed included *giving examples* instead of definitions, *describing the object or the situation* and the *use of the discourse filler-nanili/linanili*.

Some of the memory strategies observed included *note-taking* and *the use of dictionary to discover meanings of new words*. *Paying attention* when one is speaking was the most common strategy observed during lectures. This is both a cognitive and a

metacognitive strategy. As explained elsewhere in this thesis, the learners in the Tanzanian context rely on the teachers for information because the general learning environment is a poor input one.

The most frequently observed affective strategy was *avoiding eye-contact*. A number of social strategies were also observed. The most common was *cooperating with peers*. Whenever a task was given, even if it was an individual assignment, students would be seen consulting one another. Whenever they had no classes, they would sit in small groups for discussion. Another frequently observed social strategy was *asking for help*. Students would be seen consulting their peers. During lectures, some would *ask questions seeking clarifications on unclear issues*.

Through observation, the researcher was able to note new strategies among the students. This gave important insights into some strategies that would probably be unique to the Tanzanian sociocultural context, for instance, the tendency to *switching to Kiswahili* and *the use of the discourse filler-nanili/linanili*.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The aim of the present study was to investigate whether gender, religion and learning context were sociocultural determinants of the choice and use of language learning strategies among language learners in Tanzania. The following were the specific objectives:

- a. To establish the profile of strategy among the English language learners in the Tanzanian socio-cultural context.
- b. To establish whether gender was significant in the overall strategy use, the six strategy categories and individual strategy items chosen by the Tanzanian learners of English.
- c. To establish whether religion was significant in the overall strategy use, the six strategy categories and individual strategy items chosen by the Tanzanian learners of English.
- d. To establish whether the fact that some learners studied in urban area and others in rural area had any significance on the overall strategy use, the strategy categories and choice of the strategy items used by the sample.

Based on the study objectives, the following hypotheses were tested:

- a) H_0 : Gender is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- b) H_0 : Gender is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- c) H_0 : Religion is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- d) H_0 : Religion is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.

- e) H_0 : Learning context is not a significant determinant of the type of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.
- f) H_0 : Learning context is not a significant determinant of the use of LLS by the learners of English in Tanzania.

A total of five hundred and ten students sampled from both secondary schools and university participated in the study. The major questionnaire used was adopted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0. The English version of the SILL was translated into Kiswahili and some items in the questionnaire were modified for clarity. The questionnaires produced scores, the means of which were compared using the t-test computed using SPSS. Statistical decisions were made on the basis of the values obtained from the t-test for equality of means. Through the interviews and classroom observations, the statistical data was validated before valid generalisations could be made.

6.2 Summary of the Major Findings

The findings indicated that the language learning strategy use of the English language learners in the Tanzanian cultural and learning context, as measured by the SILL, was moderate ($M= 3.4$). This falls in the upper bound of moderate use. This implies that the learners in the Tanzanian context are not at the ESL level.

In terms of the six strategy categories, they were reported to have been used in the following decreasing order: metacognitive ($M=3.87$), social ($M=3.603$), cognitive ($M=3.289$), affective ($M=3.277$), memory ($M=3.142$) and compensation ($M=2.909$). Compensation strategies enable students to make up for missing knowledge in the process of comprehending or producing the target language.

In terms of specific individual learning strategies, the results showed that the metacognitive strategy of "*I pay attention when someone is speaking in English*" (No 32) was reported to be the most frequently used strategy item. The second most used strategy was the social strategy of "*if I do not understand something in*

English, I ask the teacher or my friends for help” (No 45). The third was the use of a dictionary to get the meaning of a new word. It was the second least used strategy item in the SILL “*I read English without looking up every new word*”. On the other hand, the memory strategies of “*using flashcards to learn new English words*” (No 6) was the least reported in the SILL and not mentioned at all in the interviews while the compensation strategy of “*To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses*” (No 24) was reported to be the second least used.

During the interviews and observations, “new” strategy items were noted: *giving examples, describing the object or situation, and the use of a discourse-filler, specifically the Kiswahili word “nanili/linanili”*. These three are compensation strategies. Other “new” strategies were: *avoiding eye-contact, preparing and rehearsing adequately and dressing decently*. These latter are affective strategies.

In relation to the gender variable, no significant difference was found between male and female learners in overall strategy use ($t=1.824$, $df= 508$) at the 5% significance level. However, a greater amount of strategies was reported by the male than the female. This could be attributed to how the girl child and the boy child are socialised in the Tanzanian culture. The patriarchal culture makes the girl child feel inferior to the boy child. Girls are also curtailed by sociocultural practices, such as religion from freely interacting with members of the opposite sex and strangers. This can be a handicap to good language learning, as this is a social practice. The results of six strategy showed that significant differences existed in the use of metacognitive strategies ($t =3.469$, $df=508$) and social strategies ($t=3.365$, $df=508$). However, no significant differences were seen on gender variable in the use of memory strategies ($t =.904$, $df=508$), cognitive strategies ($t =.926$, $df=508$), compensation strategies ($t=.967$, $df=508$), and affective strategies ($t = 1.315$, $df=508$) at the significance level of .05.

With regard to the religion variable, the results showed were statistically significant. The overall strategy use was ($t=3.641$, $df=508$) at 5% significant level. The mean frequency for Christian respondents in the overall strategy use was 3.458; $SD= .680$ while that for Muslim learners was 3.240; $SD =.703$. This suggests that Christian learners of English are better at overall strategy use than their Muslim counterparts. A possible explanation for this is that religion shapes attitudes and value attachments to culture and its agent, language. In Tanzania, Christianity is associated with western culture and the spread of English, whereas Islam is associated with Arabic culture and the spread of Arabic and Kiswahili.

Regarding the possible influence of religion on the choice of the six strategy categories, it was indeed found to be a determinant for each one of them. Cognitive ($t=5.801$, $df=508$), metacognitive ($t=4.387$, $df=508$) and social strategy category ($t=3.609$, $df=508$) showed significant differences at the significance level of .05. Metacognitive strategy category was used by both Christian and Muslim respondents at a high frequency (Christianity Mean=4.009, Islam, Mean=3.73) while social strategies were used at a high frequency by Christian students (Mean=3.720) and medium frequency by Muslim students (Mean=3.487). The rest of the strategy categories were of medium use frequency by both Christian and Muslim students.

