

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN
THE INSTRUCTION OF ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA—
AN EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE: A CASE OF KAKAMEGA CENTRAL
DISTRICT**

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

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DEDICATION

Special dedication of this work goes to:

My father, friend, great scholar and mentor, the late Prof. Omulando Silas Angoiya,
whose dream continues to unfold through this work;

My mother, who offered counsel and continually encouraged me to work on to the
end of the journey;

And lastly,

My husband Kennedy Anahinga, daughter Debra and two sons, Dan and Dave who
were very patient and understanding through my entire study period; may these little
beautiful angels, who are a great source of strength and inspiration to me, grow to
become great scholars.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this investigation was to establish the language teaching strategies (LTS) and the language learning strategies (LLS) used by teachers and learners respectively; and how they influence the manner in which language teachers conduct instruction in English language in secondary schools in Kenya with particular reference to Kakamega Central District. This was accomplished through the following study objectives: to investigate and establish the language learners awareness and use of LLS; to determine the language learners predisposition to using LLS; to establish the language teachers awareness of LLS; and lastly, to access how LLS influence the manner in which instruction in English is conducted.

The Conceptual framework was based on the principles within the Language Teaching Theory (Stern, 1990). The conceptual framework was composed of the Good Language Learner Model (Naiman et al, 1978) and the Styles-and Strategies Based Instruction Model (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002; Oxford, 2001). The theory and models focus on the fact that both the language teacher and the language learners have certain abilities, skills and knowledge that influence and structure the manner in which language teaching-learning takes place. Stern (1990), Cohen and Dornyei (2002) and Oxford (2001) emphasize the fact that if language learning has to be effective, learners' language learning strategies should influence the manner in which the language teachers structure and conduct the language instructional processes.

The inquiry was a descriptive case study. A total of 12 secondary schools, 36 teachers of English and 72 learners of English formed the study sample. They were selected using the stratified, simple random and purposive sampling procedures. The teachers and learners answered questionnaire, while 36 lessons of English were observed and tape recorded.

The following were established from the study findings: learners were aware of LLS and their uses but they did not appropriately use them. Learners' age, cognitive ability, gender and class levels influenced LLS use. English language teachers were aware of LLS and their usefulness but they did not appropriately apply this knowledge during instruction. Their lessons were predominantly teacher-centred. The more experienced teachers expressed a deeper understanding of their learners' language learning styles.

The results provided valuable SL pedagogical insights; in particular, implications of LLS and LTS to the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools in Kenya.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE STUDY

CLT	-	Communicative Language Teaching
ELT	-	English Language Teaching
ESL	-	English Second Language
F2	-	Form two
F3	-	Form three
F4	-	Form four
FL	-	Foreign Language
FLT	-	Foreign Language Teaching
GLL	-	Good Language Learner (s)
ID	-	Individual Difference (s)
L1	-	First language
LLS	-	Language Learning Strategies
Lr(s)	-	Learner(s)
LTS	-	Language Teaching Strategies
LTT	-	Language Teaching Theory
SILL	-	Strategy Inventory of Language Learning
SL	-	Second Language
SLA	-	Second Language Acquisition
SLL(s)	-	Second Language Learner (s)
SLT	-	Second Language Teaching
SOL	-	Speakers of Other Languages
SSBI	-	Styles and Strategy Based Instruction
Tr	-	Teacher

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Research in Second Language (SL) Learning has over time established that second language learners (SLL) employ certain language learning strategies (LLS) in the classroom in order to facilitate content mastery. Research has shown that these strategies can be utilized by language teachers to enhance language learning (Griffiths 2006, 2004, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c; Hismanoglu, 2000 and Lessard-Clauston, 1997).

It is such a practice in language teaching, which Brumfit and Finnochiaro (1983) argue from the perspective of language teaching procedures (strategies) that they describe as ‘evolutionary’ rather than ‘revolutionary’. This explains their concern about how LLS and language teaching strategies (LTS) are interlinked and applied in the classroom. Richards and Rogers (1986), making a commentary on the issue of the evolutionary perspective to language teaching, emphasize that the traditional LTS should not be rejected but, “be reinterpreted and extended”, (P: 82) to suit the prevailing circumstances in any given language learning context. Thus, “the teaching points are then contextualized through situational practice” (ibid, 82). This practice they feel, “serves as an introduction to a freer practice activity” (ibid, 82) which they acknowledge will enhance language learning. Thus it is expected that ESL teachers in Kenyan secondary schools endeavour to introduce freer language practice strategies that would enhance second language acquisition (SLA) leading to the intended proficiency as set out in the English language learning objectives, (Kenya Institute of Education [KIE], 2002).

The term evolutionary suggests that the already existing LLS can be utilized by the teacher through teaching strategies being modified and improved to suit the teaching of English to specific learners and contexts. In other words, it involves the use of language teaching strategies (LTS), in particular, in secondary schools in Kenya with the main aim of ensuring successful language learning.

In order to understand the basis of this research, the researcher deemed it necessary to provide general information on English as a second language (ESL) and the objectives of teaching English in secondary schools in Kenya covered under the background to the study. The introduction to the study also covers issues on the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, the significance of the study, justification of the study, assumptions of the study, definition of terms, the theory and conceptual framework and lastly the chapter summary.

1.2 Background to the Study

The background highlights information on what a second language is and general issues on pedagogical trends in language teaching, especially about ESL teaching and learning in the Kenyan context.

1.2.1 English as a Second Language

English is considered as a second language (SL or L2) in situations where it is particularly learnt after the first language (L1 or FL), and in some circumstances it is learnt as a third language (L3) or fourth language (L4) or nth language, (Donna, 1991). Furthermore, Colling-ham (1988:81) notes that a SL requires “any level of fluency in more than one language, rather than its more traditional sense of complete fluency in two languages”. Tomlinson and Ellis (1980:1) further explain that “a speaker of

English as a second language usually lives in a country where English is not the native language of the indigenous inhabitants”, in such circumstances they note, it “...is frequently used as a means of communication between speakers of different native languages and as the language of particular activities such as education, commerce, and politics”, among other functions. This is the position English holds in the Kenyan situation. It is used in public, educational, political and economic arenas.

Due to the fact that English is used in public places and sometimes in homes, some children are informally exposed to the language before attending school. They formally encounter it both as a content subject and as a language of instruction when they begin schooling. Tomlinson and Ellis (1980:1) also suggest that during schooling, they also informally “pick it up” when they are not in class because they use it as the language of general communication. It is such an orientation that has led some scholars to consider English as an L1 to some Kenyans rather than as a SL, (Webb and Kembo-Sure, 2000). However it should be noted that:

While it is true that many young children whose parents speak different languages can acquire a second language in circumstances similar to those of first language acquisition... Due to the exposure to the language away from school the vast majority of people are not exposed to a second language until much later... and... the ability to use their first language is rarely matched, even after years of study, by a comparable ability in the second language, (Yule, 1995: 150).

Furthermore learners of ESL experience unique difficulties in trying to cope with a language they are least familiar with in terms of linguistics and socio-cultural aspects. These factors contribute to the reasons why the teaching of English and especially as a SL should be of great concern to any English language educator. Therefore, it calls for great attention to ideas and orientations that ESL learners have in their application to English SL learning.

The knowledge about the challenges the second language learner (SLL) faces, has over the years created debate among linguists and language educators. Critical studies on each of the methods and approaches of English language teaching (ELT) reveal that, there has been a great endeavour over the years to come up with the most appropriate approach which would address most pertinent issues concerning the teaching and learning of languages; and especially as a SL. Richards and Rodgers (1986:1) observe that, “changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency rather than teaching comprehension as the goal of language study”. They further note that these methods have also reflected changes in theories of the nature of language and of language learning.

In an article on crucial differences between L1 and L2 acquisition, O’Neill (1998) suggests that, L2 is not learnt as part of the learner’s general cognitive development because it is not a biologically-driven process. It is not an essential aspect of an individual’s general development, especially when the L2 is simply another subject on an already overloaded school curriculum or something that has to be undertaken by people with busy lives and heavy work loads. For this reason SLLs tend to experience difficulty in learning the language. It is therefore important to critically look into issues concerning ESL teaching.

In learning, the process may either be conscious or unconscious (Krashen, 1981). In the classroom, therefore, “...language learners may consciously learn the language through instruction offered by the teacher or unconsciously/semi-consciously learn the language through exposure to comprehensible input and personal meaningful speech or writing, and through their own engagement with it,” (Ur, 1996:10).

Therefore, well planned and organized conscious instruction in language classrooms can lead to greater opportunity for intuitive language acquisition. Consequently, Broughton et al (1980) suggest that, there are greater needs for a deeper and more informed concern over how a language teacher handles language during the instruction process; particularly a FL or SL.

Due to the problems SLL encounter as they learn the new language, it has been noted by various linguists (Skehan, 1989; Williams and Burden, 1997; Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Stern, 1992; Hismanoglu, 2000; Macaro, 2003; Griffiths, 2006) that they develop certain strategies to enable them learn the SL more easily. The primary concern has been to “identify what good language learners (GLL) report they do to learn a second or foreign language,” (Wenden and Rubin, 1987: 19). The strategies they use as noted by Hismanoglu (2000) can be utilized by language teachers as valuable clues about how their students assess the language, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand and learn or remember new input presented in the language classroom. This implies that the language teacher in the endeavour to use appropriate LTS not only exploits strategies based on available language teaching methodology but also takes into consideration the SL learning strategies used by the learners. According to Fedderholdt (1997:1), “...the language learner capable of using a wide variety of learning strategies appropriately can improve his language skills in a better way.” Therefore it is important that the language teacher takes advantage of this SLL ability to improve his/her teaching methodology especially the LTS used during language instruction.

Further various linguists (Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Griffiths 2006, 2004, 2003a, 2003b, 2003c; Hismanoglu, 2000) attest to the fact that LLS contribute immensely

towards the development of the communicative competence of the students. Lessard-Clouston (1997) puts forward the idea that, these strategies not only develop communicative competences in learners but also help them become better language learners especially in situations where the teachers train the learners to use LLS. He further observes that helping learners understand good LLS and training them to develop and use them can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a ‘good language teacher’.

From the foregoing issues, in order for language teaching to be considered appropriate and one which is fruitful, good language teachers should be liberal enough to realize that the teaching of language does not merely embrace grammatical rules, writing rules and expansion of vocabulary among other linguistic aspects to be learnt, (Yen, 2000). It also encompasses the teachers’ orientation in understanding the SLL well; psychologically, socially, physically and cognitively alongside his/her own understanding of both language learning theories and language teaching approaches and methodology. This vital knowledge will enable the language teacher incorporate new and relevant strategies and modes outside of the traditional scope. As acknowledged by Gathumbi and Masembe (2005: x):

English language learning in second or foreign language situations is usually formal. Teachers in schools face the challenge of teaching a new language, which in most cases is also a second language to them. To succeed in this, they need to use language teaching techniques that work for them in their situations.

1.2.2 The Objectives of Teaching English in Kenyan Secondary Schools

The teaching of English in Kenyan secondary schools has experienced changes over the years. The aim has been to have the most appropriate syllabus, approaches and methodologies that would enhance learning and teaching within a SL situation.

Rogers (2001) observes that in the 1980s the traditional methods came to be overshadowed by more interactive views of language teaching, which collectively came to be known as communicative language teaching approach (CLT). However, CLT has over the years come to be replaced by methods/approaches which focus on the learner, tasks that they may get involved in and language skills to be acquired as a way of enhancing language learning.

With the introduction of the 8-4-4 syllabus in Kenya in the year 1985, the issue of teaching and learning English from an interactive and integrated point of view with the aim of enhancing learner communicative competencies within a learner-centred approach has become of great interest and concern. These are ideas directly linked to the concerns of the more modern language teaching methods whose advocates subscribed to a broad set of principles such as: learners learn a language through using it to communicate, authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities, fluency is an important dimension of communication, communication involves the integration of different language skills, and learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error, (Rogers, 2001).

However, this practice did not get grounded within the teaching and learning of English in Kenyan Secondary Schools. It is this that led to the recent changes in the English Syllabus within the Secondary education syllabus (KIE, 2002). It is noted that the, "...syllabus adopts an integrated approach to the teaching of language". Integration in this perspective implies, "...merging two autonomous but related entities in order to strengthen and enrich both....On yet another scale, integration means that no language skill should be taught in isolation. Listening, speaking, reading and writing should compliment each other," (ibid: 3). It is further highlighted

by Gatumbi and Musembe (2005: 145) that integration is a holistic education which is “...a multi-levelled experimental journey of discovery, expression, and mastery where all learners and teachers learn and grow together...its aim is to nurture healthy, whole, curious persons who can learn whatever they need to know in any new context...”. The whole idea of integration stems from the knowledge that, in actual language use, any single language skill such as listening is rarely employed in isolation from other language skills like speaking or reading. This is because communication, by definition, requires the integration of the four main language skills and the numerous sub-skills. In integrated-skill instruction, learners are exposed to authentic language and are involved in activities and tasks that are meaningful and interesting, (Shen, 2003).

Consequently, the revised integrated English syllabus requires the teacher to come up with the activities which will enhance communication because, “...it has been established that teaching language structures in isolation is not only boring, but it also tends to produce learners who lack communicative competence,” (KIE, 2002:3). The re-organization in the Kenyan English syllabus has been done, “to effectively address integration. English will be taught through the four language skills and grammar. The content for language and literature is therefore covered under these skills. This means the teacher will focus on both the skill and the content. [Hence] making learning more meaningful and interesting,” (KIE, 2006:3).

As already noted, modern language teaching methodology and approaches basically focus on communicative skills and learner centred approaches. Lowe (2003) holds the view that, the key principle is the separation of classroom work into ‘accuracy’ work and ‘fluency’ work. Accuracy work for concentrating on learning new habits of

language (grammar patterns, functional components, vocabulary etc) while fluency work is for getting the students to speak freely (say in discussions). In the same breath, it is emphasized by KIE (2002:3) that, "...a mastery of grammar is important, but is far from enough...in order to speak and write naturally and expressively, the learner must acquire the ability to use these expressions which are an inalienable part of the language". It is further noted in the syllabus that the teaching of English should be on the acquisition of communicative competence and not simply on passing of examinations. In fact, "...becoming proficient in the language is a desirable life time goal", (ibid). The concept of teaching English using the integrated approach focuses on the development of learners' communicative competence. Below are some selected objectives from the general objectives of teaching English in Kenyan secondary schools as outlined by the secondary education syllabus (ibid: 6):

By the end of the course the learner should be able to:

- a) listen attentively for comprehension and respond appropriately;
- b) use listening skills to infer and interpret meaning correctly from spoken discourse;
- c) listen and process information from a variety of sources;
- d) speak accurately, fluently, confidently and appropriately in a variety of contexts;
- e) use non-verbal cues effectively in speaking;
- f) read fluently and efficiently;
- g) read and comprehend literary and non-literary materials;
- h) read and analyse literally works from Kenya, East Africa, Africa and the rest of the world, and relate to the experiences in these works;

- i) make an efficient use of a range of sources of information including libraries, dictionaries, encyclopaedias and the internet;
- j) use correct spelling, punctuation and paragraphing;
- k) use a variety of sentence structures and vocabulary correctly;
- l) communicate appropriately in functional and creative writing;
- m) write neatly, legibly and effectively;
- n) use correct grammatical and idiomatic forms of English;
- o) appreciate the special way literary writers use language;
- p) appreciate the universal human values contained in literary works

A close and critical examination of the general objectives and particularly those mentioned above, reveals a syllabus that intends to produce a learner who is knowledgeable in various language skills; and is able to appropriately and efficiently use this knowledge in both written and spoken communication in a variety of contexts. The objectives clearly point to the fact that, the 8-4-4 integrated English syllabus is grounded on pedagogical precepts expressed in the modern language teaching methods that advocate for learner-centred approaches that are presumed will lead to development of communicative competence. Language teaching methods that consider teacher autonomy; these are language teachers with great intuition and can effectively, creatively and imaginatively handle language instruction processes.

It is noted by K.I.E (2006:13) that “the general objectives of teaching English cover the three domain of learning: knowledge, skills and attitudes.” In the process of instruction the teacher should ensure a balance is maintained in the coverage of the three domains of learning. This can only be done if the teacher adequately understands his/her own knowledge, skills and abilities, the learners and the

environment within which learning and teaching are taking place. In this light, this study therefore wished to establish the nature of the language learning strategies (LLS) used by secondary school learners in Kenya and how they manipulate them during the instructional process to enhance learning of English. The study further sought to shed light on the extent to which teachers of English in Kenyan secondary schools are imaginatively, creatively, effectively and efficiently utilizing the LLS used by learners and that have existed over time to enhance language learning focusing on the demands of the current integrated English syllabus.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Over the years, due to the complexities involved in the acquisition and learning of a language, there has developed a debate regarding the most appropriate approach or methodology that should be used in language teaching, (Richards and Rogers, 1986; Phillips and Sankey, 1993; Ur, 1996; Griffiths, 2006; Canagarajah, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In particular, the 1960's saw some of the most significant developments in modern FLT since the days of the 'Great Reform'. Due to this, language teaching methodologists have at times made quite dogmatic assertions about the rights and wrongs of particular methods. Consequently, applied linguists and teachers concerned with SL and FL learning have been confronted with the task of trying to overcome the pendulum effect in language teaching (Griffiths, 2006; Nunan, 1991; Phillips and Sankey, 1993).

This practice implies that language teaching tends to change regularly from one stand point to another, seemingly with no particular disposition. Nunan (1991:1) further notes that, "the effect is most evident in the area of methodology where facts and fashions, like theories of grammar come and go with monotonous regularity".

Griffiths (2006) and Nunan (1991) particularly point to the fact that language teaching methodologies which encompass and inform various LTS, are important but keep changing and being developed too often. This poses a great challenge to language educators at various levels of learning. It is this orientation that prompted the researcher into investigating the various aspects which guide and help structure instruction for ESL teachers in Kenyan secondary schools, and the kind of LTS they employ during instruction to ensure development of appropriate language skills in the learners and ultimately communicative competences, with a focus on LLS.

Language teaching in African classrooms as it were is handled extremely formally thus contributing to ineffective teaching, (Kembo, 2000). She further notes that such a practice, "...is aimed at correctness (rather than successful communication or appropriateness), sometimes to the detriment of communication", (ibid: 294). Given such a scenario there actually is a problem in ELT; Kenya is an African state and so it is not exempted. This particularly points to the very specific classroom instructional strategies used by ESL teachers that may not be appropriate in fostering the attainment of the stated general objectives especially aimed at producing communicatively competent learners at the end of the four year study of English at secondary school level. It follows that the LTS any ESL teacher opts to use should be the most appropriate within that specific learning context.

Furthermore, it has been established by language educationists that ESL learners develop certain LLS which they have ascertained can be used by English language teachers to appropriate and plan valuable LTS. Hismanoglu (2000) observes that LLS are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of learning a language. LLS can be used to build theories that would seem

necessary for more LLS which would by extension be relevant to current L2 and FL teaching practice.

It is the view of this research that ESL teachers in Kenyan secondary schools are not sufficiently and efficiently manipulating the LLS and LTS at their disposal to effectively address the issues of learner-centred instruction and attainment of communicative competence among the learners. Nunan (1989) emphasizes the fact that teachers should be able to find out about LLS, plan the learning and then use appropriate and preferred LTS. This he considers a basic and important educational objective. Griffiths (2004) poses some questions in relation to the past application of LLS: why has it taken nearly a quarter of a century for research findings to be applied to the classroom? Why do teachers give them such scant attention and understand them so poorly? Why do they receive such cursory treatment in students of other languages (SOL) text books? Why has it taken so long to even establish a generally agreed definition and classification? Therefore, this study sought to establish the extent to which the teachers teaching tasks and materials encourage learners to explore and apply LLS during language instructional processes.

Barasa, (2006) in regard to issues of teacher cognition in Kenyan secondary schools, observes that the new teacher lacks the culture of the appropriate language necessary to form, a 'teaching culture'. Therefore this research further sought to establish how ESL teachers in Kenyan Secondary Schools are utilizing LLS in coming up with appropriate and valuable LTS. Griffiths (2006:6) highlights the fact that "although fierce debates have raged over the issue of appropriate language teaching methods and the various SLA theories in trying to link theory and practice, attempts to find out what learners think have been few and far between."

In light of all the issues raised and the fact that English is important in Kenya, it is worrying that its performance has always been dismal, (Barasa, 2005, 2006; Onyando, 2006; Aduda, 2009). Many scholars commenting on the English KCSE results of 2006 and 2009 examine various issues that would actually be leading to the poor performance in English. One of them concluded that “the English problem in our schools has many facets that need to be addressed,” Onyando (2006: 11). Among these facets, the present research held the view that there is great potential within LLS that can be harnessed by ESL teachers in Kenyan Secondary Schools as a means of enhancing language learning and development of communicative competence among learners.

Most studies have focused on identification of LLS and how they possibly influence SL learning, however most have not looked into how these LLS influence and structure the SL instructional process. Macaro (2003: 109) states that, “one of the most hopeful areas of research indirectly aimed at overcoming demotivation is learner-strategies research”, yet “very few studies have traced the connection between learner-strategy training and increased motivation” (ibid: 110) to language learning. Motivation in relation to this study is considered as an aspect that enhances language learning. This knowledge prompted the researcher to go and assess the learners’ awareness and use of LLS and how these are being utilized by ESL teachers to promote ESL teaching and learning in Kenyan Secondary Schools.

1.4 The Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of LLS used by secondary school learners in Kenya. Further, to establish how these LLS influence the manner in which language teachers structure the instructional process in English

language classrooms to suit language learners IDs, in order to enhance development of communicative competence.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this inquiry was to establish the LLS used by learners in secondary schools in Kenya and how these influence the manner in which language teachers conduct instruction in English.

In order to attain the main objective, the study was guided by the following specific objectives:

- a) To investigate and establish the language learners' awareness and use of LLS
- b) To determine the language learners' predisposition to using LLS
- c) To establish the language teachers' awareness of LLS
- d) To assess how LLS influence the manner in which instruction in English is conducted

1.6 Research Questions

The main research question of this study was:

What are the LLS used by secondary school learners in Kenya and how do these influence the manner in which language teachers conduct instruction in English?

The study was guided by the following specific research questions:

- a) Are language learners aware of LLS and how do they use them?
- b) What are the language learners' predispositions to using LLS?
- c) Are language teachers aware of LLS?

- d) Do LLS influence the manner in which instruction in English is conducted?

1.7 Justification of the Study

Following the changes that have taken place in the last few years regarding the teaching of English in Kenyan secondary schools – leading to the introduction of the revised English syllabus in 2002-2003 – many other changes have had to be experienced. Among others, new teaching materials had to be developed and teaching approaches and methodology had to be reconsidered in order to suit the demands of the new integrated approach syllabus. It is with such knowledge that the researcher was prompted into investigating the manner in which language teachers and learners are coping with the new circumstances, especially regarding the LTS and LLS used by teachers and learners respectively.

Among other general factors affecting the teaching and learning of English in Kenya, Barasa (2005:1) observes that the issue has been “...compounded by the current integrated syllabus of English”. This syllabus requires that a teacher of English at secondary school level be competent in both areas of language and literature in order to be able to integrate skills and content. As noted by K.I.E (2002:3), the “...syllabus adopts an integrated approach to the teaching of language. Integration means merging two autonomous but related entities in order to strengthen and enrich both”. The same idea is expressed by K.I.E (2006:3) which states that, “the English syllabus has been re-organized to effectively address integration. English will be taught through the four language skills grammar. The content for language and literature is therefore covered under these skills. This means that the teacher will focus on both skill and content”. Such a scenario requires that the teacher of English employs certain LTS in order to

marry the two areas to achieve the set objectives. KIE (2006:2) notes that the guidelines offered should help teachers, "...understand the syllabus and develop effective methods of teaching...to provoke the teacher to explore strategies and methods that will enhance the teaching and learning of English".

The mode of content presentation in the revised English syllabus indicates deep rooting within the precepts advocated by the modern language teaching approaches. The whole idea of developing learner's communicative competences (K.I.E 2002; 2006) and great focus on classroom activities that focus on the learner requires that the teacher be more careful during instruction because many teaching approaches/methods have been employed to achieve this goal, (Shen, 2003). However, Richards and Rogers (1986) reflecting on LTS indicate that there are a wide range of teaching approaches/methods that can be employed and thus careful choice and use is required. They ask the question: "How can the range be defined and how can the teacher determine a mix and timing of activities that best meet the needs of a particular learner or group of learners?. This fundamental question cannot be answered by proposing further taxonomies and classifications, but requires systematic investigation of the use of different kinds of activities and procedures in L2 classrooms," (P:82).

After having carried out an investigation into the factors affecting English language teaching in Kenya, Barasa (2005) raises various matters that require further investigation. Among them is, "an urgent need to carry out an investigation into the actual pedagogical activity in the classroom to ascertain how English is currently being taught in Kenyan secondary schools," (P: 84). Furthermore, Chamot (2004) after having carried out an analysis on issues regarding LLS research and teaching in

SL and FL situations, comes to the conclusion that despite the usefulness of including LLS instruction in SL and FL education, much still remains to be investigated. In the same breath, Lessard-Clouston's (1996 and 1998) two studies suggest that L2/FL learning seems to be very much influenced by numerous individual factors, and until then it was difficult to account for all individual LLS, let alone relate them to all L2/FL learning/teaching theories. In another article on LLS, an overview for L2 teachers, Lessard-Clouston (1997) raises a fundamental factor regarding reflections on LLS research and notes that future L2/FL research must consider and include curriculum development and materials for LLS and LLS training which take into account regular L2/FL classes and the learning styles and motivations for the students within them. These ideas further formed a basis for the present research to be carried out, especially because language pedagogical issues are also concerned with LTS and LLS used in language teaching and learning.

In view of the issues raised above, an investigation of this nature geared towards finding out the nature of LTS and LLS used in language teaching and learning within the integrated ESL syllabus in Kenyan secondary schools was necessary.

1.8 Significance of the Study

Pedagogy is the most often forgotten field in language teaching (Broughton et al 1980) yet the most crucial in any instructional setting because it, "... is concerned with classroom management, questioning techniques, lesson planning and teaching strategies and the numerous daily tricks of the trade that separate the professional teacher from the amateur" (Broughton et al, 1980:38). Yet it has been established that language teacher professionalism (Richards, 2008) and aspects of teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, Richards, 2008) are crucial for effective language teaching and

consequently language learning. It was therefore of paramount importance that a study of this nature be conducted to establish the nature of teaching practice and LTS used by ESL teachers in Kenyan secondary schools in the endeavour to produce communicatively competent learners.

The findings highlight the knowledge ESL teachers in Kenya secondary schools have regarding the integrated approach to language learning and teaching, and how such knowledge influences their approaches to teaching that is, the LTS and LLS used during instruction. Therefore, this investigation helps language teachers approach integration from a more professional and informed point of view, taking advantage of the most effective and appropriate LTS that suit the attainment of the objectives of the revised secondary school English syllabus.

The findings bring to light the LLS used by learners in the endeavour to learn English as a SL and how far these influence the manner in which content is presented in English language lessons by the English language teachers. The study also established the most commonly employed LLS and accounts for the learners' predisposition to using them.

The findings outline the LTS used by English language teachers. These results provide adequate information on the most commonly employed LTS and in turn offers explanation for the preferences various teachers may have for certain LTS over others.

The research results provide valuable information on the general pattern of English language pedagogy in Kenyan Secondary Schools. Such knowledge will provide adequate basis for Kenyan linguists, applied linguists, language educators and

language teacher educators in general to come up with appropriate guidelines on the nature of LTS and LLS used; the ones that are most appropriate and in particular suit Kenyan ESL learners and teachers. This knowledge also aids the ESL teacher to effectively, efficiently and more comfortably attain the goal and objectives of the integrated language teaching approach currently being emphasized. Donna (1992:12) emphasizes this by saying that, "...research conducted in formal school contexts...is of great interest and importance to the audience of second language professionals, including programme administrators, teachers and those who prepare teachers...it is both theoretically important and of interest" to them.

The results, the researcher believes can be generalized on the assumption that all Kenyan ESL learners in secondary schools experience similar challenges during the learning process and thus have established common LLS to make easy the language learning process. Consequently, the ESL teacher has developed certain LTS which can be used to address the complexities involved in learning a SL, particularly within the Kenyan secondary schools' learning contexts. This practice, the researcher assumed, is similar to all language learning contexts in terms of the language experienced, physical facilities (desks, space, poor lighting); general size of classes; problem of textbooks; the knowledge, skills, aptitudes, attitudes, and motivations of teachers, their training and experience; and the extreme formality of language, learning context, as mentioned by Kembo (2000), as the realities of language teaching in Africa.

The above ideas are further emphasized by the fact that, "it is hoped that in the future the product of such learner-strategy research can be useful in deciding on the form of intervention programmes that are most appropriate...learner-strategy research should

have an important role in establishing an empirical basis for the components of such intervention programmes in the future,” (Skehan, 1989: 98). Such research is required because SLA research “focuses on the developing knowledge and use of a language by children and adults who already know at least one other language... (and) a knowledge of second language acquisition may help educational policy makers set more realistic goals for programmes for both foreign language courses and the learning of the majority language by minority language children and adults,” (Spada and Lightbown, 2002:115).

1.9 Scope and Limitation of the Study

This section provided information on the scope and limitations of the inquiry. The scope puts forward information concerning the extent and range that was dealt with in this study with regard to the variables under investigation. The limitations provide information on the boundaries of the data, findings and conclusions of the inquiry. Further, it provides information concerning the challenges and restrictions that the researcher faced during the entire research period.

1.9.1 Scope

The study mainly focused on the LTS and LLS used by both teachers and learners in the process of teaching and learning English respectively. The study further sought to establish the most commonly used language strategies by both parties and how these are utilized in enhancing learning and teaching of English. These results aided the researcher in establishing whether they are being used appropriately or not to achieve the main objectives of the revised integrated English syllabus in Kenyan Secondary Schools.

1.9.2 Limitations

The study data, findings and conclusions were limited to the LTS and LLS used during the lessons observed and the responses obtained from both the teacher and learner questionnaires. The quality of the study outcome was fully depended on and was based on the information obtained from the respondents, lessons observed and tape recorded. The study was limited in the nature of literature reviewed because very few studies have been carried out in Kenya with regard to LTS focusing on the learner and the LLS they use during the process of learning English. Therefore, availability of localized literature was limited.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

- a) The study was based on the assumptions that:
- b) English language teachers in secondary schools do base their teaching methodology and strategies within learner-centred approaches to teaching, aspects within the learning environment and the nature of their learners.
- c) Despite language teachers' level of professional qualification and experience, they can effectively identify and use LLS to come up with appropriate LTS.
- d) Learners of English use certain LLS which influence the teachers' LTS.
- e) Learners of English are aware of the LLS they possess and they always and appropriately put them to use in order to face the challenges and difficulties they encounter during the language learning process as a means of enhancing language learning.

1.11 Theory and Conceptual Framework

The study was based on the principles embedded within concepts of the ‘Good Language- Learner’ (GLL) model –a SL learning model proposed by Naiman et al, (1978) and the ‘Styles –and Strategies –Based Instruction (SSBI) model proposed by Cohen and Dornyei, (2002) and Oxford, (2001) as a SL teaching model. These two models according to this study have principles informed by the tenets within the ‘Language Teaching Theory’ (LTT), proposed by Stern (1990). It is within this eclectic thematical context that the study derived a conceptual framework to guide it.

1.11.1 Theory

1.11.1.1 Language Teaching Theory (LTT)

This is a language teaching theory which derives from educational theory. In the LTT, Stern (1990) suggests that there are two major variables that determine and influence the language teaching process. These are:

- The language teacher
- The language learner

These two variables, which he refers to as things “which must have a bearing on educational treatment” (ibid, 500), just like the variables in the GLL model and SSBI, have specific components. The variables in the LTT are age, sex, previous education, and personal qualities (ibid). The specific and unique practices and characteristics of the language teacher, and the language learner characteristics interact at varying degrees leading to either a successful or unsuccessful language instructional process; to bring out certain learning outcomes.

1.11.2 Conceptual Framework

1.11.2.1 Good Language-Learner (GLL) Model

This model comes up as part of the good language-learner study carried out by Naiman et al, (1978). In this model the various variables interact at varying degrees and at different levels to produce a good or bad language learner. These variables are presented in five categories, three of which are independent (causative) variables and two of which are dependent (caused) variables.

The independent variables are:

- Teaching
- Learner
- Learning context

The dependent variables are:

- Learning
- Outcomes

In the instructional process, the teacher must be conscious of how all these factors interact if the language learning process has to be successful. The language teacher in this case must be one who is able to understand and specify each of these variables in relation to the specific components under each, in order to produce a GLL. According to Naiman et al, (1978), each of these five variables has several varying independent influences or variables. The diagrammatic representation in Figure 1.1 gives a summary of these five components and their specific variables.

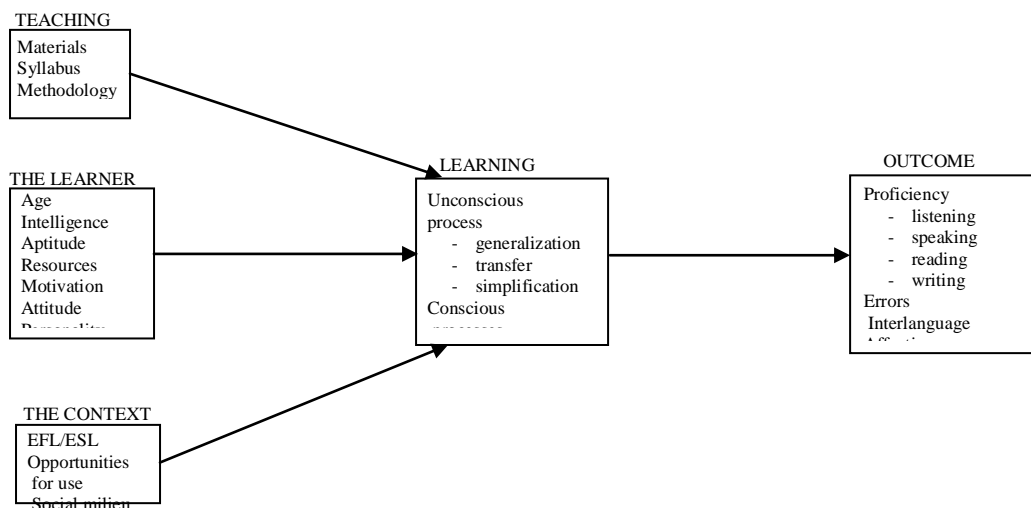


Figure 1.1 Good Language-Learner (GLL) Model (Adapted from Skehan, 1989:4)

The presence, interaction and level of the independent variables determine the nature of the language processes learners are engaged in during language learning and the quality of the outcome. Language processes, both conscious and unconscious, are LLS according to this study. Therefore, if the English language teacher puts into consideration the learning context, teacher teaching skills and knowledge (LTS), and the language learner learning characteristics and personality, then appropriate LLS will be developed leading to desired outcomes.

1.10.2.2 Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) Model

This is a form of learner-focused language teaching that explicitly combines styles and strategy training activities with everyday classroom language instruction, (Oxford, 2001; Cohen and Dornyei, 2002). The underlying premise of the SSBI model is that learners should be given the opportunity to understand not only what they can learn in the language classroom, but also how they can learn the language they are studying more effectively and efficiently. These concepts point to the use of

LLS in language learning. Research on LLS seems to suggest that there are a wide variety of strategies that learners can use to meet their language learning and use needs.

The SSBI model emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of LLS and use in the language classroom. It aims at assisting learners in becoming more effective in their efforts to learn and use the target language. SSBI model helps learners become more aware of what kinds of strategies are available to them. They understand how to organise and use these strategies systematically and effectively given their learning-style preferences, and learn when and how to transfer the strategies to new language learning and using contexts. SSBI model is based on the following series of components:

Strategy Preparation

The language teacher seeks to establish how much knowledge of and ability to use strategies the given learners already have. There is no sense in assuming that learners are a blank slate when it comes to strategy use and language learning. The learners have most likely developed some strategies; the thing is that they may not use them systematically, or they may not use them at all because they may not be aware of them.

Strategy Awareness-Raising

The language teacher alerts the learners to the presence of LLS they might never have thought about or may have thought about but had never used. Awareness-raising activities are always explicit in their treatment of LLS. The SSBI tasks are explicitly used to raise the learner's general awareness about:

- What the learning process may consist of
- Their learning styles preferences or general approaches to learning

- The kinds of LLS that they already employ, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates
- The amount of responsibility they take to their learning
- Approaches that can be used to evaluate the learners' LLS use

Strategy Training

The teacher endeavours to explicitly teach the learners how, when, and why certain LLS (whether alone, in sequence, or in clusters) can be used to facilitate language learning and their use in tackling language activities. In a typical classroom strategy-training situation, the teachers describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful LLS. They elicit additional examples from learners based on the learners' own learning experiences; they lead small-group or whole-class discussions about LLS (for example, the rationale behind LLS use, planning an approach to a specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen LLS); and they can encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of LLS.

Strategy Practice

The teacher encourages the learners to practice with a broad range of LLS. It is not assumed that knowing about a given LLS is enough. It is crucial that learners have ample opportunity to try them out on numerous tasks. These 'LLS-friendly' activities are designed to reinforce LLS that have already been dealt with and allow students time to practice the LLS at the same time they are learning the subject content. These activities should include explicit references to the strategies being used for completion of the task. Therefore, the learners:

- plan for the LLS that they will use for particular activities
- attention is called to the use of particular LLS while they are being used

- review their use of LLS and their relative effectiveness after the activity has ended

Personalization of Strategies

The learners personalize what they have learnt about these strategies, evaluate to see how they are using the strategies, and then look for ways that they can transfer the use of these strategies to other contexts.

Pegged onto the evolutionary perspective to language teaching in the light of the GLL and SSBI models, it was the view of this study that ESL teachers in Kenyan Secondary Schools have at their disposal, an unlimited number and different kinds of LLS which they can use and train learners in during instruction; in particular to come up with appropriate LTS. These are informed by the various variables within the language learning environment and they greatly determine the nature of learning outcomes expected and attained. It is this knowledge that posed concern to the researcher leading to the exploration of the teachers' ability to appropriately, efficiently, effectively and creatively employ LTS from the wealth available.

It has been established that LLS can be utilized by the language teacher to ensure development of communicative competences. Furthermore as noted by Hismanoglu (2000), the question of how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information has been the primary concern of researchers dealing with the area of FL learning. Therefore, LLS, while non-observable or unconsciously used in some cases, give language teachers valuable clues about how their learners assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn or remember new input presented in the language classroom. Therefore, it is through the LTS that the researcher established the

teachers' working knowledge of strategies used by their learners and how they utilized them to enhance language learning within the classroom setting and by extension outside the classroom.

1.12 Operational Terms

<i>Awareness</i>	Learners and teachers knowledge and consciousness of existence of LLS
<i>Communicative Competence</i>	The learners' ability to effectively use the SL in both the written and spoken forms
<i>Evolutionary perspective</i>	Development and use of teaching strategies that are most appropriate in enhancing English language learning; these could be modified from those that have existed overtime
<i>Instructional materials</i>	All the textual materials or text-books used by the teacher and learners during the instructional process
<i>Instructional process</i>	The teaching and learning of English
<i>Integration in Language Teaching</i>	Consideration of the four main language skills together during instruction; consideration of language skills alongside literary skills (Language and Literature) in a lesson and consideration of a variety of LTS during instruction in English
<i>Language Learning</i>	The 'acquisition' of a language through the instructional process
<i>Language Learning Strategies</i>	The techniques or processes used by the language learner to facilitate the language learning process

<i>Language Teaching</i>	Organising the learning environment, language use and language learning strategies
<i>Language Teaching Strategies</i>	The activities, tasks, and learning experiences used by the teacher during the instructional process
<i>Media Resources</i>	All the non-textual things and equipment that the teacher uses to facilitate the teaching and learning process (teaching aids)
<i>Prompting</i>	Language schema (learners' knowledge of the English language and world) activation facilitated by the teacher during the language learning process to enhance language learning
<i>Second Language</i>	Acquisition and learning of an additional language after the first language (L1)
<i>Strategy</i>	Language learning/teaching activity /technique/ process/ procedure

1.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter offered the introduction and background to the present study. This was achieved through outlining the statement of the problem, the study justification and significance, and purpose of the study. A presentation of the theory and conceptual foundation of the study was elucidated. Lastly, a brief definition of the key terms in the study was presented. The next chapter covers the literature review.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Literature reviewed in this study basically dealt with issues related to the various variables under investigation and it also sought to show the need for a study of this nature. The sources of the literature explored included: books, journals, newspapers, thesis reports and web publications. The literature is reviewed under the following framework:

- a) The Conceptual Framework Overview
- b) Teaching and Language Teaching
- c) English Second Language Teaching
- d) Language Strategies
- e) Language Teaching Strategies
- f) Language Learning Strategies
- g) Language Learning Strategies Training
- h) Related Research

2.2 The Conceptual Framework Overview

2.2.1 The Language Teaching Theory

The conceptual framework that informed this study was based on the precepts underlying the language teaching theory (LTT) by Stern (1990). While the learner language learning process is influenced by a great deal of variables, through both implicit and explicit processes, (Naiman et al, 1978), the language teaching process is influenced by the two major variables, teacher and learner as expressed by Stern, (1990) in the LTT .

This scenario clearly presents what is expressed by Bennaars et al, (1994) concerning the relationship that exists between ‘education and learning’ and ‘education and teaching’. These authors argue that because learning can take place even without teaching, learning has a tighter relationship with education compared to that of education and teaching. This concept brings the learner into greater focus in the whole instructional process, especially if the desired learning outcomes are to be attained. However, they emphasize the fact that, for effective learning to take place, there must be effective teaching and that is why it is of paramount importance to focus on teaching as a factor in the instructional process. Stern (1990) argues that, language teaching as an educational activity should at least take into consideration what educational theory has to offer and what language teaching has in common with other educational activities.

The Language Teacher

There are specific characteristics about the language teacher that greatly influence and determine how the whole instructional process will be structured and conducted. These basically include the teacher’s knowledge in relation to: first, skills and abilities in language, second, the language learning and language pedagogy, third, the learners and how they learn language, and lastly, the teacher’s teaching experience. Commenting on the LTT, Barasa (2005:70) notes that, “the teacher of language has a predisposition towards certain language learning and teaching theories” which according to Stern, (1990:500) is based on the teachers “background and experience, professional training as a linguist and teacher, (and) previous language teaching experience.” The context and situation within which SL instruction takes place, will thus, as put forward by Barasa (2005), affect both the teacher and learner, and it will influence indirectly’ the ‘educational treatment’ according to Stern, (1990). Therefore,

any language teacher and learner should bear in mind the influence of these variables if the main reason for teaching or learning the language is to develop acceptable communicative habits. All these variables about the language teacher constitute what is referred to as *teacher cognition* (Borg, 2003 and Richards, 2008) and *language teacher professionalism* (Richards, 2008).

The Language Learner

The characteristic variables of ‘the language learner’ as discussed in the GLL model (Naiman et al, 1978) under the ‘learning’ and ‘the learner’ variables are the same as those suggested by Stern, (1990) in the LTT , as they influence the language teaching process. In addition, he notes that, age and gender also determine how a learner learns language. This means that, the teacher must be aware and conscious of the specific and unique learner characteristics that influence the language learning process in one way or another as means of enhancing language learning and fostering effective language teaching.

