

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the writer discusses review of related literature of this study that is presented within two parts. The first part of this section is previous study, which are relevant with the present study, and have been done by language scholar. The second part is theoretical review in which the writer tries to explore the theory that has relation to the problem in this research. This theory is the underlying requirements to solve the problem in this research that focuses on learning strategy used by high achievers student.

A. Theoretical Review

Theoretical Review gives us some theories that are connected with the learning strategies that will make the research become more understandable and reasonable.

1. Learning Strategies

This chapter focuses on the theoretical review pertaining to the theory and research on the use of learning strategy. Thus, some part of learning strategy

a. The Notion of Learning Strategies¹

Riding and Rayner define a learning strategy as “a set of one or more procedures that an individual acquires to facilitate the performance on a learning task. Strategies will vary depending on the

¹ Des Hewitt, *Understanding Effective Learning Strategies for the Classroom*, (Open University Pers 2008). 18

nature of the task". The statement means that learning strategy is procedures that acquire to facilitate the performance on learning task that happens on the second or foreign language learners. This very much reflects distinctions between differences in the learner, which contribute to an individual's learning styles, and differences in the learning environment, which contribute to the development of learning strategies.

Language learning strategies are used by learners to complete speaking, reading, vocabulary, listening or writing activities presented in language lessons. Recognizing that there is a task to complete or a problem to solve language learners will use whatever met cognitive, cognitive or social affective strategies they possess to attend to the language learning activity.

However, novices may be less efficient at selecting and applying strategies to task (O'Malley & Chamot in Fauziati, 1995:146)² although experienced language learners can approach the problems in a systematic way and are usually successful in selecting appropriate strategies to complete a task. Regardless of language learning experiences, both groups of learners need instruction in how to use strategies efficiently as a way to improve language learning and performance (Wenden, 1987:8; O'Malley & Chamot, 1995:81; Cohen, 1998:69). It is important that both direct and indirect Language

² Endang Fauziati, *Introduction methods and approaches in second or foreign Language Teaching*, (Surakarta; Era Pustaka Utama, 2009)

learning strategies are interconnected, and provide support one to the other to learn a second or foreign language, or in some cases, are observed doing while learning (Rubin & Wenden, 1987:19). Carton (1966) published his study which was the first attempt on learner strategies. In 1971, Rubin started research focusing on the strategies of successful learners and stated that such strategies, once identified, could be made available to less successful learners. To promote learning of a new language, attention should be paid to input, opportunities for interaction and output, and the needs of individuals. In addition, the sociolinguistic context for language learning cannot be ignored. Language learners need interesting, relevant, and comprehensible input in order to develop their language speaking. Language learning strategies, and the content focus in dual language education is an advantage in that regard.

b. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

There are different ways of classifying language learning strategy. However, most of the attempts to classify language learning strategy reflect more or less the same categorizations. The followings are the taxonomies of language learning strategy:

1) Rubin's Taxonomy³

Rubin makes the distinction between strategies which give direct contribution to learning and those which contribute indirectly to learning. According

to Rubin, there are three types of language learning strategy used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning, namely: learning strategies, communication strategies, and social strategies.

a). Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have direct contribution to the development of the language system constructed by the learner. They consist of two types:

I. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies refer to the steps or operations will be used in learning that requires direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identifies six main cognitive strategies, namely: clarification/ verification, guessing/ inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring.

