Ka:rmik Language Learning Strategy 1
Definitions of *Language Learning Strategy*:
A Ka:rmik (Linguistic) Language Teaching Approach (KLTA) Review

Chilukuri Bhuvaneswar

Director, Ka:rmik Linguistic and Literary Association, Hyderabad

Abstract

According to KLTA, derived from the ka:rmik linguistic theory, language is learnt holistically by I-I-Iing all the LSRW skills by gradual evolution *through the construction of* ka:rmik learning reality. *Most of the teaching approaches and methods are* atomic *in their learning approach (Bhuvaneswar 2013 a, b) as they are derived from atomic linguistic theories highlighting functionalism as in the communicative language teaching approach and cognitivism in the cognitive language teaching framework and hence the learning strategies are also atomically described; they are not packaged into a* holistic *plan with a specific set of* procedures, techniques, and tactics *in a rigorous linguistic framework to achieve specific* goals *in the spatiotemporalmaterial (STM), socioculturalspiritual (SCS), inclinational-informational-habitual (IIH) context of learning the language by the learner. Such a holistic integration is necessary because without such integration, it is unlikely that LLS will function effectively as indicated by Griffiths (2004).*

In this first article, in the Ka:rmik Language Learning Strategy (KLLS) Series, an attempt has been made to review the definitions given by the major ELT practitioners who look at strategies as techniques and suggest a new definition in the Ka:rmik Linguistic Paradigm as a plan:

"A Language Learning Strategy (LLS) is a specific, overall plan *with a specific set of* procedures *implemented through specific* means *from a specific* cause *(of a process) in a specific* manner *to attain a specific* goal*". It is the whole plan with implied parts and is derived from a dispositional choice of procedures from the Universal Sciences of [Action-Living-Lingual Action]. It is dispositional, contextual, and experiential.*

 Keywords: disposition, LL (language learning), atomic, holistic, LLS, Universal Science of Action, Universal Science of Living, Universal Science of Lingual Action

I. Introduction
Research on language learning strategies is increasingly gaining prominence in English Language Teaching and Learning nowadays. However, the very term *strategy* is loosely used without a standard definition and both tactic and strategy are interchangeably used by many ELT practitioners.

Setting aside this anomaly, strategies are not analyzed systematically and comprehensively by such writers as Rebecca Oxford (2001). For example, she classified the strategies into direct and indirect and then further classified the direct strategies into memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies and indirect strategies into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies under the communicative language teaching approach model. However, such a type of classification is confusing and not comprehensive if we take the overall picture of strategy

planning into consideration. *First,* the term *strategy* is basically a term that is applied to imply planning of a set of procedures in a specific type of arrangement for their implementation so that a desired goal is reached successfully – with maximum benefit and feasibility and minimum effort, time, cost and difficulty. If the strategies are not well planned with the right procedures, the goal may or may not be reached successfully, and the strategy may fail or it may not produce the desired affects in full, or more effort, time, cost and difficulty will be experienced in reaching the goal. In her analysis, strategies are not viewed as such, but as actions or steps and at the same time, metacognitive strategies include planning which is taxonomically above the level of action. *Second*, the treatment of strategies is not comprehensive since it does not deal with different types of learners and their *learning styles*: *what* strategies in what *combinations* should be used by what *type* of learners with different learning styles of their own are not dealt with. *Third*, there is no specific categorization of the types of learners as well as the learning strategies in the sense of plans. *Fourth,* her approach is communicative which is atomic since it does not integrate form-function-meaning-discourse-choice in a holistic framework. In view of such a scenario, there is a need to revisit the analysis of strategies from the perspectives of: the *learners' status* and rethink *strategy planning* from such a focal point; the *nature of the content* and its selection-gradation-presentation-repetition-evaluation; the *qualification of the teacher* and the resources available for teaching; and the *administrative capacity* of the management to I-I-I the learning-teaching-materials network in an efficient way.

In this article, language learning is examined under the ka:rmik linguistic theory of lingual action and how learning takes place is illumined in that light. From that perspective, the concept of strategy is motivated and shown to be rather *plan-oriented* and not *action-oriented*. What is more, it is also found out that language-learning strategy becomes *Ka:rmik (Linguistic) Language-Learning Strategy (KLLS)*.

II. Literature Review
In the literature available on the understanding and use of the term *strategy,* there are two ways. One is in the field of military, business, and games and the other is in language learning and teaching. Let us briefly discuss these two views.

2.1. Meaning of *Strategy* in Military, Games and Management Theories

2. 1. 1. Military Theory: The term *strategy* is derived from the Greek word *stratēgia* which means the "art of troop leader; office of general, command, generalship" (Strategy as defined in Wikipedia's article on strategy (Liddell)). It is understood as a high level plan to achieve one or more goals under conditions of uncertainty, especially, with inadequate resources to achieve the desired goals. "In military theory, strategy is "the utilization during both peace and war, of all of the nation's forces, through large scale, long-range planning and development, to ensure security and victory" (Random House Dictionary).

2. 1. 2. Management Theory: In management theory, the Chandler definition is typical: "... the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals". or, more simply, "strategy is about shaping the future [...] while brilliant strategy is the shortest route to desirable ends with available means.".

2. 1. 3. Game Theory: In game theory, a *strategy* refers to the rules that a player uses to choose between the available actionable options. Every player in a non-trivial game has a set of possible strategies to use when choosing what moves to make.

A strategy may recursively look ahead and consider what actions can happen in each contingent state of the game - e.g. if the player takes action 1, then that presents the opponent with a certain situation, which might be good or bad, whereas if the player takes action 2 then the opponents will be presented with a different situation, and in each case the choices they make will determine our own future situation.

Strategies in game theory may be random (mixed) or deterministic (pure). Pure strategies can be thought of as a special case of mixed strategies, in which only probabilities 0 or 1 are assigned to actions. Strategy based games generally require a player to think through a sequence of solutions to determine the best way to defeat the opponent.

From the knowledge of the term strategy in military, business, and games, as presented above, we understand that strategy is a plan, generally, a long term plan. However, in language learning and teaching, it is understood as an action, operation, or step which is different as discussed below.