2.2.2 The Good Language-Learner (GLL) Model

The GLL model as presented by Naiman et al (1978) has five main variables: three independent variables and two dependent variables. An overview of the five variables is presented hereafter:

Independent Variables

a) Teaching

Good teaching is very important for effective language instruction. Bennaars et al (1994) and Broughton et al, (1980) acknowledge the fact that poor teaching hampers learning and language learning respectively. The process of teaching is influenced by a number of factors which the teacher must consider to ensure successful language

learning. It is further noted by Gathumbi and Masembe, (2005:x) that “the decision made on what to do in a particular lesson depends on the assessment made of all the factors involved in teaching the students in that situation.” These according to Naiman et al (1978) as presented in the GLL model, Figure 2.1, are: materials, syllabus, methodology and resources. Below is a description of each and how they influence the language learning process:

Materials –materials in this context are considered from a narrow perspective with particular reference to *textual materials* only. Materials in the instructional process are very vital because they are the major and most commonly used resources through which teachers ensure that language learning takes place more efficiently and effectively. Textual materials “have long been the foundation of the learning processes other forms of media can be used in conjunction with, and as supplements”, (Newby et al, 1996: 69). Therefore they must be chosen very carefully, Broughton et al, (1980: 134) mention that when considering the choice of materials to teach from “they must not only be constructed on sound educational and linguistic principles but also be suitable for the age groups of the students and suitable for the part of the world they are to be used in,” thus the great importance of the focus on the learner and the context in which language is being taught. They further note that it is the duty of the teacher to adapt the material to the needs of the individual class as far as he can. The material must be considered for its linguistic level, cultural appropriateness, appropriate length and one which learners will find interesting.

Syllabus –a syllabus is usually obtained from a curriculum. The curriculum and the syllabus are not prepared by the language teacher. In the case of Kenya, they are usually designed and prepared at national level by education specialists assigned the

task by the Ministry of Education (MoE) at the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). A syllabus usually outlines the content to be covered and long term objectives of teaching the subject. It also offers guidance on the forms of methodology that can be used in the instructional process. However, the language teacher should not, as emphasized by Gathumbi and Masembe (2005:167), consider the syllabus implementational, “the syllabus is not sacrosanct as the subject matter is not detailed. It only provides a framework for language teaching. It is therefore, the onus of the teacher to decide how to use it,” specifically so because “the syllabus...is usually not within the control of most ordinary teachers,” (Broughton et al, 1980:133). From the syllabus the teacher is expected to come up with an appropriate breakdown of the topics, appropriate and effective LTS to ensure effective and efficient language teaching. It is necessary that a language teacher understands the syllabus and how the content relates and builds in order to implement it effectively. This can be achieved through effective instructional planning by use of well thought out schemes of work and lesson plans that encompass all the variables that Naiman et al (1978) consider under the ‘teaching variable.’

Methodology – in the field of language pedagogy, methodology encompasses the terms approach, method and strategies (classroom practices/ techniques/ activities/ procedures) and they are related as indicated in Figure 2.1.

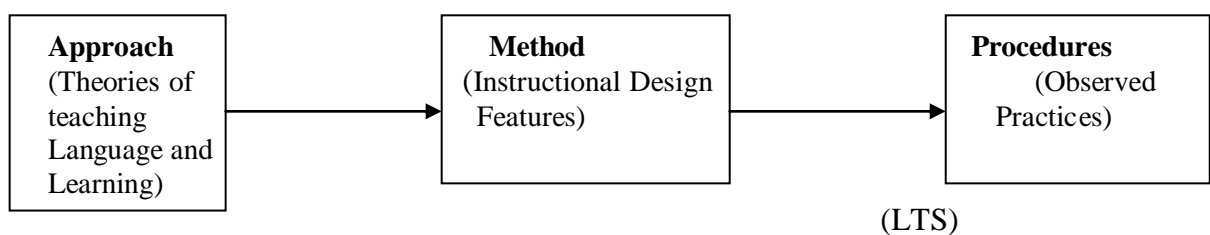


Figure 2.1 Approach, Method and Procedure relationship
(Adapted from Rogers, 2001)

Any methodology chosen must be both effective and efficient. These can be measured by the language teacher gauging the learning outcomes. According to Mukwa and Too (2002:37) “if the retention of the transfer of information or skill learned is greater than another, and also takes a shorter time, then that method is more effective and efficient for teaching a specific objective than other ways of teaching.” In order to achieve this, “it is, however, important to note that there is no one particular method or technique that has been known to have a magic solution to all teaching problems,” (Gathumbi and Masembe, 2005: x). Further they emphasize that “integration of various teaching techniques has been known to hold the key to various teaching techniques and methods,” (ibid, x). Similar thoughts are expressed by Barker and Westrup, (2000:6) who after an analysis of various approaches to language teaching note that:

There are many ways to teaching and learning English. The effectiveness of each teaching method depends on your situation and on the needs of your students...using activities from a variety of teaching methods helps students to learn better. This is because using different approaches, activities and materials makes learning more interesting and gives all students an opportunity to make progress. It also means that you can incorporate new ideas gradually; starting with what is familiar and slowly introducing new methods.

Resources – resources in this context include *human resources* and *audio-visual aids* the teacher uses during language instruction. The resources available within the teaching environment determine how effectively and efficiently language teaching is conducted. Pollard et al, (2002: 77) observes that “equipment is very significant because it is often through the use of equipment that young children are able to get appropriate learning experiences in school.” Considering the classification of various resource types, they identify four categories that are essential in education as: people, buildings, equipment, and materials. It is noted further that “in both quality and

quantity, these resources have an impact on what it is possible to do in schools and classrooms,” (ibid, 76).

b) The Learner

Learners, as observed by Griffiths (2006), are ‘the most variable’ among the many variables in the language learning process. It should be noted that there are great similarities in the manner in which a SL is learnt, however, within these similarities exist a great vast of variables that bring about what is referred to as ‘variability in language learning’ and individual differences (IDs). The variables identified in the GLL model are as follows: age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality and cognitive style. All these are common variables that have been considered by many researchers (Skehan, 1989; Mcgroarty and Oxford, 1990; Lessard-Clouson, 1997; Piper, 1998; Griffiths, 2006) interested in LLS, and they have been established as major factors that determine and influence, in varying ways, the manner in which SL is acquired and/or learned. This is highlighted by Piper (1998: 104) who contends that:

It is fairly obvious that there is more variation among second language learners than among first language learners. Because second language learners are older than first language learners, they will have had a variety of linguistic, learning, and life experiences that infants learning their first language will not. While any number of learner factors may influence that course of language development, researches have identified a number of general factors believed to contribute to individual learner differences. Among these are age, aptitude, cognitive variation, and personality traits.

It is due to the orientation the SLL have in the learning environment that they eventually develop LLS to make their learning of the SL a manageable task. The development and use of LLS is directly influenced by the nature of the learner as expressed in the variables mentioned above.

c) The context

The structure of the learning context is greatly shaped by whether English is being learnt as an L1 or as a SL. The context in second language acquisition (SLA) is quite varied as indicated by Piper (1998) and Griffiths (2003). Many factors come to play leading to great learner variability and IDs. The context will focus on the opportunities available for such learners to communicatively use the language as it would be used in real life situations. Modern language teaching methodology emphasizes ‘contextual language instruction’ and use. Concerning the context in language learning, Broughton et al, (1980:42) observe that “foreign language should always be taught in a contextualized form. And when the learning is being done in a class situation, every member of the learning group should recognise the context.” This approach provides opportunity for authentic language practice and use in the classroom and within the learning environment. This will enhance communicative competence of the learners in the target language. However, they go on to say that “teachers often have difficulty in contextualizing (items of language). The immediate classroom environment...is an obvious source of contextualized language which is common to the experiences of a group of learners...visual aids are an invaluable contextual resource,” (ibid, 42). The whole idea of contextualized language teaching is further emphasized by Piper, (1998:109) who observes that:

An important aspect of language learning environment seems to be the availability of visible referents. It is much easier to understand a language in which one has limited proficiency if there is adequate context...talking about what is present and observable helps the learner to understand and is thus crucial to acquiring language.

Therefore, the more authentic the language learning experience is, the more the opportunities available for development of communicative competence among the SL learners.

Dependent Variables

a) Learning

Skehan (1989:4) describes learning as “the process of developing one’s competence in the target language,” therefore the processes Naiman et al (1978) mention under learning, are geared towards SL proficiency. The nature of language learning that takes place according to these scholars is a product of how the independent variables: teaching, the learner and context, interact during the instructional process. Proficiency in the target language is possible if the learner will go through the learning process as described by Mukwa and Too (2002:30) “as a process of change rather than a product. As a rule, learning results into a relatively permanent change in behaviour as a function of experience, training or practice.” The key words in relation to language learning are *experience*, *training* and *practice*. Any language learner requires having an experience with the target language, appropriate training and sufficient practice to enable them ‘acquire’ the SL. This is a concept very closely related to the behaviourist view to language acquisition where the stimulus, response and reinforcement experienced determine the level of habit formation. That is, language learning as a permanent change in behaviour.

The picture presented in the GLL model seems to imply that both the conscious and unconscious language processing processes are kinds of LLS. All these are considered processes in the language development and learning process. However, the conscious aspects bring about individual variation in language learning and use. While the unconscious aspects are basically considered to be universal to all language learners, they may only occur at different times in the language developmental process.

b) Outcome

Outcome has to do with the end result or product of the whole instructional process. The learning outcomes are expected to be in line with the set learning objectives of that particular language task. Outcomes offer information on how the learners interpret and respond to the whole instructional process. In the GLL model, aspects of proficiency in the main four language skills are an overbidding factor because their sufficient mastery gradually leads to development of communicative competence. This is only possible where the language teacher allows interaction among the independent variables to facilitate development of appropriate LLS leading to desired outcomes.

Naiman et al (1978) in the GLL model acknowledge the fact that in the learning outcomes, the language teacher is likely to encounter errors made by the learners, and these come up during the SL learning processes. Errors may even lead to the development of an ‘interlanguage’ –a language which develops mid way between the L1 and the SL. Broughton et al (1980) offer an elaborate explanation on the issue of errors in SL learning and how they influence the SL learning process. They are of the view that language teachers should not view errors negatively but rather as a process towards the development of fluency in the target language. They raise the fact that:

More recently, the mentalists have put forward a different view of errors, which has gained wide acceptance. The argument in its strong form runs that a learner must make errors as an avoidable and necessary part of the learning process, so errors are not the bad thing once thought but visible proof that learning is taking place, (ibid, 135)

This particular process of learning, these scholars are describing, is what Selinker (1972) calls the *interlanguage period*. The learner is involved in making guesses and

approximations of what they deem the correct way of expression in the target language. “The process is one of hypothesis formulation and refinement, as the student develops a growing competence in the language he is learning, he moves from ignorance to mastery of the language through transitional stages, and the errors he makes are to be seen as a sign that learning is taking place,”(ibid, 135).

Naiman et al (1978) also suggest that affective factors influence the nature of the learning outcome; this in particular plays a vital role in determining the kind of LLS a learner develops and uses. Therefore the teacher must be aware and conscious of the fact that such aspects of attitude and prejudice determine the manner in which SLA takes place and what the learners feel towards the target language.

In summary, Skehan (1986) observes that the GLL model explains in a detailed manner most if not all the factors that are likely to affect and influence how a SLL learns the SL, in order to produce a GLL or a bad language learner. In general he concludes that the GLL model has three main advantages in relation to explaining SLA. These are:

- It allows us to see the range of potential influences on language learning success and demonstrates what varied influences there are in SLA
- It encourages quantification of different influences on SLA
- It offers some scope for conceptualizing interaction effects in the SLA process

2.3 Teaching and Language Teaching

In any educational system, teachers must be concerned about their learners and how best they can work towards attaining the best possible outcomes. Therefore, as observed by Grossman and Shulman (1994), teachers must immediately pursue new

campaigns of the mind and spirit, setting the highest standards for students' intellectual achievements. They must become deeply concerned with the knowledge and skills their students develop and with systems of education and assessment designed to foster those accomplishments. Thus a thorough understanding of the teaching process and the whole concept of language teaching is crucial.

In order to understand what language teaching is and involves, it is necessary that the term 'teaching' is defined. The concept of teaching is viewed from different perspectives by various scholars, (Bennaars et al, 1994; Farrant, 2002; Copper, 2003). The definition by Farrant (2002:168) is considered, he notes that "teaching and learning are opposite sides of the coin, for a lesson is not taught until it has been learned. Teaching, therefore, can be thought of as a process that facilitates learning". It is further emphasized by Bennaars et al (1994) that the relationship between education and learning is tighter as compared to that between education and teaching. Learning according to these scholars is always a product of education, while not all learning is always a product of teaching. It is necessary that the teacher is aware of both forms of learning because they eventually both determine the nature of learning outcomes, especially in language learning situations. They note, learning is "contingent upon many factors some of which have to do with the nature of resources provided, teaching techniques and condition of the learner" (ibid, 53).

In the same breath, Aggarwal (1995) does offer a more elaborate description of what he considers as the various facets of the learning process. These are:

- Who is to learn (child)
- From whom to learn (teacher and environment)
- Why to learn (aims of learning)

- What to learn (acquisition of knowledge, skills etc)
- How to learn (methodology)
- When to learn (motivation)
- Where to learn (classroom , playing field, etc)

He observes that the above require that any teacher “must acquire a sound knowledge of learning, its nature and its process, (making) teaching-learning effective, efficient and inspirational. He should know well the operations and approaches to use proper strategies and if needed to evolve new strategies of teaching-learning,” (ibid, 60-61). This whole process is depended upon the nature of teaching conducted because “it is possible that learners may be taught but fail to learn anything,” (Bennaars et al, 1994: 53). This implies that ‘poor teaching’ will undermine the goal of learning, while ‘good teaching’ will facilitate the process of learning and the attainment of the set instructional objectives. Therefore, all teachers must be well oriented in educational issues and equipped with appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to effectively and efficiently handle any instructional situation. The teacher should be in a position “to respond in appropriate ways to the differing learning needs of individuals and the varying circumstances of particular situations,” (Farrant, 2002:168). Teaching has to do with the teacher helping the learners to behave in new and different ways; thus “the effective teacher is one who is able to bring about intended learning outcomes,” (Cooper, 2003:2).

The concept of teaching then implies that, in the instructional process the central focus should not only be on the teacher and the content to be taught, but also on the learner who should be considered as a very important player. Such an instructional process will address three fundamental questions as outlined by Bennaars et al (1994):

1. How is it going to be conceived in relation to the needs of the learner?
2. How is it going to be understood in terms of requirements of the content of education in order to bring about the desired results?
3. How is it to be characterized in terms of the needs of the society, society's aims and value?

This basically comes down to the conclusion that effective “teaching involves the teacher and the learner...teaching...ought to take into account the needs and interests of the learner and the structural requirements of the context of learning”, (ibid, 60).

In the general history of teaching and learning, the central focus has been on the teacher. Students and the learning environment have received remote attention yet they are powerful components of effective teaching. Garrison and Archer (2000:116) discussing issues on approaches to teaching note that:

Prior to the 1970s, it seemed reasonable to study teacher effectiveness by focusing on specific teacher behaviours. This was a logical deduction from the then powerful behaviourist school of psychology, which tended to view education as a linear process in which one adjusted stimuli in order to produce desired responses. One of the stimuli that could be manipulated was teacher behaviour, particularly presentation techniques. Techniques for giving feedback to students so as to produce desired response were also given some attention, as were classroom management techniques. However, little attention was given to the values and beliefs upon which teachers based their decisions. There was even less attention paid to student thought processes, and the desirability or worthwhileness of the proposed learning outcomes.

However, recent approaches to teaching emphasize the role of the learner and the learning environment in facilitating the learning process. Farrant (2002:169) highlights thus:

Modern teaching recognizes that the process of education is not a simple matter of presenting and receiving knowledge but is a process that involves the whole of the personality and is affected as much by physical, social and economic factors of

environment as by teachers. This realization has made teachers much more conscious of the value of the school and the classroom as aids in support of their own programme of direct teaching. Their aim is to provide a favourable educational environment.

The ideas above do apply to all areas of study, and therefore, they point at important facts about the teaching and learning processes that can comfortably be applied in the area of language teaching and learning.

2.3.1 Language Teaching

The ideas presented earlier lead us into asking ‘what is language teaching?’ The definition of language teaching as presented by Donna (1992:10) is adapted here: “Language teaching is defined broadly as creating situations that promote second language use and learning.” Therefore, any language teacher should ensure that the most conducive environment is created within the classroom to facilitate the teaching process and enhance the language learning ability in the learner. It is further noted that, language “teaching involves organizing learning environment and language use /or language learning tasks and activities that are intended to facilitate students’ language development,” (Stern, 1983:21).

In order to understand language learning and teaching in the context of this study, it is important that the terms LTS and LLS be explained. According to this investigation, LLS are those processes the learners go through when learning and using language in order to enhance language learning and use. While LTS are those specific classroom activities and actions the language teacher utilizes in order to enhance language instruction. LLS have been defined by various linguists in various ways. According to Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) learning strategies are “... any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage and use of

information”. These scholars further explain that LLS “are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly,” (ibid, 22). Richards and Platt (1992: 209) state that LLS are “...intentional behaviours and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn or remember new information”.

Teaching and learning of a language goes beyond the usual instructional process in class. That is, the presence of a teacher, the learner and the lesson content. The language teacher is required to manipulate the situation to ensure that the most appropriate LTS are used in order to enhance language learning. The choice of strategy should be guided by the nature of the learners, the learning conditions, the topic to be covered and the teachers’ knowledge, skills and ability to use that strategy. Harmer (1991: 260) observes that, “before teachers can start to consider planning their classes they need to know considerable amount about three main ideas: the job of teaching, the institution and the students”. In regard to these factors, he observes that the language teacher should consider the stages and techniques in teaching focusing on reproduction and communicative activities. Equally, attention should be paid to the repertoire of activities-directing students in the acquiring of receptive skills; being familiar with the syllabus the institution has for the levels being taught. In addition, the knowledge the learners bring to class about the language and their performance in that language; and finally what the students need, why they are studying the language, are all important.

In order for a language teacher to have a balance in the above mentioned factors, he must be well grounded in the issues of language, language learning and language teaching methodology. Cooper (2003:3-6) suggests five areas of knowledge and skills

required by any teacher if they must be effective. These are: “command theoretical knowledge about learning and human behaviour; display of attitudes that foster learning and genuine human relationships; command knowledge in subject matter to be taught; repertoire of teaching skills that facilitate student learning; and personal practical skills”. A language teacher who possesses these, and well understands the connection between the nature of language and language teaching, is one who well understands his instructional environment. He will be able to appropriately manipulate them to suit that environment to produce the desired learning outcomes. Broughton et al (1980: 38-9) note this about the language teacher, “the more the knowledge he can glean from the wealth of writing in the field, the better he will be able to combine his knowledge with practical experience to produce a suitable teaching methodology for his own purposes”.

This knowledge emphasizes and directs us to the fact that, a teacher of language must possess sufficient knowledge in language acquisition-learning theories, linguistic theories and language teaching approaches and methodology. The nature of language and the way it is taught and learnt are very important things that the language teacher should know. Kohli, (1992:288) argues that:

It is very important for all those connected with the teaching of language to know its nature and the way it is taught and learnt. Our methods of teaching language will differ whether we regard it as collection of words or a system or whether we consider correctness in it to be based on perspective grammar or on the usage by the native speakers of the language. Good teaching and sound educational policy will depend on proper understanding of the nature of language and how it is learnt.

Kohli, (1992:288) further emphasizes that “language teaching in the last few decades has been greatly influenced by our understanding of the nature of language”. It is further observed by Richards (2008: 160-161) that:

A common observation on the state of English language teaching today compared with its status in the not too distant past is that there is a much higher level of professionalism in ELT today than previously. By this is meant that English language teaching is seen as a career in the field of educational specialization, it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience, and it is a field of work where membership is based on entry requirements and standards. The professionalism of English teaching is seen in the growth industry devoted to providing language teachers with professional training and qualifications, in continuous attempts to develop standards for English language teaching and for English language teachers.

Rogers (2001), notes that, methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways as that which links theory and practice. Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how it is learnt, or more specifically, theories of SLA. Such theories he suggests are linked to various design features of language instruction. The language teacher must consider the objectives, syllabus specification, types of activities, and roles of teachers, learners, and materials among others during the preparation and process of learning.

Nunan (1991) considers methodology from the classroom perspective and he observes that, “the major focus is on classroom tasks and activities and the management of learning,” (P: 2); in language teaching the main focus is usually on the skills to be learnt because language is composed of various skills; both micro and macro skills. Therefore a language teacher’s knowledge in methodology should enable the teacher conduct lessons aimed at the development of the various language skills, macro-skills and communicative skills. Lowe (2003) believes that every one skill has its place in the grand pantheon of language-teaching approaches. Aware and experienced teachers will be able to utilize all the language skills in an intuitive, and yet consciously integrated way, in their classrooms to achieve the set objectives.

Despite this knowledge about the importance of language teaching and learning and the importance of the tasks, activities and LTS to be used in class, many language teachers have concentrated on content delivery. Harmer (1991) notes that, “many methodologies have concentrated not so much on the nature of language input, but on the learning tasks that students are involved in, ” (P: 34). However, as he further points out, there has been an agreement that rather than pure rote learning or decontextualised practice, language has to be acquired as a result of some deeper experience. It is this deeper experience with the language that the researcher believes can be attained by the teacher’s creative, imaginative and effective use of LTS to develop communicative skills in the learners.

Language teaching is not just about teaching; it is about helping students know the language, thus the link that exists between ‘linguistic competence’ and ‘communicative competence.’ Conscious learning is thus seen as only one part of the methodological approach which also encourages acquisition through a large amount of input. A significant emphasis on the use of language in communicative tasks and activities enhances development of communicative competence. Learning to use a language involves a great deal more than acquiring some grammar, vocabulary and a reasonable pronunciation; it also involves the language used to suit the situation, the participant, the basic purpose and to interpret other speakers to the full, (Broughton et al 1980).

Due to the skill required by the language teacher to manipulate the learning situation in order to ensure development of communicative skills, language teaching is considered an art. Prator (1976) notes that, “language teaching has always been and remains more of an art than a science. That is to say, it is largely intuitive and

dependent on personal abilities and conditions of the teacher. Most teachers' success is the result of such qualities as enthusiasm, intelligence, and love for students". The same view is held by Yen (2002) who explains that language teachers should be liberal enough to realize that the teaching of language does not merely embrace grammatical rules, writing rules and expansion of vocabulary.

This focuses on the fact that a change in the language teaching methodology is required. One teaching language must not forget that there are so many important tools that affect and/or even promote language teaching. Among these tools are the LTS and LLS, which can only be effectively used if the teacher possesses appropriate teaching skills. Such teaching skills lead to effective teaching because they enhance decision making processes, professional practice and creation of classroom activities that promote 'natural' language acquisition. Furthermore, such repertoire is necessary if teachers are to be effective with learners who have varied backgrounds and learning aptitudes. Such a teacher is observant, analytical and can appropriately modify his/her teaching behaviour, (Cooper, 2003 and Donna, 1992). More importantly to note is that "the teacherability of a language depends upon the extent to which certain language skills are learnable, the characteristics of the individual learner, and the match between learner and teaching strategy... Their teacherability depends upon a synergistic balance of interacting skills and knowledge bases," (Power and Hubbard, 2002: 25).

2.4 English Second Language (ESL) Teaching

Recent developments world wide in the teaching of English have tended towards communicative and heuristic approaches with much of their emphasis on the learner, non-linguistic content, issues of integration and communication skills (Wilkins 1976,

Littlewood 1981, Van EK and Alexander 1980, Yalden 1983, Holec 1980, Howatt (1984), Brumfit and Johnson 1979, Savignon 1983, Widdowson 1978). These ideas have come up due to one of the sentiments popular in some SLA circles nowadays, namely the notion that formal instruction is often inefficient and of limited value to SL success. Shen, (2003) observes that, since the 1970's more and more researchers have come to agree that the aim of learning language is to acquire the communicative competence of using the language, rather than the pure linguistic competence. Yule (1995) in particular notes that, the functions of a language should be emphasized rather than the forms of that language. A number of teaching approaches and methods have been employed to achieve this goal.

The vast number of language teaching methods has led to the problem in the choice of the most appropriate language teaching approaches/ methods to use. Today the argument is about the worth of 'methods' and specifically the new concept of placing the learner at the centre of instruction and going beyond methods. Canagarajah, (2006:12) mentions that "we are no longer searching for yet another more effective and successful method; instead, we are questioning the notion 'methods' itself." He further argues that, "it is difficult to make comparisons of this nature because the conditions are not the same. The ground has been shifting under our feet, and the professionals of different periods are simply attempting to respond to the changing needs and conditions," (ibid, 13). This debate has led to what is now referred to as the 'postmethod condition' (Canagarajah, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2006) and the 'period of awakening' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) which they regard as a shift from the 'method based pedagogy' to the 'postmethod pedagogy'.

The postmethod pedagogy has led to the ‘focus on the learner’ and the learner-centred instruction, the teacher is freed and not tied down to wholly focusing and depending on the language teaching approaches and/or methods. In this regard, Canagarajah (2006:14) observes that “we are now compelled to orient ourselves to our learners in more specific ways, taking into account their diverse learning contexts and needs.” Kumaravadivelu (2006) does offer a more detailed explanation of the orientation of the postmethod condition, and the attempts to respond, in a principled way, to a felt need to transcend the limitations of the concept of method. He notes that, “any actual postmethod pedagogy has to be constructed by teachers themselves by taking into consideration linguistic, social, cultural, and political particularities,” (P: 69).

Prabhu, (1987:172) in this connection says that there is no need for a best method, what is of great importance is the need for the teachers to learn “to operate with some personal conceptualization of how their teaching leads to desired learning-with a notion of causation that has a measure of credibility for them”. The ideas expressed here about the issue of ‘methods’ in language teaching are very valuable with regard to effective SL instruction in the light of LTS and LLS. The whole idea of ‘method’ should not be considered by teachers as the only way to make instruction effective. However, it is important to mention that, these methods have valuable theoretical basis upon which language teachers can draw some knowledge in order to better the instructional process. The concepts expressed in the ‘postmethod condition’ present a situation where a critical analysis of the content, learning environment, L1 and L2 acquisition-learning, learner characteristics, teacher knowledge and experience, learner and teacher roles during instruction and methodology are to be considered seriously and consciously. The whole debate on ‘methods’ is well summed up in the thoughts of Kumaravadivelu (2006) that, it is beneficial to look at the task for what it

is: a curricular content rather than a methodological construct. In other words, different methods can be employed to carry out language tasks that seek different learning outcomes.

In regard to this, Broughton et al (1980), further suggest that anyone who aspires to be entirely professional about teaching English as a FL would ask the following questions: Are pupils reading, writing, listening or talking? Are they practicing the production of correct forms or are they practicing the use of forms they have already learnt? Are they operating grammatical rule, a collocation pattern, or an idiomatic form of expression? Are they using words, phrases and sentences in appropriate contexts to convey the message they actually intended to convey? Are they concentrating on accuracy, on language or communication? Any language teacher who is able to appropriately provide answers to these questions, these scholars consider, will be in a very good position to ascertain the nature of language activity taking place, therefore be able to engage appropriate LTS.

Such knowledge informs the evolutionary perspective to language teaching through the use of appropriate LTS used by language teachers. It is the responsibility of the language teacher to offer direction on exactly what should be done in language classrooms regarding LTS and LLS, all embedded within the existing language acquisition and learning theories along side language methodologies that seem to work best. Gathumbi and Masembe (2005:x) emphatically note that “a conscious understanding of second language learning principles helps teachers to examine those principles critically and to make the necessary adjustments thereby improving their teaching.”

In a discussion on theories, grammar and methods in SL learning, Macaro (2003) notes that in his view, there are two most fundamental questions in SLA research:

1. Through what processes do learners learn a SL?
2. How can teachers best enable and support those processes?

His discussion points to the very fact that these two questions have not adequately been addressed because “research based theories of L2 acquisition have paid insufficient attention to classroom-based learning, preferring to scan a broader horizon of acquisition in general and often in experimental laboratory-type setting” (ibid, 21) and that “about 30 years ago, researchers decided to stop researching ‘clear-cut methods’ in order to see what worked best...they began to focus much more on the process of learning and on specific sub-components of the interaction between teaching and learning rather than the overt pedagogical behaviour of the teacher” (ibid, 21).

This is not a straight forward issue and its understanding requires great knowledge on issues to do with language acquisition, learning and pedagogy. Grossman and Shulman, (1994:4) posit that “even so the question of what teachers of English should understand if they wish to teach a domain responsibly is no simple challenge”. These ideas focus on the issues of theory and practice in language teaching; these two pose a problem and seem to part ways, as teachers have to construct much knowledge from the nature of their specific students and learning environments. Despite the fact that these are based on established theory, in practice every teacher is expected to manipulate their own circumstances to attain effective learning; thus the focus on LLS to come up with appropriate LTS.

The foregoing discussion on ESL teaching clearly points to the fact that LTS and LLS are vital components of the language teaching process due to the current shift from the focus on the teacher to the learner in the language classroom. That is, from teacher-centred approaches to the more learner-centred ones, where both teacher and learner autonomy are encouraged. Such an orientation to ESL teaching is valuable. All these ideas clearly point at the importance of focusing on the learner in the language instruction process. This is what Canarajagah (2006) refers to as ‘postmethod condition’ in language teaching and the ‘period of awakening’ according to Kamaravadivelu (2006).

It is of paramount importance to note that teachers of English need both the implicit and explicit teaching knowledge, (Grossman and Shulman, 1994). More specifically, referring to the teaching of reading texts, they note that teachers must draw on their knowledge of their students and those students’ backgrounds. These as well as their knowledge of the texts, and their knowledge of common and uncommon readings of central texts, and their knowledge of multiple critical theories, will help them to interpret students’ readings. This orientation to SL teaching is closely linked to the whole concept of LLS and LTS and how these determine the success of any instructional process in the teaching of English.

2.5 Language Strategies

Strategy can be considered a classroom activity, specifying the teacher-learner roles in a language classroom. This is “a loose term used to give general description of what will happen in a classroom...what generally and physically, the students are going to do”, (Harmer, 1991:266). The roles of both the learner and the teacher are very important during the instructional process. Richards and Rogers (1986) devote much

attention to teacher and learner roles in language instruction. They point out that a 'method' will reflect assumptions about the contributions that learners can make to the learning process through the aid of the teacher. They suggest that learner roles are very closely related to the functions and status of the teacher which is greatly controlled and determined by the methods the specific teacher chooses to use. They further note that some methods are totally teacher dependent, while others allow the teacher some freedom of control and learner autonomy during the instructional process. Such methods give the teacher the role of a catalyst, consultant or guide.

However, it is important to note that it has been established that the use of strategies is not a common practice in traditional language teaching methodology. Nunan (1989) highlights the fact that strategies require that learners adapt to a range of roles which are relatively uncommon in traditional instruction. In this regard, he outlines a variety of learner roles brought out in the language teaching methods available and three of these that are learner centred are:

1. The learner is involved in a process of personal growth
2. The learner is involved in a social activity, and the social and inter-personal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological processes
3. Learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning how-to-learn.

According to Canagarajah (2006) the focus is on the teacher acknowledging the importance of the classroom and the learners as a practical way of handling language teaching. This is what he refers to as the 'postmethod condition'. He notes that 'postmethod condition' in language teaching "frees teachers to see their classrooms and students for what they are and not envision them through the spectacles of

approaches and techniques,” (ibid: 20). This study extrapolates this view to understand the ‘postmethod condition’ ensures the creativity and critical practice where teachers can be ‘transformative intellectuals’ (Brown, 1991) and ‘evolutionary’ (Brumfit and Finnochiaro, 1983).

This raises the issue that both the teachers and learners have specific language strategies used in order to make the language teaching and learning processes successful. This has led to the application of *the strategy instruction method* to language teaching and learning. Griffiths (2006:6) observes that:

although the effectiveness of strategy instruction has been questioned...others have developed highly effective strategy instruction models...research has shown that, under the right conditions, strategy instruction can be effective (Nunan, 1995; O’Malley, 1987)...most researchers agree on the importance of explicit strategy instruction and of integrating strategy instruction into the regular coursework, although implicit and discrete instruction may well also be useful to reinforce strategy awareness... and to promote transferability to tasks beyond the language class....

Very closely related to the *strategy instruction method* is the *learner strategy approach* as proposed by Canagarajah (2006). He highlights the fact that the learner strategy approach is a product of the postmethod pedagogy where “strategies are different from traditional methods...they are not prescriptively defined nor do they have to be applied rigidly across learning contexts, strategies thus function as heuristics by which appropriate pedagogies can be developed from the bottom-up”, (P: 20). This clearly points to the fact that LTS should be classroom practices that are purely contextual and functional. They will be applied depending on the teaching and learning situations.

Research has established that LLS are employed by all learners. However, this is done at varying levels and could either be conscious or unconscious when processing

new information and performing tasks in the language classroom (Hismanoglu, 2000). This scholar further observes with reference to language teaching that, since the language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new in-put and difficult tasks given by their instructors, learners always attempt to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required. This particularly implies that, using LLS is inescapable. Therefore, the SL teacher is required to be very careful to come up with LTS that will suit the individual and specific learner(s) language learning needs.

Hismanoglu (2000), notes that during instruction LLS are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning. In the context of this study any strategies used during instruction should be based within an existing language teaching approach or methodology in order for it to be useful and appropriate, (Ur, 1996 and Richards 1990). Such a practice will enhance the development of language and consequently, communicative competence.

In relation to the postmethod approaches that advocate for ‘strategy instruction’ the LTS are also very important and must be consciously worked on for effective and efficient language learning to take place. Canagarajah, (2006:20) observes that “postmethod approaches articulate a set of macrostrategies that are well motivated by research considerations to function as larger frameworks within which learner strategies should be employed.” Kumaravadivelu (1994: 32) defines these macrostrategies as “broad guideline[s] based on which teachers can generate their own situation-specific, need-based micro-strategies or classroom techniques.” Canagarajah, (2006:21) argues that there is a connection between LLS and LTS in effective language instruction. He notes that:

Such macrostrategies complement the microstrategies articulated by learner strategy practitioners, facilitating critical and constructive learning rather than indulgence in one's own preferred styles and strategies. Negotiating divergent and competing strategies can develop a metapedagogical awareness of the different potentialities of language and learning...postmethod realizations thus initiate a significant shift away from the traditional paradigm, representing alternatives to the impersonal packaging of methods on the one hand and individualistic learner-centeredness on the other.

A teacher's own experience should enable him/her to manipulate any language teaching situation, (Ur, 1996). Therefore, utilizing the most appropriate language teaching and learning strategies to attain the desired outcome, conforms to the 'evolutionary perspective' to language instructional strategies.

These strategies have to be selected carefully especially in a SL situation because of the complexities and variations involved in SL learning and teaching. Nunan (1991: 4) highlights the major concerns of SL education in relation to the language skills to be learnt and strategies to be used during classroom processes and choice of teaching materials. He notes that, "...in terms of language processing, it is now generally accepted that learners need access to both top-down as well as bottom-up processing strategies". This scholar defines the bottom-up processing strategies as those that "...focus learners on the individual components of spoken and written messages, that is, the phonemes, graphemes, individual words and grammatical elements which need to be comprehended in order to understand these messages...". The top-down processing strategies are defined as those that, "...focus learners on macro-features of text such as the writer's or speaker's purpose, the topic of the message, the overall structure of the text..." among others, (ibid: 4). This concept is closely related to Skehan's (1989) description of LLS; they can be located in two main categories: the

simple operations on linguistic materials, these are acquired first and then the sophisticated strategies emerge later.

Both types of processing strategies have over the years been thought necessary in the learning of the four major language skills (Richards, 1990; Carrell et al, 1988; Nunan, 1985, 1989 and 1991; Macaro, 2003; Griffiths, 2006) and consequently enhancing processing of the sub-skills involved in each case. Therefore, the use of appropriate strategies in teaching any language is of great importance and this too has been acknowledged in the ESL teaching circles in Kenya. The Secondary English Teacher's handbook (KIE, 2006) is a guide to help the teacher understand the syllabus and develop effective methods of teaching. The examples presented in the book, should not be perceived prescriptive to be followed and used to the letter. Rather it is emphasized that "...they should be used to provoke the teacher to explore strategies and methods that will enhance the teaching and learning of English," (ibid: 2).

Therefore, the evolutionary view to language teaching and learning strategies, as suggested by Brumfit and Finnochiaro (1983) becomes a very important factor in successful language teaching. It is further argued by Yen (2002) that language teachers should move away from conventional methods of language teaching and incorporate new and relevant strategies and modes outside the traditional scope.

2.6 Language Teaching Strategies (LTS)

2.6.1 Definition and Features

Antony (1963) conceptualizes the idea of a teaching strategy as a technique, "which actually takes place in the classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective," (63-7). Therefore a LTS can be

considered as that technique; trick or activity a language teacher uses to accomplish the language teaching and learning objectives in a classroom situation. Further, Antony (1963) explains that techniques must be consistent with a method and in harmony with an approach as well. In the same vein, Richards and Rogers (1986) hold a similar view and argue that these are classroom procedures that include teaching a language according to a particular approach. This they suggest can be accomplished in three major ways, namely:

1. the use of teaching activities (drills, dialogues, information-gap activities, among others) to present new language and to clarify and demonstrate formal, communicative, other aspects of the target language;
2. the ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practicing language;
3. the procedures and techniques used in giving feedback to learners concerning the form or content of their utterances or sentences.

In the light of this, the teacher has great autonomy in the instructional process. He or she has the power to determine what and how to teach. Therefore, the role of the teacher during instruction is underscored by the following view:

Teacher talk is important and has been extensively researched and documented. In language classrooms it is particularly important because the medium is the message. The modifications which teachers make to their language, the questions they ask, the feedback they provide and the types of instructions and explanations they provide can all have an important bearing, not only on the effective management of the classroom, but also on the acquisition by learners of the target language, (Nunan, 1991: 7).

Nunan (1991), points to the fact that “the role of the teacher is...very important in any teaching strategy, especially since his direct participation can range very widely, from complete control over what is learnt to minimal intervention,” (Farrant, 2002: 168). In relation to the various roles the teacher could take up during language instruction Richards and Rogers (1986) suggest that learner roles are closely related to the

functions and status of the teacher. They point out that teacher roles are related to the following issues: the type of function the teachers are expected to fulfil (director, counsellor, model); the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; the degree to which the teacher is responsible for content; and the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

Consequently, the teacher must be very careful in the choice and use of various LTS if they desire successful language instructional processes because when planning for instruction:

the teacher makes decisions about their students needs, the most appropriate goals and objectives to help meet these needs, the content to be taught , the motivation necessary to attain their goals and objectives, and the instructional modes and teaching strategies most suited and the attainment of those goals and objectives...some teaching skills include ‘observing pupil behaviour, diagnosing pupil needs, setting goals and objectives, sequencing goals and objectives and determining appropriate learning activities related to the objectives, (Cooper, 2003:11-12).

It has been established that “too many teachers still think of teaching simply as the process by which they ensure that children learn essential facts and cognitive skills. Too few recognize the importance of teaching children how to learn and how to use what they know,” (Farrant, 2002:168). This is the concept behind the teacher having to identify LLS to come up with appropriate LTS that will enhance language learning. The use of appropriate LTS promotes motivation in learners towards learning the language (Macaro, 2003; Griffiths, 2006). In particular, Griffiths (2006:10) notes that:

students ability to speak depends not only on the classroom techniques used by their teachers, but also on a multitude of other factors such as their level of motivation, whether they are sufficiently strategically aware, whether the teaching method suits their style, whether they have adequate vocabulary to manage the task they are being asked to perform, whether they have had enough opportunity to practice, and so on.

All of these involve decisions on the part of the teacher, and good decisions are essential if student empowerment is to be effectively facilitated.

Broughton et al (1980: 47) have the view that “the language student is best motivated by practice in which he senses the language is truly communicative, that is appropriate to its contexts, that is his teachers skills are moving him forward to a fuller competence in the foreign language”. This is highlighted in the results from a study carried out on student experiences in learning language by Phillips and Sankey (1993) who note that “from the comments a larger measure of the pupils enjoyment was derived from factors such as the nature of the lessons and the teaching style of their teachers rather than factors associated with the languages themselves,” (P: 93). In the same study they found that the teacher and his/her teaching approach was the most influential factor.

The argument that obtains is that the teacher of English language must be innovative enough to present the lesson content in the most meaningful, productive and interesting manner to help match the learners’ style of language learning with the target language skills, (Power and Hubbard, 2002). This can be accomplished through the language teaching procedures used during language instruction, embedded within LLS. Lessard-Clouston (1997) notes that for all SL teachers who aim to help develop their students’ communicative competence and language learning, then, an understanding of LLS is crucial. LLS are particularly important processes in language learning because they facilitate direct learner involvement thus enhancing development of communicative competence, (Oxford, 1990a).

Well-prepared language teachers have a large repertoire of authentic language activities for their classrooms. These activities direct learners in acquisition of language skills that aid them in organizing genuine and purposeful communicative activities. This requires much ingenuity on the teachers’ part because teaching must

be organized systematically, be exciting and appropriate to the class (Harmer, 1991; Broughton et al, 1980).

It is thus of paramount importance that “teachers should attempt to understand students’ conceptions and encourage students to reflect upon their conceptions...teachers must provide the time for students to reflect upon current and new conceptions...this approach will also sustain learning beyond the classroom,” (Garrison and Archer, 2000: 126). In language teaching, the use of language as it would be used in real life contexts is believed to contribute greatly towards the development of fluency, thus enhancing the development of communicative competence among the learners. This can only result from the unlimited and varied LTS that a language teacher can employ during instruction.

2.6.2 Language Teaching Strategies and Classroom Techniques

There are a number of scholars who have considered various classroom techniques that can be used in learner-centred approaches, some of these have been considered hereafter. In a discussion on ‘basic classroom techniques’, Haycraft (1978) suggests fifteen classroom techniques that he finds useful, while Marton and Ramsden (1988) have suggested eight specific teaching strategies. On the other hand, another set of five classroom activities (LTS) has been suggested by Peck (1988).

1. The following are the common features found in the three varying LTS:
Highlighting the inconsistencies within and the consequences of learners’ conceptions
2. Presenting learners with new ways of seeing content
3. Checking through different modes of questioning and testing
4. Making learners conceptions explicit
5. Fixing through the use of practice and repetitions

However the difference is noted as thus:

Haycraft (1978) suggests the following LTS:

1. Look at all students in class
2. Do not go around the class
3. Include everyone
4. Make sure class is seated in the best possible way
5. Limiting teacher talking time
6. Write clearly
7. Encourage your students
8. Take account of different levels in class
9. Deal with individual problems
10. Use pair and group work
11. Use learner names correctly

Peck (1988) suggests the following LTS:

1. Modelling (through the use of tape recording)
2. Marton and Ramsden (1988) suggest the following LTS:
3. Integrate substantive and systematic structures
4. Focus on a few critical issues and show how they relate
5. Create situations where learners centre attention on relevant aspects
6. Use reflective teaching strategies

These classroom techniques clearly point at a language teacher who is interested in specific language learning habits of each learner. These closely relate to teacher activities (LTS) advocated for in LLS based instructional methods as is the focus in this study.

Despite the fact that Marton and Ramsden (1988) LTS are not particularly directed towards language teaching, they form a good basis of reference because they are sound educational practices that could be applied to any learner-centred instructional situation. When compared to those by Haycraft (1978), they are a more detailed and specific reference to the LTS a language teacher could use. Garrison and Archer (2002: 125) making a commentary on these strategies and how the teacher should use them during instruction, observe that:

Most importantly, these strategies should be directed towards constructing or acquiring the 'big-idea', not only to create interest and effort but to provide order to complex subject matter. It is essential that learners do not become overwhelmed with non-essential facts and information but, instead, first focus on the core idea and organizing concept. Once the organizing concept is understood, it can be expanded by anticipating applications and implications, through this testing process learners can enhance their understanding by rounding out the concept through direct and vicarious experiences as well as acquiring additional facts and information.

These comments directly link to the reasons why learners use LLS in the language learning process. Therefore, they form valuable guidelines for a teacher who is focused on improving SLL learning abilities.

From a study carried out on teaching a text with reference to these LTS, Peck (1988: 33-4) reports that "a detailed comparison of different teachers' methods of presenting FL texts show whether or not they use all the five constituent teaching strategies (it is in fact comparatively rare to observe teachers who systematically apply each of these five strategies to a given presentation text)". However, he observes that this practice also reveals the range of techniques which each teacher uses to model a text or to teach its meaning. This implies that a teacher may choose to teach a text depending on

the nature of the text, their specific teaching/learning environment and the nature of their learners.