With regard to the third variable, learning context (urban vs. rural), there was no significant difference in the overall strategy use between learners who studied in a rural learning context and those who did in an urban one. The overall strategy use was $t=-.662$, $df=267$). The rural learning context scored a mean of 3.407 ($SD=.740$) while the urban learning context scored a mean of 3.410 ($SD=.665$). There was a significant difference between the rural one (Mean=3.289) and the urban learning contexts ($M=3.138$) in the use of the memory strategies ($t=-2.007$; $df=267$). A possible explanation for this is that location of the school did not really imply being well equipped with teaching facilities

and learning materials. Some of the rural schools, especially mission schools, were even better equipped than some urban ones. What stood out as the determining factor was the culture in which the school was located. However, accessibility to resources such as satellite TV programmes which rely heavily on infrastructure such as electricity was a preserve of urban learning context.

In relation to university and secondary school setting, the results showed that the level of education was a determinant of the choice of the LLSs. The overall strategy use was ($t=3.631^*$, $df=508$) at the significance level $p<.05$. The mean frequency of university students with overall strategy use was 3.493 (SD= .6561) while the mean frequency of secondary school learners was 3.246 (SD =.7106). This suggests that university learners of English are better overall strategy users compared to the secondary school ones. A possible explanation could be the different approaches adopted in teaching. Secondary school students rely heavily on the teacher while university students do some research and make presentations and also engage in class discussions, which give them more opportunities to use the language. However, as noted earlier in Chapter Three (section 3.3) language learners in the Tanzanian context even at university level rarely used English inside and outside of the classrooms/lecture halls. The difference in the strategy use could therefore be due to the differing proficiency levels.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications

The fact that the sample in this study was of medium strategy use may imply that they had few practice opportunities and little access to authentic learning materials. There is also a need to encourage language learners to practise the use of the English language by creating practice opportunities. This would help them develop more interactive or production strategies.

The teachers of English and curriculum and material developers should make the highly reported strategies “core” strategies to be incorporated in the curriculum and teaching/learning materials.

There is also need to encourage the language learners in the Tanzanian context to capitalise on their strong social practices, especially, through group work, by interacting in the target language. These strategies can help in developing cultural understanding. In particular, the Muslim language learners in Tanzania should be encouraged to learn about the culture of English speakers. Interacting in the target language and with the target culture is important when learning a new language, a concept promoted by the Communicative Language Teaching movement in the recent years. This emphasis may well reflect an awareness of the communicative nature of language and also increased confidence by learners in their ability to manage such communication (Cohen, 2011).

The less frequently reported strategies (Affective, Memory and Compensation) should, on the other hand, be considered as basis for a program of classroom strategy instruction. This will probably expose the language learners to these strategies and their application. Memory strategies such as the *use of flashcards, association of words with sounds or a word with a mental image or picture, sharing how one feels with someone else, recording how one feels in a language diary and guessing from the context* should be taught to aid language learners’ memory, compensation and affective abilities in language learning.

A second language is usually learned later when the learners have developed their affective part. It is, therefore, important that the learner is taught the affective strategies which are critical in managing one’s emotions, anxiety, attitude and motivation. Teachers of English should continually boost their learners’ self-confidence so that the latter can think positively and deploy the strategy of encouraging themselves to always speak their

mind even if they are not certain of the correctness of their speech (item No. 40). It appeared that the strategy of providing oneself with a reward for a good performance in English (item No. 41) is also stimulating. Teaching the strategy of reducing one's anxiety by trying to relax when afraid of using the L2 (item No. 39), the strategy of noticing nervousness when studying or using English (item No. 42) as well as that of discussing feelings with someone else (item No. 44) can prove to be very useful contributing to students' management of emotions.

The difference in strategy use between female and male students suggests that gender inequality is still an issue to grapple with. The socialisation that male and female learners get determines the strategies they employ in learning language. The teachers of English should strive to achieve gender balance inside and outside the classroom/lecture halls.

Since language and culture are interrelated, the implementation of instructional strategies for teaching and learning English as a second language through culture would enhance students' linguistic comprehension. Social culture should be incorporated outright as an essential component of second language learning. Second language teachers, therefore, should pay attention to cultural diversities of cultures, identify key cultural items such as gender, religion and learning context when designing a language curriculum and apply appropriate teaching strategies to learning activities in order to help students bridge the cultural gaps. Sociocultural factors affect the way in which language learners learn the target language, it is not reasonable to assume that all language learners use the same good language learning strategies or should be taught how to use some strategies for them to become successful learners. There is need for language teachers to consider the socio-cultural context in which learning takes place so as to discover the preferred strategies and then train the learners on the use of these latter.

Language teachers should learn to discern what language learning strategies their students appear to be using by observing their behaviour in class. Besides, the teachers should also have an adequate knowledge of their students' goals and motivations so as to be in a position to provide a wide range of learning strategies. English language teachers should also be able to evaluate their own teaching method. Analysing their lesson plans, the language teacher should be able to determine whether these give learners a chance to use a variety of learning strategies or not.

Policy makers in the Tanzanian context should rethink their decision of declaring English an official language and the language of instruction without providing an environment for learners to develop the necessary skills.

Regarding the promotion of language skills in the communicative language context, Hybrid teaching contexts like the Tanzanian one should target the development of all strategies related to the language skills of the learners namely listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as translation and vocabulary learning skills. The low use of speaking and writing skills in the present study indicates a need for emphasis on both skills (speaking and writing) so as to achieve the main objective of the Communicative Language Teaching approach. Teachers should engage their students towards producing a lot of writing, for instance of notes, messages, reports, compositions and summaries of information that they hear or read in English.

In multilingual processing mode, the choice to use a language other than the target language takes place at the communicative intentional level. This was noted among the sample in the present study where code switching and code mixing of English and Kiswahili was the most frequently reported strategy among the compensation category (cf Item No. 25). Code switching and code mixing should not be encouraged in formal

situations because it may push the learner to reach a higher proficiency in the target language.

There is also need to sensitise language learners in the Tanzanian context on the importance of reading skills. The low reported usage of Items No. 16 and No. 36 reveal a poor reading culture yet there is strong evidence that free voluntary reading not only enhances L2 competence but is also an excellent source of knowledge and increases motivation (Krashen 2003). Getting students who are speakers of other languages to read in English is not always easy. However, as Lazar (1993) notes, “reading in the target language can be motivating and fulfilling because it provides access to the target culture and also expands students’ language awareness.” A very useful technique which can be taught for getting the main idea quickly is to first skim an English passage and then go back and read carefully (cf strategy item 18). Moreover, teachers should prompt their students to use the strategy of reading extensively (Item 16). Teachers should, therefore, provide the learners with a rich variety of interesting reading materials.

The importance of semantics and context is underscored towards a more balanced and integrated approach to the acquisition of the lexicon. English language teachers should, therefore, use direct language teaching only as a small part of teaching vocabulary in general. They should help learners to acquire the skill of inferring meaning from the context. One way of doing this is to provide students with as much contextualised vocabulary as possible in dialogues, stories or songs.

