Understanding students’ strategies underlying knowledge cultivation in oral language teaching

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ABSTRACT

Appropriate strategies are believed to help students reduce difficulties, facilitate learning, and achieve expected learning outcomes in second language acquisition. Without adequate strategies, students are less likely to learn effectively. This paper investigates the students’ strategies commonly used to cultivate their knowledge in the learning process in both explicit and implicit manners. A review of the literature indicates that six types of strategies, namely memory strategies, metacognitive, compensatory strategies, affective strategies, social strategies, and cognitive strategies, which are commonly used in language learning, can improve students’ acquisition of academic knowledge and skills (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987; Stern, 1992; Vann & Abraham, 1990). In oral language teaching, one of the best contributions teachers can make is to develop students’ learning skills and strategies as well as help raise students’ awareness of their learning values and progress. The research findings can state some pedagogical implications for the improvement of students’ learning strategy use, language acquisition, and lifelong learning skills.

1. Introduction

The classroom is never a safe place to relax. In reality, the classroom looks like a cultivate problem-solving environment where students are likely to confront new input (comprehensible and incomprehensible) and difficulties cultivating knowledge in one or another ways. Language students must try to find the quickest and easiest way to deal with issues such as language barriers, anxiety, stress, etc., and using appropriate language learning strategies is essential (Hismanoglu, 2000). In line with this viewpoint, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) state that each good student possesses the best strategies in their learning to overcome difficulties in learning. In the same vein, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006, p. 399) pointed out that “All students, regardless of success or less success with language learning, consciously or unconsciously employ a variety of learning strategies to engage in more purposeful language learning”. Once more, different types of learners with different strategies will lead the learners to different degrees of L2 competence and performance (Cummins, 1979). Therefore, Muniandy and Munir (2016) argued that “successful learning is determined by the utilization of suitable learning styles and strategies” (p. 2). Obviously, each student, going along with the above perspectives, brings a unique learning strategy into the classroom, which is a reason why one strategy is appropriate for this student but not for that one. Even good or less good students need
to be encouraged to foster their own ideal strategy to facilitate their learning process. As each strategy offers particular advantages or disadvantages, strengths or weaknesses, the right choices for using learning strategies will make learners learn easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations and vice versa (Oxford, 1990).

It is easy to observe and recognize that in any classroom, both students and teachers are involving and selecting strategies to well fit to the lessons. A double burning question raised for dual adequate answers is that “What makes a good lesson? And what makes an exceptional student?”. A variety of answers and responses given that the former question is, a good lesson comes from two pedagogical aspects (1) from a good teacher, who knows and determines each of the student’s strengths and weaknesses and encourages them to employ good strategies as they can, and (2) from good strategies used flexibly by students to engage in that lesson to highlight their learning and improve knowledge. Personally, a good lesson will drive the classroom students to good knowledge; only good lessons just can embed challenges into the tasks that force students to use their own strategies to harvest their own knowledge from such a lesson. “Helping students understand good language learning strategies and training them to develop and use such good language learning strategies can be considered to be the appreciated characteristics of a good language teacher” (Lessard-Clouston, 1997, p. 3).

Because of the importance role of learning strategies, this paper aims to review the literature to find out the students’ common language learning strategies and teachers’ responsibilities in oral language teaching for the improvement of students’ learning strategy use, language acquisition and lifelong learning skills.

2. A brief overview of learners’ strategies for knowledge cultivation in second language learning

Students’ strategies are much known as a series of specific procedures that students use for individual learning tasks raised within the classroom. More practically, strategies in learning, which are being employed by individual students to effectively face particular problems in particular contexts, are able to inspire students to become more confident, successful, lifelong learners by actively improving their ability to control their own learning. Oxford and Ehrman (1995) shortly described second language learning strategies as specific actions, behaviors, steps, techniques, methods of approaching, etc., used by the students to drive their own learning to be logical, enhanced, and successful.

