A. Previous of Study

There are some previous studies to support this study as follows:

1. What are the Main Sources of Turkish EFL Students’ Anxiety in Oral Practice?, Written by Gonca Subași, 2010. The results of the study indicated a positive correlation between an individual’s fear of negative evaluation and his/her anxiety level. Moreover, the findings of the current study revealed that there were significant negative relationships between anxiety and three of self-ratings; Self-Rating Can-Do Scale (SR-CDS), Self-Rating for the Current Level of Study (SR-CL), and Self-Rating Perception by the English (SR-EPE).¹

2. Foreign language anxiety and English achievement in Taiwanese undergraduate English-major students: an empirical study, written by Po-Chi Kao & Philip Craigie, 2010. Results of the present study suggested that Group A students (the students whose English achievement fall in the top 1/3 of all participants) experienced lower levels of foreign language anxiety than Group B students (the students whose English achievement fall in the middle 1/3 of all participants) and Group C students (the students whose English achievement fall in the bottom 1/3 of all participants), while Group B students had less foreign language anxiety than Group C

¹ Gonca Subași, What are the Main Sources of Turkish EFL Students’ Anxiety in Oral Practice?, research journal: 2010.
stduents. The results highlighted that foreign language anxiety is an important predictor of university English-major students’ English achievement.²

3. Research on High School Students’ English Learning Anxiety, written by Jingjing Cui, 2011. The results indicated that students indeed had comparatively high anxiety in English learning. Males have higher anxiety of English classes than females. And it was also found that high anxiety plays a somewhat debilitative role in high school students’ language learning, some suggestions for reducing students’ anxiety in classrooms were proposed for teachers.³

B. Definition of Speaking

Speaking is one of two productive skills in a language teaching. It is defined as a process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or oral form. Speaking consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning.⁴

Brown cites that when someone can speak a language it means that he can carry on a conversation reasonably competently. In addition, he states that the benchmark of successful acquisition of language is almost always

³Jingjing Cui, Research on High School Students’ English Learning Anxiety, research journal: 2011.
thecommunication of an ability to accomplish pragmatic goals through an
interactive discourse with other language speakers.  

Richards and Renandya state that effective oral communication requires
the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions that involves
not only verbal communication but also paralinguistic elements of speech such
as pitch, stress, and intonation. Moreover, nonlinguistic elements such as
gestures, body language, and expressions are needed in conveying messages
directly without any accompanying speech. Brown states that social contact
in interactive language functions is a key importance and in which it is not
what you say that counts but how you say it what you convey with body
language, gestures, eye contact, physical distance and other nonverbal
messages. Speaking is one of the skills needed in learning a language. The
form and meaning of speaking depends on the context, including speakers,
listeners experiences, physical environment and the purpose of speaking.

C. Teaching Speaking

The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-
language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate
their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English
course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their spoken
language proficiency. Oral skills have hardly been neglected in EFL/ESL

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courses (witness the huge number of conversation and other speaking course books in the market), though how best to approach the teaching of oral skills has long been the focus of methodological debate. Teachers and textbooks make use of a variety of approaches, ranging from direct approaches focusing on specific features of oral interaction (e.g., turn-taking, topic management, and questioning strategies) to indirect approaches that create conditions for oral interaction through group work, task work, and other strategies.\(^8\)

In designing speaking activities or instructional materials for second-language or foreign-language teaching, it is also necessary to recognize the very different functions speaking performs in daily communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills.\(^9\)

1. **Styles of Speaking**

   An important dimension of conversation is using a style of speaking that is appropriate to the particular circumstances. Different styles of speaking reflect the roles, age, sex, and status of participants in interactions and also reflect the expression of politeness. Consider the various ways in which it is possible to ask someone the time, and the different social meanings that are communicated by these differences.

   - Got the time?
   - I guess it must be quite late now?
   - What’s the time?
   - Do you have the time?


\(^9\)Ibid, p. 21-35
- Can I bother you for the time?
- You wouldn’t have the time, would you?

2. **Talk as interaction**

   Talk as interaction refers to what we normally mean by “conversation” and describes interaction that serves a primarily social function. When people meet, they exchange greetings, engage in small talk, recount recent experiences, and so, on because they wish to be friendly and to establish a comfortable zone of interaction with others. The focus is more on the speakers and how they wish to present themselves to each other than on the message. Such exchanges may be either casual or more formal, depending on the circumstances, and their nature.