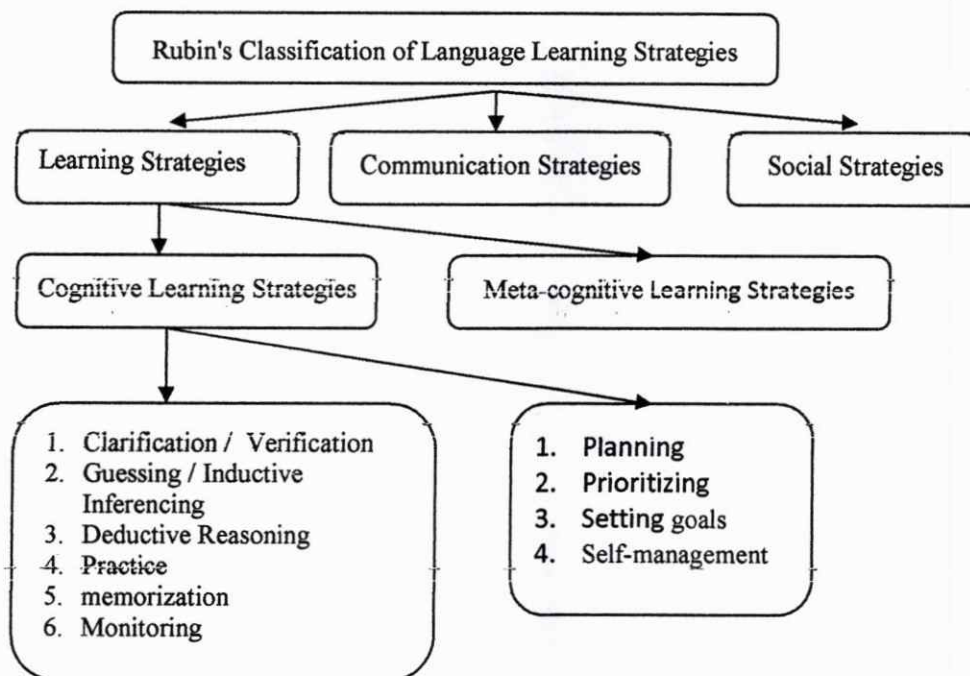
³ Endang Fauziati, *Introduction methods and approaches in second or foreign Language Teaching*. Surakarta. Era Pustaka Utama 2009.

II. **Meta-cognitive Strategies**

Meta-cognitive strategies are those used to manage regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes such as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management.

III. **Communication Strategies**

Communication strategies are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying the speaker's message. These are used by speakers when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends go beyond their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker. Social strategies refer to the activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. The above taxonomy can be shown briefly in the table below.



2) O'Malley's Taxonomy⁴

O'Malley et al. (in Endang Fauziati, 2009) divide language learning strategy into three main subcategories, namely: meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies.

a) Meta-cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies refer to a term used in information-processing theory to indicate an "executive" function, that is, the strategies which involve planning for learning, thinking about learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the

⁴ Ibid.

main meta-cognitive strategies, it is possible to include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation (O'Malley et al., 1985: 582-584).

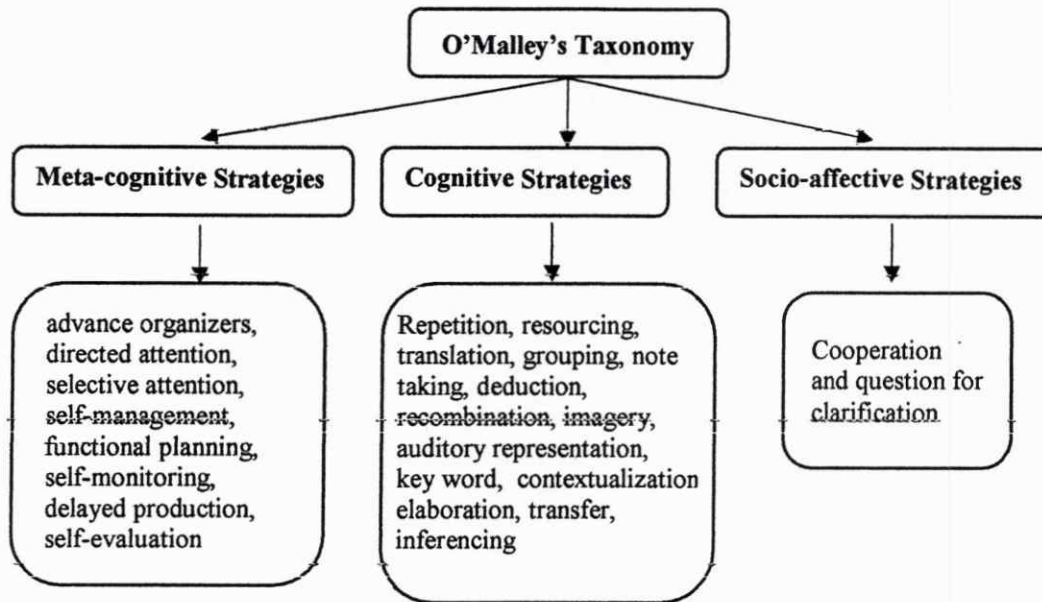
b) Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning task and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inference are among the most important cognitive strategies.

b) Socio-affective Strategies

Socio-affective strategies have to do with social mediating activities and interacting with others. Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socio-affective strategies.⁵ The above taxonomy can be shown briefly in the table below.

⁵ H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (Longman; San Francisco State University, 2000). p124-125



3) Stern's Taxonomy⁶

Good language learners try to create associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved. Learning training help students to face up the emotional difficulties and overcome them by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise.