These observations show that each language teacher has a wide range of LTS they can explore during the instructional situation. These classroom activities also directly link to the teaching processes proposed in the SSBI model (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002 and Oxford, 2001) and the focus on language learning in the GLL model (Naiman et al 1978). SSBI model focuses on LLS training, with emphasis on creating awareness among the learners on the use of LLS, giving them sufficient practice in authentic language situations to allow for the natural use of the various LLS.

Kumaravadivelu (2006:69) notes that, “the construction of a context-sensitive postmethod pedagogy that is informed by the parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility entails a network of ten *macrostrategies* derived from the current theoretical, practical, and experiential knowledge base,” these strategies are: maximize learning opportunities; facilitate negotiated instruction; minimize perpetual mismatches; activate initiative heuristics; foster language awareness; contextualize linguistics input; integrate language skills; promote learner autonomy; raise cultural consciousness; and ensure social relevance.

These macrostrategies are the ones Kumaravadivelu (2006) says that the language teacher can creatively use to come up with what he refers to as micro-strategies or classroom activities, which according to this research are being referred to as LTS. He notes, “in other words, macrostrategies are made operational in the classroom through microstrategies,” (ibid, 69). He further observes that by exploring and extending macrostrategies to meet the challenges of changing contexts of teaching, by designing

appropriate microstrategies to maximize learning potential in the classroom, and by monitoring their acts, teachers will eventually be able to devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant theory of practice. In the context of this study, these practices are collectively considered as the ‘evolutionary perspective’ (Brumfit and Finnochiaro, 1983) to language teaching; the teacher is able to evolutionarize the language instructional process.

A critical analysis of the LTS above has clearly indicated that there is a vast range from which the language teacher can choose what is deemed most appropriate in attaining the lesson goals and achieving desired learning outcomes. What comes through is the fact that the language teachers must have a clear understanding of pedagogical issues, the learner characteristics and needs, the content being taught and his/her own knowledge, abilities and experience. All these factors and many others, determine how the instructional process is manipulated to promote effective language learning with reference to LLS. The LTS and ideas presented in this section formed the basis upon which the LTS used by the language teachers in this study were analysed.

2.6.3 Language Teaching Strategies and Teacher Cognition

‘Teacher cognitions’ are defined as “the unavoidable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think,” (Borg 2003: 81). Borg (2003) observes that much research has been done in this area and assumptions on which it is based are now largely uncontested. This definition according to this study summarizes the many aspects the language teacher is supposed to consider if they are to appropriately use LTS. As Borg, (2003: 81) explains “teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized,

and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs,”. In explaining the importance of teacher cognition Freeman and Richards (1996:1) also express the fact that “teacher cognition has been shown to be an important factor in successful learning and, as teachers, we cannot avoid our ‘pivotal’ role in the classroom”. These views are similar to those held by Richards (2008:167) who emphasizes that:

Constructs such as teacher’s practical knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and personal theories of teaching noted above are now established components of our understanding of teacher cognition. From the perspective of teacher cognition, teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and the learned skills. It is viewed as a much more complex cognitively-driven process affected by the classroom context, the teachers general and specific instructional goals, the learners’ motivations and reactions to the lesson, the teacher’s management of critical moments during a lesson (also) concerned with teachers’ personal and ‘situated’ approaches to teaching.

In relation to the Kenyan context, specifically from a study carried out in Kenya on English language teaching, Barasa (2005) notes that teachers influence the learning situation by bringing to class their previous experience in language and “a lot more, their pre-service training in English, their theories of language learning, which influence how they teach,” (P:74). Therefore the role of the teacher during the instructional process should be considered seriously. The classroom practices, that is LTS, they engage in should be thought out and used in order to positively influence the language learning process.

In mainstream educational research many studies “have shown that teacher cognition and classroom practice exist in ‘symbiotic relationships’,” (Foss and Kleinsasser, 1996:441) and the same is reflected in the findings from the mainstream literature in language teaching which show that language teachers’ classroom practices are shaped by a wide range of interacting factors. “Teacher’s cognitions, thought, emerge

consistently as a powerful influence on their practices, though...these do not ultimately always reflect teacher's stated beliefs, personal theories, and pedagogical principles," (Borg, 2003:91). He seems to imply that teacher cognition goes beyond the teacher and the knowledge he/she has of pedagogy in English; a whole world of factors can be considered under teacher cognition. This is any aspect about the teacher that can be manipulated to ensure effective and efficient language teaching. In this context therefore, the use of LTS according to this study is considered from evolutionary approach.

Borg (2003) gives a summary of the cognitive influences on language teacher's classroom practices from available literature. This summary indicates that there is a wide range from which language teachers make decisions concerning certain classroom practices. All the seven sources examined indicate that among other practices, issues to do with learner characteristics and their needs, influence the manner in which instruction is conducted in language classrooms. The following summary (Borg, 2003:92-93) shows those cognitive influences on language teachers' classroom practices influenced by the teacher's sensitivity towards the learners and LTS to be used:

Bailey (1996) Teachers' in-class decisions to adapt from lesson plan based on a number of principles, two of which are:

- Accommodate students' learning styles
- Promote students' involvement

Breen (1991) Seven pedagogic concerns, focused on three main variables, one of which is:

Focused on the learners; concern with learners':

- Affective involvement

- Background knowledge
- Cognitive processes assumed to facilitate learning

Breen et al (2001) Five super ordinate categories of teacher concern, three of which are:

- A concern with how the learner undertakes the learning process
- A concern with particular attributes of the learner
- A concern with how to use the classroom and its human and material resources to optimize learning

Burns (1996) Three interacting *contextual levels* of the teacher thinking, two of which are:

- Teachers' beliefs about language, learning and learners
- Thinking about specific instructional activities

Gathbonton (1999) Six general domains of pedagogical knowledge, two of which are:

- Knowledge about students and what they bring to the classroom
- Knowledge about techniques and procedures

Johnson (1992) Eight categories of instructional considerations, five of which are:

- Student involvement and motivation
- Student affective needs
- Student understanding
- Student language skills and ability
- Appropriateness of teaching strategy

Richards (1996) Teachers explain their decisions in terms of maxims, among which are:

- The maxim of involvement: follow the learner's interests to maintain student involvement

- The maxim of encouragement: seek ways to encourage student learning
- The maxim of conformity: make sure your teaching follows the prescribed method
- The maxim of empowerment: give the learners control

In order to fully conceptualize the idea of teacher cognition a close look at Borg's (1997) diagrammatic representation will be very helpful. He presents a very clear schematic conceptualization of teaching within which teacher cognition plays a pivotal role in the teachers' lives; view Figure 2.2.

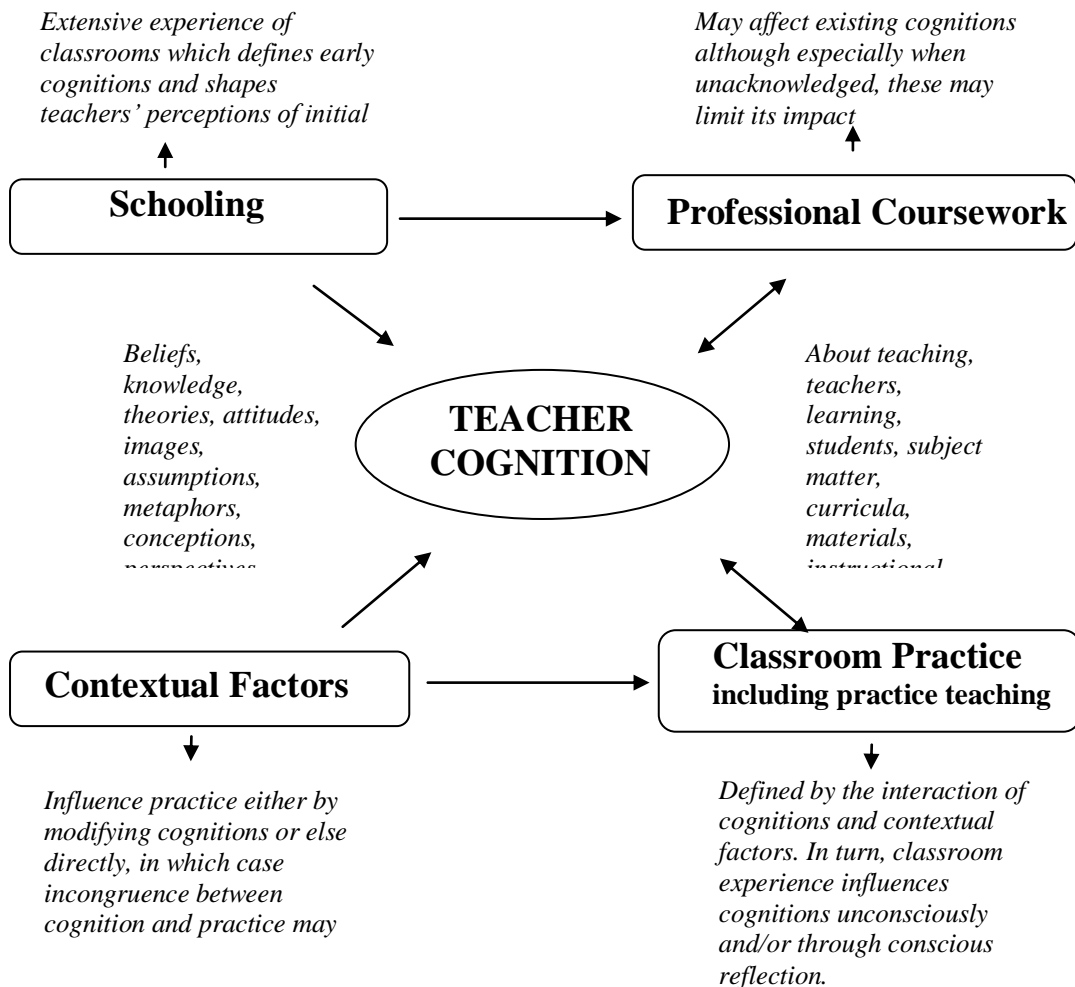


Figure 2.2 Teacher Cognition, schooling, professional education, and class practice: (Borg, 12997, adapted from Borg, 2003)

Figure 2.2 portrays a situation where issues surrounding the knowledge that the teacher of English should possess are many, complex and have far reaching implications on the nature of instruction provided. These ideas are emphasized by Grossman and Shulman (1994: 5) who assert that “the very multiplicity inherent in English as a subject matter, however, is precisely what makes teacher knowledge such an important issue to grasp”. Thus English offers the teacher greater freedom of expression and experimentation within the classroom setting, leading to a situation whereby the English language teacher has to identify and emphasize the main purposes of instruction focusing on the intended learning outcomes in relation to the desired behavioural changes in the learners. If informed decisions have to be made, “the potential for individual autonomy within the subject matter of English places greater demands on the teachers’ understanding of the subject ...” (Grossman and Shulman (1994: 5). Therefore, the whole concept of teacher autonomy within the circles of language teaching and is well summarised by the concept of ‘teacher cognition’.

Important to ask at this point is: How do language teachers construct knowledge about the teaching of English? The nature of language “requires teachers to make decisions about which particular aspects of language arts to emphasize at particular times. What guides teacher thinking and decision making in these contexts? Teachers’ knowledge and understanding of literature and other language arts provides a potential source for pedagogical reasoning,” (ibid: 6). These aspects form a part of what is referred to as ‘teacher cognition’.

2.7 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

2.7.1 Language Learning

Learning is a process very closely associated with the learner in the instructional process. It is an activity basically accomplished by the learner but facilitated by the teacher through teaching. According to Farrant (2002: 106) “learning is the process by which we acquire and retain attitudes, knowledge, understanding, skills and capabilities that cannot be attributed to inherent behaviour patterns or physical growth.” Learning in this context can be influenced by the nature of learner relations to their physiological and psychological orientations, and the environment within which learning is taking place. It is for such reasons that the learners must be seen as a very important factor in the instructional process.

Lessard-Clouston (1997) and Hismanoglu (2000) point out that within the field of education over the last few decades a gradual but significant shift has taken place, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning. In relation to this, focusing on issues to do with involving students in learning, Shostak (2003: 78) notes that, “in the early 1990’s the focus was on teaching and measuring effective teaching performance. Now the emphasis has shifted and professional educators have turned their attention to the task of involving students in learning.” Research has shown that language classrooms are considered complex social environments, where characteristics of learners have implications for instructional processes and effects that teachers have on student learning. “Learning is viewed as a social process heavily influenced by the sociolinguistic, ethnic and cultural characteristics of students. Students are able to make their own meaning and construct knowledge,” (ibid, 78).

Rausch (2000) attests to the facts expressed in the practice of learners being at the centre of the instructional process. He notes that an important part of mastering a foreign language is mastering learning. Mastering of the fundamentals of learning is not only important in aiding language learners in (1) consolidating vocabulary, (2) acquiring basic structures, and (3) accumulating the necessary linguistic and communication skills, but (4) such mastery of learning skills puts the learner in active control of their own learning processes. The process of becoming successful at learning nurtures learners who are autonomous and seek individualized approaches to specific learning objectives.

This change, Lessard-Clouston (1997) notes has been reflected in various ways in language education and applied linguistics, thus shifting the instructional focus to the learner. This has in the long run, in the circles of SL teaching and learning, brought about the concepts and practice of the ‘learner-centred curriculum’ (Nunan, 1988, 1995) and ‘learner-centeredness as language education’ (Tudor, 1996). Consequently, the focus on and use of LLS in SL and FL learning and teaching have become of great concern, (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Hismanoglu (2000) and Richards and Rogers (1986) observe that the prominent shift in the field of language learning and teaching over the last 20 years has put emphasis on the learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. More recent language teaching methods allow the learners some level of control over the learning process.

Nunan (1989:80) focuses on the fact that “learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning-how-to-learn”. He further notes that this point “raises the important issue of learners developing an awareness of themselves as learners” in the learning process, (ibid: 80). Such a process according to

Nunan (1989:20) “of course implies a major change in roles assigned to learners and teachers...one opens to the student the possibility of planning and monitoring learning.” In this regard, Skehan, (1989:4) says that “there are learner strategies which imply some degree of learner control and distance from the actual process of learning.” The focus on the learner during language instruction is a noble and yet very necessary practice because:

Language is learnt by children informally yet, by the time they are of school age, they are able to communicate well with their peers and adults around them even though the standard of language reflects the wide variations of their individual backgrounds. Experience and language development are very closely associated, as can be observed from the manner in which children verbalise as they touch things and act out their experiences in play, (Farrant, 2002:172).

This is a valuable ability in the learner that the language teachers, especially SL teachers, can make use of in order to facilitate the SL learning process through LLS. With regard to LLS Nunan (1991) notes that, “an area of increasing significance to language teaching methodology is that of learning strategies, and there has been a marked increase in the recent years in research into the learning strategy preferences of second and foreign language learner”, (P: 7). This is how the whole concept of LLS comes into picture in the language teaching and learning process in relation to this study.

2.7.2 Definition of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies (LLS) in this sense are “the specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills”, (Oxford, 1992/1993: 18). She further notes that they facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. They “are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability,” (ibid:

18). Rubin (1997: 22) views LLS as processes “which contribute to development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly’. Therefore, SLL are forced to develop certain strategies to help them through the process of learning the L2/SL due to the differences between the L1 and L2 and the environmental conditions under which they learn the SL.

LLS are not a new phenomenon in issues to do with language acquisition and language learning. They have been widely explored under issues do with individual differences (ID) in language development, (Skehan, 1989; Power and Hubbard, 2002). This knowledge is important in informing the SL teacher about the processes involved in FL acquisition and how this knowledge can be applied in a SL situation. This fact is best explained by the ideas that “...first language and second language acquisition have two essential elements in common, namely the learner and language, it is not surprising that the theories devised to account for them would have at least basic similarities,” (Piper, 1998:103).

In situations where these factors have a variation on the manner in which language is learnt, then we have the situation of IDs in language learning coming up. Due to the language development variations experienced among L2/SL learners, instruction in L2 poses a great challenge. Aspects of IDs are many and varied. Currently, this phenomenon and LLS have attracted a great deal of attention among applied linguists, language educators, researchers, and students, (Mcgroarty and Oxford, 1990). As noted by Griffiths, 2006:3, that is why:

Since the mid 1970s, researchers have been trying to discover how good language-learners learn languages other than their first (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al, 1978; Oxford, 1990; Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Hismanglu, 2000). The early good language-learner studies focused on strategies, in the belief that, if we could find out

what it is that good language learners do to be successful, this knowledge could be taught to less successful learners. However, although the strategies-focused studies added a useful dimension to pedagogical understanding at that time, it soon became obvious that the full picture was much more complicated.

This has been made more complicated mainly due to the vast complexities and variations involved in SL teaching and learning. Mwaniki (2005:37) observes that, this has led to a situation where “teaching a language as a foreign or second language is a major pedagogical preoccupation worldwide. It is necessary to ‘know about’ a language before one can teach it as a foreign language successfully.” Thus language educators have carried out observations among L2 learners to establish whether and how the language development process in L1 influences, determines and/or offers direction and explanation regarding L2 learning (acquisition) and L2 instruction. They are mainly concerned with finding out “how valuable the classroom is a place to learn a second language,” (Barasa, 2005:68). This has led to the great focus on the SLL and the instructional procedures (LTS) employed by SL teachers.

Therefore, current methodologies in FLT and SLT emphasize so much learner-centred approaches, where the direct focus in classroom instruction is on the learner. This is exemplified by Tomlinson (2003) in a discussion on ‘differentiating instruction for academic diversity’ that in learner-centred instruction the teacher should allow the learners to reflect their understanding of subject matter and raise questions about what they are studying, putting the learner centre stage during instruction. She further observes that it is important to consider learner differences because classrooms are diverse in many ways. There will be representation of both genders, multiple cultures, different experiential backgrounds, range of exceptionalities, differing readiness levels, varying interests and motivation, a variety of learning styles and varying

cognitive abilities among others. This implies that all the teacher does in class should, according to Harmer (1991), be with the consideration of the learners' age, sex, social background, motivations and attitudes, educational background, knowledge, interests and needs. That is, the teacher should "know who the students are, what the students bring to the class and the students need", (ibid:262). He emphasizes that "such knowledge, due to the unique characteristics each group of learners' possess will aid the language teacher in planning for instruction by selecting the activities that will be suitable for the students,"(ibid:262).

Furthermore, in the process of planning for instruction the teacher should know that "it is important, however, to remember, that language is a complex phenomenon, with an almost infinite number of variables to be considered, none of which develops in isolation. The variables may relate to the learners themselves, to the ways learners behave, to factors in the learning situation, or to what it is that is being learnt,"(Griffiths, 2006:3). The manner in which these variables interact will greatly determine the nature of learning outcomes. It is further emphasized that teachers of language should endeavour to look at tasks the way the learners view them. This is because learning outcomes are greatly influenced by learners' perceptions of the nature and demands of a task, (Nunan, 1989). Therefore, the teachers' role and understanding of their learners' differences and variations is thus very crucial for the success in language learning.

The learner centred approach to language teaching not only focuses on the learner as above, but also on how learners process new information and what kinds of LLS they employ to understand, learn and remember information. McGroarty and Oxford (1990:56) argue that within the FL teaching profession, "interest in understanding and

improving instruction through more sophisticated understanding of the teaching/learning cycle is growing. One means to this increased understanding is more comprehensive knowledge of the process learners use as they acquire a second language...second language learning strategies are keys to language mastery.” Considering the reference to FL learning in relation to SL learning, Lessard-Clouston (1997) clarifies the fact that the term LLS is used more generally for all strategies that both L2/SL and FL learners use in learning the target language.

Research in SL learning has established that SL learners employ certain language strategies for more successful language learning. These strategies are used because these learners encounter the language when another is already established and this is likely to bring about errors in SLA and the development of an interlanguage. Many researchers note that not only are learners infinitely variable within themselves, but there are also great variations in the ways each individual learner may choose to behave when faced with leaning situations and learning targets. Successful language learners are able to self-regulate during language learning process, (Dornyei and Skehan, 2003; Dornyei, 2005). Griffiths, (2006:5) further explains that, “in order to do this, they may, for instance, employ strategies; they may think metacognitively; or they may act autonomously.” Good language learners (GLL) have been shown to frequently use a large number of LLS (Green and Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003a; 2003b) and “in particular, higher level students use strategies related to managing their own learning, to vocabulary, to grammar, to the use of resources and to all four language skills,” (Griffiths, 2003a; 2003b).

Hismanoglu (2000) notes that all language learners use LLS either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language

classroom. This is because the language classroom is like a problem solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks given by the instructors. They thus, attempt to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using LLS is inescapable. LLS “require learners to adopt a range of roles which are relatively uncommon in traditional instruction. They require the learner to be adaptable, creative, inventive, and most of all independent,” (Nunan, 1989: 81). In this sense learners are seen as constructors of language learning knowledge. The concept of the focus on LLS seems to be based on the constructivist view to learning. The learners are seen as active members of the instructional process and the language teacher can make use of this ability to access their language learning processes in order to enhance the language instructional process. However, as put forward by Nunan (1989: 80-81) there has been:

some controversy about whether or not learners should consciously reflect on language structure and learning processes, although there seems to be a growing consensus that such reflection is valuable. There is also evidence (Willing, 1988) that learners will benefit from different learning strategies, and that they should therefore be encouraged to find out and apply those strategies which suit them best.

LLS present a situation where learners have to be presented with opportunities to make decisions about learning to themselves and what aspects of their learning they can most readily describe. These ability to control and direct their own learning is described in reference to the LLS they use. These have been defined variously by different linguists, for instance, Macaro (2003:109) describes LLS as “the actions that learners take in order to decode, process, store and retrieve language. For example deciding to skip an unknown word in the text and come back to it later is a learner strategy.” While Oxford (1990) describes them as the decisions learners take to make

the learning process easier, faster and more enjoyable. These two scholars reveal the fact that, LLS are processes that learners engage in the process of learning language.

These descriptions openly suggest that the use of LLS is greatly influenced by autonomous learning. Learners should be in a position to ask themselves what language learning is all about and establish a record of progress made. Teachers should encourage learners mainly because it can be generalized as noted by Griffiths (2006) that learners from all cultural-national-ethnic backgrounds can be successful language learners, although how 'success' is defined may need to be re-considered in the light of cultural values.

2.7.3 Features of Language Learning Strategies

There is a vast range of LLS in the field of LLS and these have been classified differently by various scholars, (Oxford, 1990a; Wenden and Rubin, 1987; Cohen, 1990; Pearson, 1988; Skehan, 1989; Lessard-Clouston, 1997). However, they considered LLS to have certain basic features. The following are some key features they have considered basic to all LLS:

1. learner generated; steps taken by language learners
2. they enhance language learning and help develop language competence
3. they may be visible (behaviours, steps, techniques) or unseen (thoughts, mental rules)
4. they involve information and memory (vocabulary knowledge, grammar rules)
5. there is a desire for control and autonomy of learning on the part of the learner through LLS; they are more self-directed
6. there must be a choice to be made on the part of the learner

7. there is a possibility of transfer of a strategy from one language or skill to another
8. they expand the role of the teacher
9. they are problem-oriented
10. they involve many aspects, not just the cognitive
11. they can be taught
12. they are flexible
13. they are influenced by a variety of factors

It is through the consideration of these features that various scholars have come up with what each considers a comprehensive coverage of the taxonomies or categories of LLS used by SLLs. It is important to note the fact that, due to these basic features, LLS taxonomies tend to be similar with minimal variations, either in the naming or groupings.

2.7.4 Language Learning Strategies Taxonomies

Basically, LLS are considered in two major categories (Macaro, 2003; Skehan, 1989; Nunan, 1989 and 1991), only the names may differ. For instance, according to Skehan (1989) LLS are located in two main categories as:

- a) simple operations on linguistic materials (usually acquired first)
- b) sophisticated strategies (emerge later)

On the other hand according to Nunan (1989 and 1991) and Macaro (2003) LLS are located in the two main categories as:

- a) bottom-up processing strategies (usually acquired first)
- b) top-down processing strategies (emerge later)

The simple operations or the bottom up strategies are considered basic strategies to language learning and processing while the sophisticated or top-down processing strategies are considered more advanced strategies to language learning and processing. The simple operations or the bottom up strategies are commonly applied by beginners in language learning and slow-learners, while the sophisticated strategies or the top-down processing strategies are commonly applied by more advanced and fast language learners.

However, it has been suggested that GLL will always endeavour to utilize both categories of LLS. In SL education practice, Nunan (1991: 4) focuses on the fact that, ‘many language teachers have tended to use the bottom-up processing strategies during instruction but the practice is dying out’. He further highlights that, “until fairly recently, the focus in language classrooms was firmly on the development of bottom-up processing strategies. However, in recent years the need for a balance between both types of strategy has been recognized,” (ibid, 4). Macaro (2003) holds a similar view, and referring to strategies employed in the reading process he posits that “in the reading process, both bottom-up and top-down strategies are used and research has shown that good readers use both, through what has been described as the ‘interactive model’ to reading,” (P: 119-122). He stresses that “good L2 readers integrate meaning and use a balance of top-down and bottom-up strategies as appropriate to the text. The ability to arrive at a balance is in itself governed by a series of metacognitive strategies which evaluate text difficulty and task requirements,” (P: 150).

Apart from the two categories of LLS outlined above, LLS have been classified into various taxonomies by many scholars (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O’Malley et al,

1985; Oxford, 1990a; Stern, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Rubin and Thompson, 1982). However, it is important to note that these categorizations are not absolute. Oxford (1990a:17) acknowledges that:

there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorised; and whether it is – or ever will be – possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies...Classification conflicts are inevitable.

Nevertheless there are certain basic guidelines used by various scholars in determining the various taxonomies arrived at. These classifications are mainly determined by the nature of the language item being learnt or the abilities of the language learner. Thus most of these attempts to classify them reflect more or less the same categorization without any radical changes and/or differences. Their analysis reveals that they can still be categorized into the two major categories as identified above. Lessard-Clouston, (1997) notes that there are literally hundreds of different, yet inter-related LLS. This is made possible by the fact that LLS have basic common features.

The various LLS taxonomies considered in this study were those by Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990a), O'Malley et al, (1985), Stern, (1992) and Rubin and Thompson (1987). There is also a consideration of general learning strategies by, Mukwa and Too (2002). A close analysis of all the LLS taxonomies considered in this study reveals that there are 10 common taxonomies. These are:

1. cognitive/learning strategies
2. compensation strategies
3. memory strategies
4. social strategies

5. metacognitive strategies
6. management planning strategies
7. communicative experimental strategies
8. interpersonal strategies
9. affective strategies
10. communication strategies

The cognitive and learning strategies were considered here as one taxonomy because their basic component LLS as outlined by Rubin (1987), Oxford (1990a), O'Malley et al (1985) and Stern (1992) are similar. Important also to note is that Oxford (1990a) unlike the other scholars considers her LLS categorization at two levels with each having specific taxonomies of LLS as follows:

1. Direct Strategies
2. Memory strategies
3. Cognitive strategies
4. Compensation strategies
5. Indirect Strategies
6. Metacognitive strategies
7. Affective strategies
8. Social strategies

The following 4 categorizations are commonly considered by 4 scholars as identified:

1. Cognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990a; O'Malley et al, 1985; Stern, 1992)
 - Practicing
 - Receiving and sending messages strategies
 - Analyzing and reasoning

- Creating structure for input and output
 - clarification/verification
 - guessing/inductive inferencing
 - deductive reasoning
 - memorization
 - monitoring
2. Social strategies (Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990a)
 - asking questions
 - cooperating with others
 - empathizing with others
 3. Metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990a; O'Malley et al, 1985)
 - centring your learning
 - arranging and planning your learning
 - evaluating your learning
 4. Affective strategies (Oxford, 1990a; 1985; Stern, 1992)
 - creating associations of positive affect towards the foreign or target language and its speakers
 - creating associations of positive affect towards the learning activities involved
 - lowering your anxiety
 - encouraging yourself
 - taking your emotional temperature

However, there are 8 LLS taxonomies that are peculiar to some scholars. These are:

1. Communication strategies (Rubin, 1987)
2. Learning strategies (Rubin, 1987)

- Clarification / verification
 - Guessing / inductive inferring
 - Practice
 - Memorization
 - Monitoring
3. Memory strategies (Oxford, 1990a)
- Creating mental linkages
 - Applying images and sounds
 - Reviewing well
 - Employing action
4. Management and planning strategies (Stern, 1992)
- decide what commitment to make to language learning
 - set himself reasonable goals
 - decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress
 - evaluate his achievement in the light of previous determined goals and expectations
5. Communicative-experimental strategies (Stern, 1992)
- circumlocution
 - gesturing
 - paraphrasing
 - asking for repetition and explanation
6. Interpersonal strategies (Stern, 1992)
- monitoring development
 - evaluating performance

- contacting and cooperating with native speakers
 - becoming acquainted with the target culture
7. Socioaffective strategies (O'Malley et al, 1985)
 8. Compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990a)
 - Guessing intelligently.
 - Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Apart from the above LLS taxonomy presentations, Rubin and Thompson (1987) consider their classification in a different way. They do not use LLS taxonomies; rather they have specific LLS as they would be used by language learners. They have considered the following 13 LLS:

- finding your own way
- organizing information about language
- being creative
- making your own opportunities
- learning to live with uncertainty
- using mnemonics
- making error work
- using your linguistic knowledge
- letting the context help you
- learning to make intelligent guesses
- learning formalized routines
- learning production techniques
- using different styles of speech and writing

In order to further understand LLS within the general educational domain, Mukwa and Too (2002) classification of learning strategies was considered. They have considered a set of learning strategies which are particularly inclined to general learning; however a look at them reveals the fact that language learners derive their LLS from general learning strategies. Mukwa and Too (2002) do help to contextualize the various LLS presented in the above taxonomies within general educational taxonomies of learning. They observe that when “selecting a strategy for learning, you must be sure that it is both effective and efficient. Effective learning strategies are those that are powerful in bringing about expected results in a given situation,” (ibid, 36), while “efficient learning strategies refers to those learning strategies that bring about learning quickly and adequately within specified time,” (ibid, 36). They consider learning strategies under the following three learning taxonomies:

1. The cognitive domain
 - naming strategy
 - event naming strategy
 - classification strategy
2. The psychomotor domain
 - self-paced strategy
 - mixed-paced strategy
3. The affective domain
 - interest and motivation strategy

This research, therefore, adopts the view that each situation and scholar will of necessity reflect varying views about learning strategies.

2.7.5 Language Learning Strategies and Language Learning Skills

After having looked at the general educational learning strategies and language specific learning strategies (LLS), it is of paramount importance to have a look at the LLS categorized according to the four main language skills that are to be acquired by the language learner. Among other linguists, Nunan (1989) and Macaro (2003) have offered outlines of LLS employed by SLL. Nunan's (1989) classification is considered here:

Successful listening involves:

1. Skills in segmenting the stream of speech into meaningful words and phrases;
2. Recognizing word classes;
3. Relating the incoming message to one's own background knowledge;
4. Identifying the rhetorical and functional intent of an utterance or parts of an aural text;
5. Interpreting rhythm, stress and intonation to identify information focus and emotional/attitudinal tone;
6. Extracting gist/essential information from longer aural texts without necessarily understanding every word;

Successful oral communication involves developing:

1. The ability to articulate phonological features of language comprehensibly.
2. Mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns;
3. An acceptable degree of fluency;
4. Skills in taking short and long speaking turns;
5. Skills in management of interaction;
6. Skills in negotiating meaning.

7. Conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
8. Skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations;
9. Using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers

Successful reading involves:

1. Using word attack skills such as identifying sound/symbol correspondences;
2. Using grammatical knowledge to recover meaning, for example interpreting non – finite clauses;
3. Using different techniques for different purposes, for example skimming and scanning for key words or information;
4. Relating text content to one's own background knowledge of the subject at hand;
5. Identifying the rhetorical or functional intention of individual sentences or text segments for example recognizing when the writer is offering a definition or a summary even when these are not explicitly signalled by phrases such as 'X' may be defined as ...'

Successful writing involves:

1. Mastering the mechanics of letter formation;
2. Mastering and obeying conventions of spelling and punctuation;
3. Using the grammatical system to convey one's intended meaning;
4. Organizing content at the level of the paragraph and the complete text to reflect given/new information and topic/comment structures;
5. Polishing and revising one's initial efforts;
6. Selecting an appropriate style for one's audience.

It is important to note that, it was from these main taxonomies of LLS that the researcher came up with comprehensive SILL that was used in developing the study teacher and learner questionnaires and the 10 main LLS taxonomies under which the study data on LLS was analysed.

2.7.6 Language Learning Strategies and Instruction

Macaro (2003); Skehan (1989); Nunan (1989) and (1991); Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990a), O'Malley et al, (1985), Stern, (1992) and Rubin and Thompson (1987). All view LLS as either contributing directly or indirectly to language learning, Griffiths, (2006:9) points out that "successful learners self-regulate by means of appropriate strategic, metacognitive and autonomous behaviours. They are eclectic in their learning method preferences, able to benefit from strategy instruction, notice and understand error correction, and are able to use a range of techniques such as task analysis to manage tasks." In the process they are particularly useful in the development of communicative competence (Lessard-Clouston, 1997 and Oxford 1990a). The greatest virtue of modern language teaching is pegged on the communicative function. Therefore, the language teacher during instruction can take advantage of these LLS to further enhance language learning and teaching.

Hismanoglu (2000) says that LLS give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess situations, plan, and select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn or remember new input presented in the language classroom. Lessard-Clouston (1997), Oxford (1990) and Griffiths (2004) agree that the taxonomies of LLS outlined by various scholars are rather vague. This implies that experienced SL and FL teachers may easily think of specific LLS for each of the suggested taxonomies. Such a practice requires great initiative on the teachers' part; they must understand their

learners and the learning environment well enough. The teacher must endeavour to see the interconnections to make instruction more successful. The teacher must be evolutionary in the manner they approach language instruction. One who is able to construct the knowledge within the learning environment to come up with the most appropriate LTS.

Therefore, the role of LLS can not be overemphasized in regard to language instruction. The language teacher should also study his own teaching methods and overall classroom style before instruction (Hismanoglu, 2000). Through the lesson plans, the language teachers are able to determine whether the lesson gives learners chance to use a variety of learning styles or not. Yen (2002) suggests that there are many advantages to be gained if the teaching of language incorporates new and relevant strategies and modes outside of its traditional scope. Hermer (1991:256) says that “the best technique and activities will not have much point if they are not...integrated into a programme....The best teachers are those who think carefully about what they are going to do in their classes and who plan how they are going to organize the teaching and learning”. These are the kind of teachers who purposefully “provide a variety of activities to encourage and support students to develop their language skill,” (Griffiths, 2006:10).

In the field of language teaching, little thought seems to have been given to the notion of appropriateness, to the way that language behaviour is responsive to differing social situations, yet social settings play a big role not only in LI acquisition but also in L2 learning. Lessard-Clouston (1997) expresses similar sentiments by pointing at the fact that if language teaching is appropriate and learner-centred, teachers will not manipulate their learners as they encourage them to develop and use their own LLS.

Instead they will take learners' motivations and learning styles into account as they teach in order for them to improve their L2/FL skills and LLS. This should be one of the overriding factors in language teaching, particularly in Kenyan secondary schools. Thus much caution should be taken by language teachers in the use of LLS. They should be kept in perspective and used eclectically, in conjunction with other techniques; learning strategies may well prove to be an extremely useful addition to a learner's tool kit, (Griffiths, 2004).

2.7.7 Language Learning Strategies (LLS) Training

Research studies have proven that LLS are teachable and that learners can benefit from being coached in their use (Griffiths, 2004). This practice is what is commonly referred to as 'strategy training'. This approach according to Cohen (2003), is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated through making learners aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use. Thus SLL are encouraged to learn and use a wide range of LLS through the learning process. Lessard-Clouston (1997) suggests that focusing on the language learning process itself is important because it helps learners understand the language learning process, the nature of language communication, and the language learning resources are available to them. In addition, they will know the specific LLS they might use in order to improve their own vocabulary use, grammar knowledge, and L2/FL skills in reading, writing, listening and speaking.

With specific reference to reading Macaro (2003) highlights the fact that for beginners and intermediate learners it is necessary to identify the specific strategies appropriate to their level of reading and to help them develop these strategies. This is a clear case of strategy training. Other linguists, Rausch (2000) and Chamot (2004), also attest to

the concept of strategy training for the enhancement of language learning and achievement of communicative competence, particularly for SLL, however they refer to it as ‘strategy instruction’. Apart from developing learners’ communicative competence, Lessard-Clouston (1997) suggests that LLS are important because research suggests that training students to use LLS can help them become better language learners. Such a process is only possible in situations where the teacher facilitates the learners.

Explicit rather than implicit strategy instruction or training is advocated for by most researchers in SL situations. Chamot (2004) highlights the fact that many scholars in the area of LLS advocate for explicit and integrated strategy instruction for the major reason that it provides students with opportunities to practice learning strategies with authentic language learning tasks. It essentially involves the development of students awareness of the strategies they use, teacher modelling of strategic thinking, student practice with new strategies, student self-evaluation of strategies used, and practice in transferring strategies to new tasks (O’ Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford and Leaver, 1996; Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Nunan, 1997; Cohen 1998; Chamot et al, 1999; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Harris, 2003; and Shen, 2003). LLS training needs to be integrated into students’ regular classes if they are going to appreciate their relevance for language learning tasks; students need to constantly monitor and evaluate the strategies they develop and use; and they need to be aware of the nature, function and importance of such strategies, (Graham, 1997).

In this regard Cohen (2003) outlines seven points he considers as the goals of strategy training for SLLs, these are:

1. Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning

2. Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently
3. Develop a great range of problem-solving skills
4. Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies
5. Make decisions about how to approach a language task
6. Monitor and self-evaluate their performance
7. Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts

Beside considering the above aspects before engaging in LLS training, Rauch (2000) argues that one of the most important factors in successful strategy instruction depends on just how informed the curriculum is. The need, usefulness, and benefits of a given strategy are emphasized along with a focus on direct, explicit and integrated instruction. Those strategies which prove popular with students and bring tangible results are the ones readily adapted to their learning level and disposition and therefore should be the ones language teachers focus on during strategy training. He further notes that if this has to be successful, the language teachers must adjust; they must undergo a crucial conceptual shift towards a learner-centred classroom, making the necessary adjustments in their existing curriculum, and learning specific techniques of LLS and instruction.

Various instructional models for strategy instruction or training have been developed and they have many features in common. Scholars in this area agree on the importance of developing students' metacognitive understanding of the value of learning strategies and suggest that this is facilitated through teacher demonstration and modelling during the instructional process (Chamot, 2004). All emphasize the importance of providing multiple practice opportunities with the strategies so that students can use them autonomously. All suggest that students should evaluate how

well a strategy has worked, choose strategies for a task, and actively transfer strategies to new tasks. These ideas can closely be related to the findings and conclusions made by Wenden (1983, 1986, 1987a) in Skehan (1989) who focuses upon how learners could be helped to plan their learning, and to set priorities for themselves in relation to LLS they use. He established that this kind of learner training provides a sort of framework for learners who have difficulty in establishing the LLS and how they can appropriately use them to enhance language learning. Chamot (2004) concludes that current models of language learning strategy instruction are solidly based on developing students' knowledge about their own thinking and strategic processes and encouraging them to adopt strategies that will improve their language learning and proficiency.

What comes through with regard to strategy training is the fact that learner autonomy in the instructional process is paramount. This has led to literature in this area focusing on 'learner control' an aspect that is closely related to the concept currently highly advocated for in modern language teaching methodology, learner-centred instruction. Thus there are various strategy training frameworks or approaches that have been developed by various linguists; a few will be considered here. The first is by Pearson and Dole (1987) who propose that the language teacher targets isolated strategies by including explicit modelling and explanation of the benefits of applying a specific strategy, extensive functional practice with strategy, and an opportunity to try out the strategy to new contexts. The sequence is as follows:

- i. Initial modelling of strategy by the teacher, with direct explanation of the strategy's use and importance
- ii. Guided practice with the strategy

- iii. Consolidation, where teachers help students to identify the strategy and decide when it might be used
- iv. Independent practice with the strategy
- v. Application of strategy to new tasks

The second is by Oxford et al (1990) who propose a descriptive rather than a prescriptive sequence of how strategy training could be considered, they emphasize:

- i. Explicit strategy awareness
- ii. Discussion of the benefits of strategy use
- iii. Functional and contextualized strategy use
- iv. Self-evaluation and monitoring of language performance
- v. Suggestions for or the demonstration of the teachability of the strategies to new tasks

The third is by Chamot and O' Malley (1994) who propose one which can be applied by learners who have already practiced applying a broad range of strategies in a variety of contexts. It is described in a four-stage problem solving process as follows:

- i. Planning –students plan ways to approach a learning task.
- ii. Monitoring –students self monitor their performance by paying attention to their strategy use and checking comprehension.
- iii. Problem solving –students find solutions to problems they encounter.
- iv. Evaluation –students learn to evaluate the effectiveness of a given strategy after it has been applied to a learning task.

The fourth is by Oxford and Leaver (1996) and Rauch (2000) who express the idea of strategy training through the concept of 'control continuum' that is 'learning to learn'

to describe the successive levels which learners can develop in their use and understanding of LLS. These are awareness, attention, intentionality and control (or autonomy), each is described below:

- i. Awareness level –it is accomplished by introducing the concept of learning strategies and having learners complete a learning strategies use assessment; thereby assessing intuitive strategy use.
- ii. Attention level –it is accomplished by a LLS model being introduced and learners note which strategies are used for specific learning tasks and objectives, thereby developing an individual database of LLS. The focus is on practice of LLS use with prepared examples and exercises.
- iii. Intentionality level –it is accomplished through the learners autonomously selecting strategies for learning objectives on the basis of a triangular fit of individual learner/learning objective/learning strategy and their increasing experience. Thus the focus is on application of LLS to curriculum or independent learning needs using the learning process orientation that involves: preparation (management strategies), learning (organisation strategies), review and practice (memory strategies) and activation (communication strategies).
- iv. Control level –it is the highest level of strategy use in which learners plan, self-assess and evaluate overall strategy use and self-adjust use while continuously incorporating a broad range of LLS in their studies. It returns the learner to the state of unconscious awareness of LLS by virtue of familiarity and ease of use.

The fifth is by Lessard-Clouston (1997) who suggests a three step approach to implementing LLS training in the classroom. The approach he mentions is suitable at all levels of learning and consists of the following steps:

- i. Study the teaching contexts –it is crucial for teachers to study their teaching contexts, paying attention to their students, their materials, and their own teaching. It is important for the teacher to know something about the learners, their interests, motivations and learning styles among others aspects. For instance, by the teacher observing their behaviours in class, he/she will be able to establish what LLS they already appear to be using. The teacher could also use a questionnaire administered at the beginning of the course; this will allow the learners to describe themselves and their language learning. Apart from these two approaches, the teacher could either use formal or informal interviews with the learners; this could provide information on their goals, motivations, LLS and their understanding of the subject. The teacher should also focus on the teaching materials available; do text books include LLS and LLS training tasks, if not they have to look for texts or other teaching materials with such opportunities. Lastly the language teacher needs to study their own teaching methods and overall classroom style. This could be done by considering the lesson plans; do they incorporate various ways that students can learn the language being modelled, presented or being practiced in order to appeal to a variety of learning styles and strategies? Does the teaching allow the learners to approach the task at hand in a variety of ways? Is the LLS training implicit, explicit or both? Is the class learner-centred? Does the teacher allow students to work on their own and learn from one another? Teachers who study their students, materials and own teaching will be

better prepared to focus on LLS and LLS training within their specific teaching contexts.

- ii. Focus on LLS in the teaching –focus on specific LLS in the regular teaching that are relevant to the learners, materials and teaching style. The teacher highlights the LLS, gives learners examples, models on how such LLS may be used in learning any of the four skills and filling in gaps with other LLS for the skills that are neglected in the text but would be especially relevant for your learners.
- iii. Teacher reflection and learner reflection –the teachers should reflect on both their positive and negative experiences in L2/FL learning. the teacher should reflect on how they learnt the language, which strategies are most appropriate for which tasks, which strategies are most likely to be successful in developing ‘strategic competence’ in the students, own LLS training and teaching in the classroom. The teacher could ask the following questions: how effective is the lesson? What is the role of LLS and LLS training in the lesson? Do students seem to have grasped the point? Did they use the LLS that were modelled in the task they were to perform? What improvements for future lessons for this type or on this topic might be gleaned from students’ behaviour? The teacher can focus on ‘teaching how to learn’ in the language classroom.