3. **Talk as transaction**

   Talk as transaction refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The message and making oneself understood clearly and accurately is the central focus, rather than the participants and how they interact socially with each other.

4. **Talk as performance**

   The third type of talk that can usefully be distinguished has been called talk as performance. This refers to public talk, that is, talk that transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentations, public announcements, and speeches.
5. Implications for teaching

Three core issues need to be addressed in planning speaking activities for an English class. The first is to determine what kinds of speaking skills the class will focus on. Is it all three of the genres described in the preceding section, or will some receive greater attention than others? Informal needs analysis is the starting point here. Procedures for determining needs include observation of learners carrying out different kinds of communicative tasks, questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing. The second issue is to identifying teaching strategies to “teach” (i.e., provide opportunities for learners to acquire) each kind of talk.

6. Teaching talk as interaction

Talk as interaction is perhaps the most difficult skill to teach since interactional talk is a very complex and subtle phenomenon that takes place under the control of unspoken rules. In my experience, these are best taught by providing examples embedded in naturalistic dialogs that model features such as opening and closing conversations, making small talk, recounting personal incidents and experiences, and reacting to what others say. One rule for making small talk is to initiate interactions with a comment concerning something in the immediate vicinity or that both participants have knowledge of. The comment should elicit agreement, since agreement is face-preserving and non-threatening. Hence, safe topics, such as the weather, traffic, and so on, must be chosen.
7. **Teaching talk as transaction**

Talk as transaction is more easily planned since current communicative materials are a rich resource of group activities, information-gap activities, and role plays that can provide a source for practicing how to use talk for sharing and obtaining information, as well as for carrying out real-world transactions. These activities include ranking, values clarification, brainstorming, and simulations. Group discussion activities can be initiated by having students work in groups to prepare a short list of controversial statements for others to think about. Groups exchange statements and discuss them, for example: “Schools should do away with exams.” “Vegetarianism is the only healthy lifestyle.” “The Olympic games The Teaching of Speaking are a waste of money.”

8. **Teaching talk as performance**

Teaching talk as performance requires a different teaching strategy. Initially, talk as performance needs to be prepared for and scaffolded in much the same way as written text, and many of the teaching strategies used to make understandings of written text accessible can be applied to the formal uses of spoken language. This approach involves providing examples or models of speeches, oral presentations, stories, etc., through video or audio recordings or written examples. These are then analyzed, or “deconstructed,” to understand how such texts work and what their linguistic and other organizational features are.
D. Problem of Speaking

Many Asian students said that in learning English, they often faced the problem in their learning; one of their problems is Asia so far from English, so the Asian Students may face many difficulties than a native speaker of German, etc, such as the statement:

Language teaching practice often assumes that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English. A native speaker of Chinese, for example, may face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is closely related to English, whereas Chinese is not. This may be true for anyone of any mother tongue setting out to learn any other language. See also second acquisition for mixed evidence from linguistic research.\(^{10}\)

Here are some problems that usually faced by the Asian students:

1. Pronunciation

One of the students’ problem in learning speaking English is pronunciation. According to the expert, in pronunciation problem, consist of consonant phonemes, connected speech, stress timing, unstressed vowel, syllable structure, vowel phonemes.

a. Consonant phonemes

English does not have more individual consonant sound than most languages. However, the interdentals, / and /ð/ (the sound written with th), which are common in English (thin, thing, etc; and the, this, that, etc.) are relatively rare in other language, even others in the Germanic family (e.g., English thousand “German lausend), and these sound are

\(^{10}\)English as a foreign language, 2014, online (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_as_a_foreign_or_second_language#difficulties_for_learners), (accessed 26-02-2014).
missing even in some English dialects. Some learners substitute a [t] or [d] sound, while others shift to [s] or [z], [f] or [v] and even [ts] or [dz]).

b. Vowel Phonemes

The precise number of distinct vowel sound depends on the variety of English: for example, received pronunciation has twelve monophthongs (single or “pure” vowels), eight diphthongs (double vowels), and two triphthongs (triple vowels); whereas general American has thirteen monophthongs and three diphthongs. Many learners, such as speakers of Spanish, Japanese or Arabic have fewer vowels, or only pure ones, in their mother tongue and so have problem both with hearing and with pronouncing these distinctions.