According to Stern, there are five main language-learning strategies, namely: management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, interpersonal strategies, and affective strategies.

a) Management and Planning Strategies

Management and planning strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner

⁶ Olga Trendak, *Exploring the Role of Strategic Intervention in Form-focused Instruction*, (Springer, 2014), p72

takes charge of the development of his own program when he is helped by a teacher whose role is that of an adviser and resource person. That is to say that the learner must do the following activities:

- I. To decide what commitment to make to language learning;
- II. To set himself reasonable goals;
- III. To decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress; and
- IV. To evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectation.

b) Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are steps or operations used in learning that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. In the following, some of the cognitive strategies are exhibited: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive internequine, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring.

c) Communicative-experiential Strategies

Communicative-experiential Strategies include circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a

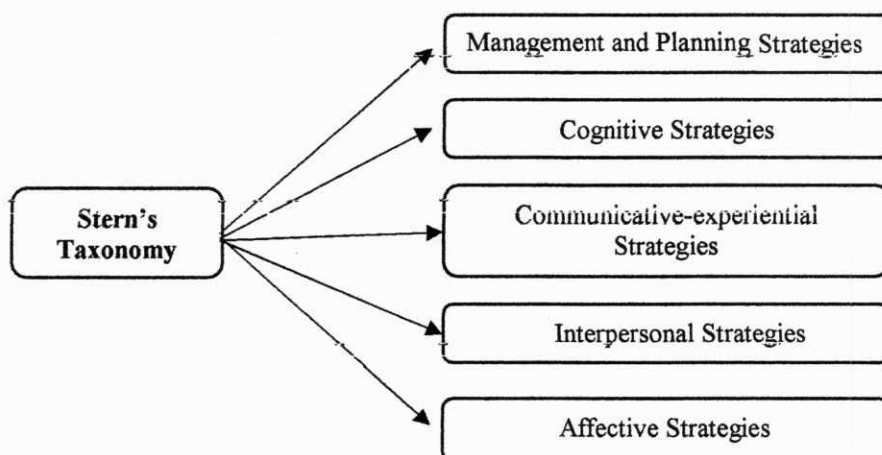
conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow communication.

d) Interpersonal Strategies

Interpersonal strategies refer to strategies that are used by learners to monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. Learners contact with native speaker and cooperate with them. Learners must become acquainted with the target culture.

e) Affective Strategies

Affective strategies refer to strategies used by learners to cater their own feeling when dealing with the complexity of language learning. It will evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. The above taxonomy can be shown briefly in the table below.



4) Oxford's Taxonomy

Oxford's taxonomy is both comprehensive and practical.

Oxford classifies strategies into two-strategy orientation:

a) Direct

Direct language learning strategies involve the identification, retention, storage, or retrieval of words, phrases, and other elements of the target language. This is classified into:

I. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies help learner link the second language items or concepts with one another. For example they retrieve information via an orderly string, sounds, images, body movement, or location. Memory strategies are often used for memorizing vocabulary and grammatical items in beginning learners thus they do not always positively related to the second language proficiency.

II. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies enable learners to manipulate language material in direct ways (i.e. reasoning, analysis, note taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information) to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in natural setting, and practicing structures and sounds formally. Studies in the field show that these

strategies are significantly related to second language proficiency.

III. Linguistic Deficiency

Linguistic deficiency compensation strategies help learners make up for the lack of knowledge. These include guessing meaning from context, using synonyms, using paraphrase, or using gestures. Studies in the field show that these strategies are significantly correlated to second language proficiency.

b) Indirect

The indirect language learning strategies concern the management of the learning which includes some activities such as needs assessment, activities planning and monitoring and outcome evaluation. The indirect strategy is classified into:

I. Meta-cognitive

Meta-cognitive strategies are used to manage the overall learning process. These include identifying learner's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for second language task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating the success of any type of language learning strategy. Studies in the field show that these strategies have significant direct

effect on cognitive strategies since they have executive functions in completing task.