2. 2. Strategy in Traditional Literature on LLS

There is a large corpus of literature on language learning strategies that deals with their definition, classification and application. However, the LLS field, according to Griffiths (2004), "continues to be characterised by 'confusion' with 'no consensus' (O'Malley *et al,* 1985, p.22) while Ellis (1994, p.529) comments that the language learning strategy concept remains 'fuzzy' ". In view of this lack of consensus, there are three important issues that need to be reviewed in LLS literature to gain a proper perspective of the state of LLS research. They are: 1. Problem of Definition; 2. Choice of LLS by Learners; and 3. Need for a (W)holistic Strategy Design.

To begin with, different ELT practitioners have proposed different definitions for language learning strategies (LLS) and it is confusing to understand what LLS are from these definitions. Among them, Rubin (1975, 1982), Stern (1975), Ellis (1986), O'Malley et al (1985), Brown and Palinscar (1982), Naiman (1978), Oxford (1990) and Chamot (2004) are very important because they have proposed language learning strategy inventories. Let us look at some of these definitions and related literature to know the confusion caused in understanding LLS.

2. The Problem of Definition and Some Important Definitions of LLS
2. 1. 1. Rubin's Strategies as *Techniques* or *Devices*

One of the earliest definitions proposed is that of Rubin (1975: 43). It is further modified by Rigney (1978) and later on adopted by O'Malley, et al (1985) and further extended by Oxford (1990). According to this definition, LLS are "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge". In this definition, LLS are considered *techniques* or *devices* but not *plans* that *use a sequential group of procedures*. Based on this understanding, she has divided LLS into two types: direct strategies and indirect strategies of learning (ibid. 1981: 124-126). Direct strategies are further divided into six types: *clarification/verification, monitoring, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, memorization, and practice*; and indirect strategies are further divided into two types: *creating opportunities for practice and production tricks*. In this classification, she considers 'communication strategies' as production tricks which is contested by other critics. For example, Brown (1980: 87) distinguishes *learning strategies* (where learning is the input) from *communication strategies* (where communication is the output). He argues that in communication, there is message avoidance or abandonment that does not result in learning even though similar strategies such as rule transference are used in both learning and communication.

Bialystok's (1978) definition of LLS as "optimal means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language" also considers LLS as *means* which is broad but her four categories of LLS which are *inferencing, monitoring, formal practicing, and functional practicing* are *not* plans in the sense of military or game *plans.*

2. 1. 2. Stern's Ten LLS Strategies

Stern (1975) proposed a list of ten strategies which are considered to be characteristic of good language learners. Among them, he placed 'personal learning style' at the top of the list. According to him, strategies are "broadly conceived intentional directions" (1992: 261). This definition is similar to the definition of *style* as proposed by Willing (1988), and Nunan (1991). At the same time, Stern defined techniques as "the behavioural manifestations of the strategies" (1992: 261). But this definition of *techniques* is similar to the definition of Rubin's *strategies*. Hence, there is a contradiction in the understanding of the term *strategy* by these two writers.

2. 1. 3. Naiman's Plan of LLS

Naiman *et al* (1978) studied the strategies used by *good language learners* and came up with a list of five important LLS: 1. active involvement by performing language learning tasks; 2. developing or exploiting an awareness of language as a system; 3. understanding language as a means of communication and interaction; 4. coping with affective demands and managing them; and 5. monitoring their performance in the target language. These five strategies are included in a later classification into six strategies by Oxford (1990).

Naiman *et al* (1978) have also proposed the most frequently used techniques by *Good Language Learners* but some of them are not applicable to most of ESL speakers in India and Africa. For example, *keeping in touch with native speakers of English, using bilingual vocabulary charts, and having pen pals*. Of course, many ESL speakers may use *bilingual dictionaries* but *preparing and memorizing bilingual charts* is rare. Using *grammar books/textbooks for getting the rules of the language* is the most common practice followed by *repeating aloud after the teacher*, if the teacher uses this practice. *Listening to radio, watching the T.V., etc. and reading newspapers and magazines* is also common among good learners. Nowadays, getting glued to T. V. and watching English channels is the norm, especially, in India, if these facilities are available.

2. 1. 4. Information Processing Approaches in the Cognitive Linguistic Model

In McLoughlin et al (1983), an information processing approach has been proposed in which the learner is viewed as an active organizer of incoming information with processing limitations and capabilities and the learner's cognitive system is considered central to processing. A learner is able to store and retrieve information depending on the degree to which the information is processed. It has been observed by them that "learners actively impose cognitive schemata on the incoming data in an effort to organize information". In their view, automaticity in learning can be achieved by processing the information either in a top-down process (or knowledge governed system) in which internal schemata are made use of or in a bottom-up process (or input governed system) in which external output is used. In either case cognition is involved but the degree of cognitive involvement is set by the interaction between the requirements of the task and the knowledge and metal processes used by the learner.

Spolsky (1985) developed a model of second language acquisition based on preference rules in which cognitive processes play an important role. Using social context conditions such as the learning setting and opportunities, and learner factors such as capability, prior knowledge and motivation, he proposed three conditions for second language acquisition to occur: *necessary*

conditions that are required for learning to occur such as target language input, motivation and practice opportunities; *gradient conditions* such as getting into *contact with a native speaker* to a greater or lesser degree or *fine tuning a strategy* to a learning task - which are frequently recurring conditions which make learning more likely to take place; and *typicality conditions* - such as *risk taking* by outgoing personalities in using or learning the language - are typical but not necessary for learning to take place.

2. 1. 5. Tarone's Inclusion of Motivation or Intention to Define LLS

Tarone (1980: 419) considers communication strategies as helpful in producing learning since the learner gets familiar with the input of language when he uses language for communication. Thus, a communication strategy will become an LLS if the motivation or intention is rather to learn than to communicate. However, this distinction is impractical since a learner may have both the intentions, namely, to communicate and learn, and therefore it becomes difficult to use this distinction in practice.

2. 1. 6. Ellis' Learner Strategies

Ellis (1986) includes both the *learning* and *using* strategies as two manifestations of a general strategy which she calls *learner strategies*. Under this rubric, unlike Tarone, compensation strategies are considered to be a hurdle in language learning since pragmatic compensation of 'lack of linguistic knowledge' may decelerate the need for learning. What is more, she considers the definition of strategies as 'fuzzy' (ibid. 1994).