c. Syllable Structure

In its syllable structure, English allow for a cluster of up to three consonant before the vowel and four after it (e.g. straw, desks, glimpsed). The syllable structure causes problem for speakers of many other language. Japanese, for example, broadly alternates consonant and vowel sounds so learners from Japan often try to force vowel in between consonant (e.g. desks /desks/ becomes “desukusu” or milk shake /mɪlkʃeɪk/ becomes “mirukushēku”).

d. Unstressed Vowels

Native English speakers frequently replace almost any vowel in an unstressed syllable with an unstressed vowel, often schwa. For
example, from has a distinctly pronounced short ‘o’ sound when it is stressed (e.g. where are you from?), but when it is unstressed, the short ‘o’ reduces to a schwa (e.g. I’m from London). In some case, unstressed vowels may disappears altogether, in words such as chocolate (which has four syllable in Spanish, but only two as pronounced by Americans: “choc-lit”).

**e. Stress Timing**

English tends to be a stress-timed language, this means that stressed syllables are naughty equidistant in time, no matter how many syllables come in between. Although some other language e.g. German and Russian are also stress-timed, most of word’s other major language are syllable-timed, which each syllable coming at an equal time after the previous one. Learners from these languages often have staccato rhythm when speaking English that is disconcerting to a native speaker.

**f. Connected Speech**

Phonological process such as assimilation, elision and epenthesis together with indistinct word boundaries can confuse learners when listening to natural spoken English, as well as making their speech sound too formal if they do not use them.

2. Grammar

As the language learner, some students difficult to get understand about their second language. Sometimes, it becomes their big problems to
arrange a good sentence to say. Such as tenses, functions of auxiliaries, modal verbs, idiomatic usage, and articles.

a. Tenses

English has a relatively large number of tenses with some quite subtle differences, such as the difference between the simple past “I ate” and the present perfect “I have eaten”. Progressive and perfect progressive forms add complexity.

b. Functions of Auxiliaries

Learners of English tend to find it difficult to manipulate the various ways in which English uses the first auxiliary verb of a tense. These include negation (e.g. *He hasn’t been drinking*), inversion with the subject so form a question (e.g. *Has he been drinking?*), short answer (e.g. *Yes, he has*) and tag question (*has he?*). A further complication is that the dummy auxiliary verb *do/does/did* is added to fulfill these functions in the simple present and simple past, but not for the verb *to be*.

c. Modal Verbs

English also has a significant number of modal auxiliary verbs which each have a number of uses. For example, the opposite “You must be here at 8” (obligation) is usually “You don’t have to be here at 8” (lack of obligation, choice), while “must” in “You must not drink the water” (prohibition) has a different meaning from “must” in “You
must not be a native speaker” (deduction). This complexity takes considerable work for most English language learners to master.

d. Idiomatic Usage

English is reputed to have relatively high degree of idiomatic usage. For example, the use of different main verb forms in such apparently parallel construction as “try to learn”, “help learn” and “avoid learning” pose difficulty for learners. Another example is the idiomatic distinction between “make” and “do”: “make a mistake” not “do a mistake”: and “do favors” not “make a favor”.

e. Articles

English has an appreciable number of articles, including the definite article the, and the indefinite article a, an. At times English nouns car or indeed must be used without an article; this is called the zero article. Some of the differences between definite, indefinite and the zero article are easy to learn, but others are not, particularly since a learner is native language may lack articles or use them different ways than English does. Although the information conveyed by articles is rarely essential for communication. English uses them frequently (several times in the average sentence), so that they require some effort from the learner.

3. Vocabulary

In learning speaking English, vocabulary is necessary. It helps the students to speak fluently. The students not only memorize word by word,
but they also have to understand kind of vocabulary. Such as phrasal verbs, word derivation, size of lexicon and collocations.

a. Phrasal Verb

Phrasal verb in English can cause difficulties for many learners because they have several meaning and different syntactic patterns. There are also a number of phrasal verb differences between American and British English.

b. Word Derivation

Word derivation in English requires a lot of rote learning. For example, an adjective can be negated by using the prefix un- (e.g. unable), in- (e.g. inappropriate), dis- (e.g. dishonest), or a- (e.g. amoral), or through the use of one myriad related but rarer prefixes, all modified versions of the first four.

c. Size of Lexicon

The history of English has resulted in a very large vocabulary, essentially on stream from Old English and one from the Norman infusion of Latin-derived terms. (Schmitt & Marsden claim that English has one of the largest vocabularies of any known language) This inevitably requires more work for a learner to master the language.

d. Collocations

Collocations on English refer to tendency for words to occur regularly with others. For example, nouns and verbs that go together
(ride a bike/drive a car). Native speaker tend to use chunks of collocation and the ESL learners make mistake with collocations in their writing/speaking, which sometimes result in awkwardness.  