On the other hand learner reflection should be encouraged, both during and after the LLS training. The teacher could ask the learners to keep a journal, complete simple self-evaluation forms, keep diaries, complete questionnaires, follow up interviews and portfolios. Reflection according to Graham (1997) is important because for learners, a vital component of

self-directed learning lies in the on-going evaluation of the methods they have employed on tasks and on their achievements.

An analysis of all the above strategy frameworks presents a similar approach to the manner in which the training or instruction of LLS should be conducted. The teaching practices to be considered by any language teacher practicing strategy training are thus summarised as:

- i. awareness
- ii. consolidation
- iii. practice
- iv. evaluation

Apart from the goals, models and frameworks or approaches for strategy training, Cohen (1998 and 2003) also suggests steps for designing strategy training programmes. The knowledge they present is vital for the ESL teachers because they will be able to come up with programmes that are practical, workable, realistic and beneficial to the learners within specified learning contexts, varied teacher abilities and available teaching resources. These points are:

- i. Determine learners' needs and the resources available for training
- ii. Select the strategies to be taught
- iii. Consider the benefits of integrating strategy training
- iv. Consider motivating issues
- v. Prepare the materials and activities
- vi. Conduct explicit strategy training
- vii. Evaluate and revise the strategy training

Despite the fact that Macaro (2003: 146) establishes the fact that SLL require strategy training as a vital component for effective language learning, particularly for poor language learners, he also notes that “unfortunately the evidence that learners can be trained to use strategies is not yet conclusive”. However, he suggests that “certain teaching strategies can encourage...,” for example when focusing on reading strategies. He notes that “if you allow glosses or dictionaries to be used you not only train students to use a valuable resource strategy but you are also able to give them more challenging and therefore interesting texts”, (ibid, 146).

The conclusion that LLS training is a vital component of successful language learning can safely be made on the basis of the various research study findings as indicated in this discussion. On this basis in relation to the learner and LLS, Chamot (2004) raises that idea that the implications for teaching are that language learners need to explore different learning strategies, experiment, evaluate and eventually choose their own set of effective strategies. In addition, all learners can profit from learning how to use metacognitive strategies to plan, monitor and evaluate themselves throughout their learning efforts. In this regard, it has been strongly suggested (Macaro, 2003) that the ultimate aim of strategy research is to go beyond description to intervention. In other words, this will help those individuals who do not use strategies sufficiently and in efficient combinations to experiment with new ways of working with all skills in language. Lessard-Clouston (1997) emphasizes this concept by saying that whether it is a specific conversation, reading, writing, or other class, an organised and informed focus on LLS and LLS training will help students learn and provide more opportunities for them to take responsibility for learning.

2.8 Related Research

Griffiths (2007) carried out a study on ‘Language Learning Strategies: Students and Teachers Perceptions’ which investigated the point of intersection of teachers’ and learners’ perceptions regarding LLS. The research examined reported frequency of strategy use by international students and teacher perceptions regarding the importance of strategy use. From her findings she notes that although teachers’ and students’ perceptions were not perfectly matched, there was a clear indication that teachers regarded strategy use as highly important. There was a high level of accord (71%) between strategies which students reported using frequently and those which teachers reported they regarded as highly important. Griffiths (2007) study focuses on both the teachers’ perceptions towards the use of LLS and teacher’s perceptions on LLS. However the present study focuses on both the teachers’ and learners’ awareness and use of LLS and how these consequently influence the language teaching process for the teachers and the language learning process for the learners.

In another study, Griffiths (2003d) carried out an investigation into the ‘Language Learning Strategy use and Proficiency: The Relationship between patterns of reported language Learning Strategy (LLS) use by speakers of other languages (SOL) and proficiency with implications for teaching/Learning situation’ in a private English language school for international students in Auckland, New Zealand. The study was carried out in three main parts. The results of part A, the SILL phase of the study revealed a significant relationship between LLS and proficiency (the level of the students, the advanced students tended to use more LLS). The results showed that there was a significant relationship between reported frequencies of LLS use as relates to other variables, there was no difference in sex and age, but statistically differences were found according to nationality. While in part B, the interviews revealed some

useful insights regarding the use of LLS by individual students. In part C, the classroom programme which aimed at exploring ways to promote LLS use among students was not a complete success; so she says that much work remains to be done to find ways of making insights regarding LLS available to students. Due to the differences in the learning environments and nationality of the students involved in Griffiths (2003c) study and the fact that she mentions that students in different learning environmental circumstances respond differently, the researcher found it necessary to carry out the present research to establish the patterns of use of LLS among Kenyan Secondary School focusing on the F2-F4 learners, and to further establish how useful English language teachers find LLS in the instructional process.

Tang and Moore (1992) as presented in Griffiths (2004) carried out a study which investigated into 'Effects of Cognitive and Metacognitive Pre-reading Activities on the Reading Comprehension of ESL Learners' with the main interest of finding out the effects of teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on reading comprehension in the classroom. Their conclusions were such that, while cognitive strategy instruction (title discussion and pre-teaching vocabulary) improved comprehension scores, the performance gains were not maintained upon the withdrawal of the treatment. Regarding metacognitive instruction on the other hand, involving the teaching of self-monitoring strategies, appeared to lead to improvements in comprehension abilities which maintained beyond the end of the treatment. The present study sought to find out if the English language teachers endeavoured to make the learners aware the 10 taxonomies of LLS and facilitate their use in all the content areas in the English syllabus in Kenyan Secondary Schools.

2.9 Chapter Summary

The whole analysis and review of the available literature in the areas of teaching, language teaching, language acquisition and language learning as presented in this chapter has been quite valuable in elaborating on issues to do with LLS and LTS. It has revealed varied contexts in which various studies related to LLS and LTS have been conducted, thus providing adequate ground for this particular study. The next chapter lays out the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology used in the study. Specifically, it focuses on the study area, the study population, sample and the sampling techniques, the research variables, the research instruments, piloting of instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, the data collection process, ethical considerations, field experiences and the chapter summary.

3.2 Research Design

This Research employed a qualitative case study design. A qualitative inquiry “will attempt to obtain an inside view of the phenomenon, getting as close as possible to the subject of the research in order to collect resonant, fertile data to enable the development of social construct through the dynamic process of research...[it] tends to be unstructured, allowing concepts and theories to emerge,” (Walliman (2005: 247). On the other hand, a “case study is a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence,” (Robson, 1993:52). This means that there is great involvement in the collection of specific data and careful observations carried out.

3.3 The Study Area

The research was carried out in selected schools in Kakamega Central District. This district is made up of three divisions namely: Lurambi, Municipality and Navakholo (Appendix 5). It was selected on the premise of its large area coverage and therefore,

a large varied number of school types were easily captured within the study sample. This enabled the researcher to obtain a balanced representation of the characteristics and conditions likely to give a correct representation of the variables under inquiry. Tuckman (1978:225) notes that, “if the population is broadly defined, external validity or generalizability will be maximized, thus the confidence level is easily obtained that there is a 95 percent chance that the sample is distributed in the same way as the population.”

3.4 The Study Population and Sample

A study population, Walliman (2005:276) notes, “is a collective term used to describe the total quantity of cases of the type which are subject of your study” while a study sample should be a “fair representation of all the members of the population”. Babbie, (1992: 194) further highlights that if a sample of individuals from a population is to provide useful descriptions of the total population, it “must contain essentially the same variations that exist in the population”. Therefore the respondents and schools used in this inquiry were obtained from the research area identified. Kakamega Central District has a total of 32 Public Secondary Schools. A summary of the school categories and types, are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Public Secondary Schools in Kakamega Central District

Schools	Mixed	Boys	Girls	Total
Provincial	-	3	3	6
District	23	-	3	26
Total	23	3	6	32

(Source: Kakamega Central District Education Office [2008])

The respondents included selected students from Form 2 to Form 4 classes. Form one (1) learners were not involved because in January to March, 2009, when the data was being collected these learners were still new in school and were settling down in secondary school setting. The researcher believed that the Form 2 to Form 4 learners would provide a varied reflection of their LLS related to their length of stay in secondary school and experience with the language at the various levels of learning.

A total of 12 (37.5%) schools were selected and from these a total of 36 teachers of English and 72 learners were used to obtain the required data. Form 2 to Form 4 classes and the respective teachers of English teaching each of the classes were used because the researcher wished to establish the pattern use of instructional strategies by both teachers and learners at the three levels of learning, that is, Form 2, Form 3 and Form 4 respectively. A total of 6 learners, 2 from each class and from each of the schools sampled randomly, representing Form 2 to Form 4 was used. This provided the total number to 72 learners. The teachers of English, 3 from each of the 12 schools with a representative from each class, Form 2 to Form 4, were randomly selected in cases where there was more than one teacher per class. This brought the total number to 36 teachers of English used to obtain data. This size of sample was used on the basis of the requirements of a case study. As Gerring (2007:86) highlights:

Case study analysis focuses on a small number of cases that are expected to provide insight into a causal relationship across a larger population of cases. ...In large-sample research, case selection is usually handled by some version of randomization. If a sample consists of a large enough number of independent random draws, the selected cases are likely to be fairly representative of the overall population on a given variable.

This knowledge informed, guided and directed the sampling design used in this particular study. All the variables in relation to age, cognitive abilities, gender and learning environment and teacher abilities determined the sampling techniques used.

3.5 Sampling Procedures

“A sample design is a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It refers to the technique or the procedure the researcher would adopt in selecting items for the sample,” (Kothari, 1990:55). In this research the simple stratified sampling, purposive sampling and simple random sampling procedures were used to sample out the required schools, learners and English language teachers from the study area. Simple random sampling was preferred on the basis that, “Simple random sampling techniques give the most reliable representation of the whole population, while non-random techniques, relying on the judgment of the researcher or an accident, cannot generally be used to make generalizations about the whole population,” (Walliman, 2005: 276). These techniques were selected on the basis of their minimal chances of error in terms of the teacher and learner characteristics that the researcher was interested in gathering.

Tuckman (1978:29) posits that “in stratified sampling, a researcher attempts to maintain the same proportionality on the stratification parameters in the sample as occurs in the population”. This was used to ensure homogeneity in the population. On the other hand “simple random sampling is used when the population is uniform or has similar characteristics in all cases,” (Walliman, 2005: 276); thus “each and every item in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample,” (Kothari, 1990:15). On the other hand, in purposive samples or judgment samples, Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2005: 184) observe that “researchers select sampling units

subjectively in an attempt to obtain a sample that appears to be representative of the population”. In this particular investigation, the English language teachers were selected on the basis that they teach English.

The research only used 12 which represent 37.5% of the total secondary schools in the study region. This number was chosen on the basis that, this was a case study, thus an intensive investigation was carried out, (Kothari, 1990). The schools were selected based on 2 major categories, using the simple stratified sampling method: one, based on cognitive abilities, provincial and district schools and two, based on gender, girls, boys and mixed schools. Gerring, (2007) notes that in cases of a fairly homogeneously population, all variables under study will be represented in the sample; however representation can further be enhanced by use of the stratified sampling procedure. Thus the secondary schools involved in the inquiry are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Distribution of School Categories and Types used in the Study

Schools	Mixed	Boys	Girls	Total
Provincial	-	3	3	6
District	23	-	3	26
Total	23	3	6	32
Selected Schools	7	2	3	12

These categories were used with the aim of the researcher establishing if there exists any relationship between teachers and learners in provincial schools and district schools in the manner in which they view and use LTS and LLS respectively, during instruction in English. The researcher also wished to establish whether LLS used had any relationship with the learners’ cognitive abilities. The provincial and district

schools types were used as a basis of determining cognitive abilities of learners. Through the boys, girls and mixed schools categories, the researcher wished to establish the nature of LLS used by each group and if gender was an influencing factor. After this selection, random sampling was used to obtain the 12 out of 32 schools, ensuring representatives from the sample population categories and types. Random sampling was extensively used because, “a judgment sample is obviously less adequate than a random sample”, (Wardhaugh 1992:153).

A total of 36 lessons, three from each school considering Form 2 to Form 4 classes, were observed and tape recorded in the 12 secondary schools sampled. This was used in order to establish if teachers and learners at a given level of learning used the same LTS and LLS respectively or if they used the same throughout all levels of learning. Furthermore, these levels of learning were used to establish if age was a determining factor in the nature and pattern use of LLS.

3.6 Research Variables

“A concept that can take on different quantitative values is called a variable” and “qualitative phenomena (or the attributes) are also quantified on the basis of the presence or absence of the concerning attribute(s),” (Kothari, 1990:33). Further, research variables according to Graziano and Raulin (1997) and Kothari, (1990) can be classified as independent and dependent variables. Dependant variables are those that depend upon or are a consequence of the other variable while the variable that is antecedent to the dependent variable is termed as the independent variable. According to the present inquiry, the ‘dependent variables’ are the nature of teaching techniques that the English language teachers employ during the instructional process (LTS), while the ‘independent variable’ are the language learning processes (LLS) employed

by learners during the instructional process. In this case, ‘learning’ is an outcome of the nature of interaction between the dependent and independent variables of the study. Such a variable, Kothari, (1990) refers to as a ‘continuous variable’.

3.7 Research Instruments

This research employed 3 instruments for data collection, these were:

- a) Questionnaires
- b) Observation Worksheet
- c) Tape recording

The three instruments were used because no one instrument can elicit data sufficient enough to make valid and reliable conclusions. As Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998:167) note, “...many linguists feel that questionnaires are best used in association with other types of data elicitation...because a further picture of the data can be accessed if it is approached from more than one angle. Because of this, questionnaires do not operate as a substitute for transcription and analysis, but rather complement them”. In research, such a practice is referred to as triangulation. Robson, (1993: 383) says that triangulation:

Is an indispensable tool in real world enquiry. It is particularly valuable in the analysis of quantitative data where trustworthiness of the data is always a worry. It provides a means of testing one source of information against other sources...if there is a discrepancy, its investigation may help in explaining the phenomenon of interest...the by-products...are useful as its primary purpose in validating information. It improves the quality of data and in consequence the accuracy of findings.

Furthermore, on research in LLS, Chamot (2004) emphasizes the use of triangulation. He notes that since any type of self report is subject to limitations of individual reporting, it would seem advisable to use two or three different types of instruments in

any research study so that triangulation can help establish validity and reliability. Through the triangulation principle, the researcher hoped that, the data obtained would be sufficient, reliable and valid to make generalizations about the awareness and use of LLS by learners in Kenyan Secondary Schools and the English language teachers' use of LTS.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is “a set of questions on a topic or group of topics designed to be answered by a respondent” (Richards et al, 1992:203). This implies that the respondent is in full control of the questionnaire and will thus complete and return it at his/her own convenient time or may even fail to complete it at all. The questionnaires has been considered as convenient tools for data collection especially “in second or foreign language teaching and learning, including the motivation for the successful learning of a language”, (Fasold, 1984) and therefore it was a convenient tool for this study. Questionnaires have also been considered efficient and reliable tools because, “at their most tightly controlled, questionnaires can allow data to be controlled in the same, replicable way from a large number of informants. This makes comparison of results easier and conclusions clearer,” (Wray, Trott and Bloomer (1998: 167). Furthermore as noted by Skehan (1989: 10), “many areas require the use of the questionnaire and construction of self-report scales to access hypothesized traits. Typical examples in second language learning would be researched into attitudes, motivational and personality,” aspects. These are areas that determine the use of LLS and LTS in SL learning situations. The study used two sets of questionnaires:

- a) Teacher questionnaire
- b) Learner questionnaire

3.7.1.1 Teacher Questionnaire

This questionnaire (Appendix 2) was administered to the teachers. It consisted of two parts. Part A consisted of statements and questions aimed at obtaining the specific teacher's bio-data, namely: teaching subjects, professional qualifications, experience, gender, and age. This section sought information on the various class levels the specific teachers of English taught (F2 to F4), the school type and category. Part B, on the other hand, consisted of questions and statements aimed at obtaining specific information on the teachers awareness, understanding of LLS and how their learners used them; the approaches, methods and LTS employed during instruction; reasons for use of certain LTS and not others; the constraints being faced in the use and choice of certain LTS; the teachers' use of LLS in coming up with LTS.

The questionnaire also comprised of a comprehensive Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) adapted from the SILL of 50 items developed by Oxford (1990b), (Appendix 4) and studies previously conducted in the LLS area as summarized in Chapter 2. Derived from previous studies LLS taxonomies, the items in the study SILL were considered in 10 taxonomies for easy analysis. In order to obtain objective responses and experience "ease of scoring and quantification of the data", (Tuckman, 1978:201), the researcher used both structured or open-ended and closed ended questions. Tuckman, (1978:201) observes that in "allowing the respondent such control over the response ensures that the respondent will give his/her own answers rather than agreeing with one of yours".

3.7.1.2 Learner Questionnaire

This questionnaire (Appendix 3) was administered to the learners selected, Form 2 - Form 4. It consisted of two parts. Part A consisted of questions and statements aimed

at obtaining the learners bio-data, which were, gender, class levels (F2-F4), school categories/types and age. Part B consisted of questions and statements aimed at obtaining specific information from the learners regarding the difficulties they face in learning English and the LLS they have developed to cope with these challenges and difficulties in the process of learning English; and how they employ these LLS. The questionnaire also comprised a comprehensive Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) adopted from the SILL of 50 items developed by Oxford (1990b) (Appendix 4) and various studies previously conducted in the LLS area (as presented in chapter two). Oxford's (1990b) SILL inventory, Griffiths (2003c) notes that it is preferred because it is comprehensive and widely used. In this particular investigation, 10 taxonomies were used to analyse how the LLS were used by learners. The questionnaire used closed-ended and open-ended questions only. This was used in order to ensure objective responses and easy analysis of the data obtained.

3.7.1.3 Questionnaire Administration

A total of 108 copies of the questionnaire, 36 for teachers and 72 for learners were administered in the entire investigation. The questionnaires were administered immediately after the observation of lessons in each school. This was to help the researcher to avoid situations where the teachers and learners would manipulate their lessons thus ensuring reliability of the data collected and the conclusions made. The researcher delivered and administered the questionnaires in person. Walliman (2005) notes that "advantages of personal delivery are that respondents can be helped to overcome difficulties with questions, and that personal persuasion and reminders by the researcher can ensure a high response rate," (P:282). The two set of questionnaires were administered as follows:

- *Teachers:* At least one teacher from each of the classes Form 2 to Form 4 was selected to complete the questionnaire. This exercise was conducted after observation of the three lessons in each school.
- *Learners:* At least two learners from each of the three classes Form 2 to Form 4 were selected to complete the questionnaire. This exercise was conducted after observation of the three lessons in each school. The researcher, based on the school type, either district or provincial, determined the learner's cognitive abilities.

3.7.2 Observation and Tape Recording

Observation is direct in data collection; the researcher watches and listens to what the respondents do and say respectively, (Robson, 2005; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2005). It “involves the collection of data without manipulating it. The researcher simply observes on-going activities, without making any attempt to control or determine them”, (Wray, Trott and Bloomer, 1998:186). It is thus “a technique much favoured”, (ibid: 186). The researcher used systematic observation which involved the use of a classroom observation worksheet.

This method was used in order to provide accurate information regarding the nature of LLS and LTS used in class and the frequency at which they were used. This technique was also used in order for the researcher to determine the reliability of the responses from the teacher and learner questionnaires. As noted “observation can be used at the planning stages of other types of project, in order to get ideas or determine the feasibility of the main procedure, and can supplement information gathered by the other methods,” (ibid:187). Furthermore it “could be used to substitute for, or complement the ubiquitous interview or questionnaire,” (Robson, 1993:193). In this

study tape recording was used alongside observation in order to capture all the activities in class that involve the spoken word. “Audio...recording is a support to many types of work, where it may save the researcher from having to make frantic notes at the time and risking important information,” through observation only, (ibid: 153).

3.7.2.1 Administration of Observation and Tape Recording Sessions

All the lessons were observed with the help of a classroom observation worksheet (Appendix 1) before questionnaire administration. This helped the researcher to capture the lessons in their most natural possible state. The lessons observed from Form 2 to Form 4, one per class, were selected randomly in cases where there was more than one stream and teacher per form/class level. The selection was conducted before the material day of observation and tape recording. The researcher talked to the respective teachers and alerted them about the use of a voice recorder during the lesson. The researcher also talked to the learners before the beginning of every lesson. The voice recorder was placed strategically situated in class so that all voices could clearly be captured. During observation, the various LLS and LTS used during the lesson and level of learner participation in lesson activities were recorded using the observation schedule and checklist that had been pre-prepared by the researcher. Audio recording went on throughout the 36 lessons observed.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher, before the actual data collection process, sought official permission from the Ministry of Higher Education to carry out the research in the Public Secondary Schools in the specified region of research, Kakamega Central District. The researcher administered the questionnaires in person and also observed and tape

recorded the lessons selected. Thus, with a brief verbal introduction and presentation of the research permit and the introduction letter from the Ministry of Higher Education to the District Education Officer (Kakamega Central District) and heads of schools, the researcher proceeded to meet the teachers of English. She discussed with them and agreed on specific days and time when classroom observations and tape recording could be conducted. The questionnaires were administered after all the three classroom observations in each school and later collected on a specific day at the convenience of the respondents.

3.9 Piloting of Instruments

It was necessary to carry out a pilot study because one cannot be completely sure of the reliability and validity of the study instruments to be used. Robson, (1993: 164) asserts that “there is a great deal in favour of piloting any empirical research...there is no complete substitute for involvement with ‘real’ situation, when the feasibility of what is proposed in terms of time, effort and resources can be assessed.” Therefore, a pilot study was carried out by administering the questionnaires to 6 teachers and 12 learners in 2 selected schools in Vihiga District. Vihiga District was selected on the basis that it has schools with similar characteristics and learning environments to the schools in Kakamega Central District. In the same schools, observation and tape recording of 6 lessons was conducted. This was repeated after two weeks with the same group of respondents.

From the two responses a Pearson product moment formula for test re-test was used to compute the correlation coefficient in order to determine the extent to which the items were consistent in eliciting the same response on the two occasions they were administered. A correlation coefficient of 0.6 was yielded and was considered high

enough at the 0.05 alpha level to consider the instrument reliable. However, with the non-statistical data using the results obtained, the researcher together with the supervisors determined the required alterations of the data collection instruments.

3.10 Validity and Reliability of Instruments

It is important for any research study to consider issues of precision and accuracy if the results to be obtained are to be relied on for any decision making and policy formulation. This can be attained through consideration of validity and reliability of the research instruments. If considered, they will ensure generalization of the study results to any other similar populations.

3.10.1 Validity

Validity is mainly “concerned with the question of whether researchers are measuring what they think they are measuring,” (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2005:174). It generally refers to “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration,” (Babbie, 1992:132). In qualitative research, validity has to be perceived as a matter of degree and not as an absolute state (Gronlund, 1985). It is for this same reason that Cohen et al (2002: 105) observe that “in qualitative data validity can be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the objectivity of the researcher”. The content validity of the research instruments was ascertained by the experts from the department of Curriculum Instructional and Educational Media (CIEM), School of Education, Moi University. They read through the research instruments and made proposals to improve them, which the researcher adopted.

3.10.2 Reliability

Reliability is basic and central to social scientists because “the measuring instruments they employ are rarely completely valid,” Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2005:174). The whole concept of reliability “is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time,” (Babbie, 1992:129). Reliability of the instruments was ensured by asking the respondents for information only about things they are likely to know the answers to and those that are relevant to them. Clarity of the questionnaire items was also ascertained through the nature of responses obtained by the researcher from the respondents. The study also applied established measures of data collection in similar studies. Babbie, (1992:130) notes that, one way to ensure reliability “is to use measures that have proven their reliability in previous research.” In this regard, the present research used the questionnaire, observation techniques and SILL that have been proven valuable in obtaining information on LLS and LTS, (Skehan, 1989; McGroarty and Oxford, 1990). Furthermore, Chamot (2004) advocates for triangulation in studies involving LLS because any type of self report is subject to limitations of individual reporting, it would seem advisable to use two or three different types in any research study so that triangulation can help establish validity and reliability.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations have to do with the researcher ensuring ethical checks. That is “a series of questions that a researcher must ask about the research and the specific procedures included safeguarding subjects” (Graziano and Raulin, 1997:432). In order to attain this, the researcher ensured the respect, rights to privacy and to protection from physical and psychological harm of the respondents involved in the study. The

researcher ensured that each respondent understood what the study was all about. The respondents were given clear and sufficient background information on which to base their own decisions as to whether they would take part in the study or not. It was only after their consent was obtained that the classroom observations and tape recordings sessions were conducted and thereafter the copies of questionnaires issued to both the selected teachers and learners from each school. In each case a precise brief was given on the nature of information required from them by the researcher; confidentiality of the information provided was assured and they were asked to neither mention their personal names nor those of their specific schools anywhere on the questionnaires.

3.12 Data Analysis Procedures

Researchers have asserted that data analysis involves the ordering, structuring and giving meaning to the mass of data collected (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999; Marshall and Rossman, 1989). In this study, this involved a simultaneous approach of data collection and analysis especially during classroom observation. Creswell (2003:190) states that in qualitative inquiry, data analysis is “an on going process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytical questions and writing memos throughout the study”.

After collecting the data, the data from the three instruments were handled separately before triangulation. The questionnaire data was coded, means and averages found and tables and figures derived from that information. The observation schedules were analysed and the data grouped according to its relevance to the objectives of the study and taxonomies established by the researcher. Similarly the tapes were also transcribed and analysed. The information derived was examined and discussed against the information obtained through the questionnaire and observation. Finally,

all the data interpreted, and analysed helped the researcher to discuss the findings according to themes and to draw conclusions as presented in the next two chapters of this study.

3.13 Field Experiences

The process of carrying out a research is quite experiential. It involves a number of interesting and also challenging issues. The following are the challenges faced by the researcher:

- a) Lack of rapport between the researcher and some of the respondents, particularly the English language teachers who seemed suspicious of the researcher's presence. Some of them thought the researcher was on a fault finding mission. This led to situations where 3 of the teachers were not willing to be observer in class. Consequently, they did not turn up when their lessons were to be observed as scheduled.
- b) Some teachers were not willing to respond to questionnaires, if they did, they did not adequately complete them. They complained of too much work in school which did not allow them time to fill into the questionnaires.
- c) Some of the teachers who were willing to respond to the questionnaires took rather too long to complete the task, even long after the agree date of collection. This delayed and prolonged the collection of questionnaires from both the teachers and the learners.
- d) Due to poor road infrastructure, accessing schools in the interior parts of Central Kakamega District was difficult.
- e) Despite all these challenges, the research process proved to be interesting. The researcher enjoyed sitting in classrooms where English language lessons were being conducted and observing how both the teachers and learners

endeavoured to employ different LTS and LLS, respectively. The researcher appreciated the fact that both teachers and learners made effort to enhance development of communicative competence in English.

3.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the specific research design and issue of methodology in this study. Specifically, it focused on the study area, the study population, sample and the sampling techniques by giving details and descriptions of how the study sample was obtained. The research instruments were discussed in detail, outlining procedures for their administration. Lastly, the data collection process, validity and reliability of the instruments, ethical considerations, piloting of instruments and field experiences were also discussed. The next chapter lays out the study findings, the data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter covers information on data analysis, presentation, and interpretation. It describes the modes and procedures by which the data collected was processed in order to come up with findings of the study. It also provides a discussion of the findings of the research.

4.2 Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

The data collected was analysed thematically and descriptively using descriptive statistics. This was done in line with the four specific objectives of the study which were to:

1. To investigate and establish the language learners' awareness and use of LLS
2. To determine the language learners' predisposition to using LLS
3. To establish the language teachers' awareness of LLS
4. To assess how LLS influence the manner in which instruction in English is conducted

The data obtained provided information on the various variables under investigation in form of comparisons, relationships, explanations and explorations of the various LLS and LTS. Processing the data involved transcription, editing, coding, classification, tabulation, frequencies and percentages (Kothari, 1990). These provided the "various measures that showed the size and shape of distribution(s) along with the study of measuring relationships between two or more variables,"

(ibid, 130). The following sub-topics have been used to present the data that was obtained in the entire study:

- a) Learner questionnaire
- b) Teacher questionnaire
- c) Classroom observation and audio-tape recording
- d) Discussion

4.2.1 Report and Results of the Learner Questionnaire

The learner questionnaire (Appendix 3) was given to F2, F3 and F4 learners sampled from the 12 selected secondary schools. Out of the 12 secondary schools that formed the study population sample, a total of 72 learners, 6 from each school (2 F2, 2 F3 and 2 F4) were involved in completing the questionnaires. All the learner questionnaires were returned. This questionnaire consisted of two main parts:

- a) *Part A* was geared towards collecting information on the specific schools and learners' background.
- b) *Part B* was geared towards collecting information about language learners' awareness and use of LLS; and their orientation to using LLS in enhancing language learning. It also sought information on the teachers' use of LTS.

Part A –Learners' Background

Part A consisted of *Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4* which provided the background information concerning the learners' school categories/types, ages, gender and class levels respectively. This information was used to determine how these various factors influenced LLS use by the respondents. The researcher ensured a fair representation of all the school categories and types within the study area, thus the following schools were selected on the basis of their total representation in the study region: three Girls

Schools, two Boys Schools and seven Mixed Schools. Of these, there was one District Girls School, two Provincial Girls schools, two Provincial Boys Schools and seven Mixed District Schools making up a total of the 12 schools used in the entire study. The frequency distribution of the respondents from these schools was: 6 respondents from the District Girls School, 12 respondents from the Provincial Girls schools, 12 respondents from the Provincial Boys Schools and 42 respondents from the Mixed District Schools. There were no District Boys Schools and Provincial Mixed Schools within the study area.

The respondent's gender frequency distributions were as follows: 40 [55.6%] female learners and 32 [44.4%] male learners, while the frequency distributions of their age were: age 15 [8 (11.1%)] respondents, age 16 [18 (25.0%)] respondents, age 17 [25 (34.7%)] respondents, age 18 [18 (25.0%)] respondents, age 19 [1 (1.4%)] respondents and age 20 [2 (2.8%)] respondents. Most of the respondents were between ages 16-18, a total of 61 learners corresponding to 84.7% of the total study learner population. Concerning the respondents' class levels, an equal number of respondents, 6 learners from each school, were selected on the basis of F2, F3 and F4 making up a total of the 72 learners involved in completing the learner questionnaires. A comprehensive summary of this information is presented in Tables 3.2, 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Learners according to School Categories and Types

School Category and Type	Frequency	Percentage
District Girls School	6	8.3
Mixed District School	42	58.3
Provincial Boys School	12	16.7
Provincial Girls School	12	16.7
Total	72	100.0

Table 4.2: Distribution of Learners according to Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	40	55.6
Male	32	44.4
Total	72	100.0

Table 4.3: Distribution of Learners according to Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
15	8	11.1
16	18	25.0
17	25	34.7
18	18	25.0
19	1	1.4
20	2	2.8
Total	72	100.0

Table 4.4: Distribution of Learners according to Class Levels

Class Level	Frequency	Percentage
F2	24	33.3
F3	24	33.3
F3	24	33.3
Total	72	100.0

Part B –Language Learning Strategy (LLS) Use

Part B of this questionnaire consisted of *Questions 5-14* which provided information on the LLS used by learners; and the LLS taxonomies commonly employed by learners and their predisposition to using these particular LLS. It also provided general information about the learners' understanding of the LTS their teachers used.

The key aspects analysed from the learner questionnaire were handled under the following main sub-headings:

- a) Learners' awareness of language learning strategies (LLS)
- b) Language learning strategy (LLS) use
- c) Predisposition to the use of language learning strategies (LLS)
- d) Teachers' use of language teaching strategies (LTS)

4.2.1.1 Learners' awareness of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

It was important for the researcher to establish if the learners experienced situations that would lead them to using LLS before establishing their awareness of their existence and use. In order to do this the information gathered from *Question 5, 6 and 7* was used. These questions sought to find out the challenges and difficulties the secondary school learners were facing at all levels in the process of learning and using English in school; the things they did (LLS) to solve and handle the challenges and difficulties they mentioned; and lastly to confirm from them whether they did certain things in class and outside class that would help them in remembering, understanding and analysing language learnt, respectively.

These responses provided adequate ground for the researcher to establish the fact that the respondents had good reasons to develop and use LLS to enhance and make learning of English easier and more enjoyable, particularly because they are ESL

learners. A total of 37 reasons were given by the 72 respondents. Of these, only 29 did warrant the development and use of LLS by the specific respondents, while the rest, 8 of them (those presented in italics in Table 4.5 were considered to be directly related to LTS. Among the 29 responses, 25 had frequency presentations of 25-49 respondents a clear indication that a considerable number of learners experienced challenges and difficulties in varied areas and skills of learning and using English. Refer to Table 4.5 for a comprehensive presentation of these responses.

Therefore, a wide range of LLS use was expected if at all the learners were aware of the existence and benefit of LLS. A comprehensive summary of the LLS suggested by the learners is presented in Table 4.6. What comes through the data presented in Table 4.6 is the fact that not all the learners are aware of how to go about solving the problems and challenges they encounter in learning and using of English. A closer look at frequencies and percentages of respondents representing each LLS clearly indicates that the most common LLS are '*consult/ask teachers for clarification*' [34 (47.2%)] respondents, '*reading newspapers/story books widely*' [29 (40.3%)] respondents, '*practice using new words (vocabulary)*' [28 (38.9%)] respondents and '*using the dictionary to find meanings of new words*' [27 (37.5%)] which have percentages above 37, the rest have low frequencies and percentages which range between 5 [6.9%] –21 [29.2%] respondents only.

These results reflect two major issues: first, many learners have a limited understanding and awareness of the existence of LLS. Therefore, they do not use them when need be. Second, almost all the learners are aware of LLS but do not put them to use when faced with situations that require their use.

Furthermore with regard to learner use of LLS, in both situations, in and out of class, a larger proportion of the respondents said they actually did certain things to help them in remembering, understanding and analysing language learnt as compared to those who said they did not do this. The results show that learners more often use LLS in class (64 [89%]) than they use them outside class (55 [76%]).

Most of the reasons learners gave for this kind of practice are a clear pointer to the fact that they have clear and obvious intentions of improving in all their language skills. However some learners do not have a clear understanding and direction on specific LLS use. This is emphasized by the set of respondents who said that these LLS were not valuable in language learning; both in class (8 [11.1%]) and outside class (17 [23.6%]).

This picture is further depicted in the responses in *Question 6* and *Question 8*. Of the 72 respondents, only 34 LLS were suggested. Furthermore, when asked to identify LLS they used from the SILL provided there was an indication that they did not always use LLS in the four main language skill areas. This would appear that the respondents are conscious of a limited number of LLS and their utilization is not a conscious process most of the time, despite the very wide and varied range of LLS available. They need prompting or schema activation about the existence of these LLS in order to be able to use them; thus the need for LLS training by the teachers of English in relation to awareness, consciousness and use of LLS.

Table 4.5: Challenges and Difficulties Learners Face when Learning and Using English in School

Challenges	Frequency of Respondents	Percentages
Inadequate reading materials/books	32	44.4
<i>Lack of clarification of points by teachers</i>	40	55.5
<i>Teachers using high speed during dictation</i>	35	48.6
MT influence in writing & speaking	42	58.3
<i>Teachers coming to class late</i>	6	8.3
Lack of concentration by some students	5	6.9
Speaking of broken English	43	59.7
Using of Sheng/slang	49	68.1
Wrong use of certain English words	30	41.7
Negative attitude towards English	36	50.0
Lack of understanding questions during exams	47	65.3
Difficulty in revising/studying English	38	52.8
Problems in spelling	40	55.6
Discouragement from others	29	40.3
Difficulty in understanding some concepts e.g. Tenses	36	50.0
Limited time for analysis set books	17	23.6
Poor memory	33	45.8
Poetry questions are challenging	17	23.6
Poor background in English	31	43.1
<i>Boring and harsh teachers hence students fear learning English</i>	26	36.1
Wide scope of study in English	39	54.2
Inadequate revision in English, English considered an easy subject	44	61.1
Quick in forgetting set book content	37	51.4
English is only spoken in school	45	62.5
Negative attitude towards teachers of English	37	51.4
Lack of organization of work in school	36	50.0
Lack of learner participation during English lessons	29	40.3
<i>Teachers do not plan adequately for their lessons</i>	25	34.7
<i>Learners not told the appropriate books to use</i>	39	54.2
<i>Learners are not given assignments</i>	37	51.4
Unable to understand/interpret some topics	49	68.1
Challenged by literature, especially poetry	34	47.2
Lack of consultation	48	66.7
Limited use of the library	32	44.4
Poor reader because of stammering	1	1.4
Shallow/ brief textbooks	32	44.4
<i>Little emphasis and attention given to some areas of study by teachers</i>	17	23.6

Table 4.6: What Learners do to solve and Handle the Challenges and Difficulties faced when Learning and using English

Solutions (LLS)	Frequency of Respondents	Percentages
Use of dictionary to find meanings of new words	27	37.5
Reading thoroughly information not understood	16	22.2
Practice speaking English	21	29.2
Consult/ask teachers for clarification	34	47.2
Reading newspapers/story books widely	29	40.3
Translating Kiswahili books into English	16	22.2
Practice using new words (vocabulary)	28	38.9
Practice writing compositions/essays	16	22.2
Reviewing work already done in class	14	19.4
Look for people to talk to in English	13	18.1
Practice in spelling of new words	17	23.6
Practice use of punctuation marks	21	29.2
Make reference to other books	12	16.7
Using new words/vocabulary for mastery	13	18.1
Asking fellow students for help	16	22.2
Attempt extra work and giving it out for marking	15	20.8
Practicing proper pronunciation of English words	16	22.2
Buying/borrowing English text books	8	11.1
Watching movies/educative programmes	8	11.1
Thorough preparation/revision	11	15.3
Being attentive in class (concentrate in class)	15	20.8
Avoiding the use of Sheng	8	11.1
Understanding questions before answering them	8	11.1
Taking notes during lessons	9	12.5
Narrating stories to fellow students	6	8.3
Having a positive attitude towards English	13	18.1
Being friendly to teachers of English	8	11.1
Making use of the library	9	12.5
Using English group discussions	7	9.7
Participating in class activities	10	13.9
Making summary notes in English	13	18.1
Memorizing learnt language structures	14	19.4
Organizing thoughts/ideas before speaking	11	15.3
Listening to good speakers of English	5	6.9

4.2.1.2 Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Research has established that the use of LLS is a common and useful practice in language learning. The responses obtained from *Question 5* and *Question 6* which required the learners to mention challenges and difficulties they faced when learning English and how they handled them, show that they experienced challenges and difficulties and that they use a number of varied LLS.

The comprehensive list of these 10 taxonomies of LLS (SILL) was presented to the respondents in *Question 8*. The pattern of their use among the learners involved in the study is highlighted in Figure 4.1. This information was used by the researcher to ascertain the most prevalently used LLS taxonomy to the least used taxonomy.

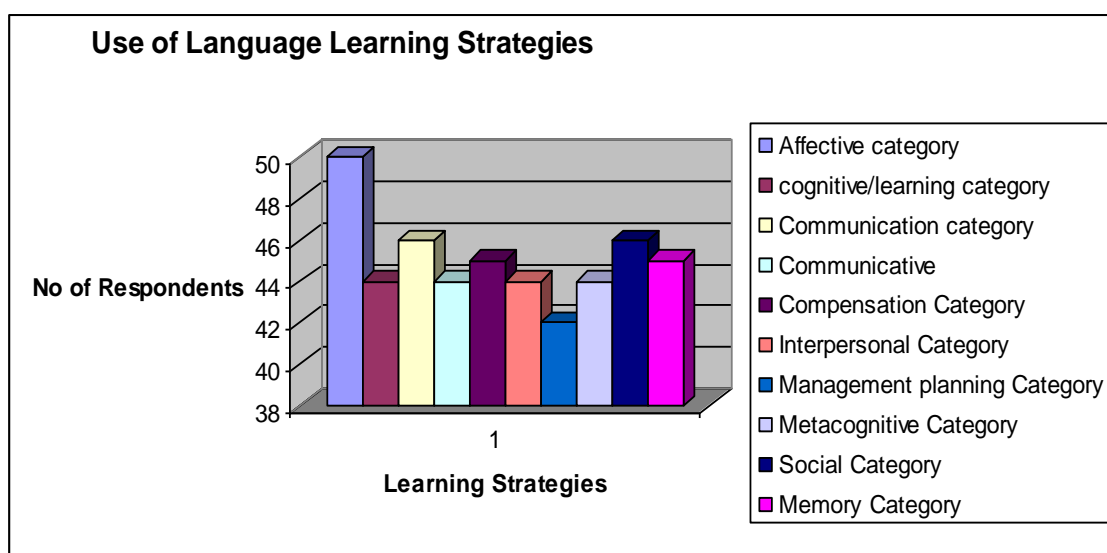


Figure 4.1: Use of LLS Taxonomies among Learners

According to this presentation, the most popular taxonomy of LLS is the affective strategy category. The popularity of use among these LLS taxonomies decreases in the following order: communication strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, memory strategies, cognitive-learning strategies, communicative-

experimental strategies, interpersonal strategies, metacognitive strategies and lastly management planning strategies. A precise summary is presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Use of LLS Taxonomies among Learners

Language Learning Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Affective	50	69.4
Social	46	63.9
Communication	46	63.9
Memory	45	62.5
Compensation	45	62.5
Cognitive-learning	44	61.1
Communicative-experimental	44	61.1
Interpersonal	44	61.1
Management Planning	42	58.3
Metacognitive	42	58.3

In order to further establish the pattern of use of these LLS among the learners, the SILL in the learner questionnaire was also considered under the four main language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. A precise summary of their use is presented in Figure 4.2. This information has been used by the researcher to ascertain under which skills the learners prevalently used the LLS provided. An examination of the information in Figure 4.2 was used to establish the pattern of use in regard to the most popular skill to the least popular skill. What comes through the data is that, the 10 taxonomies of LLS are popularly used with speaking skills, then reading skills, followed by listening skills and lastly with the writing skills. These results are a pointer to the fact that learners find more difficulty in the learning of writing and listening skills as compared to speaking and reading skills where the LLS are less frequently used.