2. 1. 7. Adaptation of Rigney's Definition by O'Malley, et al and Oxford

According to Rigney (1978), language learning strategies are "operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information". In this sense, LLS are *operations or steps* but again not *plans*. Strategies are understood in the same sense by O'Malley et al (1985) who accept this definition of Rigney as well as Oxford (1990: 8) who accepts this definition but expands it as "(learning strategies are) specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations".

O'Malley et al (1985) developed their own taxonomy of LLS by dividing them into three categories of *metacognitive* (knowing about learning), *cognitive* (specific to distinct learning activities), and *social (or socio-affective (*related to interactional strategies of learning)) and identified 26 strategies in all. The first two strategies are somewhat similar to Rubin's indirect and direct strategies and the third strategy is an addition bringing in interaction into the system.

2. 1. 8. Expansion of Earlier Definitions by Oxford

In the case of Oxford (1990: 14, 15-21), she expands on the existing classification made by O'Malley (1985) to make it "more comprehensive and detailed... linking individual strategies as well as strategy groups, with each of the four language skills". She reclassifies the direct and indirect strategies in the system into six groups by adding *memory, compensation, and affective strategies* as distinct categories. Nonetheless, Oxford opines that it is very difficult to know or classify strategies and observes that there are hundreds of learning strategies. What is more she feels that learning strategies may overlap each other. For example, a metacognitive strategy of learning deals with planning but planning involves reasoning and therefore can be a cognitive strategy; in a similar way, looking for synonyms when an exact word is not known can be both a learning strategy and a communication strategy.

In addition, she takes care of the five strategies proposed by Naiman et al (1978). For example, in memory strategies, which are divided into *creating mental images, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing action,* employing action involves using *physical response or sensation* (which physically acts out a new expression such as going to the door) or *meaningfully relating a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation* such as warmth and *using mechanical techniques (which are creative but tangible such as moving or changing something which is concrete in order to remember new target language information,* for example, writing words on cards and moving cards from one stack to another when a word is learned). In a similar way, cognitive strategies are divided by Oxford (p. 44-51) into *practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, creating structure for input and output*. In analyzing and reasoning, there is a set of five strategies which are: *reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring*. These strategies develop an awareness of language as a system. Oxford (p.136 ff) divides indirect learning strategies into metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Social strategies are further divided into *asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others*. These strategies help learners to understand language as means of communication and interaction. The affective strategies of *lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking one's emotional temperature* help a good learner to cope with affective demands and manage them. Finally, the metacognitive strategies are divided into a set of three strategies: *centering, arranging and planning, and evaluating learning*. The third strategy of evaluating learning which consists of self-monitoring and self-evaluating takes care of monitoring performance in the target language.

2. 1. 9. Reciprocal Teaching by Brown and Palinscar

According to Doolittle et al (2006), "Reciprocal teaching is an instructional strategy based on modeling and guided practice, in which the instructor first models a set of reading comprehension strategies and then gradually cedes responsibility for these strategies to the students (Brown & Palincsar 1989; Palincsar 1986; Palincsar & Brown 1984). Specifically, reciprocal teaching consists of three main components, (a) the teaching and learning of specific reading comprehension strategies, (b) the dialogue between instructor and students where the instructor models why, when, and where to use these reading comprehension strategies, and (c) the appropriating of the role of the instructor by the students, that is, students begin to model the reading comprehension strategies for other students. Thus, the goals of reciprocal teaching are for students to learn the reading comprehension strategies, learn how and when to use the strategies, and become self-regulated in the use of these strategies." There are four reading comprehension strategies proposed by Palinscar and Brown (1984) which are: 1. Questioning; 2. Summarizing; 3. Clarifying; and 4. Predicting which are processed through dialogue and appropriation. This basic model of Brown and Palinscar (1984) has been further modified in three more ways: using different reading comprehension strategies (the strategy of visualization by the MERIT project of the Miami-Dade County Public Schools), modeling to different sized groups (whole class reading comprehension strategy model by De Corte et al (2001), and teaching the reading comprehension strategies directly and at different times relative to the dialogue by Palinscar et al (1990).

2. 1. 10. Chamot's Definition

According to Chamot (2004), "Learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal. Strategic learners have metacognitive knowledge about their own thinking and learning approaches, a good understanding of what a task entails, and the ability to orchestrate the strategies that best meet both the task demands and

their own learning strengths". In this definition also, strategies are considered 'conscious thoughts and actions'.

2. 1. 11. Conclusion of Andrew Yau-hau Tse

In his Definition of Language Learning Strategies (p. 30), Tse (2011) points out that LLS are defined from the two perspectives of the features of the strategies themselves (Elements) or the purposes for which learners intend to use these strategies (Purposes) as observed by Tamada (1997) and "there is little agreement on the definition of learning strategies". Wenden et al (1987) consider them as *techniques, tactics, potentially conscious plans, consciously employed operations, learning skills, basic skills, functional skills, cognitive abilities, language processing strategies, problem-solving procedures* (p7); Ellis (1994) views them as *a mental process, and both observable and unobservable behaviour;* Bialystok's (1978) definition considers them as enhancing language competence; Chamot's (1987) definition considers them as facilitating language learning. Finally, Oxford (1990) elaborated the definition by including an affective purpose. Hence, the purpose of developing language learning strategies has changed from becoming good or successful learners who speak a second language fluently, to becoming intelligent learners who know very well about how to learn a second language more successfully (Tamada, 1997:4).

Without limiting the definitions of language learning strategies, MacIntyre (1994) held a different view:
The definition of learning strategies…is sufficiently broad to encompass elements that might be better considered as other types of variables, such as personality or situational factors. It will be argued here that the theory and research related to language learning strategies should pare down the definition of 'strategies' to focus on techniques to facilitate language learning that are deliberately chosen by the learner. Personality and social factors can be included in a broader system that describes strategy use and the factors that influence it (p185). This notion has given an impetus to linking language learning strategy studies with the social and psychological domains: it also has connected language learning strategy studies with other variables."