E. Language Anxiety

“Anxiety is a psychological construct, commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object”. Anxiety, as perceived intuitively by many language learners, negatively influences language learning and has been found to be one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education.  

Anxiety is a complex psychological term covering many variables. In its simplest form, anxiety can be defined as “a general feeling of apprehension including hyper-vigilance, increased sympathetic nervous system activity, and difficulty concentrating”. Language anxiety plays a crucial role in foreign language learning. This notion has been pointed out in several studies revealing a negative correlation between high levels of anxiety and achievement in language learning.  

Therefore, in this thesis anxiety can be concluded as a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal
of the automatic nervous system. The academic literature has offered a somewhat confusing account of language anxiety. Researchers have been unable to draw a clear picture of how anxiety affects language learning and performance. Some researchers reported a negative relationship between language anxiety and achievement, e.g. the higher the anxiety, the lower the performance. Others reported no relationship, or a positive relationship more recently, Horwitz has reiterated that the issue of understanding the relationship between anxiety and achievement is unresolved.

In addition to the negative effects of anxiety on language learning and performance, anxiety has occasionally been found to facilitate language learning. Anxiety, in its debilitating and facilitating forms, serves simultaneously to motivate and to warn the learner. Facilitating anxiety “motivates the learner to “fight” the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior”. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast “motivates the learner to “flee” the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior”. Anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system.

In order to identify and measure foreign language anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

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(FLCAS), in which 33 question items ask respondents to respond to situations specific to foreign language learning anxiety and reflect the three components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. For example, they ask questions about students’ anxiety in situations like speaking in front of the language class, taking exams in language course, and perceiving other students’ evaluation of them. Due to the scale’s success on construct validation and reliability, FLCAS has been widely adopted by many researchers to explore learners’ foreign language anxiety.\textsuperscript{18}

F. Factors of Anxiety

1. Psycholinguistic Factors

It is a fact that communication in second language or foreign language requires second/foreign language learning. However, the complexities or difficulties involved in the process of learning a second/foreign language may also cause language anxiety for EFL/ESL learners. From a linguistic perspective, “students’ anxiety about L2/FL learning is likely to be a consequence of their language learning difficulties”. Appropriate use of ‘linguistic knowledge’ a part of the definition of ‘speaking skills’ is required to create an oral message that will be meaningful for the intended audience. In their attempt to create and convey this oral message, an insufficient command of linguistic knowledge enhances the possibilities of making mistakes, which leads to

negative evaluation and hence anxiety. In other words, “in the consciousness of the learner, the negative evaluation of the learner may come from the linguistics mistakes he/she makes”.

Language anxiety has been theorized to occur at all the three stages of language learning: input, processing and output. The description of these three stages with relation to anxiety will point out why foreign language learners make mistakes and the reasons of linguistic difficulties foreign language learners face in learning and using the target language. This can offer an insight to help understand anxiety experienced while communicating in the target language.

This section discusses the psychological and linguistic reasons of language anxiety that occurs at all the three stages of language learning: input, processing, and output.

a. Input

“Input is the first stage of language learning. It activates ‘Language Acquisition Device’ (LAD) is an innate language specific module in the brain” which carries out the further process of language learning. Anxiety at the input stage (input anxiety) refers to the anxiety experienced by the learners when they encounter a new word or phrase.

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in the target language. Input anxiety is receiver’s apprehension when receiving information from auditory and visual clues.\textsuperscript{20}

Input anxiety is more likely to cause miscomprehension of the message sent by the interlocutors, which may lead to the loss of successful communication and an increased level of anxiety.

b. Processing

Anxiety at the processing stage, called processing anxiety, refers to the “apprehension students experience when performing cognitive operations on new information”.\textsuperscript{21} Working on the ‘Information Processing Model’ have tried to explore how these cognitive operations are performed in human brain and have explained the learners’ inability to spontaneously use everything they know about a language at a given time.