6.4 The Limitations of the present study

While conducting this study, the following were the challenges I faced:

- a) Lack of rapport between me and some of the authorities, particularly the

head teachers who seemed suspicious of my presence. Some of them thought I was on a fault-finding mission. The issue of religion seemed sensitive to be investigated, particularly in Islamic schools. In one Islamic school in the southern region, the head of the school refused to give me permission, claiming that I could be a government spy and that we are the kind of people who feed the government with wrong statistics about his religion. So, I had to resort to using research assistants to get data in such schools.

- b) Due to poor road infrastructure, accessing schools in the interior parts of the country was difficult.

In situations where research assistants were used, there were cases where the respondents did not adequately complete the questionnaires. Despite all these challenges, the research process proved to be interesting. The researcher enjoyed interacting with both the teachers and the learners of English and sharing with them on the whole issue of learning strategies.

6.5 Suggestions for Further Research

First, the study sought to find out if there were significant differences in the choice of learning strategies depending on whether they were male or female, Christian or Muslim, or whether they studied in a rural or urban school or they were university or secondary school students. Further research is desirable to investigate the strategy preference after training. It would further be useful to establish which strategies were preferred by language learners when handling specific language tasks such as vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.

Second, the language being learned influences the choice of strategies. Learning Kiswahili and English, or English and German would affect the way strategies will be employed by the learner, since English and Kiswahili have two different phonemic systems compared to the learning of English and German which share the typology. In

this study, learning of English as a second language in the bilingual education in Tanzania was considered. Cross linguistic research is suggested between other languages, especially Bantu languages which have the same typology.

Third, the present study focussed on only sociocultural variables of gender, religion and learning context. Further research on other external factors (such as socio-economic and socio-political ones) that are possible determinants of the choice of learning strategies is called for.

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APPENDIX 2

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL)

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second. You will find statements about learning English.

Please read each statement. Next to each statement, select the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells

HOW FREQUENTLY YOU DO.

1. *I never do this* 2. *I rarely do this* 3. *I sometimes do this*
4. *I usually do this* 5. *I always do this*

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Circle your answers next to each statement. If you have any questions, let me know immediately.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I am learning English	1	2	3	4	5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	1	2	3	4	5
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I use rhymes, similar sound endings, to remember New English words	1	2	3	4	5
6. I use flashcards, mnemonics, vocabulary lists etc. to remember new English words	1	2	3	4	5
7. I physically act out new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I remember new English words or phrase by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a screen sign.	1	2	3	4	5

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I practise the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I start try to start conversations in English and talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I watch TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English or listen to radio spoken in English.	1	2	3	4	5

How frequently you do;

1. *I never do this* 2. *I rarely do this* 3. *I sometimes do this*
4. *I usually do this* 5. *I always do this*

16. I read for pleasure in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I try to find patterns in English.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand e.g. prefixes and suffixes.	1	2	3	4	5
22. When I read materials written in English, I try not to translate them word for word into Kiswahili	1	2	3	4	5
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	1	2	3	4	5
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures, simply give examples, or switch to Kiswahili to keep the conversation going	1	2	3	4	5
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I look for people or opportunities I can practise my English.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

How frequently you do;

1. *I never do this* 2. *I rarely do this* 3. *I sometimes do this*
4. *I usually do this* 5. *I always do this*

Part E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	1	2	3	4	5
42. I notice if I am tensed up or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I write own my feelings in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the teacher or my colleagues for help	1	2	3	4	5
46. When others make mistakes in speaking English, I notice their mistakes and keep myself from making the same ones.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I practise English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I ask my friends to correct my English.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I ask questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

APPENDIX 4

The Kiswahili Version of the SILL

DODOSO YA UGUNDUZI WA MBINU ZA KUJIFUNZIA LUGHA

Maelekezo

Dodoso hii ya UGUNDUZI WA MBINU ZA KUJIFUNZIA LUGHA kwa wanafunzi wanaojifunza lugha ya Kiingereza kama lugha ya pili. Maelezo utakayotoa hayataathiri kwa vyovyote vile alama or mtazamo wa mwalimu wako wa somo la Kiingereza. Tafadhali soma maelezo katika kila sentensi. Jibu kwa kiasi gani ambavyo maelezo katika sentensi yanavyokufafanua wewe vizuri. Usijibu kwa namna unavyofikiri wewe unapaswa kuwa, au namna ambavyo watu wengine hufanya. Kama una swali au maswali uwe huru kuuliza.

Pembeni mwa maelezo katika kila sentensi, chagua kwa kuzungushia duara jibu mojawapo kati ya (1 2 3 4 5) ambalo hueleza kiasi ambacho mbinu hizo hutumiwa.

KUNA UKWELI GANI KUKUHUSU KATIKA MAELEZO YA SENTENSI

1. Hapana au hapana kabisa ukweli/sifanyi hivyo kabisa
2. Kwa kawaida siyo kweli/ kwa kawaida sifanyi hivyo
3. Kwa kiasi Fulani ni kweli/ kwa kiasi Fulani hufanya hivyo
4. Kwa kawaida ni kweli kwangu/ kawaida hufanya hivyo
5. Mara kwa mara au mara nyingi ni kweli kwangu/ mara kwa mara hufanya hivyo

SEHEMU A:

1. Huwa nafikiria uhusiano kati ya vitu ninavyovijua tayari na vitu vipya ninavyojifunza kwenye kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
2. Huwa natumia maneno mapya ya kiingereza katika sentensi, hivyo ninaweza kuyakumbuka.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Huwa nahusisha matamshi ya neno jipya la kiingereza na taswira au picha ya neno kunisaidia katika kukumbuka neon	1	2	3	4	5
4. Huwa nakumbuka neno jipya la kiingereza kwa kuchora picha akilini nijuapo mazingira ambamo neno hilo huweza kutumika.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Huwa natumia matamshi ya neno moja linalofanana na matamshi ya neno jingine katika kukumbuka maneno mapya ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Huwa natumia kadi zenye picha au maneno, au orodho ya msamiati katika kukumbuka maneno mapya ya Kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
7. Huwa naonesha kwa uhalisia utendaji kazi wa maneno mapya ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Huwa najikumbusha masomo ya kiingereza mara kwa mara.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Huwa nakumbuka maneno mapya au kirai kipya cha kiingereza kwa kukumbuka mahali kilipo katika ukurasa, ubao, au alama za kwenye skrini.	1	2	3	4	5