Tse further comments (p.31) that there are problems in classifying language learning strategies and shows five groups of classifications: 1) systems related to successful language learners (Rubin, 1975); 2) systems based on psychological functions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); 3) linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981); 4) systems related to separate language skills (Cohen, 1990); and 5) systems based on different styles or types of learners (Sutter, 1989). He finally concludes that the "existence of these distinct strategy taxonomies is a major problem in research on L2 learning strategies as there is a lack of a coherent, well accepted system for describing them".

From the discussion of the various approaches to learning strategies, we find that only two important theoretical models, namely, the *cognitive linguistic model* by O'Malley and Chamot (1985), and the *functional linguistic* model (communicative language teaching approach) by Oxford (1990) have been made use of in defining and classifying LLS. One major problem in such approaches is their atomic perspective of language learning (see Bhuvaneswar 2009, 2010, 2013 a, b). By looking at language and language learning as *functional* or *cognitive* action, they have overlooked the critical role played by *form, meaning and disposition* in language learning. Consequently, their strategies are limited to only these areas. For example, *dispositional modulation* and *I-I-Iing the various strategies* into an integrated package are missing in their treatment. Language learning is not achieved by an atomic process of learning

the function or cognition of language - it has to be holistic and therefore the LLS should also be holistic and not given piecemeal.

Furthermore, their understanding of the term strategy is both confusing and not comprehensive. A strategy is considered either a technique or a device or a learning style or means (actions), or processing, or condition, or operation/step, or modelling and guided practice (i.e., techniques). Nonetheless, the sub-strategy *meta-cognitive strategy* is included in indirect strategies along with the other direct and indirect strategies by Oxford (1990) which is not systematic: planning is different from action by being super-ordinate to action which is subordinate in a taxonomical hierarchy; every plan is about how to organize action to attain a goal, but not the action itself. Memorization, or cognition, or compensation, or socialization, or control of emotions is an action, but not a plan. For example, *employing action* – a memory strategy – involves using *physical response or sensation* (which physically acts out a new expression such as going to the door) which is an action and not a plan; so also translating, which is a sub-strategy of analyzing and reasoning in the cognitive strategies, is an action but not a plan; so also are asking questions (social strategy), and lowering anxiety. On the other hand, arranging and planning the learning activity (a metacognitive strategy) belongs to the domain of strategic planning whereas evaluating learning is not planning even though it can be planned in a particular way.

From the perspective of viewing strategies as actions, even though it is defective, again, there is a lop-sided understanding of the term strategies. The strategies should deal with learning the fundamental components of language which are its *form, function, content, style, and context* in their variety-range-depth (see Bhuvaneswar 2013 a, b, c, d for details). To elaborate further, the purpose of a strategy is to learn or acquire these five components both individually and collectively as an I-I-Ied holistic network in a *planned* way through a set of *procedures and techniques*; mere presentation of techniques is simply inadequate – it is like telling the actions to be taken for driving a car without giving a plan of how to coordinate these actions in driving: instructing to *apply brakes to stop the car* is an action, but *when, where, and how (place, time, manner) to apply brakes to stop the car* involves strategic planning. In a parallel illustration, asking questions is an action but *when, where, and how (place, time, and manner) to ask questions (in learning a language) involves strategic planning.* This strategic planning should be I-I-Ied with the four levels of *teaching (teacher)-learning (learner)-instruction (materials)-administration (institution)* related to the *actors* on the one hand and the four LSRW skills related to the *action* on the other hand via the strategic planning related to the *process* of learning. Without that, LLS planning or training becomes defective. Thus, first, they look at strategy as an operation, as a step, as conscious action but *not* as a plan with a set of procedures that involves a conscious manipulation and movement towards a goal (by dispositional choice), which meaning is generally used in military, games, and business; second, clubbing both 'plan' and 'action' together in the conceptualization of the term strategy is illogical (as in Oxford 1993); rejecting the original meaning of *strategy* as *a plan* and rethinking it as *an operation or action* brought no additional advantage since the strategies mentioned by Oxford (ibid.) can be more systematically explained as *techniques* without confusing them with the metacognitive strategies. Therefore, by taking this meaning into consideration and rethinking and analyzing LLSs in terms of ka:rmik linguistic action, the confusion that is created in understanding and defining the term *strategy* can be better overcome as it is done in the *Ka:rmik Language Learning Strategy (KLLS)*. In KLLS, a strategy is defined succinctly as done in the *abstract* of this paper or elaborately as *an overall or general plan that is dispositionally designed to achieve a specific effect/goal(s) (of learning LSRW skills) through specific means (of dispositional modulation, knowledge acquisition, and va:sana (internalized habit) formation)) from a specific cause (of a process of LSRW). It is the whole, dispositionally designed plan of execution of*

action (with implied parts) to achieve a specific goal in a specific manner through specific means.

In the next section III, KLLS is briefly described in terms of a method consisting of an approach, design, procedures, techniques, and tactics.

2. 2. Choice of LLS by Learners

There are many strategies (in the sense of operations or specific actions) for language learning according to experts dealing with LLS. From the sociolinguistic research of ELLS available, it is observed that certain groups of students in certain cultures and countries use certain ELLS more and don't use others. This means that there is a choice in the use of LLS. This may be due to their *ignorance about the LLS* or may be due to their *preference of one strategy over the other*. What is more, since there are numerous strategies, it is virtually not possible for all the learners to use all the strategies. That is a problem since what strategies are essential and what are not cannot be easily determined without a clear cut classification and analysis of them.

In a similar way, without a proper understanding of the term *strategy* as a plan to solve a problem by a critical path analysis – taking into consideration the learner's abilities and drawbacks – of the content's demands from the learner to learn the content, and the teacher's approach to the treatment of the content, there is every possibility for the learner to be confused, misguided and frustrated.

2. 3. Need for a (W)holistic Strategy Design

One very important drawback in the existing language learning strategy inventories is that they are given piecemeal as individual items (check?) and **not** *grouped together in packages according to the learner's abilities*. To explain further, a learner needs not only memory strategies for remembering the language items such as vocabulary, meaning, and sentence patterns but also needs cognitive strategies for analyzing, and classifying the language and the content, metacognitive strategies for planning his learning process, social strategies for practicing his LSRW skills, and affective and compensation strategies as well for stress management and communicative purposes. As such, he needs all these strategies as a whole; however, he may not be able to use them all efficiently since he may not be *capable* to do so – a person with weak memory cannot use the memory strategy well; a person with less analytical ability may not use the cognitive strategy well; a very sensitive person may not manage his emotions well; an introvert or selfish person may not interact as desired; and so on. Therefore, different strategies are required to help such learners according to their disposition.