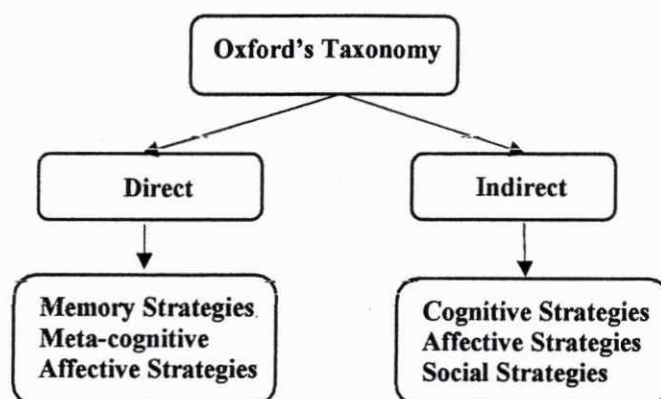
II. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies include identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. Studies in the field show that these strategies have significant direct effect on cognitive strategies since they have executive functions in completing task.

III. Social Strategies

Social strategies help learners work with others and understand the target culture and the language. These strategies include asking question to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native speaker, and exploring cultural and social norms. Studies in the field show that these strategies have significant correlation with second language proficiency.⁷ The above taxonomy can be shown briefly in the table below.

⁷ Oxford English Dictionary, Oxford University Press, 2011. 3636-365



2. Learning English

Students often think that the ability to Write, listen, Read and speak a language is the product of language learning. Thus, some part of speaking skills and the related literatures as follow:

a. Notion of Learning English

Learning fully and usefully means that students can think about what they learn, apply it in real situations or toward further learning, and can continue to learn independently (Marzano, 2001). It means that the students can think about what they learn at school and apply it in the society and it is hope that the students can learn by themselves.

Eraut will explain that our understanding of learning should not be limited to just formal or conscious forms of learning. For instance, he considers various forms of informal learning:

1) Implicit Learning

Where learning is not undertaken in any conscious way, and there is no conscious knowledge of what has been learned.

2) Reactive Learning

Which is seen as being near spontaneous in its development. The knowledge from this type of learning is only marginally open to conscious interrogation.

3) Deliberative Learning

Which takes place in a planned context, and is the most open of informal learning to conscious reflection.

The explanation above means that there are three kinds of informal learning besides the formal learning that the students get in the society, they are: implicit learning, reactive learning, and deliberative learning that can improve the student's knowledge.

According to Brown, breaking down the components of the definition of learning, the learners can extract, as the learners did with language, domains of research inquiry.

- I. Learning is acquisition or "getting".
- II. Learning is retention of information or skill.
- III. Retention implies storage system, memory, cognitive organization.

- IV. Learning involves active, conscious focus on and acting upon events outside or inside the organism.
- V. Learning is relatively permanent but subject to forgetting.
- VI. Learning involves some form of practice, perhaps reinforced practice.
- VII. Learning is a change of behavior.

The definition above also give way to a number of subfields within the discipline of psychology: acquisition processes, perception, memory (storage) system, recall, conscious and subconscious learning styles and strategies, theories of forgetting, reinforcement, and the role of practice. Very quickly the concept of learning will become every bit as complex as the concept of language. Yet the second language learner will bring all these (and more) variables into play in the learning of second language.

There are two ways in which people learn a foreign language:

- I. *Consciously*, through formal learning. In this situation, learners study the language in the sequence in which it is presented to them, usually following an organized syllabus. This kind of learning tends to encourage accuracy in the language as well as knowledge of what is correct.

Learners develop their fluency and feeling for what is socially appropriate in the language outside this learning, according to the actual demands made on them to communicate.

- II. Subconsciously, by "picking it up". This is typically the case when learners are in a situation where they are exposed to lots of natural language use. This kind of learning tends to encourage fluency in the language, as well as a natural feel for what is socially appropriate. In this kind of natural learning, different learners seem to acquire the grammar of the language in more or less the same sequence: the language develops along its own part inside the learner. The level of formal accuracy achieved depends on the demands made on the learner to become more accurate.

These two ways of learning also support each other. If someone naturally will acquire a new way of saying something in English, he will analyze how that piece of language works grammatically.

Success in learning a foreign language, according to Cohen and Dornyei will depend on a variety of factors such as the duration and intensity of the course, the characteristics and

abilities of the teacher, the appropriateness of the teaching methodology, the quality of the textbook, the size and composition of the learner group, the amount of the natural target language practice opportunities, and the characteristic of the language learner.

b. Four Language Skill

English as the second language has four skill for the students to master. There are listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. The students of the English class have to understand and able in mastering the four skill in English.

1) Listening Skill

Listening is the language skill that is used most frequently. It has been estimated that adults spend almost half their communication time listening, and students may receive as much as 90% of their in-school information through listening to instructors and to one another. Often, however, language learners do not recognize the level of effort that goes into developing listening ability. Instructional programs expanded their focus on language skills to include listening as well as reading, writing, and speaking.