The Cognitive Processing Model can also explain the difficulty learners feel in remembering and retrieving vocabulary items while communicating in the target language another important source of language anxiety for the EFL/ESL learners. Found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and ability to repeat a short string of numbers and to recall vocabulary items.\textsuperscript{22}

\textsuperscript{20}Muhammad Tanveer. Investigation of the factors that cause language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the influence it casts on communication in the target language. University of Glasgow. 2007, p. 20.
\textsuperscript{21}\textit{Ibid}, p. 21.
\textsuperscript{22}\textit{Ibid}, p. 22.
c. Output

Anxiety while communicating in the target language is more likely to appear at the output stage, which entirely depends upon the successful completion of the previous stages: input, and processing. Anxiety at the output stage refers to learners’ nervousness or fear experienced when required to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material. MacIntyre and Gardner asserted, “High level of anxiety at this stage might hinder students’ ability to speak in the target language”.23

2. Socio-Cultural Factors

Language anxiety stems primarily from social and communicative aspects of language learning and therefore can be considered as one of the socio anxieties.24 In the previous section, it has been viewed that difficulties in learning L2/FL can explain the potential causes of language anxiety at the output stage of language learning within the classroom setting. However, language anxiety may also be an outcome of socio and communicative aspects of language learning.

This section reviews the literature on language anxiety from a sociocultural perspective of language learning and its use. There are four factors which affect language anxiety in sociocultural context which are: 1) Social Environment for L2/FL Acquisition, 2) Error in Social Setting, 3) Social Status, Power Relation and a Sense of Identify, and 4) Gender. The

theoretical review will only cover 3 factors which are; Social Environment for L2/FL Acquisition, Error in Social Setting, and Gender. The writer does not review factor in Social Status, Power Relation and a Sense of Identify because the factor did not affect the anxiety of this subjects, which are students.

a. Social Environment for Second Language (L2)/ Foreign Language (FL) Acquisition

L2 or FL can take place in two different kinds of social environments: 1) Where the target language is not used as first language (L1) in the community, and 2) Where it is used as first language. The first kind of environment provides L2/FL learners only limited and sometimes faulty input. As Krashen states, for such learners, “the only input is teachers’ or classmates’ talk - both do not speak L2 well”. Learners in such environments are exposed to the language only in the classroom where they: 1) Spend less time in contact with the language, 2) Covering a smaller discourse type.\(^{25}\)

The limited exposure to the target language and lack of opportunities to practice speaking in such environments do not let the communicative abilities of L2/FL learners fully develop and result into; 1) Embarrassment or 2) Stress for them when they are required to speak both in and out of the class. In contrast, the second kind of environment provides learners with greater exposure to the target

language. However, even in this case, some researchers’ view that learners’ use of cognitive skills and meta linguistic awareness (world and social knowledge) may interfere with language learning and they may not be able to achieve native (L1) like proficiency as is gained by a child. Krashen explains this child-adult difference in ultimate attainment in terms of the strength of ‘affective filter’. He believes that ‘affective filter’ may exist for the child L2/FL acquirer but it is rarely high enough to prevent L1-like levels of attainment, and for adults, it rarely goes down enough to allow L1-like attainment. Older learners may have increased inhabitations and anxiety and may find them afraid to make errors.

b. Errors in Social Setting

Although it is axiomatic that language learning cannot be without errors, errors can be a source of anxiety in some individuals because they draw attention to the difficulty of making positive socio impressions when speaking a new language. Errors in socio settings are mostly overlooked if they do not interfere with meaning because people consider it impolite to: 1) Interrupt, and 2) Correct somebody who is trying to have a conversation with them. Interlocutors only react to an error if they cannot understand the speech and try to adjust their speech with the speaker in their effort to negotiate for meaning. It

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is only in the classroom environment that feedback on errors is provided frequently; this leads many learners to: 1) Frustration and 2) Embarrassment by making them conscious about their deficiencies. 

**c. Gender**

Gender has also been found to cause anxiety in male and female interaction both within and out of the classroom settings. He deems it necessary to consider whether the gender of the L1 speaker interlocutor has an effect on the listening comprehension of the L2/FL speaker interlocutor. 