Another major problem is about the understanding of the very nature of language and its learning. *Behaviourism, Innateness Hypothesis (of Chomsky), Building up the Knowledge System (of Cognitive Linguistics), Looking at Language as Interaction* are all atomic in their approach and ignore the fundamental nature of language as an integrated system of form-function-meaning-disposition. Therefore, they are unnatural.

Taking into consideration, all these issues, it is reasonable to assume that the field of LLS should be revisited and re-examined from the traditional understanding of strategy as *a plan* and then work out a definition as well as analysis and classification of LLS. In the next section, such an attempt is made from the perspective of Ka:rmik Linguistic Theory perspective and propose a new definition for *Ka:rmik (Linguistic) Language Learning Strategy (K(L)LLS)* in the Ka:rmik Language Teaching model.

III. Planning LLS for ESL Learners: A Ka:rmik Language Learning Strategy (KLLS) Design

Language Learning Strategy is defined as mentioned earlier by taking into consideration the important factors of *learning, learner,* and *knowledge* in the teacher-learner-materials-administration network to impart the LSRW skills. Their nature and characteristics are briefly explained below for arriving at a definition of the term strategy and LLS.
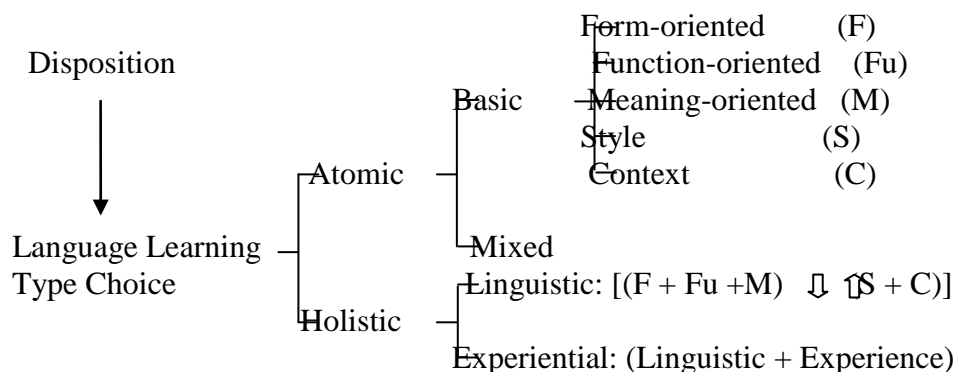
3. 1. Types of Learning

Learning can take place from a number of *directions* but what is required is a critical path approach that saves time, effort, and cost; sustains interest according to the context; and gives maximum results. In the LLS literature available, the strategies that are mentioned except the meta-cognitive strategies do not focus on these directions and the way in which they have to be I-I-Ied as a *plan* to constitute the strategy. In KLLS design, there is a focus on these directions and the learner's aptitude, the nature of learning, and the desired outcomes are I-I-Ied in a systematic procedure. In addition, the terms *plan, strategy, sub-strategy, procedure, technique,* and *tactic* are more clearly distinguished and identified than in other models.

Generally, there are two basic types of language learning: 1. Atomic; and 2. Holistic. Atomic learning can be visualized from three basic perspectives and the fourth one is obtained by a mixture of these three in varying degrees according to the choice of the learner: *1. Form-oriented; 2. Action-oriented; 3. Meaning-oriented; and 4. Mixed* with any two of these three types. In *form-oriented learning*, more emphasis is put on the *form* of language through *participants* (in an activity) and learning is achieved by mere memorization and less reasoning, logic and intellection and practice than in action-oriented and meaning-oriented learning; it is characterized by ta:masik learning (*rote-learning* with low activity, less thinking, and least interpretation and integration). In *action-oriented learning*, more emphasis is laid on the *function* of language through *action* (in an activity), and learning is achieved by more practice (and less analysis) through which memory is gained. Obviously, action-oriented learning implies an understanding of the form-aspect but its emphasis is not on form. In *meaning-oriented learning*, semantic or cognitive oriented learning can be proposed. More emphasis is laid on the propositional content of language *(meaning)* through the *relationships* (in an activity) in semantic-oriented learning, and learning is achieved by analyticity of the form and function of language through meaning. In this cognitive-oriented learning, language learning is conceptual-oriented. In mixed-type of learning, any two of these three types are mixed and learning is achieved by a combination of the two types of activities.

In addition to these three types of form-function-meaning oriented learning, learning can also take place from the perspective of *style* and *context*. In such a stylistic approach of language learning, language is learnt from its *formal, functional,* and *semantic appeals* on the one hand and *socioculturalspiritual, contextual* and *aesthetic appeals* on the other hand in the context of its use and experience. For example, it is very much used in language for specific purposes learning. At the level of context, language is learnt from such levels as *formal, informal, and intimate* as well as *genre and register*. Since style is superimposed on the basic grid of form-function-meaning in the context of its use, both *style and context* are *implied* in the form-function-meaning grid. Consequently, in mixed type of learning, they are also implied. In holistic learning, at the linguistic level, form-function-meaning are I-I-Ied to create *linguistic holism*; whereas in *ka:rmik (cause-effect experiential) holism, form-function-meaning-style-context are unified as a whole in speech and used for realizing a goal or purpose and its results are experienced.* This kind of ka:rmik learning is the learning obtained in real life and so it should be the ultimate goal in teaching, learning, preparing educational materials and