Listening comprehension is now regarded as a prerequisite for oral proficiency as well as an important skill in its own right. It means that listening comprehension as well as an important skill in the listening ability. It is essential for a language teacher to have

thorough understanding of the nature of listening, as well as several activities which help students develop their listening comprehension skills. Consequently, the teachers can vary their classroom presentations that result in the more interesting classroom activities.⁸

In order to identify propositions, listeners make use two kinds of knowledge: knowledge of the syntax of the target language and knowledge of the real world.⁹ This principle in accord with psychological process of listening: bottom-up and top-down listening schemata. It means that in accounting for the complex nature of listening to understand spoken language, it is hypothesized that two different modes work together in a cooperative process. One is the externally based bottom-up mode (or text-based) while the other is the internally based top-down mode (or knowledge-base). In bottom-up strategy, the listeners relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words and grammar that creates meaning whereas in top-down strategy, the listener taps into background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help

⁸ Endang Fauziati, *Teaching English As A Foreign Language (TEFL)*, (Surakarta; Era Pustaka Utama, 2010).67

⁹ Endang Fauziati, *Reading on Applied Linguistics: A handbook for Language Teacher and Teacher Researcher*. (Surakarta; Era Pustaka Utama, 2010):p 114-115

the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next.

Another conception of listening comes from Morley. He argues that listening is not a passive skill. Listening comprehension is perceived to have three communicative listening modes: bidirectional, unidirectional, and auto-directional. Bidirectional mode means that listening has two-way communicative listening. Here the reciprocal the speaker and listener take turns exchanging speaker and listener role as they engage in face to face or telephone verbal interaction. The unidirectional is one-way communicative listening. Auditory input come from a variety of sources such as the media (Radio, TV, Film), instructional situations of all kinds, or public performances (lectures, religious cervices, plays, operas).

Auto-directional is a self-dialog communication in which we may not be aware of our internal roles as both speaker and listener in our own thought process. Sometimes we attend to our own internal language, which we produce as we think through alternatives, plan strategies, and make decision – all by talking to ourselves and listening to ourselves. The implication in listening instruction is that learners need to have instruction and practice in these three modes of listening.

Caroll argues that speaking or speech manifestation is an excellent means of retrieving materials. He asserts that mental

processing depends on active attention to and manipulation of the content, an operation in which the active skill of speaking plays a great part.

a) Micro Skills

- i. Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English.
- ii. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.
- iii. Recognize English stress pattern, words in stressed and unstressed position, rhythmic structures, intonation counters, and their roles in signaling information.
- iv. Recognize reduced forms of words.
- v. Distinguish word boundaries, recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
- vi. Process speech at different rate of delivery.
- vii. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
- viii. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.) systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
- ix. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
- x. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.

xi. Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.

b) Macro Skills

- I. Recognize the communicative functions of utterance according to situations, participants, and goal.
- II. Infer situations, participants, and goals by using real-world knowledge.
- III. From events, ideas, and soon, describes, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
- IV. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
- V. Use facial, kinetic, body language, and other non-verbal clues to decipher meanings.
- VI. Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting keywords, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signaling comprehension or lack thereof.

2) Speaking Skill

In the past, oral skills were not considered central in foreign language pedagogy. Speaking in a foreign language, however, it is a challenging task for language learners since speaking, according to Lazaraton (in Murcia, 2002: 103), is “an activity

requiring the integration of many subsystems and all these factors combine to make speaking a second or foreign language a formidable task for language learners". Speaking classes at all levels will be often structured around functional uses of language. In non-academic context, these will include greetings, talking on the telephone, interacting with school personnel, and shopping. In academic context, practice in activities such as leading and taking part in discussions and giving oral reports is being needed to be carried out.

Finally, we will also to consider the materials used for teaching speaking. Teachers will or will not use textbooks or materials, teachers have to be critical. They will find out whether or not the materials suit the students' level of proficiency and needs and whether or not the content or topics appropriate for the students. Lazaraton (2002: 104-106).

a) Micro Skills

- I. Produce differences among English phonemes and allophonic variants.
- II. Produce chunks of language of different lengths.
- III. Produce English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, and intonation contours.
- IV. Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.