SEHEMU B

10. Huwa nazungumza au kuandika maneno mapya ya kiingereza mara nyingi.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Huwa najaribu kuongea kama mzawa wa lugha ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Huwa najizoeza matamshi ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Huwa natumia maneno ya kiingereza ninayoyafahamu katika nyanja mbalimbali.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Huwa nafanya mazungumzo kwa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5

KUNA UKWELI GANI KUKUHUSU KATIKA MAELEZO YA SENTENSI

1. Hapana au hapana kabisa ukweli kwangu/sifanyi hivyo kabisa
2. Kwa kawaida siyo kweli kwangu/ kwa kawaida sifanyi hivyo
3. Kwa kiasi Fulani ni kweli kwangu/ kwa kiasi Fulani hufanya hivyo
4. Kwa kawaida ni kweli kwangu/ kawaida hufanya hivyo
5. Mara kwa mara au mara nyingi zaidi ni kweli kwangu/ mara kwa mara hufanya hivyo

15. Huwa natazama maonesho ya televisheni yanayorushwa kwa lugha ya kiingereza au kutazama filamu zinazotumia mazungumzo ya lugha ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Huwa nasoma kiingereza kwa ajili ya kujiriwadha au kujiburudisha.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Huwa naandika notisi, ujumbe, barua au taarifa kwa lugha ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Huwa naanza kupitia habari ya kiingereza kwa juujuu (kusoma habari nzima kwa haraka ili kupata kiini cha habari) baadaye narudia kuisoma kwa makini.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Huwa naangalia maneno kutoka katika lugha yangu ambayo yanafanana na maneno mapya ya kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
20. Huwa najaribu kutafuta mipangilio ya maneno ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Huwa natafuta maana ya neno la kiingereza kwa kuligawanya katika sehemu ambazo nazifahamu	1	2	3	4	5
22. ninaposoma makala iliyoandikwa kwa kiingereza, huwa najaribu kuepuka tafsiri ya neno kwa neon katika lugha ya kiswahili.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Huwa nafanya ufupisho wa taarifa ambazo nazisikia au kuziandika kwa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5

SEHEMU C

24. Katika kuyafahamu maneno ya kiingereza nisiyoyajua, huwa natumia ubahatishaji.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Ikiwa siwezi kufikiria neno wakati wa mazungumzo ya kiingereza, huwa natumia ishara, au neon la Kiswahili	1	2	3	4	5
26. Huwa naunda maneno mapya kama sijui maneno sahihi ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Huwa nasoma kiingereza bila ya kuangalia kila neno jipya.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Huwa najaribu kubahatisha kile ambacho mtu mwingine atakavyosema kwa kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
29. Kama siwezi kufikiria neno la kiingereza huwa natumia neon au kirai ambacho huwa na maana iliyosawa na kitu ninachomaanisha.	1	2	3	4	5

SEHEMU D

30. Huwa najaribu kutafuta njia nyingi kadri niwezavyo ili nikitumie kiingereza changu.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Huwa naandika makosa yangu na kutumia taarifa hizo katika kunisaidia mimi kufanya vizuri zaidi	1	2	3	4	5
32. Huwa ninakuwa makini mtu mwingine anapokuwa anazungumza kwa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Huwa najaribu kutafuta namna ambavyo nitakuwa mwanafunzi mzuri zaidi katika Kujifunza kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5

KUNA UKWELI GANI KUKUHUSU KATIKA MAELEZO YA SENTENSI

1. Hapana au hapana kabisa ukweli kwangu/sifanyi hivyo kabisa
2. Kwa kawaida siyo kweli kwangu/ kwa kawaida sifanyi hivyo
3. Kwa kiasi Fulani ni kweli kwangu/ kwa kiasi Fulani hufanya hivyo
4. Kwa kawaida ni kweli kwangu/ kawaida hufanya hivyo
5. Mara kwa mara au mara nyingi zaidi ni kweli kwangu/ mara kwa mara hufanya hivyo

34. Huwa napanga ratiba yangu, hivyo nitakuwa na muda wa kutosha kujifunza kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
35. Huwa natafuta watu ninaoweza kuzungumza nao kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Huwa natafuta fursa ya kusoma zaidi iwezekanavyo kwa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Huwa nina malengo mahsusi kwa ajili ya kuboresha ujuzi wangu katika lugha ya kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
38. Huwa nafikiria kuhusu maendeleo yangu katika kujifunza kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5

SEHEMU E

39. Huwa najaribu kupumzika kwa muda ninaposhindwa kwa hofu au uoga kutumia kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
40. Huwa najipa moyo mwenyewe kuongea kiingereza hata kama nahofia kukosea.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Huwa najizawadia mwenyewe pindi ninapofanya vizuri katika lugha ya kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Huwa ninajitambua kama ninahofu au uwoga ninapojifunza au kutumia kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Huwa naandika hisia zangu katika shajara ya kujifunzia lugha.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Huwa ninamwambia mtu mwingine kuhusu jinsi ninavyojihisi ninapokuwa najifunza kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5

SEHEMU F

45. Kama sielewi kitu fulani kwa kiingereza huwa nauliza mwalimu au wenzangu kwa msaada	1	2	3	4	5
46. Huwa nawaomba wazungumzaji wa kiingereza Wanikosoe au wanisahihishe ninapokuwa naongea	1	2	3	4	5
47. Huwa najizoeza kutumia kiingereza na wanafunzi wengine.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Huwa naomba msaada kwa wanzangu kuzikosoa kazi niziandikazo kwa kiingereza	1	2	3	4	5
49. Huwa nauliza maswali kwa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Huwa najaribu kujifunza kuhusu utamaduni wa wazungumzaji wa kiingereza.	1	2	3	4	5