In the learning process, students can sometimes identify difficulties and challenges and select problem-solving strategies to address the difficulties to enhance the tasks and gain the language input of the tasks (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999). Learning strategies the students use are closely attached to the “language being learned” and “problems needed to solve” that students have to deal with in the classroom. In the teaching process, these problems are sometimes found in the tasks, even found in students’ internal knowledge (e.g., the problems may be found in today’s lessons, completion of yesterday’s tasks, assessments, classroom activities, and others). The former (language being learned) will help the students get goals driven in their learning process, and the latter (the problems needed to solve) is going to help students transform difficulties into a success based on the development of their own knowledge (productive or receptive) skills. All ensures the cultivation of students with pedagogical aspirations throughout classroom activities. For the sake of learning and knowledge, which students try their best to seek at all costs, it is both explicit and implicit.
Explicitly of learning makes students aware of when the problems occur from what they are learning and how to handle them before it flows to the student’s own knowledge (secondary memory); this means that transition will take place from what is learned (consciously) to what is acquired (subconsciously) sequentially. For example, through real-life observations, the authors have seen that the twelfth senior multinational Vietnamese students (Viet-Kinh, Mien-Khmer, Chinese, and H’mong-Miao) involved in the speaking skill, they were aware that it was so hard for them to make communicative language ability perfect both competence and performance, they tried learning by imitating, practicing to fill up the missing memorization and to make applications significant and meaningful, like presenting sounds in memory or taking notes, etc. Therefore, they were carefully processing the English language for oral communications based on their own learning strategies that they gradually accumulated within their learning process (e.g., being self-regulated, being interactive, and being self-directed, planning, arranging to learn in speaking, and others). These students used learning strategies they thought were the best to make greater efforts to improve their understanding of their weaknesses and persist in their learning until reaching success and facilitated interpersonal communicative skills.

In contrast, implicit language learning, which is fostered by selecting appropriate strategies, enables students to accumulate and harvest implicit knowledge naturally. Learning implicitly may nurture the quality of learning with less use of strategies because all of what is learned has been automatic, they are easy to recognize the problems or hazards they are encountering. All problems are oriented immediately by using specific strategies to take actions cognitively. For students with implicit learning inside them, this type of learning always facilitates students to be active and metacognitive in the use of strategies to cope with the problems or tasks raised due to secondary memory of generalized information that they have from the lectures, lessons that are not still turned into tertiary memory. According to Stevick (1980), a specific concept is that knowledge from learning and acquiring language will never be perfect if there are no adequate learning strategies used to activate them. Also, he further said that how language is learned and how language is used underlies implicit or explicit, conscious or unconscious knowledge.

Closely linked to Krashen’s (1982), required and learned in the theory of pedagogical rules, explicit and implicit learning is chronologically interacted by more and more practicing learned until reaching subconsciousness. For instance, Vietnamese students initially feedback teacher’s asking “How are you?” in subconscious response is “I am fine, thank you, and you?” in the first words for classroom entry and they practise this sentence from consciousness to subconsciousness and they are very successful in daily responses between teacher and students as entry to classroom and habitual routines when beginning of the daily conversation as greetings before a new lesson started. The best way for them to practice it is that memory strategies are a good example in this case. These students have consciousness raised to develop the creation of mental linkages like replacing new words into a context or new sentences like “How are you?”, “I am fine; How have you been? I am good, I am well, etc.”. It is true to confirm that practicing (sometimes called rehearsal strategies) is the best way to turn explicit into implicit, to transfer from conscious into the unconscious, and from controlled into automatic learning. According to Harmer (2008), “frequent practicing is the trademark for effective learning” (p. 7).

In reality, as soon as students go to the classroom, they will surely bring different strategies into the classroom in order to solve task problems in the lesson and cultivate their knowledge. Of course, this is because “different” knowledge leads students to use appropriate strategies to harvest explicit or implicit knowledge embedded into their lessons, coursebooks, or
teacher’s lecturing. Faerch and Kasper (1983) pointed out that students will have two types of second language knowledge. When they attend the classroom, such knowledge, which students possess through the tasks, lessons will reflect what the students learned, how the students learned, and how the language system is processed. According to Tomlinson (2011), “Language learning can be of declarative and procedural knowledge” (p. 4).

The declarative knowledge, which the students used, varies strategies to scaffold them seeking, at least, explicit knowledge in learning and neatly underlining language systems and chunks of the language of a second language. This type of knowledge implies “knowing” rules and “fostering” memory of information about language to promote the competence and performance of communication with appropriate strategies involved. Memory strategies and compensation strategies are good examples in this case. Richard and Lockhart (1994) described that “memory strategies enable students to store and retrieve information while compensation strategies allow the students to communicate despite deficiencies of their language knowledge” (pp. 63-64). Obviously, when students are involved in difficulties or tasks, they are going to confront problems raised within the lessons, and lectures like tasks-based reading or (public) speaking. As a result, they will surely have more fruitful insights into selections of strategies to acquire the real functioning of language. Also, they will maximize the creation of mental linkages (for example, using body language to express the concepts, linking old knowledge to new knowledge to establish concrete input, and replacing words-synonym to overcome limitations to make knowledge perfect). As Canale and Swain (1980, p. 78) to be of the statement, “competence of strategies refers to the learners’ use of strategies during the course of communication to bridge the gap in their linguistic knowledge”. Furthermore, Wenden and Rubin (1987) described the “strategies that the students used in learning L2 to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information to serve learning effectively” (p. 19).