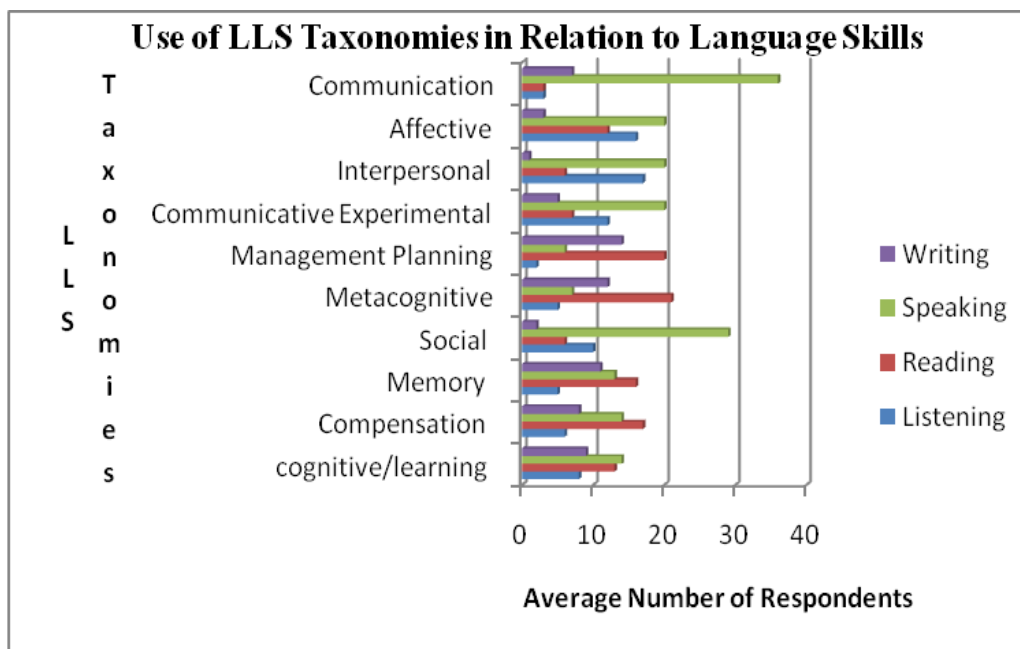


Figure 4.2: Use of LLS Taxonomies among Learners in relation to the Four Main Language Skills

The responses of *Question 10 (a)* which required the respondents to say whether they found LLS useful in language, show that a large number of respondents find them useful in various situations. These are: learning and using English in class 98.6%, using of English outside class 87.5%, performing better in English 94.4% and improving in all skills in English 93.1%. Furthermore, the responses in *Question 10 (b)*, where the respondents were expected to give more situations when they found LLS useful, gave a deeper insight into the varied ways in which they considered the usefulness of LLS. A total of 21 reasons were given, however, each was represented by very small numbers of respondents from the total of 72 respondents. This expresses a rather shallow understanding of how useful the LLS are in the process of learning and use of English. This also implies that they do not frequently use LLS in process of learning English. A comprehensive summary of this picture is provided by Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Usefulness of LLS

LLS Usefulness	Frequency of Respondents	Percentages
Help me to know my weaknesses in learning English	6	8.3
Help me in sharing information I have learnt with my friends	8	11.1
Make it easy for me to answer and tackle questions in all subjects	25	34.7
Help me in identifying and marking errors in English	7	9.7
Enhance understanding (through clarification) even in other subjects	8	11.1
Help me appreciate English	11	15.3
Help me in doing specific work at the correct time	7	9.7
Help in improving language etiquette	8	11.1
Enhance thinking and reasoning power in English	6	8.3
Help in improving knowledge in English	21	29.2
Help me to gain confidence and courage in learning of English	17	23.6
Help me in quick and easy decision making	12	16.7
Help me in setting my goals and organizing my work	17	23.6
Help me apply language used outside class, in the classroom	14	19.4
Enable me to compete with other learners of English	9	12.5
Help me participating during English lessons	6	8.3
Help me getting meanings of vocabulary	7	9.7
Help me writing correct spelling	11	15.3
Help me in improving my hand writing	3	4.2
Help me in understanding of written material	9	12.5
Help me in understanding and remembering what other people say in English	15	20.8

This data presentation also shows that larger proportions of the learners are not aware and conscious of LLS usefulness in learning of English. Only the provided choices had high frequencies and percentages of respondents. Those suggested by the respondents (Table 4.8) had very low frequencies and percentages of occurrence among the 72 respondents. This shows that many respondents do not have the motivation to use LLS in the learning process. They require prompting in order to be able to use them in the language learning process.

4.2.1.3 Learners' Predisposition to the use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) Information on the respondents' predisposition to the use of LLS was considered at various levels by the researcher: school category and type, age, gender, class level and aspects of consciousness about LLS use. The information obtained from *Part A* of the learner questionnaire was particularly intended to provide variables to determine the patterns and styles applied by the respondents in the use of LLS; particularly those LLS provided in the questionnaire SILL. This information in particular was provided by data from *Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4* which sought to find out the respondents' school categories/type, age, gender and class level; all related to the manner in which the LLS presented in *Question 8* were used, with an aim to establish if they had any influence and effect on the styles and patterns of LLS use.

Cross-tabulation results of these LLS taxonomies and the main learner variables under investigation in this study are presented in Figures 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5. These have been used to show how the various variables in the study influence the manner in which the various taxonomies of LLS are used by the learners involved in the study.

In regard to cognitive abilities of the learners, the Provincial Schools and the District Schools were used as a measure. What comes through the findings is that the learners from the District Schools use LLS more than those from the Provincial Schools. This could be due to the fact that learners from District Schools experience more difficulties and challenges in language learning. Learners with higher cognitive abilities experience less difficulties and problems because they are able to conceptualize certain language content faster and more easily.

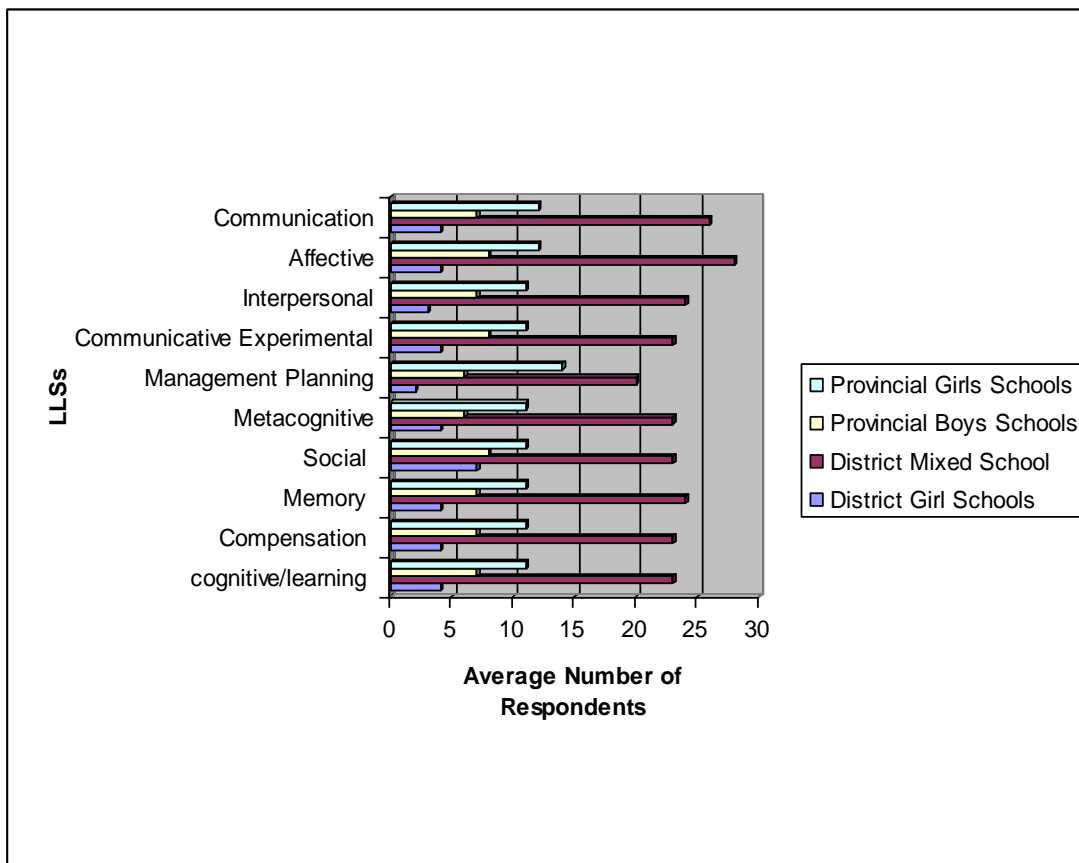


Figure 4.3: LLS use in relation to Cognitive Abilities

With regard to age, what comes through is that learners between the age of 16-18 use language strategies most. Refer to Figure 4.4 for a comprehensive summary of this information.

With regard to gender, what comes through the data is that more female learners use LLS compared to the male learners. The respondent's gender frequency distributions in the entire study were as follows: 40 (55.6%) female learners and 32 (44.4%) male learners (Table 4.2). However the frequency distribution of how the learners used LLS according to the 10 taxonomies and in relation to their gender is presented in Figure 4.5 in summary form.

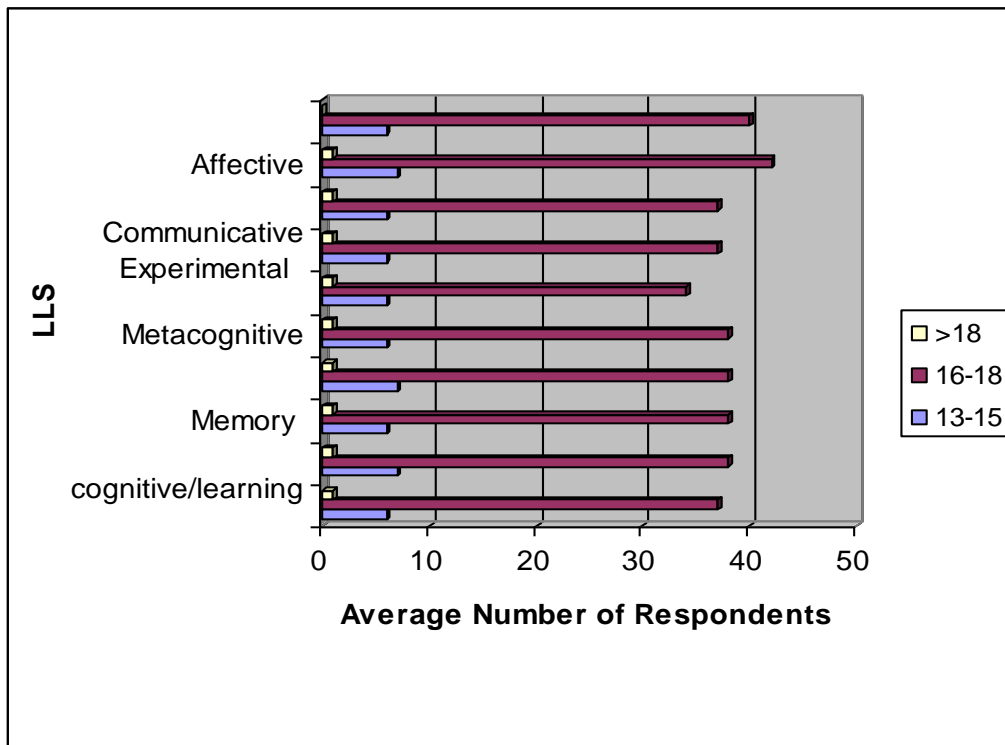


Figure 4.4: LLS use in relation to Learner Age

The researcher was not able to establish whether the learners in the Mixed Schools used LLS any differently from the single sex schools. There was no equal distribution of the school types and categories in the region within which the research was conducted. Any comparison made, obviously means that there will be more learners from the Mixed Schools, followed by the learners from the Girls Schools and lastly the learners from the Boys Schools. Refer to Table 4.1 for a further understanding of these distributions and to Figure 4.3 for the use of LLS.

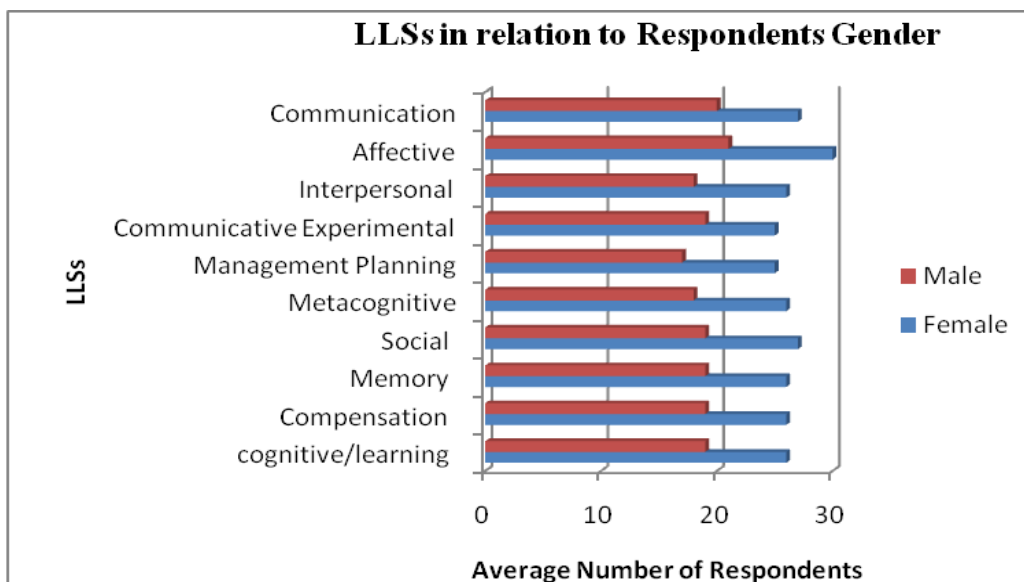


Figure 4.5: LLS use in relation to Learner Gender

In relation to class levels, emerges from the data collected is that these LLS are most popular among the F2 learners, followed by F4 learners and lastly, least popular among the F3 learners. This could be explained by the fact that F2 learners are young and are still experimenting with the language, so frequently and consciously use LLS. While the F3 and F4 learners know and understand the usefulness of LLS in Language learning, therefore they less consciously use them in the process of language learning and use. A comprehensive presentation of these information and frequencies is presented in Figure 4.6.

To further establish the learners' predisposition to using LLS, it was necessary to assess the levels of consciousness in the use of the various LLS taxonomies. Thus *Question 9* provided valuable information regarding their level of consciousness when they used the LLS listed under *Question 8*. A highlight of this information is provided in Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9.

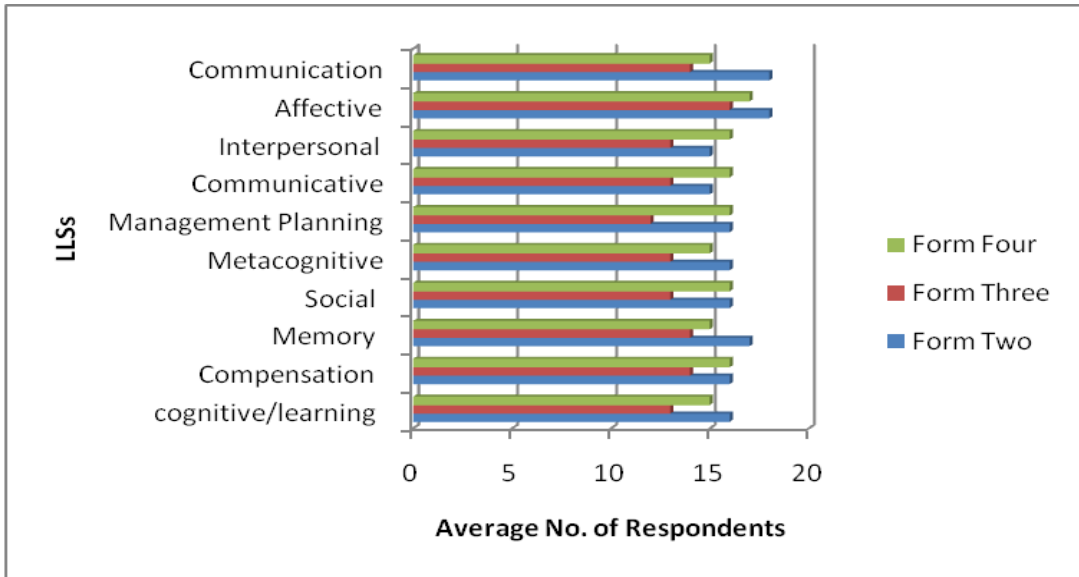


Figure 4.6: LLS use in relation to Learner Class Levels

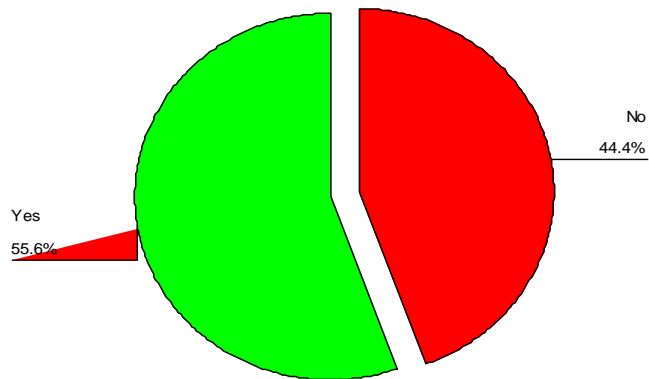


Figure 4.7: Conscious Use of LLS

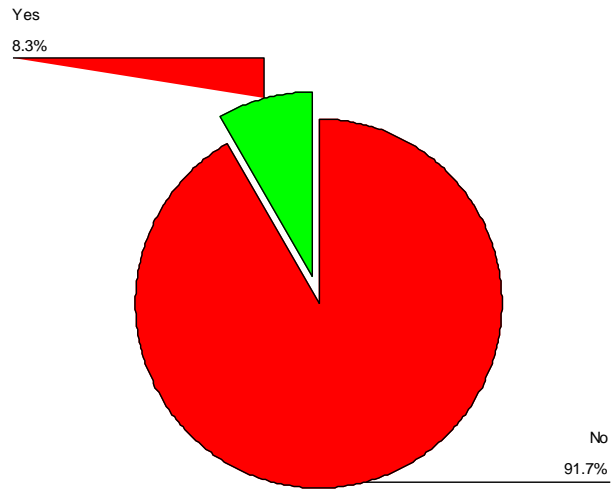


Figure 4.8: Unconscious Use of LLS

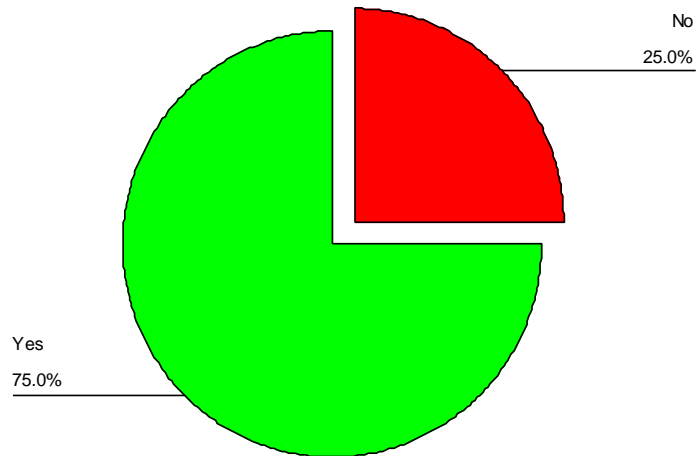


Figure 4.9: Conscious and Unconscious Use of LLS

The information in Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 reveals that the respondents were both conscious and unconscious about the use of LLS. This is because only a very small number (6 [8.3%]) said that they were not at all conscious, while 54 [75.0%] said they

were both conscious and unconscious in the use of LLS and lastly, 40 [55.6%] said

LTS	Frequencies and Percentages			
	Always	Never	Sometimes	Rarely

that they were completely conscious while using LLS.

4.2.1.4 Teachers' use of Language Teaching Strategies (LTS)

Questions 11 and 12 of the learner questionnaire sought to establish from the respondents information about the frequency of LTS use by teachers of English and the opportunities they are given to express their feelings and thoughts towards learning of English. The questionnaire presented thirty-five (35) LTS, those that enhanced the learning of English through the consideration of LLS, with a focus on IDs and unique learner characteristics. A comprehensive summary of frequency and percentage of use of the LTS is provided in Table 4.9.

Vary ways of asking questions (checking the learning)	36[50.0%]	6[8.3%]	27[37.5%]	3[4.2%]
Do not walk around the class	13[18.1%]	18[25%]	24[33.3%]	17[23.6%]
Include all learners in lesson participation	57[79.2%]	1[1.4%]	12[16.7%]	2[2.8%]
Class sits in the best possible way	46[63.9%]	8[11.1%]	13[18.1%]	5[6.9%]
Look at (focus on) all students in class	53[73.6%]	0	12[16.7%]	7[9.7%]
Limit teacher talking time during English lessons	16[22.2%]	28[38.9%]	22[30.6%]	3[4.2%]
Write clearly on the chalk board	59[81.9%]	2[2.8%]	8[11.1%]	3[4.2%]
Encourage learners into learning English	51[70.8%]	3[4.2%]	14[19.4%]	4[5.6%]
Careful with the use of grammatical items	43[59.7%]	6[8.3%]	19[26.4%]	4[5.6%]
Encourage learners to practice English outside the classroom	46[63.9%]	4[5.6%]	14[19.4%]	8[11.1%]
Account for different levels and abilities of learners within the English classroom	9[12.5%]	20[27.8%]	24[33.3%]	19[26.4%]
Deal with individual learner problems during English lessons	6[8.3%]	24[33.3%]	24[33.3%]	18[25%]
Pair and group work used (cooperative learning)	18[25%]	21[29.2%]	26[36.1%]	7[9.7%]
Use learners' names correctly	50[69.4%]	3[4.2%]	15[20.8%]	4[5.6%]
Correct learners' mistakes during the English lesson	63[87.5%]	2[2.8%]	72[100%]	7[9.7%]
Make the learners' understanding very clear to them	53[73.6%]	6[8.3%]	12[16.7%]	1[1.4%]
Focus on a few critical issues and show how they relate to other language items	35[48.6%]	5[6.9%]	28[38.9%]	4[5.6%]
Highlight the differences and inabilities within the learners	20[27.8%]	20[27.8%]	25[34.7%]	7[9.7%]
Create situations where learners focus their attention on the relevant aspects of the lesson	36[50%]	12[16.7%]	19[26.4%]	5[6.9%]
Present learners with new ways of seeing a language item	18[25%]	17[23.6%]	31[43.1%]	6[8.3%]
Teaching together various language structures that are related in an orderly manner	31[43.1%]	14[19.4%]	20[27.8%]	7[9.7%]
Test understanding of various language items	32[44.4%]	13[18.1%]	21[29.2%]	6[8.3%]
Use of thoughtful language activities	31[43.1%]	11[15.3%]	20[27.8%]	10[13.9%]
Concentrate on meaning of what the lesson content is about	44[61.1%]	9[12.5%]	14[19.4%]	5[6.9%]
Highlighting (through the use of explanations and illustrations)	51[70.8%]	5[6.9%]	13[18.1%]	3[4.2%]
Fixing (through the use of practice and repetitions)	20[27.8%]	13[18.1%]	29[40.3%]	10[13.9%]
Use every learning opportunity	24[33.3%]	10[13.9%]	33[45.8%]	5[6.9%]
Facilitate agreed instruction (among learners and teachers)	30[41.7%]	18[25%]	20[27.8%]	4[5.6%]
Tries to be very clear when teaching	60[83.3%]	6[8.3%]	5[6.9%]	1[1.4%]
Encourages learning by learners' experience and personal discovery	34[47.2%]	15[20.8%]	16[22.2%]	7[9.7%]
Help learners grow in language knowledge and understanding	47[65.3%]	7[9.7%]	14[19.4%]	4[5.6%]
Teach language items in relation to the way language is used in everyday life	36[50%]	8[11.1%]	21[29.2%]	7[9.7%]
Teach language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) together	44[61.1%]	13[18.1%]	11[15.3%]	4[5.6%]
Promote learner freedom of participation and self guidance during the English lesson	45[62.5%]	9[12.5%]	12[16.7%]	6[8.3%]
Raise cultural consciousness (related to language use)	20[27.8%]	18[25%]	23[31.9%]	11[15.3%]
Ensure social relevance of the language learnt	26[36.1%]	8[11.1%]	23[31.9%]	15[20.8%]

Table 4.9: English Language Teachers' use of LTS

The results in Table 4.9 show that most of the LTS are used by the respondents' teachers of English. However, the frequencies of use are low. Among the listed 36 LTS, the most commonly used are 25 while the least used are 11 in total. Those considered to be the most commonly used had the following frequencies: between 30-60 respondents who chose '*always*', 5-28 respondents who chose '*sometimes*' and 0-18 who chose *rarely* and *never*. While those considered to be the least commonly used had the following frequencies: between 6-26 respondents who chose '*always*', 22-33 respondents who chose '*sometimes*' and 5-28 who chose *rarely* and *never*.

Of the four statements provided, the respondents suggested that *most teachers allowed them opportunity to talk in class* (68 [94.4%]), while 46 [63.9%] said that *their teachers gave them opportunity to express their views concerning teaching of English*, while 36 [50.0%], said that *their teachers gave them opportunity to express the challenges and difficulties they faced in the learning of English*, while 47 [65.3%] said that *their teachers gave them opportunity to talk about the things they did to make learning of English easier*. These results reveal that a large proportion of the teachers of English are open with their learners and so they provide them with the opportunities and avenues to express themselves during the learning process. However, a close examination of the presentation in Table 4.9 depicts a situation where many of the English language teachers are to a considerable degree denying their learners the opportunity to adequately learn English. They are not exploiting all the possible avenues which could be accomplished through the use of a wide range of LTS.

4.2.1.5 Suggestions from Learners about Language Learning and Teaching Strategies

In order to obtain the information on suggestions about language learning and teaching strategies from the learners, *Questions 13 and 14*, the last questions of the learner questionnaire were asked. They sought general information from the respondents concerning ways through which their teachers could help them learn English better and, the teaching and learning of English in Kenyan secondary schools in relation to LLS and LTS. The suggestions by the respondents specifically focus attention to the fact that they have a strong feeling that their teachers do not pay adequate attention to learner IDs and the challenges and difficulties they face during the process of learning English. Their teachers need to rethink their ways of handling English language lessons, particularly in the nature of LTS used and a focus on learner-centred teaching approaches. They point at an encouragement of learner autonomy in language learning; a practice that not only encourages the development of LLS but also the appropriate use of the LLS they have developed. This, they indicate could be achieved if their teachers engaged in tasks and activities that would enhance the development of independent English language study. Generally, the responses suggested by the 72 respondents centred around three major theme areas: development and use of LLS, training in the use of LLS and valuable LTS.

4.2.2 Report and Results of the Teacher Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire (Appendix 2) was specifically designed for the teachers of English teaching in any of the levels F2, F3 and F4 only. Out of the 12 secondary schools that formed the study population sample, and the 36 teachers targeted, three from each school, only a total of 33 (91.6%) teachers completed their questionnaires.

The 3 (8.4%) teachers did not complete their questionnaires and were not willing to return them to the researcher.

This questionnaire consisted of two parts:

- a) *Part A* was geared towards collecting information on the specific schools and teachers' background.
- b) *Part B* sought to collect information about language teachers' awareness of LLS and how their learners use LLS; their orientation in the use of LTS and their endeavours to sensitize their learners into the use of LLS in enhancing language learning.

Part A –Teachers' Background

Part A of the teacher questionnaire consisted of *Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5* and *6* which provided bio-data about the category/type of school the teachers taught in, the teachers' educational and professional qualifications, the gender of the teachers, the teachers' length of time in the teaching profession, the teachers' teaching subjects and the specific class levels they teach respectively. This information was used to determine how these factors influenced the use of LTS and their preparation for teaching English. A comprehensive summary of the frequencies and percentages is presented in Tables 4.10, 4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15.

Table 4.10: Educational and Professional Qualifications of the Teachers of English

Education and Professional Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Diploma	3	9.1
Degree (B.ED)	27	81.8
Degree (B.A) and Post graduate diploma (Ed)	2	6.1
Degree (B.ED) and Masters in Education	1	3.0
Total	33	100.0

Table 4.11: Gender of the Teachers of English

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	21	63.6
Male	12	36.4
Total	33	100.0

Table 4.12: Teaching Period of the Teachers of English

Teaching Period (Years)	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	8	24.2
6-10	10	30.3
11-15	3	9.1
16-20	7	21.2
>20	5	15.2
Total	33	100.0

Table 4.13: Teaching Subjects of the Teachers of English

Teaching Subjects	Frequency	Percentage
English and Literature	30	90.9
English, Literature and Other	3	9.1
Total	33	100.0

Table 4.14: Classes Taught by the Teachers of English

Classes	Frequency	Percentage
Form 3	1	3.0
Form 4	1	3.0
Form 3 and 4	5	15.2
Form 2 and 3	5	15.2
Form 2 and 4	2	6.1
All	19	57.6
Total	33	100.0

Table 4.15: School Categories and Types of the Teachers of English

School Category and Type	Frequency	Percentage
District Girls School	3	9.1
Mixed District School	21	63.6
Provincial Boys School	5	15.2
Provincial Girls School	4	12.1
Total	33	100.0

The summary of the school categories and types where the respondents taught shows that the highest number of respondents was from the Mixed District Schools (21), followed by that of Boys Provincial Schools (5) and lastly the Girls District and Provincial Schools which had 3 and 4 respondents respectively (Table 4.15). These numbers were influenced by the sampling technique used and the proportion of the various categories and levels of schools used in the study; where 3 teachers from each of the selected schools were involved in the study, and Mixed Schools are the majority within the study region. Using this information, the researcher wanted to establish if the kind of a school where a teacher taught determined the way he/she used LTS in relation to LLS used by the respective learners.

Regarding the teachers' educational and professional qualifications, the information presented in Table 4.10 reveals that most of the respondents involved in the study were Bachelor of Education (B.ED) holders (27 [81.8%]). The other 3 levels were distributed among the remaining 6 respondents as follows: 3 respondents were Diploma holders, 2 respondents were Bachelor of Arts (B.A) and a Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) holders and lastly, 1 respondent had a Masters in Education. Using this information, the researcher wanted to establish if the teacher's educational and professional qualifications determined the way he/she used LTS in relation to LLS used by the respective learners.

The study results, as presented in Table 4.12, show that most of the respondents involved in the study were those who have taught for 10 years and below (18 [54.5%]), while those who had taught for 16 –above 20 years were 12 [36.4%]. The category with the least number of respondents (3 [9.1%]) was that of those who have taught for a period between 11-15 years. All the respondents except 3 (Table 1.13) said they taught both English and Literature. The 3 were Diploma holders and they said that they taught English, Literature and another third subject. Of all the 33 respondents, 21 [63.6%] were female while 12 [36.4%] were male (table 1.12). In regard to the various class levels the respondents taught, 19 said they taught all the four class levels, while 12 said they taught only two of the class levels and respondent 5 and 21 said that they only taught F3 and F4 respectively. Table 4.14 gives a summary of the information on the class levels various teachers teach. Using this information the researcher wished to establish if the teacher's teaching period of time or experience and classes they taught had an influence on the way they used LTS in relation to LLS used by respective learners.

Part B –The use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and Language Teaching Strategies (LTS)

Part B of the teacher questionnaire consisted of *Questions 7-21* and it provided information regarding the teachers' awareness and utilization of LLS; and how these influenced the instructional process and the classroom procedures used. It further provided information about the methodologies and LTS teachers used during instruction in English lessons and which they preferred to use and why.

The key aspects analysed from the teacher questionnaire were handled under the following main sub-headings:

- a) Learners' awareness and use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)
- b) Learners' predisposition in using Language Learning Strategies (LLS)
- c) Language Teachers' awareness of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)
- d) Language Teachers' use of language teaching strategies (LTS)
- e) Influence of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) on Instruction in English
- f) Language Learning Strategy (LLS) Training

4.2.2.1 Learners' awareness and use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Using the information gathered from *Questions 11 (a), (b), (c)* and *13* of the teacher questionnaire, the researcher generally wanted to ascertain the level of learners' awareness and frequency of use of LLS from the teachers' understanding. The results show that a large proportion of their learners did certain things or exhibited certain behaviours (LLS) in the process of learning English. The results also show that the use of LLS is not a permanent practice in their learning. They seem to choose situations when to use them. Furthermore, the respondents were of the view that their learners did not appropriately use the LLS. Table 4.16 provides a precise summary of

these results. This implies that learners are aware of LLS but do not adequately exploit them for language learning.

Table 4.16 Learners use of LLS

Awareness and Use	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	30	90.9
No	2	6.1
Not sure	1	3.0
Total	33	100.0
Frequency of Use		
Always	8	24.2
Hardly	1	3.0
Sometimes	22	66.7
Not applicable	2	6.1
Total	33	100.0
Appropriate Use		
Very good	1	3.0
Good	6	18.2
Fair	15	45.5
Poor	10	30.0
Very poor	0	0
Not applicable	1	3.0
Total	33	100.0

In response to the SILL in the teacher questionnaire, the teachers' views concerning how their learners use LLS shows that only an average number of learners endeavoured to use LLS during the process of language learning. This is depicted through the low levels of the frequencies and percentages of teachers as graphically presented in Figure 4.10.

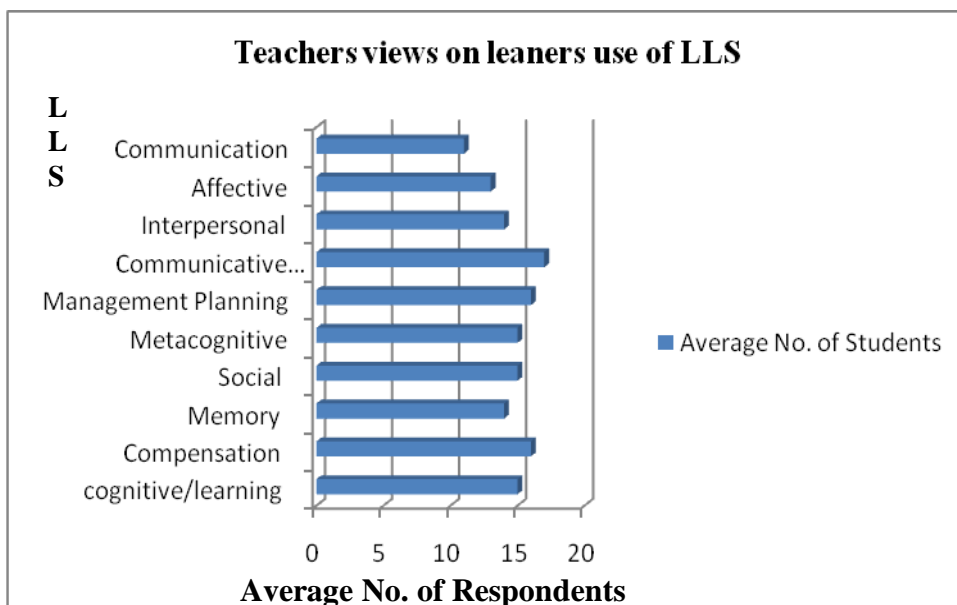


Figure 4.10: Teachers' views on the use of LLS by their Learners

The most commonly to the least commonly used LLS are according to the teachers are: communicative-experimental strategies, compensation strategies, management planning strategies, cognitive/learning strategies, social strategies, metacognitive strategies, memory strategies, interpersonal strategies, affective strategies and lastly, communication strategies. For a comprehensive summary of this information refer to Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Teachers' views on the use of LLS by their Learners

Language Learning Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Communicative-experimental	16	48.5
Compensation	15	45.5
Management Planning	15	45.5
Cognitive-learning	14	42.4
Social	14	42.4
Metacognitive	14	42.4
Memory	13	39.4
Interpersonal	13	39.4
Affective	12	36.4
Communication	11	33.3

In order to further establish how the learners put to use various LLS when faced by different circumstances during learning of English, the researcher in *Question 12* asked the teachers to describe how their learners responded under different circumstances during the English language learning process. Using this information, the researcher wished to establish how the learners endeavoured to cope with the rather difficult and destructing situations and content.

To begin with, *Question 12 (a), (b) and (c)* particularly wanted to establish how the learners responded when prompted by the teacher, fellow learners and the self. An examination of the results in Table 4.18 would suffice to say that learners are freer and seem to learn better when prompted by fellow learners than by teachers. These responses and their frequencies indicate that despite the fact that learners prompt themselves when learning English, it is not a frequent practice. This is an indicator that their use of LLS is likely not to be an automatic process, they sometimes also require external activation in order to get immersed in the language learning process.

This is supported by what respondent 21 said '*respond better than when prompted by the teacher*'. Beside these, some respondents said '*they were not sure*' while others said those situations were *not applicable* to their learners. This shows that some teachers do not make any effort to know and understand how and what their learners go through, under different circumstances, in the process of language learning. This is a clear indicator to the fact that they do not pay attention to any learner behaviour related to LLS in any way and so they are likely not to employ LTS that are related to LLS by their learners.

In order to further establish how learners learnt English, *Questions 12 (d), (e), (f) and (g)* particularly solicited information on how the learners responded when learning rather challenging language items and tasks; new language items and tasks; new language items that they were already familiar with; and learning language items they considered easy to grasp, respectively. A precise summary of the various teachers' responses is provided in Table 4.19.

Table 4.18 How Learners responded when prompted during Lessons

By the Teacher	Frequency	Percentage
Hesitant they feel they lack the correct responses	18	54.5
Keep quiet sometimes	17	51.5
Become very active and willing to take part in tasks	20	60.6
They respond even when they do not know the answer	7	21.2
By fellow Learners		
Feel shy, intimidated when not sure of the answer, do not respond	20	60.6
May respond in mother tongue or Kiswahili	4	12.1
Some become uneasy and insecure, do not answer	2	6.1
Encouraged to respond when sure of the answer	23	69.7
By the Self		
They are enthusiastic about what they know	11	33.3
Respond after some time if unsure of the answer	16	48.5
Rarely happens (they do not do it)	14	42.4

Table 4.19 Learner responses to different Lesson Content

Challenging Language Items and Tasks	Frequency	Percentage
Get bored and loose interest	23	69.7
Indication that they are struggling to learn	10	30.3
Not easy to get them to respond (do not participate)	16	48.5
Low achievers give up (only high achievers take part)	17	51.5
Few consult the teachers concerned later (may seek for clarification)	2	6.1
New Language Items and Tasks		
They withdraw, whisper in class and even doze	12	36.4
If not challenging tasks they are enthusiastic	14	42.4
They show eagerness, listen keenly	22	66.7
Keen if items are introduced in an interesting manner	11	33.3
Participate but they do not easily remember or attempt tasks	14	42.4
Familiar and New Language Tasks		
Low achievers respond with keenness	15	45.5
There is active participation, answer questions	27	81.8
There are chorus answers or responses	12	36.4
Keen learners respond positively	7	21.2
They tend to ignore some information	12	36.4
Learners who lack interest in learning respond negatively	6	18.2
High achievers exhibit boredom (consider it a waste of time)	13	39.4
Easy to grasp Language Items		
They do assignments and exercises on time	17	51.6
Learn with confidence and eagerness (especially in form 1 and 2)	30	90.9
Learners make assumptions and end up missing some information	13	39.4

The nature of responses in Table 4.19 clearly shows that the learners are not part of such sessions. These results show that the learners shy off from challenging content and do not seem to make any effort to learn, an indication that most of them do not consciously and naturally use LLS. This could also imply that they are not aware of LLS to use in these situations. They do not so easily fall back to the use of LLS when faced with new tasks, particularly the challenging ones. They require plenty of

external activation and teacher prompting if at all beneficial language learning sessions have to take place. These results expose a situation where the low achievers and learners who probably have low motivation in language learning require a lot of motivation and prompting from the teacher if the learning session is to be useful. Furthermore, the results show that when learners face less challenging content they are more likely to prompt themselves into the learning situation and are more motivated to learn.

In order to further establish how the lesson atmosphere influenced learner motivation, *Questions 12 (h) and (i)* particularly solicited information on how the learners behaved when they were relaxed and enjoying the lesson, and when they were not relaxed and the lesson seemed boring. These results show that learners do not like challenging situations or content. This could also imply that they are not aware of LLS to use in these situations. They tend to be motivated into the learning task when the content they are handling is gauged as easy or manageable. The results further show that learners are least motivated into language learning when things do not seem right and manageable to them. They tend to depend a lot on the teacher for support rather than trying to find their way out of these destructing situations. This can be summed up in the words of respondent 3 '*the lesson moves very slowly*'. Refer to Table 4.20 for a comprehensive summary of these results.

Table 4.20 Learner Motivation in relation to Lesson Atmosphere

Relaxed and enjoying the Lesson	Frequency	Percentage
Active and lively (ask questions, seek clarification, contribute to content)	32	97.0
They are attentive through the lesson and respond positively	21	63.6
They attempt exercises and tasks given	16	48.5
They tend to give chorus answers (they tend to be excited)	3	9.1
Not relaxed and lesson seems boring		
They doze and day dream (they switch off, they withdraw)	30	90.9
They get noisy and keep whispering in class	24	72.7
They are unwilling to learn and answer questions or participate	23	69.7

Furthermore, each of the respondents was required to mention any other two circumstances that influenced the manner in which their learners responded to the rather difficult, destructing, challenging, new and familiar lesson content. Of the 33 respondents, 8 [24.2%] said they had none to add while 4 [12.1%] said they were not sure. In this regard and referring to the results of Table 4.18, 4.19 and 4.20, there is an indication that some teachers do not fully understand their learners and the learning environments, and so they cannot describe and give an account of the tendencies of their learners to learn English. Consequently they are not likely to appropriately plan for instruction. The sentiments expressed by the teachers showed that learners require a lot of motivation for language learning to be useful. This is because learners least think of how to handle challenging situations and prefer the easier way out through the learning sessions; that is, they prefer to learn the content that is less difficult to handle.

4.2.2.2 Learners' Predisposition to using Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

In order to establish the learners predisposition to using LLS from the teachers of English point of view and to give comments in support of their responses, *Question 14 (a) and (b)* of the teacher questionnaire required that the respondents state whether gender, cognitive ability, age and class level determined or influenced the manner in which their learners put to use the LLS provided in the SILL. The results show that most (over 75%) of the respondents were of the view that all the mentioned LLS had considerable influence on the language learning process. In particular, 26 [78.8%], 28 [84.8%], 25 [75.8%] and 26 [78.8%] respondents who said that gender, cognitive ability, age and class levels, respectively, influenced the language learning process in varying ways.

The responses are handled hereafter under the four areas: gender, cognitive ability, class level and age. The results as presented in Table 4.21 show that these aspects have influence on LLS use. They suggest that female and male learners approach the language learning process and challenges differently. Therefore, they are likely to develop and use LLS differently, even when faced with similar language learning situations. The results further show that higher cognitive abilities favour the development and use of LLS; and consequently, lead to more effective language learning. These results point to the very fact that, learners in the higher classes have more developed language abilities and so are more comfortable with language learning and use. Consequently, they have already developed LLS and use them less consciously. While the learners in the lower class levels are eager to learn language, they are likely to be experimenting with language use and thus are still in the process of developing appropriate LLS and so they frequently use them in the language learning process. Regarding age, the younger learners are at the discovery stage with

language learning while the older learners seem to have developed LLS to a considerable level to allow them to more freely and less consciously use LLS. However, due to having developed LLS, the older learners limit themselves to what they already know. They do not explore new avenues for language learning through the use of a large range of LLS. This could imply that they have assimilated LLS and so unconsciously use them.

Table 4.21 Learners' predisposition to LLS use

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Girls learn more easily than boys	15	45.5
Girls respond more positively to language (careful with grammaticality)	17	51.5
Female students easily get shy	16	48.5
Male students do not worry much about making performance mistakes	5	15.2
Female students have greater tendency of dependence on their Teachers compared to the boys	12	36.4
Learners in single-gender schools are not challenged to work (shy off)	2	6.1
Cognitive Ability		
Intelligent students learn English easily compared to low ability learners	19	57.6
Class Levels		
F4 learners speak more fluently compared to members of other classes	12	36.4
Senior class members pay more attention	12	36.4
F1-2 learners are eager and promising while F3-4 tend to relax	11	33.3
F4 students work better at acquiring language skills	3	9.1
Age		
Younger learners are freer to experiment with language	17	51.5
Older learners withdraw, they do not experiment with new language	16	48.5
Older students work better at acquiring language skills	3	9.1

4.2.2.3 Language Teachers' awareness of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

It is of paramount importance for the English language teachers to know and understand how their learners negotiate various situations during the language learning process in the effort of making language learning more manageable. The information from the foregoing section clearly shows that English language teachers have knowledge about the use of LLS by their learners. The summary of the results in Table 4.16 generally shows that the teachers are aware of the existence of LLS and how their learners use them.