AHSANTE SANA KWA

Appendix 5:
The t-test for Individual Strategy Items in relation to Gender

Item No.	Group Statistics	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	T	Sig. (2-tail)
1	I think of relationships between what I already	MALE	233	3.46	1.008	.066	2.520	.005
		FEMALE	277	3.23	1.062	.064		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can	MALE	233	3.36	1.140	.075	.922	.35
		FEMALE	277	3.27	1.139	.068		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word	MALE	233	3.38	1.264	.083	.937	.345
		FEMALE	277	3.27	1.221	.073		
4	I remember a new English word by making a	MALE	233	3.34	1.301	.085	1.111	.265
		FEMALE	277	3.21	1.401	.084		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words	MALE	233	2.70	1.240	.081	-3.015	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.03	1.218	.073		
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words	MALE	233	2.06	1.204	.079	-.402	.685
		FEMALE	277	2.10	1.133	.068		
7	I physically act out new English words	MALE	233	3.06	1.246	.082	.171	.865
		FEMALE	277	3.04	1.340	.081		
8	I review English lessons often	MALE	233	3.95	1.020	.067	.028	.975
		FEMALE	277	3.95	1.090	.066		
9	I remember new English words or phrase	MALE	233	3.21	1.258	.082	1.938	.05
		FEMALE	277	2.99	1.350	.081		
10	I say or write new English words several times.	MALE	233	3.54	1.133	.074	1.181	.235
		FEMALE	277	3.41	1.235	.074		
11	I try to talk like native English speakers	MALE	233	3.22	1.273	.083	.180	.855
		FEMALE	277	3.20	1.268	.076		
12	I practice the sounds of English	MALE	233	3.83	1.024	.067	.603	.545
		FEMALE	277	3.77	1.054	.063		
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	MALE	233	4.04	1.016	.067	.732	.465
		FEMALE	277	3.97	1.075	.065		
14	I start try to start conversations in English	MALE	233	3.09	1.099	.072	-.884	.375
		FEMALE	277	3.18	1.207	.073		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English	MALE	233	3.34	1.280	.084	-1.165	.245
		FEMALE	277	3.48	1.366	.082		
16	I read for pleasure in English	MALE	233	2.82	1.224	.080	.832	.405
		FEMALE	277	2.73	1.328	.080		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	MALE	233	3.42	1.146	.075	1.000	.315
		FEMALE	277	3.31	1.298	.078		
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage	MALE	233	3.25	1.221	.080	-.373	.705
		FEMALE	277	3.30	1.348	.081		
19	I look for words in my own	MALE	233	3.06	1.263	.083	.530	.595

	language that are similar	FEMALE	277	3.00	1.312	.079		
20	I try to find patterns in English.	MALE	233	3.40	1.095	.072	.464	.64
		FEMALE	277	3.35	1.290	.078		
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing	MALE	233	3.16	1.290	.084	.159	.87
		FEMALE	277	3.14	1.346	.081		
22	I try not to translate word-for-word	MALE	233	2.99	1.341	.088	1.411	.155
		FEMALE	277	2.82	1.334	.080		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read	MALE	233	3.24	1.187	.078	1.522	.125
		FEMALE	277	3.07	1.344	.081		
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	MALE	233	2.73	1.427	.093	1.572	.115
		FEMALE	277	2.53	1.363	.082		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in	MALE	233	3.00	1.347	.088	.629	.075
		FEMALE	277	2.93	1.384	.083		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones	MALE	233	2.62	1.360	.089	-.724	.47
		FEMALE	277	2.71	1.418	.085		
27	I read English without looking up every new word	MALE	233	2.58	1.264	.083	.517	.605
		FEMALE	277	2.52	1.320	.079		
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next	MALE	233	3.22	2.307	.151	.354	.72
		FEMALE	277	3.17	1.266	.076		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or	MALE	233	3.54	1.306	.086	1.218	.22
		FEMALE	277	3.40	1.283	.077		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	MALE	233	4.03	.949	.062	2.083	.035
		FEMALE	277	3.83	1.209	.073		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information	MALE	233	3.76	1.226	.080	2.875	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.44	1.269	.076		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	MALE	233	4.30	.853	.056	1.505	.13
		FEMALE	277	4.18	.979	.059		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	MALE	233	4.23	.980	.064	1.822	.06
		FEMALE	277	4.05	1.119	.067		
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to	MALE	233	3.63	1.014	.066	.685	.49
		FEMALE	277	3.52	2.190	.132		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English	MALE	233	3.75	1.118	.073	3.207	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.40	1.289	.077		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	MALE	233	3.86	.964	.063	1.717	.085
		FEMALE	277	3.70	1.180	.071		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	MALE	233	4.14	.852	.056	3.281	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.86	1.077	.065		
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	MALE	233	4.22	.925	.061	2.347	.015
		FEMALE	277	4.01	1.060	.064		
39	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid of using English	MALE	233	2.99	1.376	.090	-.443	.655
		FEMALE	277	3.04	1.300	.078		
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am	MALE	233	4.06	.963	.063	1.564	.115
		FEMALE	277	3.91	1.171	.070		

41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well	MALE	233	3.56	1.213	.079	3.077	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.21	1.374	.083		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	MALE	233	3.35	1.223	.080	-1.296	.195
		FEMALE	277	3.49	1.194	.072		
43	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	MALE	233	2.82	1.257	.082	-.121	.9
		FEMALE	277	2.83	1.365	.082		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am	MALE	233	3.16	1.261	.083	1.787	.075
		FEMALE	277	2.95	1.364	.082		
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask	MALE	233	4.18	.874	.057	1.393	.16
		FEMALE	277	4.06	1.087	.065		
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	MALE	233	3.51	1.253	.082	1.830	.065
		FEMALE	277	3.30	1.327	.080		
47	I practice English with other students.	MALE	233	3.89	1.024	.067	1.491	.135
		FEMALE	277	3.74	1.194	.072		
48	I ask for help from English speakers	MALE	233	3.85	1.054	.069	3.014	.000
		FEMALE	277	3.54	1.226	.074		
49	I ask questions in English	MALE	233	3.57	1.036	.068	2.403	.015
		FEMALE	277	3.32	1.234	.074		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	MALE	233	3.33	1.210	.079	2.439	.015
		FEMALE	277	3.06	1.302	.078		

(at 5% significance level)

Appendix 6:
The t-test for Individual Strategy Items in relation to Religion

Item No.	Strategy	Religious affiliation	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	I think of relationships between what I already	Christianity	3.46	1.096	.069	2.647	.005
		Islam	3.22	.974	.061		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can	Christianity	3.42	1.101	.069	2.184	.025
		Islam	3.20	1.168	.073		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word	Christianity	3.33	1.233	.077	.071	.005
		Islam	3.32	1.251	.078		
4	I remember a new English word by making a	Christianity	3.46	1.315	.082	3.228	.000
		Islam	3.08	1.372	.086		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words	Christianity	2.83	1.268	.079	-.930	.035
		Islam	2.93	1.208	.076		
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words	Christianity	2.06	1.161	.073	-.380	.7
		Islam	2.10	1.171	.073		
7	I physically act out new English words	Christianity	3.12	1.302	.082	1.264	.205
		Islam	2.97	1.290	.081		
8	I review English lessons often	Christianity	3.98	1.012	.063	.765	.425
		Islam	3.91	1.103	.069		
9	I remember new English words or phrase	Christianity	3.22	1.322	.083	2.201	.025
		Islam	2.96	1.293	.081		
10	I say or write new English words several times.	Christianity	3.54	1.146	.072	1.303	.19
		Islam	3.40	1.231	.077		
11	I try to talk like native English speakers	Christianity	3.26	1.199	.075	.907	.365
		Islam	3.16	1.337	.084		
12	I practice the sounds of English	Christianity	3.75	1.057	.066	-1.065	.285
		Islam	3.85	1.021	.064		
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	Christianity	4.07	1.005	.063	1.396	.16
		Islam	3.94	1.087	.068		
14	I start try to start conversations in English	Christianity	3.27	1.119	.070	2.574	.01
		Islam	3.00	1.186	.074		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English	Christianity	3.67	1.246	.078	4.448	.000
		Islam	3.16	1.360	.085		
16	I read for pleasure in English	Christianity	2.98	1.250	.078	3.709	.000
		Islam	2.56	1.281	.080		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	Christianity	3.74	1.114	.070	7.333	.000
		Islam	2.98	1.226	.077		
18	I first skim an English	Christianity	3.47	1.206	.076	3.432	.000