administration. This is with reference to learning the language from *within* or *the lower level (level-below)* and this basic language learning taxonomy is captured in a network as follows.
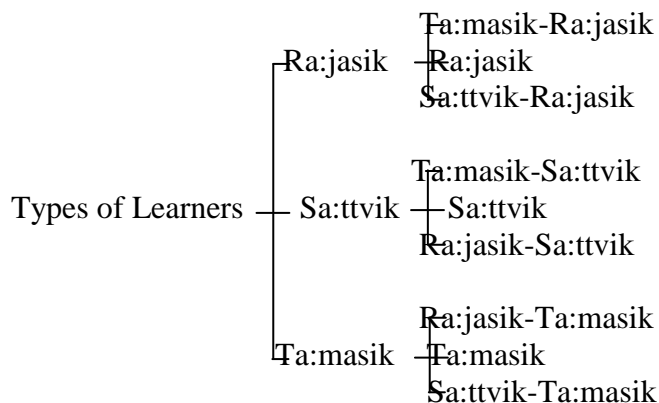
```
                                         Form-oriented       (F)
Disposition                              Function-oriented   (Fu)
                               Basic   ─ Meaning-oriented   (M)
     │                                   Style               (S)
     │                                   Context             (C)
     ▼                   ┌ Atomic    ─
Language Learning  ─                   └ Mixed
Type Choice                ┌ Linguistic: [(F + Fu +M)   ⇩  ⇧S + C)]
                   └ Holistic ─
                             └ Experiential: (Linguistic + Experience)
```

Network 1: Basic Language Learning Type Choice Network

Legend: ⇩ *superimposed on the following components;* ⇧ *superimposed on the preceding components;* ⇩ ⇧ *mutual superimposition (i.e., one component is superimposed on the other and vice versa)*

3. 2. Types of Learners

At the level-around (middle level), the character of the learner comes into play in learning the language. Applying disposition as the basis, three basic types of learners can be identified according to their personality: *1. Ta:masik (inert or form-oriented); 2. Ra:jasik (active or function-oriented); and 3. Sa:ttvik (luminous or whole-oriented).* However, these learners may

```
                           ┌ Ta:masik-Ra:jasik
              ┌ Ra:jasik  ─┤ Ra:jasik
              │            └ Sa:ttvik-Ra:jasik
              │
              │            ┌ Ta:masik-Sa:ttvik
Types of Learners ─ Sa:ttvik ─┤ Sa:ttvik
              │            └ Ra:jasik-Sa:ttvik
              │
              │            ┌ Ra:jasik-Ta:masik
              └ Ta:masik  ─┤ Ta:masik
                           └ Sa:ttvik-Ta:masik
```
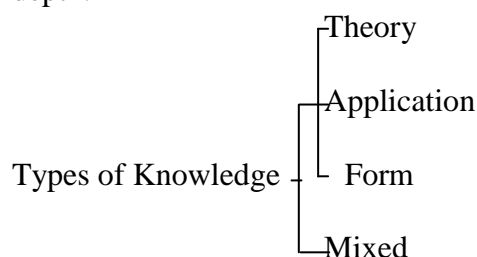
Network 2: Types of Learners

not be so neatly cut out and generally we get more mixed types of learners who share features from other types in addition to their own. As a result, we also get: *Ra:jasik-Ta:masik; Sa:ttvik-Ta:masik; Ta:masik-Ra:jasik; Sa:ttvik-Ra:jasik; Ta:masik-Sa:ttvik; and Ra:jasik-Sa:ttvik.* There is a systematic correspondence between the type of the learner and the learning-strategy. To elaborate further, ta:masik learners are more inclined towards form-oriented learning; ra:jasik learners towards action-oriented learning; and sa:ttvik-rajasik learners towards meaning-oriented learning; and finally the sa:ttvik learner towards *I-I-Ied experiential learning* by networking form-function-meaning-style-context in a critical path. This is with reference to learning the language from *within* or *the lower level (level-below).*
The network 2 given above captures the choice of LLS by various types of learners.

3. 3. Types of Knowledge (Learned Phenomena)

Just as there are three types of learners and learning, the learned phenomenon is also tristratal: 1. Theoretical (Conceptual); 2. Applied (Productive or Practical); 3. Formal (Descriptive) with an additional fourth one, which is Mixed. In knowledge which is theoretical, the content of

language deals with the theory of action: *why* (the Causality) an action takes place, its nature, and its principles and concepts. For example, in physics, theoretical physics deals with the nature of matter and its concepts, principles, and laws; in applied physics, in knowledge of physics which is applied, the content of language deals with its application: how (the process in terms of manner (how), where (place), and time (when); its procedures (how a theory is implemented). For example, applied (practical) physics deals with *how* these laws and principles can be applied in real life for our use; and 'formal' physics – even though it is not given as a separate branch - deals with *what* the form of matter is; and it is mainly descriptive in its content. The *theory* behind the working of a fan leads to the *application* of that theory in the innovation of a fan; the application leads to how the pattern and structure of the fan is constituted in terms of (*what) matter* and gives us the *formal* knowledge of the fan. Language is capable of expressing *the theory, the application, and description of objects, states of being, and action in their entire variety-range-depth in addition to expressing ideas.* The point is that *theoretical* content is different in its linguistic conceptualization, structure and pattern, and form from the *application* content as well as *formal* content but at the same time application implies theory and form implies both the application and the theory successively and I-I-Ily. In addition to these three basic types, we also have the fourth type which is *Mixed Knowledge*. In this type, the language contains *theory, practice, and formal description* not as isolated but as a mixture of more than one type of knowledge. This is more complex and varied in its variety, range and depth.

```
                          ┌Theory
                          │
                          ├Application
                          │
Types of Knowledge ─┤   └ Form
                          │
                          └─Mixed
```

Network 3: Types of Knowledge

3. 3. Theory of Action

Language learning is one type of lingual action that is derived from the Universal Science of Living in which desires are generated-specified-directed-materialized by *Svabha:vam* (disposition). *To learn a language* is one such desire that is impelled as a sub-desire to fulfil the major desire to use that language for *observation-interpretation-identification-representation-creation-initiation-communication-coordination-experience (OI^{3}C^{3}RE)* of action. As a result, efforts are made to *learn a language* through another sub-desire *to teach the language* and two minor desires to *teach and learn the language through strategies*. As an offshoot of these desires, the field of LLS is created and developed. In this ongoing process, KLLS emerges as one product among others. All these activities follow the simple foundational Principle of Action and the Principle of Choice of Action in the Ka:rmik Linguistic Theory as given in the following equations (1) – (3).