In order to further establish the factors that determined whether teachers took advantage of LLS during planning for and teaching of English, the researcher through *Question 18* required that the respondents with regard to their experience and knowledge as teachers of English to state if they thought LLS were useful in enhancing the language learning process. Among the 33 respondents, 27 [81.8%] felt that these processes were useful. This is an indicator of the fact that most of the teachers put into consideration the learning habits and IDs of their learners in the process of planning for teaching and in the actual language teaching process. For a precise summary of these results refer to Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Teachers feelings regarding the usefulness of LLS

Usefulness of LLS	Frequency	Percentage
No	2	6.1
Not sure	4	12.1
Yes	27	81.8
Total	33	100.0

The summary of the reasons they gave for the usefulness of LLS indicates that the teachers are fully aware of the benefits of LLS to language learning. However, a small proportion of teachers felt that LLS made teaching and learning English difficult in some situations. However, it is important to note that LLS are useful in the language learning process. These teachers should help learners through strategy training, by raising their awareness and usefulness of LLS. This implies that some teachers of English do not use their knowledge of LLS in planning for instruction and during the actual teaching sessions. A summary list of these responses is given in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 Teachers' views on the usefulness of LLS to Language Learning

Useful to Language Learning (frequencies between 11 –18 [33.3%-54.5%])

- Language learning will be made easy
- Low ability students benefit a lot
- Help both teachers and learners discover themselves
- They create a positive impact on instruction in English
- They vary the language instructional environment
- English is a practical subject so it requires that students use them as they learn it
- Learning English involves many aspects and so the language teacher has to keep the Presentation to the learner's level in order to enhance teaching
- Give learners confidence

Not useful to Language Learning (frequencies between 3 –6 [9.1-18.2%])

- It requires self motivation on the students' part
 - They confuse students
 - Students do not see the need
 - Learning English is complex because it is a SL in our learning situation
 - They are complex
 - It is necessary to clear the syllabus
-

4.2.2.4 Language Teachers' use of Language Teaching Strategies (LTS)

The appropriate use of LTS by any English teacher would be a clear indication that they understand the various aspects within their learning environment that need to be factored into planning, preparation and presentation of a lesson. In this respect, *Question 8 (a) and (b)* of the teacher questionnaire sought to gather information on the commonly used LTS by English language teachers and how useful they considered the LTS to be in enhancing the language learning process among the learners. It also collected information on the frequency of use of the LTS and the teachers were further required to suggest other LTS they used. All the teachers expressed the general view that all the listed LTS were not very important and useful in the instructional process because they did not use most of them. However, the level of importance is what varied and going by this the researcher established the number of times each LTS was selected. Of the 36 listed LTS, only 6 were considered useful by all the 33 respondents, these are: *'varying ways of asking questions (checking the learning)'*, *'including all learners in lesson participation'*, *'looking at (focusing on) all students in class'*, *'writing clearly on the chalk board'*, *'testing understanding of various language items'* and lastly, *'highlighting (through the use of explanations and illustrations).'*

There were a total of 25 LTS that were thought *'not useful'* by some respondents, with respondent frequencies ranging from 1-10 [3.0% -30.3%]. However of the 25 LTS, 7 had higher respondent frequencies ranging between 12-23 [36.4% -69.7%], in particular the LTS *'present learners with new ways to seeing a language item'* had the highest respondent frequency (23 [69.7%]). In general, this is a clear indicator that quite a number of respondents did not use these LTS and so they do not find them useful in the teaching of English. To emphasize this, some respondents said that they

'had no idea' (frequencies ranging from 1-11 [3.0% -33.3%]) of how useful and important these LTS were to the English instructional process.

A general analysis of the responses shows that most of the LTS are either *'always'* or *'sometimes'* used during the instructional process. The data specifically reveals that of the enlisted 36 LTS, the most commonly used are 19 while the least used are 17 in total. For instance among these, 9 [27.3%] said *'never limit teacher talking time during the lesson'*, another 8 [24.2%] said *'they rarely take account of different levels and abilities of learners within the English classroom'* while 17 (51.5) said they *'rarely deal with individual learner problems during English lessons'* and lastly, 8 [24.2%] respondents noted they *'rarely highlight the differences and inabilities within the learners'*, *'write clearly on the chalk board'* (*always* -25 [75.8%]), *'careful with the use of grammatical items'* (*always* -31 [93.9%]), *'use learners' name correctly'* (*always* -21 [63.6%]), *'encourage learners into learning English'* (*always* -21 [63.6%]) and lastly, *'encourage learners to practice English outside the classroom'* (*always* -19 [57.6%]). The presentation of these results in the context of this study imply that, many teachers of English do not put into consideration learner IDs and learner-centred teaching approaches during the instructional process.

The results further show that 13 [39.4%] teachers did not use any other LTS apart from those on the list already provided in the questionnaire. The rest of the respondents (20 [60.6%]) provided a list of 16 extra LTS they used, however, each was represented by very low levels of frequencies. Nevertheless, of these 16 LTS, 3 had higher respondent frequencies of 10, 11 and 13 respondents. Table 1.24 provides a precise summary of these results.

Despite the fact that not all these LTS will help learners in the development and use of LLS (those presented in italics in Table 4.24), a closer examination reveals that the respondents have a clear understanding of the nature of LTS to use in order to encourage learner-centred learning, development of appropriate language skills and ultimately development of useful LLS. However because of the small numbers of respondents involved in each case, there is an indicator that this knowledge is not universal. This presentation clearly suggests a situation where most of the teachers limit themselves too much in the range of LTS they can use during content presentation. The information presented in section 4.2.2.7 explains this scenario. Therefore, learners are likely not to receive appropriate instruction leading to their either 'no' or 'poor' understanding of LLS and how they work to enhance language learning.

Table 4.24: LTS suggested by English Language Teachers

LTS suggested by the Teachers of English	Frequency	Percentage
Students who understand a concept faster teach others	5	15.2
Learners criticize/correct each other during the lesson	10	30.3
Evaluate work covered after every two weeks	3	9.1
Encourage library reading and individual learning	11	33.3
Organise symposiums in language and literature	1	3.0
Use journalism club to promote language development	1	3.0
Use of repetition to correct mistakes	4	12.1
Use loud spelling of words to correct pronunciation	1	3.0
Re-teaching previous topic to link with new content	2	6.1
Use of group work discussions	13	39.4
Encourage private/individual reading among learners	4	12.1
<i>Learning from outside when the classroom is too hot</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3.0</i>
Use of dramatization and role play	5	15.2
Use of teaching aids	1	3.0
<i>Including songs in the lesson</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3.0</i>
Use of debates for language development	1	3.0

This research suggests that various aspects will influence the manner in which language teachers conduct their lessons and the nature of LTS they use. In order to ascertain this, the research in *Question 9* of the teacher questionnaire required that the respondents give an account of how frequently the various aspects listed in the table influenced the manner in which they conducted instruction in English language classes. The summary of the results was considered in three main categories, *most*, *averagely* and *least* influencing factors. The results are as follows: of the 14 factors listed in the table, there were 6 [*teaching experience, time available, examinations, work load, personal knowledge and text books*] that most influenced instruction in English because they had the highest respondent frequencies ranging between 19 –28 [57.6%-84.8%]. Those that were considered to averagely influence the instructional process were 5 [*language teaching methods, content to be taught, learning environment, learner characteristics and size of the class*] with respondent frequencies ranging between 10 –14 [30.3%-42.4%]. Lastly, those that were deemed to least influence the instructional process were 3 [*language learning theories, teaching aids and learner learning style*] with frequencies of respondents ranging between 5 –11 [15.2%-33.3%].

From the obtained data, there is the realization that among those factors that most influenced the manner in which the teacher conducted instruction, none is learner-centred; rather they are either environmental or teacher-centred. According to the teachers' responses, those that are learner-centred are concentrated among the factors they thought least influenced the language instructional process. Only one appears in the averagely influencing factors, which is '*learner characteristics*'. Despite this, most teachers (29 [87.9%]) were of the view that these factors had specific influence

on the instructional decisions they made regarding types of language teaching techniques/activities (LTS) they used during instruction.

To further establish the teachers knowledge on the understanding of the instructional process, in *Question 10 (a) and (b)* the researcher expected that the respondents suggest various ways in which the listed factors influenced the nature of LTS they used in various ways. In total, all the respondents gave 18 suggestions. Of these, only 7 suggestions were by those who felt that those aspects positively influenced the nature of LTS used in various ways. On the other hand, 11 suggestions were made by those who felt that these aspects negatively impacted on the nature of LTS used in various ways. Among the 11 all except 1 had high respondent frequencies. Lastly, respondent 27 did not give any views regarding the influence of these aspects on the nature of LTS used.

These results show that teachers do not seem to pay adequate attention to the learners' IDs and other environmental factors that may affect the manner in which they prepare for instruction in English language lessons as a way of facilitating language acquisition and learning. However, such a scenario can be explained through the reason they give for such a practice. For example: *'heavy workload makes teacher ineffective'* (11 [33.3%]), *'large classes limit individual learner attention'* (18 [54.5%]) and *'teacher uses activities that take the least time because of the wide syllabus'* (19 [57.6%]). They clearly indicate that there are a number of factors that limit them, factors going beyond their control. These do not allow them to give their learners adequate attention in relation to facilitating language learning.

The results reveal that there is no influence on the English language teachers' predisposition to planning for instruction and teaching English in relation to gender, educational/professional levels, classes they teach, school category and type in relation to the factors in *Question 9*. However, the responses by these teachers were considered valuable because most of them have the experience of teaching in all the 4 levels of classes at secondary school level. It is assumed that they were not biased. The teachers involved in the study taught in Boys, Girls and Mixed Schools, which were either Provincial or District schools; hence the researcher had views from all the categories and types of schools regarding their language teaching experience with single and mixed gender, provincial and district.

The only influence is revealed through the teachers' teaching period which was measured using the teachers' number of years in the teaching profession. In relation to responses of *Question 9* of the teacher questionnaire, reveals that a teacher's period of teaching determines how they approach instruction in English. There were only 7 factors of the 14 presented, that '*always*' influenced the teachers who have taught for the period between 1-10 years. These are: *teaching experience, time available, examinations, size of the class, workload, personal knowledge and textbook availability*. Those that '*rarely*' or '*do not at all*' influence instructional decisions are: *language teaching methods, language learning theories, learning environment, teaching aids, learner characteristics and learner learning styles*. A closer look at the presentation of these factors one realizes that none directly focuses on the factors that are directly linked to the learners' language learning mannerisms. The fact that they are fresher with regard to the knowledge attained through teacher training, it is not reflected in the manner they handle their learners and teaching of English.

The picture presented by the teachers who have taught for 10-20 years and above may seem more worrying because only 5 (35.7%) of the 14 factors presented, 'always' influence the instructional decisions they make. These are: *language teaching method, content to be taught, learner characteristics, learner learning styles and size of the class*. However, a closer look at them reveals that they are more conscious of their learners, which is a positive aspect about the use of LLS in the teaching of English. This picture could imply that, the longer a teacher has taught a group of learners the better they understand them and are thus able to utilize their IDs and unique characteristics in the instructional process.

4.2.2.5 Influence of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) on Instruction in English

LLS give teachers of English valuable clues about how their learners access meaning in any new language items they learn. Given this fact, it follows that LLS should influence the manner in which instruction in English lessons is structured. In order to establish this from the respondents, the researcher in *Question 7* of the teacher questionnaire required that the respondents state their objectives of teaching English. Using this information the researcher wished to establish whether the respondents were conscious of their learners' needs in language learning and if they come up with objectives to meet these needs. The 15 objectives, except one, outlined by the 33 respondents were a clear pointer to the fact that they had knowledge of the general objective of teaching English in Kenyan secondary schools and that they were interested in building the learners' communicative competence in all the four language skill areas, grammar and literature as required by the syllabus.

However it is important to note that of the 15 responses, there were those with very few frequencies of between 3-5 respondents. It was considered an indication that these particular objectives were not regarded as very important. Nevertheless, a closer look at them reveals that they are not less important compared to the seemingly popular objectives. Only one objective was not geared towards the development of learners' communicative competence in English. This respondent (29) said: '*English is a career subject so I have no choice*', such a teacher is compelled to teach English because it is a compulsory subject.

In order to further establish the fact that the nature and type of LLS used by learners influenced the type and manner in which teachers structure the instructional process for desired outcomes to be achieved, the researcher asked *Question 15*. It also solicited information on the reasons for their responses. The results indicated that 27 [81.8%] of the respondents were of the view that *most of them* did influence the nature of LTS used.

The reasons given to explain why they find LLS important when planning to teach English clearly point to the fact that some of the respondents consider learners characteristics and IDs when planning to use certain kinds of LTS. The following are selected reasons: '*due to individual learner cognitive abilities, teaching varies; different teaching activities are used*' (18 [54.5%]), '*learner entry behaviour determines how the teacher teaches*' (3 [9.1%]), and '*learner abilities, responses and environment determine how the teacher teaches*' (13 [39.4%]). However it is important to note that, these frequencies show that more than half of the respondents do not understand the very specific characteristics of their learners and IDs that they should consider when planning for instruction. This means that some of the teachers

do not plan with their learners in mind. Whereas there were respondents who felt that LLS exhibited by their learners positively influenced their LTS, there were those who felt that they hindered the effective use of the LTS. In the context of this study, these teachers are considered to lack creativity and innovation in their teaching practice. They hold onto their old and usual ways of teaching.

The demands on a language teacher who wishes to attain maximum language learning by focusing on the learner, is likely to face a number of challenges. Hence, in order to understand what the teachers went through as they prepared to teach, particularly using the learner-centred approaches, *Questions 19* and *20* of the teacher questionnaire were used. They sought to establish from the respondents the challenges they faced as teachers of English in the effort of focusing on learner needs, language learning processes and application and use of language teaching activities during lesson planning and actual lesson presentation.

A number of ideas came through and each seemed to reveal that, despite the fact that teachers would like to focus on learner needs and language learning processes, they were constrained in a various ways right from the planning stage. Selections of the responses were learner centred. They directly mirror the hindrances towards a focus on LLS presented in other sections of this chapter. They present a situation where the teachers feel that their hands are tied and thus have little or no control over the learning environments they find themselves in. In addition to this, of the 33 respondents, 11 said they were not sure of the challenges they faced during lesson presentation in relation to the LTS used. This means that certain teachers do not have specific plans and agenda when planning to teach English. However, those who wish

to focus on their learners suggested that they are hindered by a number of factors beyond their control.

4.2.2.6 Language Learning Strategy Training

If the 14 objectives mentioned in *Question 7* are adequately and appropriately exploited by the respondents during the instructional process, they have great potential for catering for learner IDs; thus they can be used as a valuable tool to enhance the development of appropriate LLS. This is in a way, the process of training the learners in the appropriate development and use of LLS. In this respect, *Question 16* of the teacher questionnaire sought to establish from the respondents if they did make their learners aware of the available processes they possessed or they could develop so that they are able to apply them during the learning of English. The results clearly show that, only half of the respondents (17 [51.5%]) said they did so, while 12 [36.4%] said they did not and lastly 4 [12.1%] said they had no idea. The results further reveal that a considerable proportion of teachers of English do not have knowledge about LLS; consequently they do not know that they are useful tools for instruction in English. Furthermore, not many teachers of English endeavour to expose their learners to LLS and how to use them.

To further establish the respondents' attitudes towards LLS and the ways they handle issues to do with LLS, *Question 17* required that the respondents say if they made any effort to teach (train) their learners in the use of these processes or development of these behaviours in order to enable them organise and enhance their language learning process. The results clearly show that more than half of the respondents (19 [57.6%]) did so, while 11 [33.3%] said they did not and lastly 3 [9.1%] said they were not sure. These results reveal that English language teachers make efforts to train their learners

in the development and use of LLS; however there are those who did not find it a necessary activity.

4.2.2.7 Suggestions from Teachers about Language Learning and Teaching Strategies

In order to get general comments concerning teachers' experiences, the researcher asked *Question 21*. As the last question of the teacher questionnaire, it sought to find out general views concerning the teaching and learning of English in secondary school in Kenya; particularly in relation to LTS and LLS. The responses obtained shed light on most of the aspects covered in the whole questionnaire. The teachers gave their opinions, offered some solutions and recommendations for the varied challenges experienced in the process of planning for and teaching of English. Their sentiments are summarized by those given by 30 [90.3%] respondents, and they centred around 5 major areas: *the learners, teachers, the syllabus, text books and instructional aids*.

Concerning the learners they suggested three issues: *the fewer the students and lessons taught per day the better the students' responses; learners do not appreciate self language development, they focus on passing examinations; and lastly, learners miss vital foundation in primary school*.

Regarding teachers they said: *teaching of English should be taken seriously; there should be regular seminars and refresher courses for teachers; increase the number of teachers of English to help reduce the work load; and lastly, there is need for teachers to focus on learner activities in class rather than the teacher*.

Regarding the syllabus they said: *the integration aspects should be taken seriously; there should be a link between textbooks from primary to secondary school; and lastly, the English language syllabus is too wide and some content is not applicable.*

Regarding text books and instructional aids, they said: *there is need to include teaching aids in instruction; textbooks should be learner centred; textbooks should have many practice exercises; some current text books use difficult terminology; common class readers should be identified for lower classes and a common exam given; and lastly, more teaching materials should be provided.*

A general look at these responses gives a picture of teachers who have an understanding of the requirements of a ‘good language teacher’, one who is concerned about enhancing language learning among the learners. However, they point at the fact that, their hands are tied, they require support from both the school administrators, syllabus designers, textbook writers and the Ministry of Education (MoE) if successful language teaching and learning is to be experienced. Nevertheless, it is vital to mention that, a language teacher who focuses on learner-centred approach to teaching should be innovative and creative. This is a teacher that is able to take an initiative to change and make the instructional process experiential and beneficial to the learner.

4.2.3 Report and Results of the Classroom Observations and Tape

Recordings

The tape recorded data was transcribed and used alongside the recorded observation data to ascertain the nature of LTS and LLS used by both teachers and learners respectively, during English language instruction to enhance language learning. This was also done to find out to what level learners participated in classroom activities

during instruction. This data also provided information on the teachers' provision for learner participation in classroom activities. Specifically it showed the level to which teachers prompted learners into the learning activity, the opportunities at the learners' disposal in expressing their experiences in the process of English language learning and levels of the use of LLS, their development and training.

4.2.3.1 Classroom Observations

The researcher intended that 36 lessons in total be observed and tape recorded, 3 classes from each school, one F2, F3 and F4. However, due to three teachers not being present when the observations were to take place, only a total of 33 lessons in progress were observed and tape recorded. The 3 lessons not observed were, 2 F2 (Mixed Schools) and 1 F2 (Boys School) lessons. The classroom observation worksheet had 14 *Questions* in total, divided into *Parts A* and *B*, as follows: *Part A* had *Questions 1, 2, 3* and *4* while *Part B* covered the rest of the questions.

Questions 1, 2 and *3* covered the background information on school category/type, class and class size about the respondents being observed and tape-recorded. A close examination of the data obtained from the classroom observation sessions reveals that the use of LLS is not greatly influenced by any of the variables under study. All the learners observed used the LLS identified in a much similar manner. The only variable which had some influence on how the learners responded to the lesson content was the school types and categories. Due to the very fact that learners in different school levels are selected according to the scores and grades they attain in the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE), this according to this study was considered as a measure for the learners' cognitive ability levels. Hence, the learners in Provincial secondary schools were automatically considered to have higher

cognitive abilities as compared to those learners in District secondary schools. From the results obtained, the learners from the Provincial secondary schools responded faster to content being presented. They needed minimal prompting in cases where they seemed not to understand and follow the content being presented as compared to those from District secondary schools. This implies that, learners with higher cognitive abilities are able to utilize LLS more effectively and unconsciously as compared to those with lower cognitive abilities.

4.2.3.1.1 Lesson Content Areas

The researcher through *Question 4* and *11* sought to find out information concerning the specific content areas that were covered in each of the lessons and language tasks were targeted at addressing particular learner needs, learning styles and preferences for learning English. Using this information, the researcher established how the content area being covered determined the nature of LTS a teacher used and the nature of LLS used by the learners. A total of 33 lessons were observed and tape recorded during the entire study. These lessons covered different specific skills and topic areas. Tables 4.25 and 4.26 present a summary of this information. No lesson was observed in the teaching of listening skills.

Table 4.25: Observed Lessons Content Areas

Lesson Content	Frequency
Listening skills	0
Speaking skills	2
Reading skills	10
Writing skills	4
Grammar skills	14
Revision	3
Total	33

Table 4.26: Observed Lessons Topic Areas

Lesson	Specific Lesson Content	Lesson Topic
1	Writing skills (Public Writing)	Speeches
2	Grammar skills (Parts of speech, word classes)	Noun Derivation
3	Grammar skills (Tenses)	Present perfect continuous Tense
4	Grammar skills (Parts of speech, word classes)	Transitive and Intransitive Verbs
5	Revision (Grammar skills)	Relative Pronouns
6	Reading skills (Comprehension passage)	Intensive reading
7	Grammar skills (Parts of speech, word classes)	Word formation –Prefixes
8	Grammar skills (Parts of Speech, word classes)	Relative pronouns
9	Reading skills (Literature –Poetry)	Stylistic devices
10	Grammar skills (Parts of Speech, word classes)	Collective Nouns
11	Grammar skills (Parts of Speech, word classes)	Collective Nouns
12	Writing skills (Institutional writing)	Letters of request
13	Grammar (Parts of Speech, word classes)	Adjectival Quantifiers
14	Grammar (Parts of Speech, word classes)	Formation of Nouns (Derivation)
15	Revision (English Paper 2 Examination)	Skills in answering Grammar and Comprehension questions
16	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Vocabulary use in text –Intensive Reading
17	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Critical Analysis of the text – (Intensive reading)
19	Speaking skills	Giving and Receiving Instructions
20	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Short story–Intensive reading
21	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Characterization –Analysis and Interpretation
22	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Intensive reading
23	Reading skills (Literature set book)	Language and Context Analysis
24	Speaking skills (Oral presentations)	Selected topics from set book
25	Revision (Continuous Assessment Test)	Varied topics
26	Grammar skills (Tenses)	Future tense
27	Grammar skills (Parts of speech, word classes)	Word formation –Prefixes and Suffixes
28	Grammar skills (Tenses)	Future tense
29	Writing skills (Sentence building and paragraphing)	Cohesion in paragraphs
30	Grammar skills (Types of Sentences)	Sentence Inversion
31	Writing skills (Sentence building and paragraphing)	Cohesion
32	Reading skills (Literature –set book)	Discussion
33	Reading skills (Oral literature)	Oral Narratives (Intensive reading)

What comes through the 33 lessons is the fact that, the content area being covered did not in any specific and unique way influence the manner in which LLS were used; the learners employed limited and similar learning processes (LLS) during all the lessons observed. However, the level of difficulty and familiarity with content determined learners' level of response and participation during the lesson. It is important to note that what seemed to change through the lessons is the manner in which the English language teachers prompted and motivated their learners into the learning process, in order to involve them.

The observation results show that the content presented to all the learners was done according to the manner in which it is ordered and structured within the secondary schools syllabus (KIE, 2002 and KNEC, 2004) putting into consideration the class levels (F2, F3 and F4) of the various learners. This is an aspect that encouraged effective language learning because the experiences of the learners with language at different levels and ages vary.

Besides that, some of the English language teachers endeavoured to present the content in a simple straight forward manner that would allow for easy understanding on the part of the learners. For instance in *lesson 17*, the teacher gave the learners opportunity to think along with her by responding to what they felt about the content being passed across. In another *lesson (18)*, the teacher tried as much as possible to simplify the content by giving step by step explanations of the differences between 'subject pronouns' and 'object pronouns'. Learners also answered questions as they gave explanations for their choices. Similarly in *lesson 19*, and *lesson 31*, the respective teachers endeavoured to present the content in a clear simple manner. In another *lesson (22)*, the teacher kept pausing at certain points in the lesson to confirm

from the learners if they understood what the lesson was all about. In one particular *lesson (24)* the teacher used group work which allowed learners of different abilities to express themselves and learn from one another. The teacher also allowed 2 presenters from each group at a time, one doing the oral presentation while the other was noting the major points on the blackboard.

In most of the lessons observed there was no great variation among the language tasks used. However, extensive explanations of the content being presented were used; these were used alongside language examples, clarifications, illustrations, exercises and dictation of notes. These were particularly used with the main aim of helping specific learners to access meaning and to gain an understanding of the content presented and various explanations used in specific lessons. This was through the different teachers picking on specific learners to participate in the lesson by either asking questions, answering questions, seeking for clarifications, making contributions to the content being taught, reading passages or set texts or notes from text books, suggesting definitions of various terms used in the specific lessons and giving examples in relation to what was being taught. For instance in *lesson 8*, the teacher heavily depended on examples given by learners to pass across the lesson content. In another *lesson (9)*, the teacher allowed the learners to read poems of their own choice and identify the various aspects of style already learnt. Lastly, in *lesson 10*, the teacher gave a written exercise which was done during the lesson and she went round the class marking as she verbally corrected and directed the specific learners.

Despite the fact that a number of teachers expressed concern for individual learner differences, some paid very little attention to the learners during the instructional process. Attention was given to individual learners only when the teacher allowed few

learners react to the content being presented. For instance in *lesson 2*, learners were considered as a group (one unit) rather than as individuals and on rare occasions did the teacher ask learners to do anything in class, the teacher seemed to be in full control of all the classroom activities not allowing for learner autonomy. In another, *lesson 3*, the teacher considered the learners as a group but on very rare occasions gave few of them opportunity to construct sentences during the lesson or answer questions. The same applied to *lesson 12*, and *lesson 14*. In *lesson 16*, learners responded in chorus and the teacher only seemed to pay attention to individual learners towards the end of the lesson; similarly, in *lesson 11*. However, in this particular *lesson (11)* the teacher asked them to judge whether the sentences written on the blackboard were correct or not and the learners took long to respond. The same teacher gave opportunity to those who wished to consult with him to do so after the lesson. Lastly, in *lesson 13*, after having asked learners to construct sentences in their exercise books, the teacher quickly asked some of them to read their answers without considering the slow learners who had not completed the writing exercise.

This data indicates that teachers of English limit the nature of LTS they use and rarely pay attention to learner characteristics and IDs. Consequently, few learners participate during the lessons, a practice that denies them the opportunity to explore their language learning abilities through the use of varied LLS. This has resulted in situations where the teachers have to frequently prompt their learners into the language learning process, as a way of activating their LLS schema.

4.2.3.1.2 Learners' use of Language Learning Strategies

The information in this section aided the researcher in establishing how learners negotiated their way through the instruction process. *Questions 6, 5 (a) and (b)* sought

to establish, through the behaviours exhibited by learners, any evidence that they followed and understood the content, were confused, or were bored. The information obtained clearly indicates that most learners followed the lessons content, either on their own or through prompting and encouragement from their teachers. In no lesson did the learners exhibit any behaviour to show that they were bored. Most learners responded by way of appropriately answering the questions asked by the teachers and asking questions related to lesson content being presented. In only 6 (18.2%) out of the total 33 lessons observed, the learners sought clarification of the lesson content. Most learners made contribution to the lesson content as much as the teachers were the sole sources of information and motivation during these lessons. However, it is important to note that, learners only participated during the lessons upon the teachers' invitation. Nevertheless, the positive reactions of these specific learners were a sign that they enjoyed, followed and probably understood the content being taught.

On the contrary, in *lesson 18*, *lesson 25*, a continuous assessment test revision lesson, *lesson 26*, and *lesson 28*, the learners exhibited behaviour to indicate that they did not follow and understand the lesson content. They either gave wrong responses to questions asked by their teachers or were completely unable to respond. Their teachers' prompting did not have influence on the nature of their behaviour or responses. While in *lesson 31*, the learners kept on giving explanations that were incomplete while in *lesson 30*, after the learners had given responses to a question asked, the teacher sought clarification over the correct response, but the learners seemed to be in doubt about the correct response. In *lesson 18*, despite many trials, some of the learners could not identify the correct sentence word orders.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that in *lesson 8*, *lesson 13*, and *lesson 17*, the learners were very quick to respond to the questions asked by their teachers; but these were done in chorus form. However, in one of these lessons, *lesson 17*, one learner seemed to be absent minded and the teacher had to prompt him to read. While in *lesson 12*, the learners did not promptly respond to the teacher, the teacher had to offer further explanation, clues and examples before the learners could respond. In *lesson 14*, learners kept on suggesting answers in low tones in a jocular manner instead of loudly giving their responses by suggesting the appropriate prefixes and suffixes. In the same lesson, some learners made reference to the dictionary in order to give the correct examples of prefixes and suffixes.

This scenario presents a situation whereby the learners are not conscious of the fact that they can make the learning process easier by using LLS. Only a small proportion (18.2%) of the learners seems to understand that they have to actively engage in the learning process in order to enhance their communicative competence in the various language skills.

Through the observation, the researcher also wanted to establish the LLS that either worked or did not work for the learners. Results reveal that there was a set of commonly used LLS among all the learners observed. Importantly to note is the fact that the most prevalently used LLS among these lessons observed were the learning/cognitive strategies taxonomy.

The following are some of the specific ways through which the learners used LLS. In virtually all the lessons observed, learners paid attention and were able to express keen listening skills as they noted in their exercise books the notes that were being

dictated. Other prevalently used LLS were: *asking questions; giving examples and contribution towards the content being taught*, in many lessons this came towards the end of the lesson. For instance, in the various lessons, this was mainly done through: *giving meanings of words by inference or by referring to dictionaries; answering comprehension questions; constructing sentences using new grammar items learnt; defining certain terms in relation to content being covered; constructing sentences using sets of words provided by the teacher* and lastly, *outlining factors to be considered when writing instructions*. In some lessons, learners were involved in *reading activities*; while in others *learners had to try and remember what they had learnt in the previous lessons without making reference to their notes; identifying the correct answers from the exam/revision questions; when one learner answered a question fellow learners were encouraged to answer questions*; and lastly, *some learners worked in pairs/groups to come up with responses to content questions*.

During most (90.0%) of the lessons the teachers endeavoured to make the learning process manageable. However, in some of the lessons the learners responded negatively. It did not matter how much prompting the teacher employed; the learners tended to be lost during the lesson (did not follow lesson content). In particular during *lesson 11*, the learners did not promptly respond to the teacher's questions, and even when they did, it was done in very faint voices. In *lesson 14*, learners quietly and wrongly prompted one another and so they ended up whispering wrong answers to one another. This affected the nature of responses they loudly and openly suggested in class, for example one learner said 'boredom' implying that '-dom' is a suffix in that word. However, the teacher did not take note of this, the lesson went on normally. In *lesson 3*, some learners seemed too fearful to suggest how to begin writing a composition. The teacher had to prompt them a lot. In *lesson 32*, the learners took too

long to respond by giving the meanings of the different forms of imagery used in the text.

Despite the amount of English language teacher's support for the learners during content delivery, the results suggest that many English language learners do not naturally use LLS during the learning process. This implies that their LLS schema is limited and so they are not able to articulately and unconsciously employ LLS in the learning process. The teacher has to keep intervening thorough prompting their LLS schema.

4.2.3.1.3 Teacher attention to specific Learner behaviour and use of LTS

One way a language teacher can focus on the utilization of LLS during instruction is by paying attention to learner behaviours. Thus *Questions 5 (c), 7 and 12* solicited information on the LTS that worked well or poorly for the teachers. The results showed that in most of the lessons the teachers did pay attention to the specific behaviours exhibited by their learners as much as they were interested in passing across the content. Prompting was one of the areas of focus because it enhances LLS activation. However the level of attention was low, rendering most of the lessons teacher-centred rather than learner-centred.

For instance, the following are the things various teachers did during the various lessons as a way of paying attention to what the learners were doing during specific lessons:

- *the teacher prohibited the learners from giving chorus answers, and pick on specific learners to answer questions and make contributions to the lesson content*

- *the teacher felt that learners had listened to her long enough and asked some learners to make contributions to allow the rest to listen to a different voice*
- *some learners did murmur and some requested that the teacher repeat the notes that were being dictated, and the teacher did so*
- *some teachers paid attention to learners who raised their hands during the lesson in order to respond to content being taught*
- *teacher gave learners opportunity to suggest or try out answers to the questions asked;*
- *when learners were unable to establish the meaning of the word 'fool' he prompted them by asking them to refer to the dictionary*
- *the teacher corrected learners when they read certain words wrongly during a reading aloud lesson*
- *the teacher went over the topic 'possessive nouns' because the learners had performed poorly in the written exercise*
- *the teacher noticed a learner who was not writing because the learner did not have a question paper*
- *in some lessons the teachers asked learners answering questions to project their voices to allow for understanding*

More specifically, in *lesson 14*, one (1) learner began reading from the text book before others were ready, so the teacher asked her to stop; in *lesson 11*, the teacher made efforts to establish learner learning problems by giving attention to specific learners who seemed to have difficulty in following the lesson content; and lastly, in *lesson 7*, the teacher requested that some learners suggest examples of prefixes without making reference to their dictionaries.

On the contrary, there were teachers who were exceptional to this practice. For instance in *lesson 24*, the teacher only paid attention to the learners who were involved in the oral presentation rather than to the whole class. In *lesson 17*, the teacher while teaching, did not take note of the learners who were talking during the lesson. In *lesson 13*, the teacher asked the learners to do a written exercise after which they orally present their answers. However, before all learners had completed the exercise, she asked those who had completed to read aloud their answers. In some lessons, particularly *lesson 12*, teachers only selected learners who had their hands up to answer questions and to respond to the content being taught. In some of the lessons, particularly *lesson 1*, *lesson 5*, *lesson 22*, *lesson 26*, *lesson 30* and lastly, *lesson 31*, the respective teachers took centre stage and almost all activities revolved around them.

The results generally revealed that all teachers of English endeavoured to facilitate the learning of English through the nature of the varied range of LTS they used. However, what should be noted is that, certain specific LTS were dominant through all the lessons observed. These include:

- *definition of unfamiliar terms*
- *teacher prompting, particularly by using leading questions and clues*
- *teachers extensive use of the chalkboard, especially when highlighting and noting important points, constructed sentences, key and new words during the lesson*
- *teachers use of explanations of the content being taught*
- *use of illustrations/examples, more specifically teachers would first give examples before asking the learners to give theirs; dictation of notes*

- *use of repetition of important points and correct answers, especially in different words clarification of important points, especially by allowing learners to ask questions where they did not understand*
- *giving learners direction on the activities of the lesson, especially when changing lesson activities*
- *providing the correct answers where learners are unable to do so*
- *referring to learners by their names; giving spelling of difficult words*
- *commending learners who had given correct responses*
- *correcting the pronunciation of certain words especially when learners were reading aloud or speaking in class*
- *giving learners opportunity to suggest the correct answers then later teacher adds his own asking learners to note the important aspects of the lesson content as the lesson proceeded, especially in lessons on reading and discussion in the set text*
- *reading of small portions of the set texts as discussion and analysis was being done and lastly, immediate correction of any wrong response given by the learners*

However it should be noted, despite the fact that teachers endeavoured to facilitate the English language learning sessions, in some cases the learners let the teachers down. A good example of such a lesson was *lesson 3*, where the learners did not at all follow what the teacher was trying to put across. In another *lesson (25)*, the teachers' prompting was not working for the learners; they took too long before responding, some did not respond at all. These results further reveal that, these learners of English do not have a well established repertoire of LLS to use. Even with the teacher's prompting, it takes them long to conceptualize what the lesson content is all about.

Despite the effort by a number of teachers of English, in some lessons the teachers did not worry about facilitating the learning sessions. They rushed through the lesson content just to move forward or to complete the content intended for that lesson; this was done at the learners' expense. For instance, in *lesson 8*, the teacher did not tell the learners why the sentence one of them had constructed was wrong, she quickly said that '*we are talking of possession*'; which was not a satisfactory explanation to the learners. Lastly, in *lesson 14*, the teacher did not pay attention to individual learners and the responses they wished to suggest, chorus answers by the learners dominated the lesson.

It was important to establish whom the learners depended on for prompting during the process of learning various language items, especially in situations where they were not sure or they displayed uncertainty about the content being taught. The observation results reveal that all learners depended on their teachers of English for prompting. However, there were 6 (18.2%) lessons in which learners prompted one another, these are: *lesson 7, lesson 9, lesson 10, lesson 14, lesson 15, and lesson 17*. This prompting was mainly done through a specific learner listening to another and getting an idea or clue on how to go about responding to the teachers' request or question. In only one *lesson (15)*, did we have a learner prompting the self into answering the question asked by the teacher. These results further emphasize the fact that, many learners do not naturally and unconsciously use LLS during the learning process. They required prompting from either the teacher or fellow learners in order to get clues on the kind of LLS to use in specific situations that came during the lesson content presentation.

4.2.3.1.4 Learner initiated activities during the Lessons

Learner initiated activities during the lessons are an indicator of LLS use. *Question 8* sought to establish this through the involvement in and choices made by learners about how to work during the lesson. The research results reveal that in most of the lessons, the English language teachers dominated most of the activities used. The teachers tended to be in full control and initiated and directed all the classroom activities, guided learner participation and made choices about the nature of activities the learners were involved in. The teacher's were prevalently involved in talking, explaining points and dictating notes to the learners. While the learners remained passive participants of the lessons, only some were given opportunity to be involved in answering questions, responding to and making contributions to the lesson content and when reading (aloud or silently). Only when taking down the dictated notes were all learners involved.

In some lessons, learners were basically passive learners involved in listening. For instance in *lesson 22*, apart from 6 out of 39 learners who were involved in the oral reading of the set text, the rest basically listened. In another, *lesson 21*, the learners listened most of the time as the teacher explained points and dictated notes. Lastly, *lesson 1*, learners were quiet almost throughout the lesson and only spoke when they responded to the teacher's questions in chorus answers.

However, there was only one *lesson (24)*, where the learners seemed to be considerably involved in the lesson despite the fact that the teacher initiated the instructional activities. In particular, the learners were given topics for discussion before hand and they orally made presentations on these topics in class. The learners directed and taught one another under the teacher's guidance. This is a practice highly

recommended in modern approaches/methods of language teaching; the emphasis is placed on learner-centred rather than teacher-centred approaches. This practice implies that teachers of English rarely give their learners opportunity to discover during the learning process, therefore limiting their use of LLS.

4.2.3.1.5 Language Learning Environment

The language teacher should endeavour to create a motivating learning environment for effective instruction. *Question 9* sought to establish how the teacher made the learning environment safe and inviting to the learners in order to encourage or support language learning. The study results show that the teachers did not solely teach with the learners in mind, they sometimes taught to complete the teaching assignment. However, during the observation sessions the researcher noticed several things that teachers did in class which were deemed to be aspects geared towards encouraging or supporting language learning. Among these things were: *explanation of content; offering examples and illustrations; repetition of important points and words, sometimes in different words; writing of important and key points and words on the chalk-board; and the teacher first giving examples then asking learners to give answers to questions that have been asked.* In particular, in *lesson 15*, the teacher led the learners towards where to find information from the poem and passage read; allowing learners the opportunity to suggest responses to the questions asked and making contribution to the content being taught and referring to learners by their specific names. Furthermore in *lesson 13*, the teacher created an enabling environment for the learners by asking learners to read aloud in class; teacher being friendly to the learners during the lesson; teacher repeating the dictated notes to ensure that every learner takes down the notes.

In another lesson (*lesson 7*), the teacher encouraged the learners that the lesson content was easy to conceptualize and so they needed not fear. In *lesson 8*, the teacher encouraged the learners to be active and told them '*be an active class, let us not leave it only to a few of us*' and she also paid keen attention to what they said. In another *lesson (9)*, the teacher asked the learners to sing their favourite songs in order to illustrate the use of rhyme in poetry. In *lesson 18*, learners were given plenty of practice on the grammatical structures learnt through asking of questions and construction of sentences. In *lesson 21*, the teacher asked the learners to be free and ask any kinds of questions concerning or for repetition of any information they missed out on. In *lesson 23*, the teacher asked the learners to get the meaning of the word 'fool' from the dictionary because they were unable to give its meaning. Lastly in *lesson 27*, the teacher supported the learners' learning process by making reference to previously covered related content.

On the contrary, there were some 4 lessons where the teachers were not conscious of the learners' specific learning needs. Therefore, they did not create favourable learning environments. For instance, in *lesson 6*, the teacher left class when learners are reading silently, in *lesson 16*, the teacher talked alone through most of the lesson. In another, *lesson 31*, the teacher seemed to be asking questions in areas unfamiliar to the learners; he got wrong responses but he kept on insisting that learners take part in the lesson. In *lesson 32*, the teacher encouraged and initiated short reading activities and discussions of the plot.

Despite the fact that these research results show that teachers of English endeavour to factor their learners' needs into the instructional process by creating favourable learning environments, the opposite is also true. There are those who do not always

make a conscious effort to factor their learners' learning characteristics and needs into the instructional process by creating an enabling learning environment. This implies that the nature of LTS used do not always focus on their learners LLS.

4.2.3.1.6 Use of Instructional Materials and Media Resources

Instructional materials and media resources are valuable tools of enhancing learning motivation. Hence, *Question 10* sought to identify any materials and media resources used during the lesson and were particularly appropriate for enhancing language learning. In no lesson were there any media resources used, however, in all the lessons observed the main materials used were the class text-books, literary set texts and the chalk-board. The only major challenge to both the teachers and learners faced was the idea of having to use very few copies of text-books. This made learning difficult because some learners had to refer to class text-books facing up side down or went through the lesson without referring to any class text-books or literary set books at all. This definitely hindered effective learning. In lessons where revision was being done, the respective examination or continuous assessment test (CAT) papers were used for reference, for example in *lesson 25* and *lesson 15*. However, in some lessons learners also made reference to dictionaries when getting the meanings of words. For instance, this was done in *lesson 27* and *lesson 23*.

In situations where the text-books were inadequate, the respective teachers either dictated or wrote the questions on the chalk-board. For instance, this happened in *lesson 6*, where the teacher dictated the notes and questions from the teacher's copy. In another, *lesson 5*, the blackboard was extensively used by the teacher for notes and sentences containing relative pronouns. In another, *lesson 4*, the teacher also used the blackboard for notes. The lack of sufficient instructional materials and no use of

media resources, limits the teachers' of English from adequately facilitating the instructional process with particular reference to their use of appropriate LTS and enhancing learners' use of LLS.

4.2.3.1.7 Language Learning Strategy Training

Available literature has established that LLS training is important in enhancing learner use of LLS, consequently language learning. *Question 13* and *Question 14* specifically sought to establish if the English language teachers made any effort to make their learners aware of the available LLS and consequently if they trained them on how to use LLS. The foregoing results clearly point at the fact that most teachers did not focus on the learners, most lessons were teacher-centred with most activities revolving around the teacher rather than the learner. Therefore aspects of strategy training were not widely observed. However, there were certain things done, which were, according to this study considered as efforts made towards making learners aware of the available LLS and training them in the use of LLS.

Specifically, *Question 13* sought to identify the efforts made by the teacher about the ways to tap into the learners' interests and learning styles/ strategies during the lesson. Various teachers did this in different ways. The following were the most common ways through which this was accomplished: giving learners the opportunity to work out answers to exercises given and questions asked by the teacher; allowing learners to give contributions and make commentaries on the content that has just been presented, particularly at the end of the lesson; learners being allowed to use dictionaries to find meanings of words; repetition and clarification of important/main lesson points; teachers asking leading questions and prompting the learners towards

the correct interpretation of the content being taught and encouraging learners to engage in extensive reading.

In particular *lesson 23*, the teacher asked the learners to read the play on their own, away from the normal class period then discussions would take place in class. In another *lesson (22)*, the teacher asked the learners to note down or underline certain lines in the novel that would later on help them remember the literary aspects of style and issues of plot. In *lesson 20*, the teacher asked the learners to write the plot summary after they were through with the discussion and explanations on the short story. In *lesson 9*, the teacher asked the learners to identify rhyme as it had been used in the poem they were covering in class.

In *lesson 7*, at some point in the lesson the teacher asked each learner to work on their own as they wrote down examples of words they had formed using prefixes. Unlike in some lessons where the teachers asked the learners to refer to the dictionary for the meanings of words, in *lesson 6*, the teacher asked the learners to infer the meanings of the specific words as they had been used in the comprehension passage rather than using the dictionary. Lastly, in another 2 lessons, *lesson 5*, and *lesson 4*, the teachers asked the learners to do a written exercise in class and then they went through the correction stage together in class as various learners suggested the correct answers.

Lastly, *Question 14* sought to identify the opportunities available for the learners to meet with the teachers, clarification or extension of learning as a way of further tapping into learners' interests and learning styles. In all the lessons observed, teachers gave varied tasks to their learners as a way of further tapping into their learning styles. In almost all the lessons observed there was one similar mode used by

the teachers to further tap into the specific learners' interests and learning styles. This was mainly accomplished through take away assignments and exercises, which were either from the class text-books or constructed by the specific teachers.