	passage (read over the passage)	Islam	3.08	1.345	.084		
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar	Christianity	3.19	1.291	.081	2.837	.005
		Islam	2.87	1.269	.079		
20	I try to find patterns in English.	Christianity	3.40	1.182	.074	.368	.035
		Islam	3.36	1.227	.077		
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing	Christianity	3.26	1.318	.083	1.884	.06
		Islam	3.04	1.314	.082		
22	I try not to translate word-for-word	Christianity	3.09	1.367	.086	3.308	.000
		Islam	2.70	1.282	.080		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read	Christianity	3.39	1.231	.077	4.341	.000
		Islam	2.91	1.278	.080		
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	Christianity	2.68	1.422	.089	.952	.34
		Islam	2.56	1.367	.086		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in	Christianity	3.09	1.377	.086	2.179	.03
		Islam	2.83	1.345	.084		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones	Christianity	2.83	1.384	.087	2.625	.005
		Islam	2.51	1.383	.087		
27	I read English without looking up every new word	Christianity	2.67	1.323	.083	2.164	.03
		Islam	2.42	1.255	.079		
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next	Christianity	3.16	2.265	.142	-.341	.73
		Islam	3.22	1.213	.076		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or	Christianity	3.59	1.220	.076	2.163	.03
		Islam	3.34	1.356	.085		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	Christianity	4.05	1.032	.065	2.710	.005
		Islam	3.79	1.155	.072		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information	Christianity	3.79	1.243	.078	3.669	.000
		Islam	3.38	1.243	.078		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	Christianity	4.34	.849	.053	2.552	.01
		Islam	4.13	.986	.062		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	Christianity	4.27	1.076	.067	2.903	.000
		Islam	4.00	1.029	.064		
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to	Christianity	3.73	2.165	.136	2.028	.04
		Islam	3.41	1.190	.075		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English	Christianity	3.75	1.150	.072	3.546	.000
		Islam	3.37	1.269	.079		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	Christianity	3.89	1.065	.067	2.534	.01
		Islam	3.65	1.101	.069		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	Christianity	4.09	.968	.061	2.291	.02
		Islam	3.89	1.003	.063		
38	I think about my progress in	Christianity	4.18	1.027	.064	1.589	.11

	learning English.	Islam	4.04	.979	.061		
39	I try to relax whenever I fell afraid of using English	Christianity	3.15	1.397	.087	2.199	.025
		Islam	2.89	1.258	.079		
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am	Christianity	4.09	1.053	.066	2.424	.015
		Islam	3.86	1.102	.069		
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well	Christianity	3.38	1.319	.083	.202	.84
		Islam	3.36	1.311	.082		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	Christianity	3.55	1.169	.073	2.356	.015
		Islam	3.30	1.236	.077		
43	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	Christianity	2.87	1.306	.082	.673	.5
		Islam	2.79	1.326	.083		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am	Christianity	3.21	1.261	.079	2.801	.005
		Islam	2.88	1.361	.085		
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask	Christianity	4.11	1.050	.066	-.267	-.02
		Islam	4.13	.941	.059		
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	Christianity	3.56	1.192	.075	2.960	.000
		Islam	3.22	1.375	.086		
47	I practice English with other students.	Christianity	3.91	1.058	.066	2.141	.03
		Islam	3.70	1.173	.073		
48	I ask for help from English speakers	Christianity	3.76	1.116	.070	1.529	.125
		Islam	3.60	1.199	.075		
49	I ask questions in English	Christianity	3.64	1.088	.068	4.093	.000
		Islam	3.23	1.182	.074		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Christianity	3.34	1.266	.079	2.707	.005
		Islam	3.04	1.253	.078		

Appendix 7:
The t-test for Individual Strategy Items in relation to Learning Context

Item No.	Strategy	Learning context	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	I think of relationships between what I already	Urban	127	3.35	1.094	.097	-1.786	.075
		Rural	142	3.58	1.027	.086		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can	Urban	127	3.53	1.104	.098	2.098	.035
		Rural	142	3.24	1.142	.096		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word	Urban	127	3.24	1.211	.107	-2.191	.025
		Rural	142	3.56	1.182	.099		
4	I remember a new English word by making a	Urban	127	3.42	1.306	.116	-.713	.475
		Rural	142	3.53	1.242	.104		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words	Urban	127	2.69	1.212	.108	-2.012	.045
		Rural	142	3.00	1.283	.108		
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words	Urban	127	2.12	1.186	.105	.084	.93
		Rural	142	2.11	1.253	.105		
7	I physically act out new English words	Urban	127	3.01	1.238	.110	-1.567	.115
		Rural	142	3.25	1.323	.111		
8	I review English lessons often	Urban	127	3.83	.998	.089	-2.110	.035
		Rural	142	4.09	.996	.084		
9	I remember new English words or phrase	Urban	127	3.06	1.320	.117	-1.165	.245
		Rural	142	3.25	1.261	.106		
10	I say or write new English words several times.	Urban	127	3.56	1.117	.099	.517	.605
		Rural	142	3.49	1.195	.100		
11	I try to talk like native English speakers	Urban	127	3.27	1.218	.108	-.286	.755
		Rural	142	3.31	1.198	.101		
12	I practice the sounds of English	Urban	127	3.75	1.000	.089	-1.421	.155
		Rural	142	3.92	1.011	.085		
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	Urban	127	3.98	.992	.088	-.864	.385
		Rural	142	4.09	1.038	.087		
14	I start try to start conversations in English	Urban	127	3.31	1.118	.099	1.400	.16
		Rural	142	3.12	1.164	.098		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English	Urban	127	3.80	1.222	.108	3.583	.000
		Rural	142	3.27	1.226	.103		
16	I read for pleasure in English	Urban	127	2.91	1.281	.114	.750	.45
		Rural	142	2.79	1.271	.107		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	Urban	127	3.65	1.101	.098	3.203	.000
		Rural	142	3.19	1.254	.105		
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage	Urban	127	3.36	1.213	.108	1.006	.315
		Rural	142	3.21	1.242	.104		