Gobel and Matsuda asserted that gender-related anxiety research has yielded conflicting results. Spielberger, in her study on state anxiety found, “females are more emotionally stable than males in their reactions to highly stressful and relaxing circumstances”. Similarly, in Kitano’s study of Japanese college students, male students have been found to feel more anxiety when they perceived their spoken Japanese less competent than that of others; however, such a relationship was not observed among female students. On the contrary, Machida in Gobel and Matsuda examined FL Japanese

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language class anxiety based on gender and found that female learners are more anxious than male counterparts.\textsuperscript{32}

G. Language Learning Strategy

1. Strategy Assessment

Some of the most important strategy assessment techniques include observation, interview, “think-aloud” procedure, note-taking, diaries or journals and self-report surveys.\textsuperscript{33}

a. Observation

Many language learning strategies take place mentally and cannot be observed by the teacher. For instance, associating/elaborating, using imagery, and guessing intelligently are “invisible” or “mentalistic” strategies in terms of standard observation schemes. Keeping in mind that any observation scale will miss many of the mentalistic strategies.

On this observation form you can record the strategies in several ways:\textsuperscript{34}

- By taking impressionistic or structured notes.
- By checking off the strategies you seen in a certain period of time, such as during one class period.
- By combining these two approaches.

\textsuperscript{34}Ibid, p. 194.
b. Interview and think-aloud procedures

These techniques can be used together or separately. Totally unstructured interview, in which there is no particular questioning technique or no data coding form are difficult to use because they require you to create all your categories for analyzing and interpreting after the interview.35

c. Note-taking

Note-taking is a self-report technique that can be extended to any language task. It is especially valuable when paired with interviewing. Here are three note-taking technique for strategy assessment. First, a group of students is asked to note down their learning difficulties when performing a language task and to use these notes in an interview. A second use of note-taking involves a daily grid and occurs prior to the semi structured interview, already mentioned. A third technique asks student to take notes on a grid, describing the strategy they employ; then they rate those strategies in term of frequency of use, enjoyment, usefulness, and efficiency.36

d. Diaries or journal

Diaries or journals are form of self-report which allow learners to record their thoughts, feeling, achievement, and problems, as well as their impression of teachers, fellow students, and native speakers.

35Ibid, p. 194
36Ibid, p. 197.
Diarists become “participant observers” in their own personal, ethnographic research.\textsuperscript{37}

e. Self-report surveys

Self-report surveys are instrument used to gather systematic, written data on language learning strategy use. These surveys can vary from less structured to more structured.\textsuperscript{38}

- **Less-structured surveys**: less-structured surveys, also called subjective surveys, do not provide much organization for student in terms of the responses elicited,

- **More-structured surveys**: more-structured surveys, also called objective surveys, usually ask multiple-choice question which can be objectively scored and analyzed. Because more-structured use standardized categories for all respondents.

2. Strategy Training

Training of language learning strategies is called many things: “strategy training”, “learner training”, “learner-to-learn training”, “learner methodology training”, and methodological initiation for learners”.\textsuperscript{39}

a. The scope of strategy training

The best strategy training not only teaches language learning strategy but also deals with feeling and beliefs about taking on more

\textsuperscript{37}Ibid, p. 198.
\textsuperscript{38}Ibid, p. 198-199.
\textsuperscript{39}Ibid, p. 200
responsibility and about the role change implied by the use of learning strategies.\textsuperscript{40}

b. The need for strategy training

Learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn hoe to facilitate the process. Although learning is certainly part of the human condition, conscious skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training. Strategy training is especially necessary in the area of second and foreign languages.\textsuperscript{41}

c. Three types of strategy learning

Language learning strategies can be taught in at least three different ways:\textsuperscript{42}

- **Awareness training**: awareness training is also known consciousness-rising or familiarization training. In this situation, participant become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language tasks. In awareness training, however, participants do not have to use the strategies iv actual, on-the-spot language tasks.

- **One-time strategy training**: one-time strategy training involves learning and practicing one or more strategies with actual language tasks, usually those found in the regular language learning program. This kind of training gives the learners information on

\textsuperscript{40}Ibid, p. 201
\textsuperscript{41}Ibid, p. 201
\textsuperscript{42}Ibid, p. 202-203
the value of the strategy, when it can be used, how to use it, and how to evaluate the success of the strategy.

- **Long-term strategy training**: long-term strategy training, like one-time strategy training, involves learning and practicing strategies with actual language tasks. Again, students learn the significance of particular strategies, when and how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their own performance. Like one-time training, long-term strategy should be tied to the tasks and objectives of the language program.