The following are some specific and varied exercises that were given by some teachers. In *lesson 7*, for the assignment, the teacher asked the learners to construct sentences using the new words that they had learnt during that lesson. In another, *lesson 9*, the teacher asked the learners to refer to various poetry books and identify the different stylistic devices they had learnt in that lesson. In *lesson 18*, the teacher asked the learners to make notes on the content covered during the lesson using the direction she had given. In *lesson 21*, the teacher asked the learners to use the notes they had been given to come up with the character traits of the characters discussed during the lesson. Lastly, in *lesson 32*, the teacher gave learners a set of questions that they would refer to as they further read the set text.

On the contrary, in *lesson 13*, the teacher did not give any kind of task at the end of the lesson. She, however, orally went through the answers of an exercise she had given learners to do during a previous lesson. However, in *lessons 15, 17, 19, 20, 22, 24, 28, 29 and 31* no specific tasks were given.

Therefore, the above data in relation to this study reveal that most lessons are teacher-centred with minimal learner involvement and no learner initiated activities. The lack of adequate instructional materials and teaching aids limit both the teachers and learners in enhancing language learning. It is important to note that, the whole concept of language learning strategy training is based on the concepts of discovery problem-based learning model. In this situation, the learners are set free to discover

and go round the learning process by solving problems related to the content being covered. This practice renders language learning learner-centred rather than teacher-centred. Consequently, the learners are allowed an opportunity to discover, develop and use LLS naturally during the learning process. The teacher, through the use of appropriate LTS will facilitate the whole strategy training process.

4.2.3.2 Observed Lessons Transcriptions

All the lessons that were observed in progress were also tape-recorded. Language transcriptions of these lessons were done in order to confirm the nature of interaction that took place in the English language classrooms between the teacher and the learner. The nature of interaction in the language classroom was used to ascertain the nature of prompting that goes on in class during English language lessons. It also provided information concerning the nature of learner involvement in the language learning process.

As already looked at in the observation lessons report, there were 3 main levels of prompting the researcher was interested in, namely: prompting by the teacher, prompting by other learners and learner prompting the self during the process of learning language. The whole concept behind prompting is that, when learners are able to prompt themselves into the learning situation, they are good users of LLS. Such learners are motivated language learners and are more likely to develop appropriate LLS, use them naturally and more frequently. However, it does not imply that learners who are not prompted by their teachers cannot develop LLS. It is also another process by which LLS can be developed, through awareness and training (LLS instruction and training). The lesson transcriptions revealed that most learners

depended on their teachers for prompting, especially when the content being handled seemed challenging and difficult to them.

The lessons tape-recorded further revealed the types of LTS used by teachers of English and how appropriate these were in relation to the demands of modern language teaching approaches and the incorporation of LLS into the language instructional process. What emerged from most of the lessons observed is the fact that, they were teacher-centred rather than learner-centred. For instance, *lessons 17, 9, 5, 10, 22, 1 and 21* among others were predominantly teacher-centred. Only *lesson 24* was predominantly learner-centred. This is an aspect not advocated for in modern language teaching methods, rather they advocate for the learner and their needs being at the centre-stage of the language learning process. The fact that most lessons were teacher-centred implied that the teachers did not use the strategy instruction approach to language learning. Teacher-talk dominated most of the lessons. Detailed information is provided in Appendix 6 under selected lesson transcriptions.

4.3 Discussion

The basic concept behind the argument in this study is guided by the general principle of focusing on instruction in language teaching and learning from an '*evolutionary perspective*', (Brumfit and Finnochiaro, 1983). Therefore, the discussion in this section is presented against the backdrop of the frameworks within '*Constructivism*', forming the basis upon which to look at language teaching from a constructivist point of view. Constructivism (learning theory) bases its thoughts on the fact that knowledge is not static and should always be constructed to suit the times and situations within which it is in use. It is a psychological theory of knowledge which argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from their experiences. Within

the field of education, it has been used as a backbone to reforms, leading to the growth of constructivist teaching techniques. It is from this point of view that this research takes on its argument and advocacy for LTS that take into account the learners language learning styles through the consideration of LLS, particularly in the Kenyan secondary schools context. Closely linked to this is the whole concept of viewing the learner as a complex, unique and multi-dimensional being whose abilities should be utilised as an integral part of the language learning process.

The ‘postmethod condition’ in language teaching ‘frees teachers to see their classrooms and students for what they are and not envision them through the spectacles of approaches and techniques,’ (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 20). This author further notes that, this orientation ensures the creativity and critical practice where teachers can be ‘transformative intellectuals’ (Brown, 1991) and ‘evolutionary’. Due to the focus on LLS in SL instruction, several proponents of strategy instruction and training have come up with terms to describe this practice. Examples are: ‘Styles –and Strategies –Based Instruction (SSBI), (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002 and Oxford, 2001), ‘Strategy Instruction Model’ (Griffiths, 2006), and ‘Learner Strategy Approach’ (Canarajagah, 2006), all embedded within the precepts of the postmethod and period of awakening in language teaching and learning.

The orientation of this study is that learners are able to make their own meaning and construct knowledge concerning how best they can learn any language content presented to them by their teachers. Therefore, learners must have a sound knowledge of LLS. LLS require that learners adapt to a range of roles; leading to adaptable, creative, inventive and independent learners. These are learners who are able to appropriately use LLS in planning and monitoring their language learning process.

Hence, the learners are seen as active members of the instructional process and autonomous. The teacher is seen as a facilitator and a guide, giving the learner an extended role one beyond just a recipient of language content, (Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1989; Shostak, 2003).

On the other hand, the nature of language “requires teachers to make decisions about which particular aspects of language arts to emphasize at particular times. What guides teachers’ thinking and decision making in these contexts? Teachers’ knowledge and understanding of literature and other language arts provides a potential source for pedagogical reasoning,” (Grossman and Shulman (1994: 6). In this manner, the teacher is able to construct their own knowledge on when s/he can use a certain kind of approach to language teaching and consequently to language learning. Tomlinson (2003) notes that in a learner-centred instruction situation, the teacher should allow the learners to reflect on their understanding of the subject matter and raise questions about what they are studying, putting the learner at the centre stage during instruction. Due to the great diversity among SL learners, she advises that teachers consider IDs among the learners. The teacher should “know who the students are, what the students bring to the class and the students’ needs, (because) such knowledge due to the unique characteristics each group of learners’ possess will aid the language teacher in planning for instruction by selecting the activities that will be suitable for the students,” (Harmer, 1991:262).

Such a practice calls for the English language teacher who is able to construct new knowledge concerning the language learning environment and the content to suit the specific group of learners being taught. This also means that no one English language lesson can be conducted in exactly the same way, particularly in regard to the LTS

used. In the same breath, the English language teacher should be able to make use of this ability in their learners to access their language learning processes (LLS) in order to enhance the language instructional process (Yen, 2002). Therefore, the teachers will be handling the language instructional process from an ‘evolutionary perspective’ (Brumfit and Finochiaro (1993) rather than ‘revolutionary perspective’, focusing on ‘postmethod’ in language teaching (Kumaravadevilu, 2006).

Given this background, the discussion of the findings presented in the foregoing sections of this chapter is systematically presented hereafter with a close reference to the theory and conceptual framework upon which this study was based. This is done with the main aim of answering the four objectives that guided this study. The purpose of this inquiry was to establish the LLS used by secondary school learners in Kenya and how these influenced the manner in which language teachers conduct instruction in English language classrooms. This was attained through answering the four specific objectives of the study as presented in the following sections of this chapter.

4.3.1 Language Learners’ awareness and use of Language Learning

Strategies (LLS)

The first objective of this study was to investigate and establish the language learners’ awareness and use of LLS. Language learners’ awareness and appropriate use of LLS has through research, been established as a valuable tool for enhancing the language learning process. As it is noted in a wide range of literature concerned with how language learners learn, and especially SLL(s), GLL frequently use a large number of LLS (Green and Oxford, 1985; Oxford 1990; Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Rubin, 1997; Griffiths, 2003a and 2003b; Griffiths 2006). A close examination of these scholars’

definitions of LLS reveals the concept of learners as constructors of their learning knowledge. It is against this background that the study wanted to establish the awareness and use of LLS by learners within Kenyan secondary schools.

It was of paramount importance for the research to first establish if the learners at all faced situations that would automatically lead to the use of LLS, then their awareness of LLS before looking into how they used them. The results of Table 4.5 showed that most of the learners acknowledge they face numerous challenges and difficulties in the process of learning of English. Therefore, a wide range of LLS was expected as it is observed by Hismanoglu (2000) that LLS are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of learning a language.

However, when asked to mention how they went about solving and handling these issues, very few learners represented by frequencies ranging between 5 [6.9%] –21 [29.2%] gave reasons (Table 4.6). They seem not to understand how they make use of LLS in facilitating understanding, remembering and storing the information they learn and the language they use in communication yet they find LLS useful in language learning (Table 1.9). These kinds of responses are explained by the factors mentioned by (25 [34.7%]) learners as to why they do not use LLS. However, the varied LLS suggested by the respondents (Table 4.6 and 4.8) fall under various taxonomies of LLS; an occurrence that confirms the claims put forward by the available literature (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley et al, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Rubin and Thompson, 1982).

The results show that a considerable number of learners are not familiar with and aware of the existence of LLS despite the fact that they (45 [62.5%]) say that they do

a number of things both in class and out of class in order to make the learning and use of English manageable and enjoyable. This is a fact that some of their teachers (15 [45.5%]) attest to considering their responses on how learners use the LLS in the SILL provided. However, when asked to say if their learners used LLS, 30 (90.9%) said 'yes'. The results obtained from the teachers further show that, the use of these LLS is not an in-built practice among the learners because they only use LLS sometimes and do not put them to appropriate use all the times (Table 4.16 and Figure 4.19). This is a practice supported by Hismanoglu (2000) who acknowledges that all language learners use LLS either consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in the language classroom. This is because the language classroom is like a problem solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks given by the instructors.

In this connection, what the research results further reveal is that, the learners' use of LLS is greatly determined by the nature of the lesson, language tasks used and content presented (Table 4.19). When the language tasks are challenging and difficult, the learners tend to depend on the teachers motivation into the learning process (Table 4.20). When exposed to content they gauged as easy, manageable and familiar they were positive and quick to prompt themselves into the learning process and require minimal or no external motivation. Griffiths (2006:3) says that motivation is a major factor in successful language learning "...be it intrinsic...extrinsic...motivation is necessary if learners are to be prepared to make the investment of time, energy and a sense of self (identity) which learning a language other than the first requires." The learners present a situation where, they usually least think about how to handle challenging situations and prefer the easier way out through the learning sessions. When the learners felt completely defeated, as revealed through the observation

results, the teacher remained the only active participant in the lesson; rendering the lessons teacher-centred. These learners are not autonomous, the kind that Nunan (1989:81) describes as adaptable to “a range of roles which are relatively uncommon in traditional instruction. They require the learner to be adaptable, creative, inventive, and most of all independent.”

The results further reveal that these learners are partially conscious of their use of LLS because they highly depend on their teachers for prompting during English language lessons. This is further emphasized by the fact that these learners were only able to identify a larger range of LLS they used when provided by the SILL. This kind of scenario is well explained by the fact that they said that they were not all the time conscious of their use of LLS (Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9). This is not a practice of GLL, as pointed out by Nunan (1989: 20) “learning outcomes will be influenced by learners’ perceptions about what they should contribute, their views about the nature and demands of the task, and their definitions of the situation in which the task takes place.” Therefore learners should be able to take control of their learning process. The kinds of learners whom Dornyei and Skehan, (2003), Dornyei (2005) and Griffiths (2006) say are able to self-regulate during language learning process and act autonomously.

This presents the teachers of English with a situation where they have to be very knowledgeable about their learners’ language learning mannerisms. This will help establish the levels to which they require prompting and motivation if the learning experience has to be beneficial. Mcgroarty and Oxford (1990:56) acknowledge that knowledge in the teaching cycle is growing and one needs a comprehensive

understanding of the “knowledge of the process learners use as they acquire a second language...second language learning strategies are keys to language learning.”

The whole concept of prompting in language learning is viewed as an aspect of schema activation. Schema in language learning is considered as that knowledge a language user has regarding the world and language that can be retrieved when one is learning or using the language (Macaro, 2003). The study results reveal that the learners generally considered their fellow learners’ prompting with a light touch and responded more positively to the learning situation rather than when prompted by the teachers (Table 4.18). However, the results also reveal that the learners believe in and prefer the teachers’ prompting despite the fact that they take a longer time to respond. Most of the prompting during the lesson observations was mainly done through: the teachers repeating questions asked, rephrasing information already given, repetition of important points and suggesting leading information or clues to an answer or any information the teacher seeks from the learner.

The results further confirm that, the learners’ use of LLS was not always a natural process. They did not face the learning situations with freedom and confidence; some learners seemed to wait for their fellow learners to respond, if not, then the teacher had to prompt them into the learning situations. This is a sign of poor LLS use because Skehan (1989:4) observes that “there are learner strategies that imply some degree of learner control and distance from the actual process of learning.” They do not believe in themselves and so require external motivation and activation of their schema in order to learn language better; especially when the learning situation is more challenging. This is the reason why most of the lessons were teacher-centred and dominated by teacher talk and activities; even in the lessons where learners had a

sense of control, the teachers remained the sole controllers of all the lessons observed. However not in all lessons did the learners positively respond to the teachers prompting; they either gave wrong responses, took too long to respond, responded in low tones or did not respond at all.

According to the learners, the most popularly used LLS taxonomies are the affective, communication, social and compensation strategies, while the least popular is the management planning strategy (Figure 4.1). The most popular according to the teachers are: the communicative-experimental, management planning and compensation strategies while the least used are the communication, affective and interpersonal strategies (Figure 4.10). The difference in these responses could be due to the major fact that the use of LLS is both an overt and covert process. It is possible that the teachers gauged their judgement on the overt use while the learners based their responses on both the overt and covert use of LLS. As noted by Hismanoglu (2000) LLS are used both consciously and unconsciously.

Apart from the learners providing information concerning their awareness and use of LLS, they also provided information concerning how useful they considered LLS to be in facilitating their learning of English. The results generally showed that very few learners are motivated and aware of how to use LLS. This is supported by the fact that quite a number [93.4%] agreed that LLS helped them in various ways in the learning of English. However when asked to mention how they helped them, only 21 responses (Table 4.8) were given by all the 72 learners, represented by very small frequencies ranging between 3 –25 [4.2%-34.7%] respondents. This comes down to the fact that they depend a lot on their teachers' prompting on when and how to use LLS in enhancing the language learning process. This is a focus on the tenets of 'strategy

instruction' where teacher of English would have to engage in strategy training. This requires that the teacher prompts the learners into the use of LLS. However, they should in the long run be able to naturally use LLS in language learning.

The learners' general remarks regarding the awareness and use of LLS clearly pointed to the fact that they do not adequately understand LLS and do not sufficiently exploit the potential in LLS to enhance language learning. This was further established through the observation results where only a limited number of LLS were used by the learners during the lessons. Their sentiments could be summarized through the responses by 21 [29.2%] and 12 [16.7%] respondents who said that *'learners should participate in various activities to encourage language development'* and *'learners should organise their learning because English is a wide subject'* respectively. This can further be supported by the sentiment of 23 [69.7] teachers who said that *'learners do not appreciate self language development they focus on passing examinations'*.

The learners involved in the research are denying themselves an opportunity to successfully learn language. The concept of learners taking charge of their learning is highly regarded in LLS instruction programmes. LLS are many and varied and learners will develop those they find useful depending on their orientation to learning English, it is agreed that LLS will either contribute directly or indirectly to the language learning process. Griffiths (2006:9) points out that "successful learners self-regulate by means of appropriate strategic, metacognitive and autonomous behaviours. They are eclectic in their learning method preferences, able to benefit from strategy instruction, notice and understand error correction, and are able to use a range of techniques such as task analysis to manage tasks."

4.3.2 Language Learners' Predisposition to using Language Learning

Strategies (LLS)

The second objective of this study was to determine the language learners' predisposition to using LLS. Available literature stresses on the use of LLS as a valuable tool in SLL and it further focuses on the fact that the use of the various LLS is determined by various learner factors like age, cognitive ability, gender, class levels, aptitude and personality among others. In this regard, Griffiths (2006) notes that, there are a number of factors within the individual which inevitably impact on their success as language learners. These factors, she emphasizes, "make each learner unique and are intricately tied to a learner's very sense of identity," (P: 3).

A close examination of the results given by both the teachers and learners clearly shows that age, gender, cognitive ability and class level have considerable influence over the manner in which LLS are developed and used by learners (Table 4.21, Figures 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6). However, the observation and tape recorded results showed that only the cognitive abilities of learners had influence on the manner in which LLS were used. This could be explained by the fact that the use of LLS is not always a conscious and overt activity. As noted by Hismanoglu (2000) all language learners use LLS either consciously or unconsciously when processing information and performing tasks in the language classroom. It is possible the researcher was not able to observe some of the covert and unconscious use of LLS. Hence, the researcher depended on the teachers and learners responses in order to establish how the other variables influenced the use of LLS.

Regarding gender, the results show that female and male learners approach the language learning process differently and are, therefore, likely to develop different

LLS and use them differently (Figure 4.5). The female learners use LLS in larger numbers, more frequently and are more conscious and careful about how they put language to use as compared to the male learners who use LLS in smaller numbers, less frequently and are not very sensitive to language use. This implies that female learners are more cautious about the use of LLS as compared to the male learners who were regarded as carefree in language use. Learners in Mixed Schools according to the results use LLS more frequently as compared to those in single gender schools.

Regarding cognitive ability the results show that high cognitive abilities favour the development and appropriate use of LLS. Hence, learners with higher cognitive abilities tend to be more successful language learners as compared to those with lower cognitive abilities. Furthermore, the results reveal that low achievers as compared to higher achievers, require more prompting and thus motivation into the learning situation, especially when the content and language learning tasks seem more difficult and challenging to handle. The results by the learners specifically show that learners from the Provincial Schools use LLS in a different manner as compared to those in District Schools where the learners according to this study are considered to be of a lower cognitive ability (Figure 4.3). The observation results show that learners from Provincial Schools responded faster to content being presented and expressed a higher ability of content conceptualization as compared to the learners from District schools. These results are supported by Griffiths (2003a and 2003b) view that GLL use a large number of LLS and in particular higher level students use strategies related to managing their own learning, to vocabulary, to grammar, to the use of resources and to all four language skills.

Regarding the class levels, the results show that learners in higher class levels have more developed language abilities and are more comfortable with language learning and use. This could be attributed to the fact that their LLS are more developed and therefore they are able to use them with more ease and appropriacy as compared to the learners in lower class levels. Furthermore, the learners in the lower class levels could be considered to be experimenting with the language because they are still in the process of developing what could be considered appropriate LLS. These results are further explained by the way the learners said they used LLS provided in the SILL. Figure 4.6 results reveal that the specific use of the LLS categories is as follows: the cognitive-learning strategies, memory strategies, social strategies, affective strategies, communication strategies and metacognitive strategies are most popularly used among the F2 learners. While the communicative-experimental strategies, interpersonal strategies and the compensation strategies are most popular among the F4 learners. Only the management planning strategies are equally used among the F2 and F4 learners. There is no LLS category that is used most by the F3 learners; they have the lowest representation among all the 10 LLS taxonomies. These results show that, learners at different levels of learning tend to use different kinds of LLS.

The results on age and LLS use mirror the above views; that the younger learners are at the discovery stage as concerns language learning while the older learners seem to have developed LLS to a considerable level to allow them to more freely and unconsciously use language (Figure 4.4). Consequently, the younger learners are more conscious of LLS use. However, due to having developed LLS, the older learners limit themselves to what they already know rather than allowing themselves to further explore the world of processes available for language learning lending the

younger language learners better. The results of the learners show that learners of the age 16-18 use LLS most. However it is important to note that this was the main age group involved in the study.

It is important for the English language teachers to have a sound and complete understanding of their learners' characteristics and how these influence the learning process. This supports Harmer (1991) idea, that be it with the consideration of the learners' age, sex, social background, motivations and attitudes, educational background, knowledge, interests and needs, the teacher should "know who the students are, what the students bring to the class and the students need", (ibid.262). He emphasizes that "such knowledge, due to the unique characteristics each group of learners' posses will aid the language teacher in planning for instruction by selecting the activities that will be suitable for the students", (ibid:262).

4.3.3 The Language Teachers' awareness of Language Learning

Strategies (LLS)

The third objective of this study was to establish the language teachers' awareness of the existence of LLS and how their learners used them to enhance learning of English. It has been established through available literature that teachers' awareness of LLS makes them better teachers. Canagarajah (2006:14) observes that "we are now compelled to orient ourselves to our learners in more specific ways, taking into account their diverse learning contexts and needs". The whole concept of LLS surrounds the teachers' knowledge about their learners and how they go about the language learning process both consciously and unconsciously (Figure 1.1). This is one of the aspects of 'teacher cognitions', a concept developed by Borg (2003). He

specifically defines them as “the unavoidable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think,” (ibid: 81), (Figure 2.2).

The study results clearly indicate that to a considerable level, English language teachers in Kenyan schools have an understanding of what LLS are and how their learners use them to enhance language learning. For instance, 15 [45.5%] teachers said that their learners used varied LLS as provided in the SILL. However when separately asked to say if their learners used LLS, 30 [90.9%] said ‘yes’. This could imply a situation where the English language teachers are aware that LLS exist and that their learners use them, but they themselves do not have a complete understanding of the whole range of LLS available and how learners put them to use under different situations during the learning process. This is not appropriate for successful language learning. Hismonoglu (2000) highlights the fact that LLS give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess situations, plan and select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn or remember new input presented in the language classroom. Despite this, the teachers were able to establish the fact that their learners did not always use LLS and when they are used they are not put to appropriate use (Table 4.16). This knowledge confirms that most learners have limited knowledge about LLS and how to put them to use.

A further look at the results indicates that most of the English language teachers (27 [81.8%]) have sound knowledge concerning how useful these LLS are to the learners in the process of language learning (Table 4.22). This is an idea advocated for in strategy instruction, as noted by Lessard-Clouston (1997) it is crucial that all SL teachers, who aim to help develop their students’ communicative competence and language learning, have an understanding of LLS. However there was a proportion (6

[18.2%]) of teachers who had strong feelings that LLS were not useful. Their sentiments (Table 4.23) clearly point to the fact that they are unmotivated about teaching and do not bother to factor their learners into the learning process. They are more interested in completing the syllabus which they claim is too wide.

The observation results showed that all the lessons were teacher-centred, with situations where teachers only focused on the learners when they had to respond to lesson content. The learners could only participate when invited by the teachers; they had no choice about how the learning could be conducted. This is a practice contrary to the modern language teaching methods that advocate for a focus on the learner and a move away from the teacher-centred teaching approaches. These teachers have held to the traditional methods of language teaching where the teacher does not allow learners sufficient time to explore venues for learning during the instructional process. For instance, Nunan, (1989:19) clearly indicates that, “another trend in recent years which has stemmed from CLT has been the development of learner-centred approaches to language teaching, in which information by and from learners is used in planning, implementing and evaluating language programmes.” The observation results further emphasize this practice by the teachers reveals that some of them do not worry about how learners behave and approach the learning sessions. Yet it is of paramount importance that teachers attempt “to understand students’ conceptions and encourage students to reflect upon their conceptions...this approach will also sustain learning beyond the classroom,” (Garrison and Archer, 2000:126).

However, there are a number of things that also come through the study results to show that the English language teachers do not take complete advantage of LLS to make instruction in English language classrooms a more fulfilling and profitable

exercise, both to themselves and the learners. In this respect they provided a list of factors they considered a great hindrance towards being able to factor into the instructional process issues to do with LLS, section 4.2.2.5 presents a summary of these factors. This means that, the teachers feel that if these hindering factors were eliminated from the learning environment, then they would be in a better position to focus on their learners. Consequently, they will be able to focus on learner-centred approaches and how learners negotiate their way through the instructional process by using LLS.

4.3.4 The Influence of Language Learning Strategies on Instruction in English

The fourth and last objective of the study sought to ascertain how LLS influenced the manner in which instruction in English is conducted. The available literature (Shanahan 1994, Grossman and Shulman, 1994; Borg, 2003; Kamaravadivelu, 2006; Canagarajah, 2006) on language teaching widely discusses the importance of the teacher in relation to the knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes they bring to the instructional process. Considering all these factors, it is believed that a language teacher should be able, through the existing ELT approaches and methods to come up with what they feel best suits their unique instructional environment, and in particular what works best for their learners. This is the reason why Kamaravadivelu (2006:69) raises the issue that, “macrostrategies are made operational in the classroom through microstrategies...by exploring and extending macrostrategies to meet the challenges of changing contexts of teaching.” This, he emphasizes, will be accomplished “by designing appropriate microstrategies to maximize learning potential in the classroom, and by monitoring their acts, teachers will eventually be able to devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant theory of practice,” (ibid, 69). A theory of practice that Borg (2003) suggests is basically shaped by what he refers to as ‘teacher

cognition'. The focus on the influence of LLS on the use of LTS is a component of teacher cognition.

In this respect, it has been established that English language teachers who prepare for instruction and teach with their learners in mind are better teachers than those who do not do it. When planning for instruction the teacher should be able “to remember, that language is a complex phenomenon, with an almost infinite number of variables to be considered, none of which develops in isolation. The variables may relate to the learners themselves, to the ways learners behave, to factors in the learning situation, or to what it is that is being learnt”, (Griffiths, 2006:3).

According to the teachers (29 [87.9%]) the factors provided influenced the nature of LTS they used. However, results show that factors directly related to learners characteristics and styles of language learning did not have much influence over how they planned for and conducted instruction in English in relation to the LTS they used. Among the 18 reasons they give for their practice, 11 showed that those factors negatively influenced instruction. This is contrary to what is expected in LLS driven instruction, where learners are central to the instructional process. Harmer (1991) notes the knowledge about the unique characteristics each group of learners will aid the language teacher in planning for instruction by selecting the activities that will be suitable for students.

Apart from the above, the results also revealed that, the English language teachers did not find most of the listed LTS useful and important in the instructional process. Only 6 of all the 36 listed LTS were considered useful by all teachers. Furthermore, the frequency of use of these LTS mirrors the fact that these teachers do not use them

during the instructional process. The results, according to the teachers reveal that only 19 LTS are most used while 17 are least used by the teachers of English. While according to the learners 25 were commonly used and 11 are least used (Table 4.8). Even when asked to suggest other LTS they used apart from those provided in the table, 13 [39.4%] of the teachers said that they did not use any other LTS apart from those provided in the table, while 20 [60.6%] suggested 16 LTS (Table 4.24). Yet available literature stresses on the use of appropriate LTS. For instance it is noted in the Secondary English Teacher's handbook (KIE, 2006:2) that the information in the book "...should be used to provoke the teacher to explore strategies and methods that will enhance the teaching and learning of English."

Despite that the teachers express a clear understanding of the fact that they have to consider their learners and IDs in language learning when teaching English, the low frequencies presented draw attention to the fact that many of them limit themselves to the nature of LTS used by not exploiting all the possible avenues. This is a factor contrary to what is expected if motivation on the part of the learners is to be built and successful language learning is expected. Griffiths (2006:10) notes that, "students' ability to speak depends not only on the classroom techniques used by their teachers but also ...their level of motivation...all these involve decisions on the part of the teacher, and good decisions are essential if student empowerment is to be effectively facilitated."

As further revealed by the observation results, the teachers mainly used a limited selection of 20 LTS (Section 4.2.3.1). The 33 lessons observed were dominated by 6 activities: explanation, clarification of content, giving of examples, exercises, dictation of notes and asking of questions. This definitely presented the learners with

a situation where LLS were not fully involved, thus limited language learning. These teachers of English are limiting themselves. Prabhu, (1990:172) in this connection says that there is no need for a best method, what is of great importance is the need for the teachers to learn “to operate with some personal conceptualization of how their teaching leads to desired learning-with a notion of causation that has a measure of credibility for them.” The use of a variety of LTS gives the English language teacher the opportunity to cater for the IDs that exist among the many language learners, who in particular are SLL. This practice is supported by Griffiths (2006:10) who asserts that the teacher of English should “provide a variety of activities to encourage and support students to develop their language skill.”

A large proportion of the teachers (27 [81.8%]) were of the strong view that LLS influenced the type and manner in which they used LTS to a considerable degree (Table 4.22). Furthermore, some of the reasons they gave for this kind of practice clearly show that they consider learner characteristics and IDs when planning to use certain kinds of LTS. However, of these reasons only a small number (6 only) with low teacher frequency representation considered LLS as positively influencing the LTS used. This strongly points to the fact that many English language teachers do not understand the very specific learner characteristics and IDs that they should consider when planning for instruction, thereby factoring in LLS. Yet available literature indicates that due to the issues involved in SL learning “there has been need to shift the balance of power in the classroom away from the teacher...this trend has led to a variety of new classroom approaches and techniques...the recognition of linguistic diversity and the ways in which this can be acknowledged and built on in the classroom,” (Nichollas and Hoadley-Maidment, 1988:1). Furthermore, Canagarajah (2006:17) critically observes that “there is no easy answer for teachers here. They are

themselves compelled to learn from students and develop engaged positions of agency as they provide learning environments that better enable critically negotiating language.”

Despite the fact that many teachers do not factor in issues to do with their learners when planning for instruction, results from the learners show that a considerable number of teachers give them opportunity to express their views regarding the learning of English with a focus on how they go about learning. They are also given opportunities to talk in class and to air their views concerning the challenges and difficulties they face in class (Section 4.2.1.4). In modern language teaching approaches this is a practice which revolves around learner autonomy and learner-centred instruction; it allows the learner to a considerable degree control over their own learning, leaving the teachers as a guide and facilitator. Hismanoglu (2000) notes that, the prominent shift in the field of language learning and teaching over the last 20 years has put emphasis on the learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. Furthermore, Richards and Rogers (1986) demonstrate that the more recent language teaching methods allow the learners some level of control over the learning process. Hence, “learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning-how-to-learn,” (Nunan, 1989:80).

Nevertheless, what is important to note about these results is the fact that the teachers allow their learners the opportunity to participate in class but do not factor into the instructional processes their learners’ views. Furthermore the observation results show that the teachers limit the opportunities they give their learners to express themselves in class and even beyond the class. Otherwise, there would be adequate exploitation of the learner IDs and consequently LLS when planning for instruction. This is

emphasized by the response of 19 [57.6%] teachers who said that *'there is need for teachers to focus on learner activities in class, rather than the teacher'*. The observation results showed that some teachers were only interested in covering the content rather than facilitating language learning. This practice acts as an impediment to language learning. If language teaching is appropriate and learner-centred, teachers will not manipulate their learners as they encourage them to develop and use their own LLS. Instead they will take learners' motivations and learning styles into account as they teach in order to improve their L2 skills in LLS (Clouston, 1997).

Furthermore, the suggestions learners gave on how they wish their teachers to conduct English language instruction in relation to LLS point to the fact that, first, the learners have a clear understanding of the fact that both the teachers and learners have vital and unique yet very interrelated roles to play in the success of language learning. Second, that not all the burden and blame should be placed on the teacher of English for poor language learning or performance. These ideas could adequately be expressed through the response of 14 (19.4%) respondents who said that *'both the teachers and learners should understand their role in English'*. Beside this, their sentiments could also be summarized in the response by 10 (13.9%) who said that *'learners should be encouraged to find ways of learning English'*. This is only possible if teachers of English in respect to their unique teaching environments endeavour to make their learners aware of the available LLS and possibly train them in the usage of the same during the language learning process. This is because "teaching new language skills requires the converging of strategies to enhance the aspects of environment relevant to linguistic mapping in a manner that matches a learner's style of learning with the target linguistic skills," (Power and Hubbard, 2002:26).

If the practice of teachers paying attention to learners' use of LLS and training them in the use of LLS is adhered to, teacher-centred lessons would not be witnessed. There would be learner-centred lessons with more learner initiated activities, learner involvement and learners being given opportunities to make choices about how to work during English lessons. In the entire study, in only one lesson (24), on Oral presentations from a literary set text, were learners considerably involved in the lesson. This kind of practice can only be attained if teachers realize that even the learners have a role to play in the instructional process. This fact "raises the important issue of learners developing an awareness of themselves as learners," in the learning process, (Nunan, 1989:80). Such a process he further observes "of course implies a major change in roles assigned to learners and teachers...one opens to the student the possibility of planning and monitoring learning," (ibid, 20).

Within the strategy instruction concepts, there is the focus on LLS training. LLS training, according to Cohen (2003), is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated through making learners aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use. Thus SLL are encouraged to learn and use a wide range of LLS through the learning process. In regard to this study, the study results showed that teachers of English have limited understanding of what LLS training is all about. Only 17 [51.5%] teachers said they made their learners aware of the available LLS and aided their development to enhance language learning. Only 19 [57.6%] teachers said they trained their learners in the use of LLS and that they found it a necessary activity. However, the other proportion (14 [42.4%]) of teachers did not find LLS training an important practice in language teaching. Furthermore, the observation results confirmed that there were no extensive strategy training efforts made by the English teachers. Teachers mainly made follow-ups to lesson content

through assignments and exercises, however in 9 lessons no specific follow-up tasks were given to the learners.

The challenges the teachers said they faced when coming up with LTS that centred on the learners and LLS, were a great pointer to the fact that some teachers face certain situations within their teaching environments that hinder them from appropriately conducting instruction in English. These reasons also revealed the fact that teachers felt that these challenges were beyond their control. However, further probing of the teachers revealed that they were just not keen on their learners and use of LLS. The main blame for their lack of focus on the learners and the use of LLS was directed towards the heavy workload, lack of enough teachers of English, wide syllabus and examination oriented teaching. Therefore, their main aim was just to plough through the so referred to as the 'wide syllabus' but not to enable learners learn, rather to enable learners pass the examinations. These are real issues experienced within the secondary school education system in Kenya. They are situations that require attention and intervention from the school administrators, curriculum designers and planners, the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) to remedy the situation. Teachers may require to be inducted on how to effectively focus on learners and use of LLS to come up with appropriate LTS to suit their respective learning environments.

The teachers of English seem to focus on development of linguistic competence rather than communicative competence among their learners. This is a practice against the Kenyan secondary school English syllabus where it is noted that, "in the teaching of English, the emphasis should be on the acquisition of communicative competence and not simply on the passing of examinations", (KIE, 2002: 3). These are teachers who

do not seem to have full commitment towards improving communicative competences among their learners. Among other factors, this has led to the perpetual poor performance in English as a subject in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE). Aggarwal (1995) notes that “it is very clear that a teacher must acquire a sound knowledge of learning, its nature and its process, so as to make his teaching-learning effective, efficient and inspirational. He should know well the operations and approaches to use proper strategies and if needed to evolve new strategies of teaching-learning,” (60-61). Therefore, the teachers of English should be sensitized about the demands of the syllabus in relation to development of communicative competence among the learners with a focus on LLS.

4.3.5 Discussion of findings based on the Conceptual Framework

In order to effectively determine the factors that influenced and determined how favourable the learning environments were in enhancing ‘good language learning’ among the learners involved in this study, it is of great importance that the principles behind the theory and conceptual framework be considered in relation to the findings of this study. This study was based on the principles embedded within the ‘Language Teaching Theory’ (LTT) (Stern, 1990) as a SL teaching theory. This informed the ideas within the study conceptual framework based on the ‘Good Language –Learner’ (GLL) model, a SL learning model (Naiman et al, (1978) and the ‘Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) model (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002 and Oxford, 2001) as a SL teaching model.

To begin with, the ‘Language Teaching Theory’ (LTT) (Stern, 1990) considers only two main variables that are very closely related to the GLL model variables, these are the *teacher* and the *learner*. The aspects discussed about the learner in the GLL model

also relate to this theory. The issues of teacher cognition as put forward by Borg (1997 and 2003) and teacher professionalism as highlighted by Richards (2008) are very pertinent. The results revealed that the teachers teaching experience in terms of how long they had been in the teaching profession determines how well they understand their learners. This also determined how they considered their learning styles and unique characteristics in the instructional decisions they made. As noted by Richards (2008:160-161):

...English language teaching is seen as a career in the field of educational specialization, it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience...the professionalism in English is seen ... devoted to providing language teachers with professional training and qualifications, in continuous attempts to develop standards for English language teaching and for English language teachers.

The study results show that teachers' experience and professional training are important aspects in determining how the teacher of English handles the instructional process. Those teachers who had taught for 1-10years expressed less concern for aspects that are learner related (IDs). While those who had worked for 10-20 and above years showed that they regarded learner characteristics, learner learning styles, content and learning environments as factors that influenced their instructional decisions. Broughton et al (1980:38-9), support this kind of occurrence and they note that for the language teacher, "the more the knowledge he can glean from the wealth of writing in the field, the better he will be able to combine his knowledge with practical experience to produce a suitable teaching methodology for his own purposes".

Secondly, 'The 'Good Language –Learner' (GLL) model of Naiman et al (1978) provided a good basis of interpretation of the variables in this study. The main

variables in this model are teaching, learner, context, learning and outcomes. The independent variables are: teaching, learner and context. While the dependent variables are: learning and outcomes. *Teaching* entails materials, syllabus, methodology and resources; the *learner* entails age, cognitive styles, motivation, attitude and resources; and the learning *context* entails the nature of the environment within which learning takes place (how favourable it is for ESL). *Learning* entails both the conscious and unconscious processes involved in language learning. *Outcomes* entail proficiency in the four main language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, leading to a communicatively competent language user. The independent variables according to the GLL model proponents (Naiman et al, 1978) have a great influence on the nature of language learning and outcomes expected by the English language teacher (Figure 1.1).

A close consideration of these variables in relation to the study findings shows that both the teachers and learners faced certain situations and had to work within environments that are not quite favourable to language teaching and language learning. All these are discussed hereafter.

Teaching

Several factors came through the research results regarding teaching. All that was taught was within the syllabus and teachers presented the content according to the class levels as presented in the syllabus (KIE, 2002 and 2006). Their objectives of teaching English were also in line with general objectives of teaching English in Kenyan secondary schools (KIE, 2006). However, the syllabus was considered wide by both the teachers and the learners. From the learners' point of view, the syllabus is too wide. Therefore, they are unable to cope with the amount of content to be learnt in

what they considered, 'limited time'. Some teachers also attributed their negligence of learner IDs to the fact that they had to concentrate on completing the wide syllabus within the stipulated period of time. Thus they stick to using the old modes of teaching and less involving LTS. However, according to Gathumbi and Maseembe (2005:167) the syllabus should only be considered implementational "it is not sacrosanct as the subject matter is not detailed. It is therefore the onus of the teacher to decide how to use it." Therefore, these teachers should be in a position to make the syllabus work in their specific environments.

Furthermore, teacher respondents in this inquiry said that the learner variations are too wide and so planning for individual learner is difficult. Griffiths (2006) acknowledges that learners are the most variable among other variables within the language learning process. This means that, learners have many varying characteristics that have to be considered by the language teacher when planning for instruction. Hence, a good language teacher according to Borg, (2003) is the one who is able to overcome this by being sensitive to learners and how they negotiate language learning.

As regards the teaching resources, no teacher made an effort to use any media resources apart from the chalk-board, despite the fact that they agreed that media resources enhanced language learning and motivated learners when used. This was attributed to the fact that the school administrators did not provide any media resources. Beside that, they claimed that their preparation and use took plenty of time. The main instructional materials used during all lessons were the class text-books and the set literary texts, which were inadequate in most of the schools where lessons were observed. Effective language learning can be enhanced through the use of teaching resources. Pollard et al (2002:77) argue that equipment is important because

learners are able to get appropriate learning experiences. They further note that “in both quality and quantity, these recourses have an impact on what is possible to do in schools and classrooms”.

Context

The *context* of learning according to this study included the physical environment and the various things done by the teachers in order to create a favourable and inviting language learning atmosphere. The observation results showed that many of the classrooms had large numbers of learners (40-50 learners). In this respect a number of teachers complained about the large classes as one of the major factors that hindered effective language teaching leading to no or minimal individual learner attention. Learners were in most cases handled as one unit with similar language learning characteristics. Hence creating environments that were not at all favourable for language learning, particularly encouraging the use of LLS to enhance language learning and use. Kembo (2000:293) observes that large classes mean “even if teachers want to use a communicative method to teach, they will find that their classes ...too large to engage in meaningful communication.” This, she notes, leads to the use of traditional lecture methods. This is a phenomenon that was observed the observation sessions. The lessons were predominantly teacher-centred lessons. Learners were not granted the opportunity to explore various avenues that they could use in conceptualizing the lesson content through the use of LLS. Consequently, the teachers did not make use of LTS that were learner and LLS use orientated.

Learner

Regarding the *learner*, in relation to this study, several factors about the learner determined how language learning took place. These were: the age, class levels,

cognitive abilities and gender. These variables have been established by many researchers to have an influence on language learning, particularly in relation to LLS, (Skehan, 1989; Mcgroarty and Oxford, 1990; Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Piper, 1998; Griffiths, 2006). This inquiry focuses on gender as one of the varying factors about learners apart from those mentioned in the GLL model (Figure 1.1). Furthermore, Stern (1990) in the LTT suggests that variables such as age and gender of the learner influence the manner in which language learning takes place. In this investigation as relates to gender, the female learners were more careful and keen about their learning and use of language. Therefore, their use of LLS is considered more established and unconscious compared to the male learners who seem more carefree with language learning and use. The learners with higher cognitive abilities learnt language better and more easily compared to those with lower cognitive abilities.

With regard to class levels, learners in lower class levels tend to be more enthusiastic about language learning and, therefore, use LLS more frequently compared to older learners who feel they already have developed sufficient language. The language teacher must be in a position to understand their learners' characteristics and even predict their learning styles if they have to teach them well; especially their styles of LLS use, (Griffiths, 2006; Lessard-Clouston, 1997). According to the study results, most of the teachers of English express an understanding of their learner characteristics. However they do not endeavour to come up with LTS that would suit their language learning styles.

Learning

Learning, according to Naiman et al (1978), is a product of *teaching*, the *learner* and the *context*. Thus regarding the process of *learning*, this study focused on the

conscious processes which Naiman et al, (1978) refer to as *strategies*, but specifically referred to as LLS in this study. Available literature indicates that these strategies are both consciously and unconsciously used by language learners (Hismanoglu, 2000). The study results revealed that learners did not have wide knowledge about the existence of LLS and, therefore, they are not able to sufficiently and appropriately use them in the language learning process. Nonetheless on a general scale they employed both conscious and unconscious LLS when learning English. This was established from the very fact that they were able to identify both types of LLS as those they use from the 10 taxonomies of LLS provided in the SILL. On rare occasions do they prompt themselves into the learning process and this is a clear indication of their poor use of LLS. It has been observed that GLL will always appropriately employ LLS (Griffiths 2003a, 2003b, 2006; Macaro, 2003; Cohen and Dornyei, 2002; Nunan, 1989).

The interaction among the various independent variables: *teaching*, the *learner* and the *context* according to the research results has led to unexpected language learning *outcome*. Therefore, the poor performance in English in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examination is inevitable until all these issues are addressed. The expected language proficiency is thus not easily attained, leading to the perpetual poor performance experienced in English in Kenyan secondary schools.

Lastly, the ‘Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002 and Oxford, 2001) bases its argument on the fact that it is possible to train learners in the use of LLS as a component activity in the language instructional process. This can either be done explicitly or implicitly. The emphasis placed on the fact that, learners have to be sensitized about how they can learn language more

effectively through the use of LLS. It involves five components: *strategy preparation*, *strategy awareness-raising*, *strategy training*, *strategy practice* and *personalization of strategies*. In order to enhance language learning, it has been established that training in the awareness and use of LLS is a useful practice. This is a practice which according to this study is all about schema activation of the LLS, what was closely linked to ‘prompting’ during the language learning process. Situations where the teacher has to establish what the learners know, remind them of what they know, make them aware of what they do not know, train them in using the new skill learnt, allow them plenty of practice in using the new skill and then allow learners to use the new skills in context, is the main argument advanced by this study.