19	I look for words in my own language that are similar	Urban	127	3.22	1.385	.123	.945	.345
		Rural	142	3.07	1.218	.102		
20	I try to find patterns in English.	Urban	127	3.35	1.218	.108	-1.666	.095
		Rural	142	3.58	1.047	.088		
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing	Urban	127	3.07	1.340	.119	-.917	.36
		Rural	142	3.22	1.294	.109		
22	I try not to translate word-for-word	Urban	127	3.17	1.367	.121	1.081	.28
		Rural	142	2.99	1.353	.114		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read	Urban	127	3.23	1.223	.108	.065	.945
		Rural	142	3.22	1.283	.108		
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	Urban	127	2.69	1.406	.125	.861	.39
		Rural	142	2.54	1.457	.122		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in	Urban	127	3.02	1.409	.125	-.072	.94
		Rural	142	3.03	1.419	.119		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones	Urban	127	2.59	1.388	.123	-.548	.58
		Rural	142	2.68	1.381	.116		
27	I read English without looking up every new word	Urban	127	2.68	1.350	.120	1.706	.085
		Rural	142	2.40	1.300	.109		
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next	Urban	127	3.31	2.975	.264	.717	.47
		Rural	142	3.12	1.229	.103		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or	Urban	127	3.47	1.265	.112	-.482	.063
		Rural	142	3.55	1.340	.112		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	Urban	127	3.98	1.130	.100	-.809	.415
		Rural	142	4.08	1.062	.089		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information	Urban	127	3.67	1.304	.116	.002	.995
		Rural	142	3.67	1.195	.100		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	Urban	127	4.20	1.039	.092	-1.071	.285
		Rural	142	4.32	.793	.067		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	Urban	127	4.24	1.137	.101	-.316	.75
		Rural	142	4.27	.852	.071		
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to	Urban	127	3.66	1.142	.101	1.138	.255
		Rural	142	3.50	1.178	.099		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English	Urban	127	3.58	1.275	.113	-.910	.36
		Rural	142	3.72	1.169	.098		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	Urban	127	3.94	1.002	.089	1.846	.065
		Rural	142	3.70	1.122	.094		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	Urban	127	4.13	.951	.084	.911	.36
		Rural	142	4.02	.934	.078		
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	Urban	127	4.12	1.124	.100	-.408	.05
		Rural	142	4.17	.922	.077		
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	Urban	127	3.20	1.341	.119	1.401	.16
		Rural	142	2.97	1.378	.116		
40	I encourage myself to speak	Urban	127	4.01	1.123	.100	-1.277	.2

	English even when I am	Rural	142	4.17	.945	.079		
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well	Urban	127	3.28	1.397	.124	-1.390	.165
		Rural	142	3.51	1.242	.104		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	Urban	127	3.60	1.107	.098	.291	.77
		Rural	142	3.56	1.252	.105		
43	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	Urban	127	2.88	1.325	.118	-.474	.635
		Rural	142	2.96	1.299	.109		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am	Urban	127	3.20	1.347	.120	.786	.43
		Rural	142	3.08	1.305	.110		
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask	Urban	127	4.05	1.045	.093	-1.560	.12
		Rural	142	4.24	.974	.082		
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	Urban	127	3.52	1.227	.109	.179	.0855
		Rural	142	3.49	1.219	.102		
47	I practice English with other students.	Urban	127	3.68	1.208	.107	-1.420	.155
		Rural	142	3.87	1.058	.089		
48	I ask for help from English speakers	Urban	127	3.69	1.137	.101	-.396	.69
		Rural	142	3.75	1.081	.091		
49	I ask questions in English	Urban	127	3.63	1.153	.102	2.309	.02
		Rural	142	3.31	1.118	.094		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Urban	127	3.23	1.310	.116	-.301	.76
		Rural	142	3.27	1.215	.102		

(at 5% significance level)

Appendix 8:

The t-test for Individual Strategy Items in relation to Learning Context (University vs. Secondary)

Item No	Strategy item & Strategy Category	Level of education	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1	I think of relationships between what I already	UNIVERSITY	200	3.47	1.022	.072	2.318*	.02
		SECONDARY	310	3.25	1.050	.060		
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can	UNIVERSITY	200	3.45	1.083	.077	2.160*	.03
		SECONDARY	310	3.22	1.168	.066		
3	I connect the sound of a new English word	UNIVERSITY	200	3.22	1.277	.090	-1.487	.135
		SECONDARY	310	3.39	1.214	.069		
4	I remember a new English word by making a	UNIVERSITY	200	3.60	1.224	.087	4.416*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.06	1.398	.079		
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words	UNIVERSITY	200	2.61	1.147	.081	-4.06*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.05	1.264	.072		
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words	UNIVERSITY	200	2.09	1.166	.082	.180	.855
		SECONDARY	310	2.07	1.166	.066		
7	I physically act out new English words	UNIVERSITY	200	3.18	1.238	.088	1.821	.07
		SECONDARY	310	2.96	1.329	.075		
8	I review English lessons often	UNIVERSITY	200	3.90	1.053	.074	-.893	.37
		SECONDARY	310	3.98	1.061	.060		
9	I remember new English words or phrase	UNIVERSITY	200	3.40	1.207	.085	4.328*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.89	1.341	.076		
10	I say or write new English words several times.	UNIVERSITY	200	3.55	1.106	.078	1.164	.2
		SECONDARY	310	3.42	1.240	.070		
11	I try to talk like native English speakers	UNIVERSITY	200	3.08	1.258	.089	-1.831	.065
		SECONDARY	310	3.29	1.272	.072		
12	I practice the sounds of English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.67	.952	.067	-2.24*	.025
		SECONDARY	310	3.88	1.086	.062		
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	UNIVERSITY	200	3.92	1.014	.072	-1.488	.135
		SECONDARY	310	4.06	1.067	.061		
14	I start try to start conversations in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.11	1.179	.083	-.474	.635
		SECONDARY	310	3.15	1.147	.065		
15	I watch TV shows spoken in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.50	1.203	.085	1.179	.235
		SECONDARY	310	3.36	1.402	.080		
16	I read for pleasure in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.03	1.196	.085	3.616*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.61	1.309	.074		
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.62	1.106	.078	3.856*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.19	1.279	.073		
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage	UNIVERSITY	200	3.29	1.234	.087	.190	.85
		SECONDARY	310	3.27	1.328	.075		
19	I look for words in my own	UNIVERSITY	200	3.04	1.235	.087	.121	.9