- V. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
 - VI. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
 - VII. Monitor one's own oral production and use various strategic devices—pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking – to enhance the clarity of the message.
 - VIII. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.) systems (tense, agreement, pluralization), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
 - IX. Produce speech in natural constituents: in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breathe groups, and sentence constituents.
 - X. Express a particular meaning in different meaning in different grammatical forms.
 - XI. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
- b) Macro Skills
- I. Appropriately accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goal.
 - II. Use appropriate styles, registers, implicatures, redundancies, pragmatic conventions, conversation rules, floor keeping and yielding, interrupting, and other sociolinguistic features in face-t-face conversation.

- III. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as focal and peripheral ideas, events and feeling, new information and given information, generalization and exemplification.
- IV. Convey facial features, kinesics, body language, and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language.
- V. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

3) Reading Skill

Reading is one of the language skills which needed be taught in language classroom. Students need to be able to read texts in English either for their careers, for study, or simply for pleasure. Reading is also plays an important role for language acquisition. Reading texts also provide opportunities for students to learn vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and even good models for English writing the way sentences, paragraphs, or texts are constructed. Last but not the least, reading texts can introduce interesting topics and stimulate discussion. (Harmer, 2005: 68).¹⁰

¹⁰Jeremy Harmer, *How to teach English; An introduction to the Practice of English Language Teaching*. (Essex; Longman, 1998)p68

The statement means that reading texts can be interesting topic and can stimulate discussion or communication with others.

Thus, it can be inferred that reading is an interactive and interpretative process. The reader processes his background knowledge and the printed text using specific skills and strategies to form expectations or predictions about the text, selecting and using the most productive cues to confirm or reject those predictions. This process takes place until the reader is satisfied with the information he gets from the printed message.

a) Micro Skills

- I. Discriminate among distinctive graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
- II. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.
- III. Process writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.
- IV. Recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
- V. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.) systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
- VI. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.

- VII. Recognize cohesive devices in written discourse and their role in signaling the relationship between and among clauses.
 - VIII. Recognize grammatical word classes (noun s, verbs, etc.) systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
- b) Macro Skills
- I. Recognize the rhetorical forms of written discourse and their significance for interpretation.
 - II. Recognize the communicative functions of written texts, according to form and purpose.
 - III. Infer context that is not explicit by using background knowledge.
 - IV. From described events, ideas, etc. Infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
 - V. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
 - VI. Detect culturally specific references and interpret them in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata.
 - VII. Develop and use a battery of reading strategies such as scanning and skimming, detecting discourse markers,

guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts.

4) Writing Skill

As one of the four language skills, writing has always occupied a place in English language course. One of the reasons in that more and more people need to learn to write in English for occupational or academic purposes. It is generally agreed that writing is the most difficult skill to master for foreign language learners. This is due not only to the need to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization but also to turn such ideas into a readable text. (Richards & Renandya in Fauziati, 2002). It means that students also have difficulties transferring ideas from their native language into the target language.

Traditionally, in curriculum practice, a distinction has been drawn between the activities which focus on products and the activities which focus on process. Broadly speaking, a product oriented approach focuses on the end result of the learning process that is, what the learner is expected to be able to do as a fluent and competence user of the language (Brown in Fauziati, 2000). Process approach, on the other hand, focuses more on the various classroom activities which are believed to promote the development of skilled language use. (Nunan in Fauziati, 1999). The statements

mean that the learners is expected to be able to do fluently and competently in using the language and believed to promote the development of skilled language use.

a) Micro Skills

- I. Produce graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
- II. Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.
- III. Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.
- IV. Use acceptable grammatical system (e.g. tenses, agreement, pluralization), patterns, and rules.
- V. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
- VI. Use cohesive device in written discourse.

b) Macro Skills

- I. Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.
- II. Appropriately accomplishes the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.
- III. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization and exemplification.

- IV. Distinguish between literal and implied meaning when writing.
- V. Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.
- VI. Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accuracy assessing the audience's interpretation, using pre-writing devices, writing with fluency in the first draft, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor's feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing.

Finally, the researcher also considers the materials used to develop learning English, it means that a variety of demands are in place at once; monitoring and understanding to learn English, thinking about one's contribution, producing that contribution, monitoring its effect. For above reasons, there are some basic considerations to take before English Class begins. Language learning strategies, being specific actions, behaviors, tactics, or techniques, facilitate the learning of the target language by the language learner. All language learners, needless to say, use language-learning strategies in the learning process. Since the factors like age, gender, personality, motivation, self- concept, life experience, learning style, excitement, anxiety, etc. affect the way in which language learners learn the target language, it is not reasonable to support the idea that all language learners use the

same good language learning strategies or should be trained in using and developing the same strategies to become successful learners.