(1) Principle of Action:

    Disposition ➔ Desire (for Learning a Language) ➔ Effort (to Learn a Language) ➔ [Language Learning Strategy]➔ Learning Action ➔ Result ➔ Experience

(2) Principle of Choice of Action:

    Disposition ➔ Dispositional Bias (for LL) ➔ Response Bias (for LL) ➔ Choice (of LLS) ➔ Variation (in LLS) ➔ L. Action ➔ Result ➔ Experience

(3) Principle of Creation of Strategy:

    Disposition ➔ Desire (for the Goal) ➔ CEM ➔ Choice of PTT ➔

Critical Path Mapping ➔ **Plan of the Strategy** ➔ **Creation of the Strategy**

[L (Language); LL (language learning); LLS (LL Strategy); CEM (Contextual Exploration of Means); PTT (procedure-technique-tactic)]

3. 3. 1. Components of Action

Any activity consists of a set of actions ranging from a single act to many. A single act consists of a single action. An *action* consists of *participants* to perform the *action* by getting into a specific *relationship* with one another. Hence, *participants, action,* and *relation* (between the participants in forming the action) are the three *internal components* of action. An action is performed in *a context* by a specific *choice* of its internal components by the *Traits* component of Svabha:vam (Disposition). Hence, context and svabha:vam are the two *external components* of action. In addition, choice creates another component *style* by a specific choice of performing an action in a particular manner. In the case of lingual action, all these components can be grouped together under five categories: *Form, Function, Content, Style, and Context with their sub-categories. Form* gives rise to phonetics/phonology-lexis-syntax; *Function* gives rise to the five speech acts (assertives or representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations)); *Content* gives rise to subject, topic, etc., *Style* to its formal, functional, semantic, and contextual features, and *Context* to its [Inclinational-Informational-Habitual], Socioculturalspiritual, and Spatiotemporalmaterial features in which lingual action takes place (see Bhuvaneswar 2013 a, b, c, d).

 In the case of LLSs, the *action* is the *strategic planning*, i.e., planning how to perform the action of language learning which gives a *strategy* for LL; the *participant* is the *learner* in self-directed learning, or the *participants* in teacher-directed learning are the *teacher and the learner(s)* as well as the *administrators* – they are the *direct participants* and *indirect participants* respectively; and the relationship between the learner and the content (of learning) constitutes the *direct action* of learning and *how* (manner, time, and place) it is done constitutes the *indirect action*. This HOW to carry out the *learning action* is influenced by WHY (*cause*) to carry out the learning action - *learning action* is the WHAT and also the *goal*. Since our focus is on *how*, this how becomes the goal (WHAT) instead of the learning action and the cause (WHY) will be the *desire to learn the content in the best possible way* (HOW) for the learner, where the best possible way is decided by a dispositional, contextual and experiential process. Whether a learner likes it or not, he has to make conscious or unconscious choices about *how* to learn the language and hence he involves himself in strategic planning of learning. To ignore this obligatory planning and call *techniques* and *procedures* strategies is nothing short of violating a natural process in learning and making an unnatural and incorrect classification.

3. 3. 2. Taxonomy of Performance of Action by Planning

Once a desire to perform an action arises and a language learning action is chosen, the selected language learning action is performed through certain *tasks* in a particular *manner* by adopting a particular *strategy, sub-strategies, procedures, techniques, and tactics* according to the learner's disposition.

(4 a) *Desire* **to Perform an Action** ➔ *Choice* **of an Action** ➔ **Selected Action**
(4 b) Manner of Performing the Action:
Strategy➔ **Sub-Strategy**➔ **Procedure**➔ **Technique**➔ **Tactic**➔ **Task**

These terms are defined below to distinguish a strategy from a sub-strategy, a procedure, a technique and a tactic. After clarifying the concepts, Ka:rmik Language Learning Strategies are divided into a *General KLLSs* for preparing a syllabus content as well as teaching it and *Specific KLLSs* for use by learners for learning the syllabus content.

1. Plan, Procedure and Process

According to Wikipedia, "A **plan** is typically any diagram or list of steps with timing and resources, used to achieve an <u>objective</u> . . . It is commonly understood as a <u>temporal</u> <u>set</u> of intended actions through which one expects to achieve a <u>goal</u>....A very basic example of a plan: Perhaps you want to go see a movie at a specific time, that is the plan. The **procedure** (emphasis mine) to accomplish the plan would define the steps to be taken in order. First, you would look on a web site for listings of movies in your area, then you would decide which one looks good (if any). Then you would secure transportation thereto, optionally but almost certainly also inviting one or more acquaintances to join you. You may have to adjust your time to when the movie actually starts. A plan defines what you are going to do. A procedure defines how you are going to do it."

A plan implies a procedure: *what* (i.e., effect) you are going to do implies *how* (i.e., manner which involves a sequence of steps, place and time) you are going to do it; again, what you are going to do is caused by *why* you are going to do it. In other words, the *why* determines the *what* and *how* of what you want to do. In ka:rmik language teaching, the what and the how are both causally determined and derived from the seed of dispositional experientiality.

A process is the material execution of an action. A plan and procedure determine how the process takes place.

2. Strategy

Language learning is an action of *learning* the system of language that has five levels of form-function-content-style-context in an I-I-I network and each level has its own sub-levels. Learning the system involves *analysis (knowledge), memory, and practice* of the five levels *individually (i.e., each level separately), collectively (i.e., all the five levels together in a parallel process)* and *as a whole in a single process (i.e., all the five levels in an I-I-I network as a single unit in usage)*. Since these levels and processes are amenable for modulation according to the likes and dislikes of the learner, learning can be achieved in a particular way *(manner)* by making *choices* in these five levels and the three *processes* of analyzing, memorization, and practicing through different combinations and selection of different *techniques, tactics* and *tasks*. For example, learning the system can be carried out by memorizing the form (one angle) instead of analyzing the content (another angle) or giving more emphasis to one level (e.g., function) than the other (e.g., meaning) or choosing one technique (e.g., translation) or tactic (e.g., repetition) or task (e.g., reading) than the other. In a similar way, different *plans* can be visualized in learning a language for different *purposes* through different *procedures* by making dispositional choices in the selection, gradation, and arrangement of the various levels of language and learning them through different means and ways. Thus, there is an inherent scope for learning a language in a variety of ways through different choices and combinations with different *goals* through different *means* for different *causes*.