	language that are similar	SECONDARY	310	3.03	1.324	.075		
20	I try to find patterns in English.	UNIVERSITY	200	3.26	1.104	.078	-1.758	.08
		SECONDARY	310	3.45	1.260	.072		
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing	UNIVERSITY	200	3.19	1.270	.090	.509	.61
		SECONDARY	310	3.13	1.352	.077		
22	I try not to translate word-for-word	UNIVERSITY	200	3.16	1.332	.094	3.620*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.73	1.317	.075		
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read	UNIVERSITY	200	3.39	1.197	.085	3.359*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.00	1.305	.074		
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses	UNIVERSITY	200	3.01	1.371	.097	5.206*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.37	1.354	.077		
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in	UNIVERSITY	200	3.23	1.283	.091	3.589*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.79	1.393	.079		
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones	UNIVERSITY	200	2.91	1.362	.096	3.134*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.51	1.390	.079		
27	I read English without looking up every new word	UNIVERSITY	200	2.93	1.290	.091	5.521*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.30	1.237	.070		
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next	UNIVERSITY	200	3.39	2.385	.169	1.983*	.045
		SECONDARY	310	3.06	1.313	.075		
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or	UNIVERSITY	200	3.70	1.215	.086	3.330*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.31	1.323	.075		
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	UNIVERSITY	200	4.02	.982	.069	1.656	.1
		SECONDARY	310	3.85	1.169	.066		
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information	UNIVERSITY	200	3.93	1.087	.077	5.075*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.36	1.312	.075		
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	UNIVERSITY	200	4.36	.795	.056	2.398*	.015
		SECONDARY	310	4.15	.993	.056		
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	UNIVERSITY	200	4.32	.939	.066	3.257*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	4.01	1.116	.063		
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to	UNIVERSITY	200	3.93	2.267	.160	3.789*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.34	1.268	.072		
35	I look for people I can talk to in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.65	1.151	.081	1.277	.2
		SECONDARY	310	3.50	1.269	.072		
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	UNIVERSITY	200	3.93	.982	.069	2.553*	.01
		SECONDARY	310	3.67	1.144	.065		
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	UNIVERSITY	200	4.23	.788	.056	4.551*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.83	1.073	.061		
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	UNIVERSITY	200	4.26	.909	.064	2.729*	.005
		SECONDARY	310	4.01	1.052	.060		
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.40	1.303	.092	5.366*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	2.77	1.296	.074		
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am	UNIVERSITY	200	4.14	.891	.063	2.724*	.005
		SECONDARY	310	3.87	1.180	.067		

41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well	UNIVERSITY	200	3.61	1.185	.084	3.366*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.21	1.370	.078		
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	UNIVERSITY	200	3.60	1.103	.078	2.606*	.01
		SECONDARY	310	3.32	1.261	.072		
43	I write own my feelings in a language learning diary	UNIVERSITY	200	2.87	1.265	.089	.586	.555
		SECONDARY	310	2.80	1.348	.077		
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am	UNIVERSITY	200	3.23	1.214	.086	2.553*	.01
		SECONDARY	310	2.93	1.374	.078		
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask	UNIVERSITY	200	4.12	.860	.061	.043	.965
		SECONDARY	310	4.12	1.076	.061		
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	UNIVERSITY	200	3.46	1.164	.082	.949	.345
		SECONDARY	310	3.35	1.375	.078		
47	I practice English with other students.	UNIVERSITY	200	3.82	1.112	.079	.116	.905
		SECONDARY	310	3.80	1.128	.064		
48	I ask for help from English speakers	UNIVERSITY	200	3.70	1.081	.076	.198	.845
		SECONDARY	310	3.67	1.210	.069		
49	I ask questions in English	UNIVERSITY	200	3.64	1.048	.074	3.200*	.000
		SECONDARY	310	3.30	1.201	.068		
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	UNIVERSITY	200	3.29	1.200	.085	1.415	.155
		SECONDARY	310	3.12	1.306	.074		

(at 5% significance level)

Appendix 9: The Strategy-Based Interview Schedule (The English Version)

Questions of the Interviews

1. *When the teacher/lecturer introduces a new English word in class or when you come across a new English word while reading, how do you discover its meaning?*

Prompts: Do you ask the teacher/lecturer? Do you ask your classmates/course mates? Do you use a dictionary? Do you guess its meaning from the context? Do you ignore the word?

2. *How do you memorise new words which you have learned in class or during reading or when listening to any speaker? What strategies do you use to help you remember the new words you have learned? How often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you associate it with familiar words you know in Kiswahili, L1 or other English words? Do you associate it with the context in which it was used? Do you associate it with some events you have experienced?

3. *When you have memorised the new word, how do you make sure that you can recall it when needed? What strategies do you use and how often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you repeat the word several times? Do you use it in a sentence to remember? Do you connect its sound to its image? Do you connect it with its location?

4. *Do you want to learn English well? How do you learn what is assigned to you as part of your homework e.g. vocabulary and grammar? What techniques do you use to improve your English? How often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you practise to speak in the language inside and outside the classroom/lecture hall? Do you widely read materials written in English? Do you

use English in different ways e.g. writing notes, letters, text messages and summaries? Do you revise your course modules/notes often? Do you practice the sounds of English to improve your spoken English? How often do watch/listen to TV/radio programmes in English? Do you read English materials such as books for pleasure?

5. *During speech or writing, what strategies do you use when you fail to remember something in English? How often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you use gestures? Do you use synonyms instead of gestures? Do you create your own words? Do you switch to Kiswahili or L1 instead of pausing?

6. *Do you think about your progress in learning English? Why? What strategies do you employ to improve your English learning progress? How often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you plan your schedule in order to have enough time for studying English? Do you look for people or opportunities to use English? Do you attempt to find out how to become a better language learner? Do you normally have clear goals for improving your English skills? Do you pay attention when someone is speaking English so as to learn English more?

7. *Do you notice if you are nervous when you are using English before others? What strategies do you use to manage your anxiety? How often do you use them?*

Prompts: Do you write down your feelings in a language learning diary? How do you control your anxiety when you speak in front of people such as during presentations? Do you use self-talk or encouraging statements to control stage fright? Do you reward or motivate yourself when you do well in English? How? Do you avoid eye-contact? Do you share with a friend, family member or your teacher how you feel when learning English?

8. *When you are faced with a difficult task, how do you normally go about it?*

Prompts: Do you ask your colleagues or the teacher for help? Do you ask questions in English for clarification? Do you practise English with other students? Do you ask your colleagues or the teacher for correction when you write or speak? Do you like the Western culture? Why? If you do, how do you get to know more about it? Do you try to talk like native speakers of English?