The present study results show that English language teachers endeavoured to prompt their learners into the learning process, particularly in situations where during the lessons the content being presented seemed incomprehensible to the learners. However, what was observed is the fact that, they only stopped at prompting. On no occasion did a teacher go ahead and tell the learners what they should have done or how they should have gone about finding answers to their language puzzles. Even in situations where you would expect a variety of activities to allow the learners to use their LLS in context, most teachers restricted themselves to take away assignments and exercises; which the learners complained that their teachers rarely marked.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter mainly focused on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the study results in the light of the four study objectives and the theoretical and conceptual frameworks upon which this study was based. This was all done with the support of the literature surrounding LLS and how teachers who focus on the use of

LLS can make the learning of English as a SL a successful exercise. The next and last chapter of this work focuses on the summary of the study findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

RECAPITULATION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Recapitulation

As a way to recapture the main issues of concern raised and handled in this investigation, it is of paramount importance to first focus on the thrust of the whole argument presented in the foregoing chapters. The main purpose of this study was to establish the LLS used by secondary school learners in Kenya and how these influenced the manner in which language teachers conducted instruction in English language classrooms. In order to accomplish this task, the study closely looked at the following main factors: the language learners' awareness and use of LLS, learners' predisposition to using LLS, English language teachers' awareness of LLS and lastly, the influence of LLS on the nature of instruction conducted in English. All this was done with the main aim of providing valuable information to all stake-holders of education in Kenya with regard to teaching and learning of English in Kenyan secondary schools. In particular, it aims to improve levels of acquisition and use of English, and consequently the performance in English as a subject at all levels of learning.

A total of 12 public secondary schools from Kakamega Central District of Western Province in Kenya were involved in the entire study. It was from these schools that the total of 72 learners (F2, F3 and F4) and 33 teachers of English, who completed the learner and teacher questionnaires respectively, were sampled from. In the same schools a total of 33 lessons (F2, F3 and F4) of English in progress were observed and tape-recorded. The main research instruments used to obtain the data analyzed were:

teacher questionnaire, learner questionnaire, classroom observation worksheet and tape-recordings.

The data gathered from these instruments was analysed thematically and descriptively using descriptive statistics: this was done in line with the four objectives of the study with a focus on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks upon which this work was based. The data obtained provided information on the various variables under investigation in form of comparisons, relationships, explanations and explorations of the various LLS and LTS. Processing of the data involved transcription, editing, coding, classification, tabulation, graphs, frequencies and percentages. A comprehensive presentation of the data collected, analysed and interpreted is made in chapter 4 of this work. Following the analysis of the findings, the researcher reached various conclusions and recommendations which are presented hereafter.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The summary is done by outlining the summary of the findings of each study objective. **The first objective was to investigate the language learners' awareness and use of LLS**

The study results showed that the learners were aware of the existence of LLS. However, they had a limited knowledge about the range of LLS available to them and thus depended on their teachers a great deal for guidance. They looked at their teachers from the traditional orientation where the teacher is seen as the 'sage on stage', the know it all. This created a situation where, the learners do not consciously and spontaneously use LLS. They greatly depend on their teachers for prompting during the instructional process. In some situations they do not respond at all, they do

not attempt to jog their minds to critically think about the content being presented. This was commonly experienced during the lessons that they considered to have difficult, unfamiliar and challenging content. They prefer it easy and familiar; and it was during such lessons that they put their minds to work towards understanding what the content the teacher was presenting.

This has led to situations whereby the learners are not motivated into the language learning process. They tend to look at learning of English as a burden, a subject with too much and difficult content. It has been established that learners who use LLS appropriately are more motivated into the language learning process. Demotivation in language learning can be accomplished through learner strategy training; where they are taught how to use strategies more effectively, leading to greater success in learning. This will alleviate poor attitudes to the language and the subject, (Macaro, 2003).

According to this study, motivation is one of the remedies to poor attitude towards English Language learning for the Secondary Schools situation in Kenya. They also hold negative attitudes towards their teachers of English whom they described as harsh, unfriendly and not understanding. The job of motivating learners is a responsibility of all teachers of English. However the teachers in District Secondary Schools (where learners were considered to have lower cognitive abilities) and those teaching in Boys Schools have a bigger task because these learners according to the study results are less prone to using LLS.

The second objective was to determine learners' predisposition to using LLS

The study results showed that learners' age, gender, class levels and cognitive abilities determine how they used LLS. Regarding age, the results revealed that younger learners tend to use LLS more often compared to the older learners. The older learners seem to have developed LLS to a considerable level, allowing them to use language more freely and comfortably. This related so closely with how class levels determined LLS use. The learners in the higher classes used LLS more with more ease and appropriacy as compared to learners in the lower class levels. Therefore, the younger learners and those in lower classes could be considered to be in the discovery stage of language learning, so they openly and more frequently use LLS in order to enhance language learning. They are experimenting with language, as they are in the process of developing a bank of appropriate LLS. As a result, the younger learners and those in the lower classes use LLS consciously while the older learners and those in higher class levels more often use LLS unconsciously.

The results showed that learners with higher cognitive abilities had well developed LLS, used them more appropriately and responded faster and more easily to lesson content. Thus they are more successful language learners compared to the low ability learners. Therefore the lower cognitive ability students require more teacher help and guidance through frequent prompting and much motivation. As regards gender, the results showed that female and male learners used LLS differently. Female learners frequently and more appropriately use LLS. They are more conscious and cautious about how they use language compared to the male learners who are less sensitive to correctness.

The third objective was to establish the English language teachers' awareness of LLS According to the study results, the English language teachers expressed a considerable knowledge about LLS and how their learners use them. They even acknowledge the usefulness of LLS to the language instructional process. However, they do not conduct instruction within this knowledge. They tend to handle their learners as single units with no particular attention paid to individual learner behaviours (IDs). They only paid attention to common learner classroom behaviour like rising up of hands to answer questions, to read aloud or to respond to the content being presented. Otherwise the teachers took centre stage in all the classroom activities rendering most lessons teacher-centred rather than learner-centred.

The fourth objective was to access the influence of LLS on the nature of instruction conducted in English

The study results revealed that language teachers found LLS useful. However, a very small number said they positively influenced instruction. The English language teachers in this study tended to consider LTS from a revolutionary rather than evolutionary perspective. They tended to hold on to the lecture and explanation modes of teaching. Yet literature on language education, for example Shostak (2003) advocates for a focus on the implications of learner characteristics for the way instruction is delivered and the effects the teacher has on the learners by mainly focusing on the task of involving learners in the learning. The research results showed that English language teachers do not generally use a wide range of LTS, and many of those that are used are not guided by aspects of unique learner learning styles and characteristics. This practice limits learner language learning opportunities.

The results showed that teachers who had been in the teaching profession for a longer time were more conscious of the learner related aspects when planning for and conducting instruction in English. This could be explained by the fact that the teachers who have worked for shorter periods had not had an opportunity to establish the characteristics of their learners and nature of their language learning styles. This implies that, their exposure is limited. It is important to note that despite the level of schooling and language knowledge, every language teacher requires, there are "...certain basic principles common to all good language teaching, principles derived from interaction of aspects of those fields of study which contribute to the theory and practice of EFL teaching," (Broughton et al, 1980:37). It is such knowledge about the teacher that Borg, (2003) and Richards, (2008) refer to as *teacher cognition* and *teacher professionalism* respectively. That is, what teachers know, believe and do and how these influence the language instructional process. Despite the fact that experience accumulated over time is considered an advantage in language teaching that was not true of the teachers in this study.

5.3 Conclusions

The thesis statement of this study is all captured within the epistemological stances of the Cognitivist orientations to research and education. Based on the underlying assumptions of cognitivism, both the learner and the teacher are viewed as constructivists. They are individuals who are able to construct their learning environments and the nature of knowledge available to them with an aim of making learning and teaching successful and profitable undertakings. Therefore, judgment about any issue is viewed relatively, thus the relativist point of view (Richards, 2003 as cited in Ong'ondo, Jwan and Barasa, 2009) proposed by cognitivists. In this respect, the three main aspects of concern in this study were: How do learners

construct knowledge about learning of English? How do teachers construct knowledge about the teaching of English? How do teachers construct knowledge from what learners construct as knowledge?

Therefore the conclusions of this study are as follows:

- i. Learners' are aware of their use of LLS and find them useful in enhancing language learning. However, they do not frequently and naturally put them to use during the English language lessons and when using English for communication.
- ii. Learners' use of LLS is more of an unconscious process rather than conscious. Hence they tend to depend on their teachers' prompting into the learning process, particularly when the content is deemed difficult, unfamiliar and challenging.
- iii. English language teachers are aware of LLS and how useful they are to instruction. However, they do not fully exploit this knowledge when planning for and conducting instruction. They tend to hold on to the traditional modes of teaching rather than the learner-centred teaching approaches.
- iv. In order to attain effective language learning, the following groups of learners require frequent prompting and motivation from their English language teachers: low cognitive ability learners, male learners, younger learners and low class level learners.
- v. English language teachers do not appropriately use LLS training in their instruction. They mostly focus on prompting during the language instructional process.

5.4 Recommendations

The researcher found it necessary to make some recommendations following the summary of the findings of the present research and the conclusions reached. These recommendations could be used to enhance the teaching of English in secondary schools in Kenya. This is done with particular reference to how learners use LLS and how these influence the nature of LTS used by teachers of English. The following recommendations are made:

- i. Teachers of English should take advantage of the fact that learners believe in and depend on their prompting for language learning. They should use this opportunity to introduce LLS awareness programmes into their normal classroom teaching. Consequently, learners will learn more about the range of LLS available to them and appreciate their use in making the language learning process more manageable.
- ii. The teachers of English should use their own classrooms as research centres where LLS training will be used as a tool for motivating the learners into the language learning process.
- iii. The government of Kenya through the Ministry of Education and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) should facilitate the employment of more teachers of English. This will help reduce the amount of work the teachers have, thus giving them adequate opportunity to understand the range of their learners LLS use. Consequently, come up with learner-centred LTS.
- iv. In-service courses should be facilitated through the Ministry of Education and Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E) to sensitize English language

teachers on the importance of learner-centred approaches to teaching language and how they can conduct instruction with a focus on LLS.

- v. Learners of English need to use LLS more frequently so as to embed them within their language learning and use repertoire.
- vi. English language teachers should tailor their LTS to suit their learner's language learning styles with a focus on LLS.
- vii. Learners of English require development of their LLS and constant activation of the ability to use LLS with ease and consciousness.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The literature reviewed and the study results reveal that the area of LLS is rich and it provides valuable insights into how ESL learners go about learning English. They also provide valuable information concerning instruction for English language teachers at all levels of schooling. Therefore, the following are suggested areas for further research. Studies could be carried out to:

- i. Establish how valuable LLS training are in increasing motivation among learners of English both at primary and secondary school levels.
- ii. Establish how aspects of age and gender influence the use of LLS at secondary school level.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION WORKSHEET

Part A

General information about the school, teacher, learners and the classroom

1. School category/type:
- | | |
|------------|-------|
| Girls | _____ |
| Boys | _____ |
| Mixed | _____ |
| Provincial | _____ |
| District | _____ |
2. Class level being observed
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| Form 1 | _____ |
| Form 2 | _____ |
| Form 3 | _____ |
| Form 4 | _____ |
3. Class size (number of learners)
- | | |
|-------|-------|
| 20-25 | _____ |
| 26-30 | _____ |
| 31-35 | _____ |
| 36-40 | _____ |
| 41-45 | _____ |
| 46-50 | _____ |
| 51-60 | _____ |
4. Content area being taught
- Listening Skills**
- | | |
|---|-------|
| Specific area | |
| Pronunciation | _____ |
| Listening Comprehension and note-taking | _____ |
| Etiquette | _____ |
| Mastery of Content | _____ |
| Non-verbal cues that enhance listening | _____ |
- Speaking Skills**
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|
| Specific area | |
| Pronunciation | _____ |
| Speak etiquette | _____ |
| Mastery of Content | _____ |
| Non-verbal cues that enhance speaking | _____ |
- Reading Skills**
- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------|
| Specific area | |
| Reading Skills | |
| Silent reading | _____ |
| Reading aloud | _____ |
| Speed reading | _____ |
| Using a dictionary | _____ |
| Using the library | _____ |
| Scanning and skimming | _____ |
| Using the internet and encyclopaedia | _____ |
| Note making | _____ |
| Interpretative reading | _____ |

Critical reading	_____
Close reading	_____
Study reading	_____
Responsive reading	_____
Intensive reading	_____
Extensive reading	_____
Comprehension Skills	_____
Literature Skills	Poetry _____
	Oral Literature _____
	Set books _____

Writing Skills

Specific area

Writing skills	
Hand writing	_____
Spelling	_____
Sentence building skills and paragraphing	_____
Punctuation	_____
Varieties of Writing	_____
Personal writing	_____
Social writing	_____
Study writing	_____
Creative writing	_____
Institutional writing	_____
Public writing	_____

Grammar Skills

Specific area

	Type
Parts of Speech (word classes)	_____
Phrases	_____
Clauses	_____
Sentences	_____
Tenses	_____

Revision

Part B

Information on how the lesson is conducted, focusing on teacher and learner activities and actions, LLS and LTS; what influences learning by the learners and reflects teacher's attempts to actively address (varied) learner needs.

5. a) What evidence is there that the learners are understanding the content, are confused, or are bored? What sorts of behaviours do they exhibit?
- Agree with what the teacher says _____
 - Keep asking questions as an indication that they did not understand _____
 - Keep asking questions as an indication that they understood _____
 - Ask for clarification of ideas _____
 - Are able to answer the questions asked by the teacher _____
 - They answer questions asked by the teacher but answers are wrong _____
 - Are unable to answer questions asked _____
 - Are able to give appropriate responses to the content presented _____
 - Are able to make contributions to content being taught _____

b) Any other extra-ordinary behaviour exhibited by the learners

c) Does the teacher pay attention to the behaviours exhibited by the learners?

Yes _____

No _____

Description

6. What language learning strategies seems to be working well or poorly for the learners in the lesson?

7. What language teaching strategies seems to be working well or poorly for the teachers in the lesson?

8. Do the learners have choices about how to work during the lesson; are student initiated activities and involvement encouraged? Yes _____ No _____

Description

9. Does the teacher try to make the learning environment seem safe and inviting to the learners? In what ways does the learning environment in the classroom encourage or support language learning for the students observed? Yes _____ No _____

Description

10. Are there materials and learning aids particularly appropriate for these learners?

Yes _____ No _____

Description

11. Are the content and language tasks targeted at addressing particular learners' needs, learning styles and varied learner preferences for how to learn English?

Yes _____ No _____

Description

12. Whom do the learners seem to depend on for prompting in the process of learning various language items especially in situations where they are not sure or display uncertainty?

Teacher _____

Other Learners _____

Self _____

No prompting _____

13. What efforts are made by the teacher about the ways to tap into learners' interests and learning styles/ strategies during the lesson?

14. Are there opportunities to meet with the teacher and clarification or extension of learning as a way of further tapping into learner interests and learning styles?

Yes _____ No _____

Description

END

8. a) Which of the following things do you do and how often? How useful do you find them when teaching English?

Teacher Activity	Rate of use				Usefulness		
	Never	Rarely	Someti mes	Always	Useful	Have no idea	Not Useful
Vary techniques for asking questions (checking learning)							
Walking round the class							
Include all learners in lesson participation							
Class sits in the best possible way							
Look at (focus on) all students in the class							
Limit teacher talking time							
Write clearly on the chalkboard							
Encourage learners into learning English							
Careful with the use of grammatical items							
Encourage learners to practice English outside the classroom							
Take account of different levels of learners within the class							
Deal with individual learner problems							
Pair and group work used (cooperative learning)							
Use learners names correctly							
Correct learners during the lesson							
Make the learner's conceptions explicit to them							
Focus on a few critical issues and show how they relate							
Highlight the inconsistencies within learners language and the consequences of their conceptions							
Create situations where learners centre attention on relevant aspects of the lesson/content							
Present learners with new ways of seeing a language item							
Integrate substantive and systematic language structures							
Test understanding of various language items							
Use of reflective teaching strategies							
Teaching meaning in language use							

Highlighting (through the use of explanations and illustrations)							
Fixing (through the use of practice and repetitions)							
Maximize learning opportunities							
Facilitate negotiated instruction (among learners; teachers and learners)							
Minimize perpetual mismatches (making perception easy)							
Activate initiative heuristics among the learners							
Foster language awareness							
Contextualize linguistics input							
Integrate language skills							
Promote learner autonomy							
Raise cultural consciousness (related to language use)							
Ensure social relevance of the language learnt							

b) Name any other things you do but are not enlisted here.

9. How often do the following factors **influence (affect)** your decisions in classroom practices during the English instructional process?

Influencing Factors	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Always	Not sure
1.Language teaching method					
2.Language learning theories					
3.Teaching experience					
4.Content to be taught					
5.Time available					
6.Learning environment					
7.Teaching aids					
8.Learner characteristics					
9.Learner learning styles					
10.Examinations					
11.Size of the class					
12.Work load					
13.Personal knowledge					
14.Text book availability					

10. Do the above factors influence the types of **language teaching techniques/activities** you use during instruction in any way?

- Yes _____
 No _____
 Not sure _____

a) If your response is **yes**, how do they **guide/ influence/ affect** the use and application of the language teaching activities (techniques) you use in English language instruction?

b) If your response is **no**, why don't they **guide/ influence/ affect** your use and application of particular language teaching activities (techniques)?

11. a) Do your learners do certain things or exhibit certain behaviours in the process of learning English in order to enhance learning (consider the fact that it is a second language)?

Yes _____
No _____
Not sure _____

b) If your response above is **yes**, how often do your learners do these things or exhibit these behaviours in the process of learning English?

Always _____
Hardly _____
Sometimes _____

c) How would you rate your learners' **appropriate** use of these behaviours and things they do?

Very good _____
Good _____
Fair _____
Poor _____
Very poor _____

12. i) How do your learners **respond** to the **situations** listed below during the English lesson?

a) When prompted by the teacher

b) When prompted by fellow learners

c) When a learner prompts the self

d) When learning rather challenging language items and tasks

e) When learning new language items and tasks

f) When learning language items they are already familiar with

g) When learning language items they consider easy to grasp

h) When they are relaxed and enjoying the lesson

i) When they are not relaxed and the lesson seems boring

ii) Name any other **two** circumstances not mentioned in number 12 (i) above.

13. Which of the following processes or behaviours do your learners engage in during the process of learning and trying to understand English as a second language? Using a **tick** specify the particular language skills where they are applied.

Note: Please do not answer according to how you think or would like your learners to do. If a certain process or behaviour is not used by your learners do not **tick** against it.

Learner Language Learning Process	When used			
	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Clarification / verification				
Guessing / inductive inferring/guessing intelligently				
Practicing learnt structures/items				
Monitoring use, development and progress of language learning				
Creating mental linkages				
Applying images and sounds				
Reviewing of work learnt				
Physically act out or say or write new words several times in order to remember				
Polishing and revising their initial efforts in communication				
Receiving and sending messages strategies				
Analyzing and reasoning				
Creating structure for input and output				
Selecting an appropriate style for one's audience				
Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing				
Centring their learning on specific language items learnt				
Arrange and plan their programmes so as to have enough time to study English				
Evaluating their learning/performance in English				
Asking questions during and after the lesson				
Cooperating with others during language learning process				
Empathizing with others during language learning and use				
Memorization of learnt language items and structures				
Decide level of commitment to make to language learning				
Set themselves reasonable goals/targets in language learning				
Use new words in sentences so that they can remember them				
Evaluate/review achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations				
Deductive reasoning employed during language learning				
Circumlocution when expressing themselves in English				
Paraphrasing information when necessary				
Gesturing when expressing themselves in English				
Asking for repetition and explanation when a point is not clear				
Selecting an appropriate language style for one's audience				
Look for people they can talk to in English				

Try to guess what the other person will say next in English				
Contacting and cooperating with native speakers of English				
Becoming acquainted with the target language culture				
Creating associations of positive affect (attitude) towards the foreign or target language and its speakers				
Creating associations of positive affect (attitude) towards the learning activities involved				
Finding their own way even when teacher has not given direction				
Organizing information about what they learn in English				
Being creative in language use (use English in new and different ways)				
Making (creating) their own opportunities for language learning				
Learning to live with uncertainty in learning and use of English				
Using mnemonics (cues and clues to help them remember information)				
Identifying and marking errors made and using them to do better				
Using their linguistic knowledge in language use				
Letting the context help them in language interpretation and understanding				
They look for words in their own language that are similar to new words in English				
Learning formalized routines (patterns) for language learning				
Learning language production techniques in English				
Using different styles of speech and writing in different environments				
Try to find out how to be better learners of English				
Remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign				
Watch TV shows or go to movies spoken in English				
Write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English				
Make summaries of information in English				
Interested and motivated into language learning				
Skills in segmenting the stream of speech into meaningful words and phrases				
Recognizing word classes				
Relating the incoming message to their own background knowledge				
Identifying the rhetorical and functional intent of an utterance or parts of an aural text				
Interpreting rhythm, stress and intonation to identify information focus and emotional/attitudinal tone				
Extracting gist/essential information from longer aural texts without necessarily understanding every word				
The ability to articulate phonological features of language comprehensibly				
Mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns				
An acceptable degree of fluency				
Skills in taking short and long speaking turns				

Skills in management of interactions				
Skills in negotiating meaning				
Conversational listening skills (good listeners) and respond appropriately				
Skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations				
Using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers				
Using word attack skills such as identifying sound/symbol correspondences				
Using grammatical knowledge to recover meaning, for example interpreting non-finite clauses; relating subordinate and main clauses				
Using different techniques for different purposes, for example skimming and scanning for key words or information				
Relating text content to one's own background knowledge of the subject at hand				
Identifying the rhetorical or functional intention of individual sentences or text segments for example recognizing when the writer is offering a definition or a summary even when these are not explicitly signalled				
Mastering the mechanics of letter formation				
Mastering and obeying conventions of spelling and punctuation				
Infer meaning from the way language is used				
Organizing content at the level of the paragraph and the complete text to reflect given/new information and topic/comment structures				
Practice sounds of English				
Read for pleasure in English/ look for opportunity to read in English				
Look for words in their language that are similar to new words in English				
Try not to translate word for word in English				
Make up new words if they do not know the right ones in English				
Pay attention when someone is speaking in English				
Use a word or phrase that means the same thing if they can't think of the right English word				
Encourage themselves to speak English even when they are afraid of making a mistake				
Talk to someone else about how they feel when they are learning English				
Ask the other person to slow down or say something again if they don't understand				
Practice English with other students				
Ask questions in English				

14. a) How do the following factors determine or influence your learners' use of the behaviours or processes described in 13 above?

Gender Yes _____
 No _____
 Cognitive ability Yes _____
 No _____
 Age Yes _____

Class No _____
 Yes _____
 No _____

b) Give some comments regarding your response

15. Which of the above processes performed by your learners **influence** the type and manner in which you structure your **language teaching activities**?

All _____
Most of them _____
Very few _____
None at all _____

Give reasons for your answer

16. In the language learning process, do you make your learners **aware** of the available processes they possess or they could learn so that they are able to apply them during learning of English?

Yes _____
No _____
Not sure _____

17. Do you make any effort to **teach (train)** your learners in the use of these processes or development of these behaviours in order to enable them organise and enhance their language learning process?

Yes _____
No _____
Not sure _____

18. In your view with regard to your **experience and knowledge** as teacher of English, do you think these processes and behaviours are useful in the language learning process?

Yes _____
No _____
Not sure _____
Do not know _____

Give five reasons for your answer

19. What **challenges** do you face as an English language teacher in the effort of focussing on learner needs and language learning processes during **lesson planning**?

20. What **challenges** do you as a teacher of English language face in the **application** and **use** of language teaching activities during **actual lesson presentation**?

21. Dear respondent, you have come to the end of this questionnaire. Please provide any general comment regarding the teaching and learning of English at secondary school level in Kenya in relation to language teaching activities and language learner processes or behaviours during instruction in English language classrooms.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX 3: LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent,

The following questions are aimed at seeking honest and true opinions about the teaching and learning process of English at secondary school level in Kenya. Please provide as much as possible, objective responses. The feedback obtained from these questionnaires will be useful in improving and enhancing the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools in Kenya. Confidentiality of your responses will be maintained; please do not write your name or that of your school anywhere on this questionnaire.

NOTE: Mark your choice using a tick or write a clear response where necessary in the spaces provided. No particular answer is right or wrong, your views are important.

PART A

1. School category/type:
- | | |
|------------|-------|
| Girls | _____ |
| Boys | _____ |
| Mixed | _____ |
| Provincial | _____ |
| District | _____ |

2. What is your age?
- | | |
|----|-------|
| 13 | _____ |
| 14 | _____ |
| 15 | _____ |
| 16 | _____ |
| 17 | _____ |
| 18 | _____ |
| 19 | _____ |
| 20 | _____ |

Any other, specify: _____

3. What is your gender?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| Female | _____ |
| Male | _____ |

4. Which class are you?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| Form 1 | _____ |
| Form 2 | _____ |
| Form 3 | _____ |
| Form 4 | _____ |

PART B

5. What challenges and difficulties do you face in the process of learning and using English in school?

6. How do you **solve** or **handle** these challenges and difficulties as a learner of English?

messages				
I analyze and reason out about how I use language				
I create structure for information received and that which goes out				
I use language depending on whom I am communicating to				
I am able to overcome my problems in language use				
I am able to focus / centre my learning on specific language items				
I arrange and plan my programme so as to have enough time to study English				
I evaluate my learning / performance in English				
I ask questions during and after the lesson				
I cooperate or work with others during the language learning process				
I feel with others during language learning and use				
I memorize learnt language structures and items				
I decide the level of commitment to make to language learning				
I set myself reasonable goals/targets in language learning				
I use new words in sentences so that I can remember them				
I evaluate/review my achievement in relation to my previously determined goals and expectations				
I make use of what I know in English to make sense of what I learn in English				
I keep going round a point when expressing myself in English				
I use different ways of saying the same information				
I use body movements to communicate when I can't think of a word to use				
I often ask for repetition and explanation of ideas that are not clear				
I look for people I can talk to in English				
I try to guess what a person will say next in English				
I contact and cooperate with native speakers of English				
I try to know about the culture of the English people				
I have positive thoughts, attitudes and associations towards the English language and its speakers				
I have positive thoughts, attitudes and associations towards the learning activities used in English learning				
I find my own way even when the teacher has not given direction				
I organize information about what I am learning in English				
I use English words in new and different ways				
I encourage and come up with opportunities and situations for language use				
I have learnt to live with what I am not sure of in learning and use of English				
I use cues and clues to help me remember				

information				
I identify and mark the errors I make and use that information to help me do better				
I use the information I learn in grammar for communication				
I consider the context/ situation in which language is used to help me in interpretation and understanding				
I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English				
I have and learn specific ways (patterns) of learning English				
I have and learn specific ways to produce and use language				
I use different styles of language in different environments				
I try to find out how to be a better learner of English				
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign				
I watch TV shows or go to movies spoken in English				
I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English				
I make summaries of information in English				
I am interested in and motivated to learn English				
I have ability in breaking down language used into meaningful words and phrases (parts) for better understanding				
I have the ability to recognize/identify word classes				
I relate the messages I receive to what I already know				
I identify the use and function of an utterance or parts of information				
I interpret rhythm, stress and tone of the voice to identify the focus of information and emotions/attitudes expressed				
I identify the main information from language used without necessarily understanding every word				
I can pronounce correctly the sounds of English				
I understand the stress, rhythm, intonation patterns of English				
I can speak correctly and without stopping all the time and be understood				
I can talk for long and short hours taking my turns without interfering with the other person's time to talk				
I know how to interact with other people well				
I know how to reach an understanding with people I talk to				
I use conversational listening skills (I am a good listener and respond appropriately)				
I am able to identify the purpose of a conversation				
I know and use pauses and fillers when I am communicating				

I use word attack skills such as identifying sound/symbol correspondences when using language				
I use my grammar knowledge to get meaning of the language used, for example interpreting information				
I use different techniques for different purposes, for example skimming and scanning for identifying key words or information				
I relate content in a text to my own background knowledge of the subject/ topic at hand				
I identify the use and functional of individual sentences or parts of a sentence, for example I recognize when the writer is offering a definition or a summary even when these are not openly pointed out				
I form letters correctly and write clearly				
I know and use spelling and punctuation marks correctly				
I infer meaning from the way language is used				
I organize information at the level of the paragraphs to show flow of ideas and the complete meaning				
I practice sounds of English				
I read for pleasure in English/ I look for opportunity to read in English				
I look for words in my language that are similar to new words in English				
I try not to translate word for word in English				
I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English				
I pay attention when someone is speaking in English				
I use a word or phrase that means the same thing if I can't think of the right English word				
I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake				
I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English				
I ask the other person to slow down or say something again if I don't understand				
I practice English with other students				
I ask questions in English				

9. When doing what the above mentioned statements say, during English lessons and when outside class:

I am conscious or aware of what I am doing (I know am using them)

Yes _____

No _____

I am not conscious, they just happen without me knowing or thinking about them

Yes _____

No _____

I am conscious or aware about the use of some of them and unconscious about the use of others

Yes _____

schools in relation to what learners do to make the learning and use of English easier both in class and outside class.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX 4: 50-ITEM VERSION OF STRATEGY INVENTORY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES LEARNING ENGLISH (OXFORD, 1990b)

This form of the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement and write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

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. This questionnaire usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions let the teacher know immediately.

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. 1_2_3_4_5_
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word. 1_2_3_4_5_
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. 1_2_3_4_5_
5. I used rhymes to remember to remember new English words. 1_2_3_4_5_
6. I used flashcards to remember new English words. 1_2_3_4_5_
7. I physically act out new English words. 1_2_3_4_5_
8. I review English lessons often. 1_2_3_4_5_
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, or the board, or on a street 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 practice the sounds of English. 1_2_3_4_5_
13. I use the English words I know in different ways. 1_2_3_4_5_
14. I start conversations in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
16. I read for pleasure in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
17. I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
18. I first skim an English passage (read 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. 1_2_3_4_5_
22. I try not to translate word for word. 1_2_3_4_5_
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English. 1_2_3_4_5_

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses when I can't think of a word during a conversation in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
26. I make up new words when I don't know the right ones in English I use gestures. 1_2_3_4_5_
27. I read English without looking up for 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. When I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. 1_2_3_4_5_
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English. 1_2_3_4_5_
35. I look for people I can talk to in English. 1_2_3_4_5_
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English 1_2_3_4_5_
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills. 1_2_3_4_5_
38. I think about my progress in learning English. 1_2_3_4_5_

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 mistakes. 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 I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English. 1_2_3_4_5_
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. 1_2_3_4_5_
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am English 1_2_3_4_5_

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again. 1_2_3_4_5_
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk. 1_2_3_4_5_
47. I practice English with other students. 1_2_3_4_5_
48. I ask for help from English speakers. 1_2_3_4_5_
49. I ask question I English. 1_2_3_4_5_
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers. 1_2_3_4_5_

Class _____

School _____

APPENDIX 5: THE STUDY AREA MAP –KAKAMEGA CENTRAL DISTRICT (WESTERN PROVINCE)



Source: Kakamega Central District –District Officer’ Office (2009)

APPENDIX 6: SAMPLE LESSON TRANSCRIPTIONS

Lesson 17: A reading skills lesson in Literature on Critical Analysis of the Text

- Tr:** Please feel free and talk, madam's presence should not intimidate you, she is part of us and just wants to interact with us. Just feel free and let us learn the way we normally do. Right, okay Stanly.
- Lr:** (Learner responds by giving an explanation of a text portion).
- Tr:** Okay that's good. (Another learner raises hand, allowed to speak).
- Lr:** Ok before that ... (offers some information the other had not given).
- Tr:** Mmh, good! So from what (Learners respond promptly) Kombo has said, we realize that there is no freedom of speech ... (And Mr. Stockman has been denied an opportunity to explain his views to the public or to emphasize what the two learners had said). Fine,...first I want somebody to give us a brief summary of what the whole book is about, now that we have a visitor she would also want to know what the book is all about, just a summary. Can we recall from act I, we are in act 3, almost completing act 3. So a brief summary of what the book is all about... (Pause and silence in class, a student raises his hand) we want to listen to a different voice, okay, Doreen.
- Lr:** Ok, I think the book according to the heading, the book is 'An enemy of people', (goes on with explanation; given time for explanation)
- Tr:** Mmh, okay. Anybody else with something to add on that (Teacher does not allow time for another learner to talk – even after asking). So in the book we have a character by the name Mr. Stockman, he has made a discovery ... (teacher extends on the learner's explanation about the story). Are we clear as far as that is concerned?
- Lrs:** (In chorus) Yes!
- Tr:** Good. So we continue with our discussion. We are on page 78. (Teacher picks on four learners to read the words by four different characters). We will begin on page 79 ... where Mr. Stockman says that ..., Right? Are we together?
- Lr:** (Learner reads) student reads the word nourish wrongly.
- Tr:** Ok, please say no community can live a healthy life its nourish, that word is nourished ...what does he mean by that? (Pause, learners silent) Do we understand that...the meanings of those words? (Pause, one learner suggests the answer)
- Lr:** I think when ...
- Tr:** Fossilized, from the world learners in chorus say (fossil). What does the word fossil tell you?
- Lrs:** (chorus answer that is not clear)
- Tr:** No chorus answers. Fossils, we meet fossils in ... (Chorus answer)
- Lrs:** (chorus answers) History
- Tr:** History, what are fossils?
A learner who has problems in reading is corrected by the teacher and fellow learners on several occasions during reading sessions.
- Lrs:** They are ...
- Tr:** Good. So the community must ... and move with times. So he is against the idea of people being told what is not the truth. That is what he is fighting against ...Go on
(Lesson goes on)

Lesson 9: A reading skills Lesson in Literature –Poetry on Style

- Tr:** Who can remind me what we did on Saturday?
Have you forgotten? Yes,
- Lr:** (Speaks very softly. Rhyme
- Tr:** Pardon?
- Lr:** Rhyme.
- Tr:** Rhyme. Did we talk about rhyme much?

- Lrs:** (In chorus) No ...
- Tr:** No. But we just mentioned it as one of the styles. (Picks on another learner) Yes Anne?
- Lr:** Imagery.
- Tr:** Yes, we just basically talked about imagery. And we talked about two things under that. Yes?
- Lr:** Metaphors and similes.
- Tr:** Good. Metaphors and similes. And I would like just one of you to remind us what we said about metaphors and what did we say about similes? (Pause) without referring to your books, because we shall not continue if you have already forgotten what we already talked about. Yes?
- Lr:** Similes are words ... (hesitates) similes ... (hesitates) are words which are used to compare things when words like 'or', 'as' are used.
- Tr:** Yes. Similes. Those are forms of phrases where we use 'like' or 'as' to compare one thing to the other so that we can create a picture in our minds of what they are talking about. So what about metaphors? But before we get to metaphors, who can give us an example, if you remember what it is, an example is ... a simile now? Yes? (But before learner talks) And I want you to use it in a complete sentence so that it makes sense, not just that phrase. Who will do that for us, Yes?
- Lr:** (Learner talks very faintly)
- Tr:** Talk as if you took porridge in the morning... (Lesson goes on)
- Lrs:** (Chorus) Yes
- Tr:** That's wonderful. Now, then we talked about metaphor, what did we say about metaphor? Mmh, you have forgotten? (Pause) Aah, let us not forget, because if we forget there is no point in learning another style, and you have already forgotten what we learnt just on Saturday(Pause) Yes?
- Lr:** (Learner talks very faintly, class is silent)
- Tr:** Oh, you have forgotten.
- Lr:** (Faintly) they say one thing as if it was the other.
- Tr:** (Repeats learner's response) It just says one thing is the other, what they say is the other. If they are talking about what you do. They don't say you do behave like the other thing, they don't say you do behave like the other thing, they don't use 'like' or 'as'. They just say you are that thing. For example: 'When she is angry she is a lioness', you know how a lion behaves?
- Lrs:** Yes (Chorus)
- Tr:** Yes, they are fierce. So when you are angry and you are likened to a lion or a lioness then we fear you. We say you are very harsh or something like that. So in metaphors we don't use 'as' or 'like'. They just say one thing is the other. So who will give us another construction of a metaphor?
- Lr:** She is a tortoise.
- Tr:** Yes, when she says she is a tortoise, what does she mean? Ah backbenchers, Yes?
- Lr:** She is slow in her movement.
- Tr:** Yes she is slow in her movement or something like that. So that is what we did on Saturday, so those who did not come, you see you missed. Today we are going to continue talking about other forms of style that poets use. I told you poets make their poems beautiful and they use all ways to do that. One of the means we are going to talk about today is one of those styles (writes on the board) what's that?
- Lrs:** Rhyme
- Tr:** Rhyme. You know rhyme just sounds like music, doesn't it? I told you one time that poems are like music, they are beautiful, and they are like songs. Songs you can sing where they rhyme, they create something you can dance to. And I told you ...when some beats are repeated, like in music ... I know of late what you like most? ... (Asked learners to sing) Can you sing a bit of it?
- Lrs:** Sing (Chorus)
- Tr:** Poems are like songs, you hear some beats you hear some rhyme ...Poems are just like that. The poet uses some words to create rhythm and you can dance. If you were to sing some verses ...you may have heard about it, that this is rhyme. But you have encountered rhyme in

all the music you listened to. It creates rhythm, so I would like you to note this is in your books. (Dictates notes by repeating as learners write. Notes the spellings of some words). Notes the meaning of the word proximity, explains it to the learners. Don't write the word 'approximate'. Ah don't write approximate. Am trying to explain, it's something close to it. We are not talking about close proximity (Lesson goes on)

Lesson 5: A grammar skills revision Lesson on Relative Pronouns

(Lesson has already began)

Tr: Which are the relative pronouns? (Pause) Yes?

Lr: Whom

Tr: Whom

Lr: Which

Tr: Which

(Lesson goes on for some time)

Tr: Relative pronouns are used to join simple sentences into a compound sentence. Now... the other thing that we looked at was that relative pronouns come at the beginning of the clause. That is, they start the relative clause, which is then joined on to the main clause in order to form a subordinate clause. Now if you have a book you can look at page 35, if you do not have just sit where you are. Now, relative pronouns, we are learning can also be used as subjects and objects. Last time we looked at the noun phrase, being used as a subject and an object. This time we look at the relative clause, the relative noun being used as a subject. So we have the example... (Pause in class, teacher writes on the blackboard) 'I saw the man who came yesterday'. Which is the relative clause in that sentence? (Pause)

Lr: 'Who'

Tr: Clause?

Lr: Oh!

Tr: Not the relative pronoun...

Lr: 'Who came yesterday'

Tr: 'Who came yesterday'. Let us have another sentence (Pause, teacher writes on the blackboard). Which is the relative clause in the following? (Pause) Yes?

Lr: 'Whom we met at the river'

Tr: 'Whom we met at the river'. Now in these two sentences, the relative clause refers to something. What does it refer to in the other part of the sentence? (Pause, teacher repeats the clauses again) 'Who came yesterday' 'Whom we met at the river' Yes? Which is the object?

Lr: 'Man'

Tr: 'The man'. The relative clause refers to the object, which is 'the man'. (Learners also say in chorus 'the man') so, in that case what do we say it is acting as? (Pause) Yes?

Lr: (Learner not clear)

Tr: As?

Lr: Noun

Tr: As a noun? (Pause)

Lr: An object complement.

Tr: As an object complement, because it is giving us more information about the object, 'the man' ok? Now ...So that is...it starts with the object, then the verb, the object complement ... (Pause) Now, unfortunately all those sentences we have there are giving us object complement. They are not giving us any subject complement (Pause). Though we have other sentences there under the second part (Refers to the text book) 'I saw the man, the man came yesterday.' (Repeats) 'I saw the man, he met the man at the river.', 'Wambui bought the car, the car was on sale.', 'The books are here, you gave me the books.' Maybe I will write them down ... (Teacher writes the sentences on the blackboard and reads them out again) 'I saw the, the man came yesterday.' 'Wambui bought the car, the car was on sale.' (Pause) So in the first sentence (Repeats it) 'The man' is acting as? ... The object, ok. In the second sentence, the second part, 'the man' here and 'the car' are acting as ... What are they acting as?

Lr: Subjects

- Tr: Subjects. Ok, this is now a different sentence; don't look at the first sentence. Here the man is acting as ... as subject. And here again we have car acting as ...
- Lr: The subject.
- Tr: A subject. Now when you join the two sentences into the other sentence, then you can see that we have the relative clause taking the part of the subject. Are you seeing that?
- Lrs: (Chorus) Yes.
- Tr: So that instead of ... so that so that instead of having the 'man' ... (Reads sentence) now we use 'who' to replace the subject. Ok, and form a relative clause which now acts as an object...
- Lrs: (Chorus) complement.
(Lesson goes on)

Lesson 10: A grammar skills Lesson on Collective Nouns

- Tr: Today we are going to look at collective nouns. And ...eh, collective nouns are some of the nouns we looked at. Now before we start looking at collective nouns, I want us to remind ourselves about nouns because maybe some of us have forgotten ... what nouns are, the different types of nouns we have, then we can look at collective nouns. Can somebody give me the definition of a noun, what is a noun?
- Lr: These are naming words.
- Tr: A naming word. That is a noun. A word that names ... that names something, a naming word. Which types of nouns do you know? Apart from collective nouns, what other groups of nouns do you know?
- Lr: Proper nouns.
- Tr: We have proper nouns.
- Lr: Abstract nouns.
- Tr: Abstract ... abstract nouns.
- Lr: Common nouns.
- Tr: Common nouns, any other? (No learner is ready to responds).
- Tr: We have concrete nouns. Which fall under common nouns and then we have, of course collective nouns. So proper nouns, which ... are normally built of places, or names of people and they are normally written in capital letters. Then we have the common nouns, things like pencils, chairs, desks and so on and then we have the abstract nouns, names of things that are not ...that we can not touch, that are not touchable ... and ... the collective nouns. So today we are going to look at collective nouns. I know you have also come across them before, but I want us to look at the following sentences and try to identify the collective nouns that are found in them. We can just write them down. The first sentence is ... 'The welfare (Pause) the welfare group collected money to (Pause) the children's home'. (Learners involved in a writing activity) 'The welfare group collected money to the children's home'. That is one of the sentences that we are going to look at, then the other one is ... and I hope you write them down. 'We persuaded her not to join the mob that was stealing the cables.' (Learners write the sentence) That's the sentence, I will give you three sentences ... and the third one is 'The fleet left the port bound for Iraq.' (Learners writing the sentence) 'The ...bound for Iraq'. So these are the three sentences, I want us to identify the collective nouns that we have in those sentences. Which is the collective noun in the first sentence?
- Lr: Welfare
- Tr: No, not that one, anybody else to try?
- Lr: Group.
- Tr: The collective noun in the first sentence is 'group'. Look at the second sentence, (Teacher repeats the sentence) which is the collective noun?
- Lr: Mob
- Tr: 'Mob', the collective noun is mob. Now the third one (Teacher repeats the sentence) which is the collective noun?
- Lr: Fleet
- Tr: 'Fleet'. So those are collective nouns there. So we have the words group, mob and fleet. Can you give me other examples of collective nouns that you know? We have identified mob, we

have identified group and we have identified fleet. I know I have not given you the definition of a collective noun, but we came across them last year. Yes?

Lr: Crowd.

Tr: 'Crowd'. That is another example of a collective noun. Any other collective noun, which one?

Lr: Audience.

Tr: 'Audience' is another one. Yes?

Lr: Gang.

Tr: 'Gang' there are many others. (Another learner raises the hand) Which one did you have?

Lr: (Says something not clear)

Tr: Which one?


Lr: (Not clear again)

Tr: So, we have those examples of collective nouns. Now from the words that we have identified, from the words we have, am sure you can be able to define a collective noun ... What is a collective noun then? Looking at the words that we have given, what is a collective noun, who can try?

APPENDIX 7: RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

GPK 6055—3m—10/2003


(CONDITIONS—see back page)

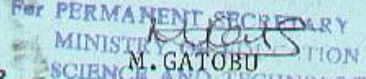
PAGE 2


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WESTERN Province,
 on the topic SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGIES: AN EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE: A CASE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KAKAMEGA CENTRAL DISTRICT
 for a period ending 30TH MARCH, 2009.

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