The abilities and limitations of the learners corresponding with the type of knowledge that is to be acquired demand different plans, procedures, techniques, and tactics to acquire the knowledge. For example, a learner with weak memory but with critical analytical abilities requires one type of a plan, procedure, techniques and tasks to acquire the same knowledge than another learner with weak analytical abilities but with good memory. The former can be taught more successfully by putting more emphasis on analysis and practice – thus naturally reinforcing his memory more in that process – than by putting more emphasis on rote-memorization at which he is weak. In other words, the proverb *Different horses for different*

courses created with reference to courses should be modified with reference to horses as *Different courses for different horses* to suit the learner-centred approach.

By taking into consideration the abilities of the learners and the nature of the linguistic content, our perception of learning as a process of acquiring the knowledge of the linguistic system by using memory, cognition, compensation, and social interaction changes to a dispositional sociolinguistic cognition of the linguistic content through traits, knowledge, and va:sana:s (internalized habits) of the learner's disposition (personality). In such a new perception, knowledge of the linguistic system is not imparted in a monolithic structure for all types of learners, but it is imparted and acquired through 'different plans' by using the same tools of memorization, analysis and practice (which are variously described as direct and indirect strategies in Oxford (1990). Thus, a new level of organization is introduced in KLTA. This is the level of strategy. In that sense, strategies are the different courses to reach the destination of learning the system of language for different learners: *Different strategies for different learners.*
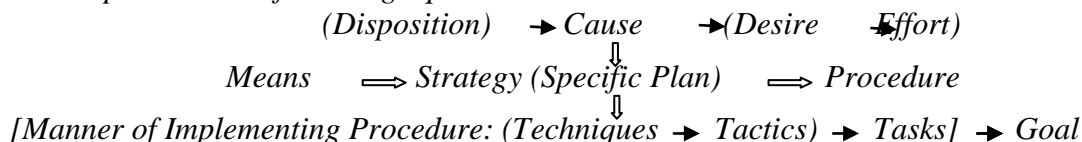
Let us illustrate this concept with examples. For example, you want to be an interpreter, a journalist, etc., or you want to master EST vocabulary of your subject, say, engineering or medicine or law – these are your *goals* or *aims*. To attain your goal, you want to learn two languages to *interpret for two different language speaking politicians*; you want to learn to *write an editorial for a newspaper* or *a weekly*; you want to learn the *vocabulary of pathology or architecture or criminal law* – these are your *objectives*. To fulfil your objective, you want to *understand the style of discussion of your politician* or the *ideological views and logic of argument* on the topic of *Indo-Pakistan wars* or the *specific vocabulary of diseases and their symptoms* – these are your *plans*. Let us take the plan of learning a language for the specific purpose (goal) of bilingual translation. One cause may be to facilitate communication of ideas between two politicians who do not understand each other's language. It is achieved through the means of bilingual knowledge, memory of bilingual equivalents, and practice of automaticity in bilingual translation and trait formation for such activity to achieve the specific goal of translating discussions of politicians; bilingual knowledge of economic terms and their bilingual equivalents and practice of automaticity and trait formation for such activity to achieve the *objective of translating discussions on economic cooperation*. In addition, it can be achieved by giving more importance either to memorization or analysis or practice and thus planning the learning activity through certain procedures, techniques, and tactics. One kind of such a *plan* gives rise to one type of a language learning *strategy*: a plan defines what you are going to do with a procedure and a procedure defines how you are going to do it (what), while a strategy defines how you are going to do it with a *specific* procedure. In other words, a change in strategy implies a change in procedure also. That strategy is the *optimal strategy* which makes you reach the goal in the shortest time possible with the least effort and cost and maximum enjoyment.

From that perspective, a strategy can be defined in an elaborate way as follows:

A (Ka:rmik) Language Learning Strategy ((K)LLS) is defined as *a dispositionally conceived whole* plan - *with a specific set of* procedures, *implemented through specific* means *(of dispositional modulation, knowledge acquisition, and va:sana (internalized habit) formation))* *in a specific manner - from a specific* cause *(of a process of LSRW)* to achieve a specific effect/goal(s) *(of learning LSRW skills).*

It is the whole plan with implied parts and is conceived through a dispositional choice of procedures from the Universal Sciences of [Action-Living-Lingual Action]. It is dispositional, contextual, and experiential.

It is captured in the following equation:

$$(Disposition) \rightarrow Cause \rightarrow (Desire \rightarrow Effort)$$
$$Means \Rightarrow Strategy\ (Specific\ Plan) \Rightarrow Procedure$$
[Manner of Implementing Procedure: (Techniques → Tactics) → Tasks] → Goal

2. Sub-Strategy

A sub-strategy is a specific sub-plan (or fragmentary plan) that serves to implement the strategy in a systematic manner. Sub-strategies are *interchangeable* and can be replaced by other sub-strategies to implement a strategy for achieving a specific goal. Just as a strategy has a specific set of procedures, sub-strategies also have their own specific sub-procedures to be followed to realize the sub-strategy. Sub-strategies are integral parts of the (whole) strategy like the spokes in a wheel.

3. Technique

A technique implements any procedure in a strategy or a sub-strategy. It is a kind of a trick or contrivance that facilitates the execution of a procedure. Oxford's strategies are more or less techniques.

4. Task

A task is an act that is performed with a technique and a tactic to implement a procedure.

IV. Conclusion

It has been shown in the Introduction and Literature Review how the term *strategy* is understood as *action or operation* by the ELT practitioners which is different from its general sense as a *plan.* It has been further shown why such a view is defective from a ka:rmik linguistic perspective. In addition, it has been also shown that the two linguistic models – functional linguistic model giving rise to the Communicative Language Teaching Approach which is followed by Oxford (1990) and the Cognitive Linguistic model followed by Chamois are atomic but not holistic in their approach and so not comprehensive. Consequently, the term *strategy* has been re-examined and redefined as a *specific plan* and three basic strategies (and 6 mixed strategies) have been proposed from the perspective of the learners in the ka:rmik linguistic paradigm. It is hoped that this new understanding will serve as a spring board for further research and development in language strategy studies.

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