How language, which is, on the other hand, used and learned in or beyond the classroom, is closely allied with procedural knowledge of a second language. In this phase, students’ strategies are procedurally employed to process the second language data for acquisition and for use. For example, to succeed in second language input and output, the students by no means need to overcome all of the series of problems or tasks in lessons, and lectures, and the best ways to solve these problems is to require the students to obtain the strategic awareness and employ these strategies effectively according to their capacity and understanding of values of each of strategy and core of problems being going to handle. Brown (2000) states that “the conscious implication of appropriate strategies will enhance students’ cognition at the right level” (p. 122).

Anderson (1985) indicated that procedural knowledge underlies a student’s ability to apply explicit or implicit knowledge of rules to solve the problems of the tasks or to understand the language (input i+1). To support this point of view, the experienced pedagogist, Ellis (1997) reminded us that “procedural knowledge can be social and cognitive components” (p. 165). That is true because the social component comprises the behavioral strategies individually used in classroom involving the classroom activities like interactions, and exploring the lesson content through task-based-language learning, the students use their own strategies to manage the interactional opportunities (e.g., group work, pairs work or cooperative learning, face to face contact to promote from passive learning to active learning).

In the language classroom, the students learn language to be able to use this language for their own targets. There is an intrinsic relationship between the language taught at school and their strategies and social settings or social interactions. For example, the students can find fewer
difficulties in use of real data to express or communicate with other people if appropriate strategies enhance the meaningful communication. They use contextual cues to help them perform better in comprehension. Specially, strategies used by students will reveal “social status” and “prestige” of the agents in contexts (language settings), the agents and settings will help students adjust their strategies adequately and wisely to meditate on communicative tasks in their learning (e.g., in the classroom context: the term “teacher” represents “where is the agent with his/her social standing like being lower, or higher in the social status”, the “teacher” will be formal in contrast to being informal if the agents are “students”). In this case, “Good language learners must know to use linguistic knowledge of L1, L2 in learning a second language to make an intelligent guess as optimal strategies to help them perform beyond their competence to fill in gaps in their own competence” (Rubin & Stern, 1975, as cited in Brown, 2000).

The cognitive component mentioned earlier acts internally and automatically to build up the new knowledge of a second language and use L2 knowledge to facilitate L2 input. Input can hardly occur smoothly in the “black box” without using appropriate strategies. Students’ strategies seem not to be special, but if being treated as catalysts, they will promote and activate input. (e.g., transforming learning into acquiring, from explicit learning through implicit learning and internalizing knowledge to automatizing knowledge). Krashen and Terrell (1983) proposed the input hypothesis is that “the learners understand input (comprehensible input) so that they will automatically be at right level even beyond their level if they maximize the great efforts and to get closer to consciousness in learning and using second language” (p. 262).

In the process of learning, the students must face, a variety of problems and tasks raised during the lessons or lectures, and these problems and tasks must be resolved by their knowledge and different skills and strategies. Using only one strategy cannot be enough to make language students become exceptional, outstanding ones, and effective use of learning strategies to lead them to achieve higher proficiency in learning is always encouraged, even by themselves and by their teachers. Research and theories in second language acquisition strongly suggest that good language learners should use a variety of strategies to assist them in gaining command over new language skills (O’Malley, Chamot, Kupper, & Sabol, 1987). According to Tiing et al. (2021), strategic learners are those who can select learning ways that best match task needs and their personal learning preferences to aid their learning.

There is no doubt, more or less, that strategies significantly contribute to students’ success in L2 learning and sharpen implicit learning and then implicit knowledge. Vann’s and Abraham’s (1990), Oxford’s (1990); Rubin’s (1987); O’Malley’s and Chamot’s (1990); Stern’s (1992) research into the nature of strategies in learning generalized six types of strategies that the students most used in their learning process to harvest the learning outcomes as briefly follow-up descriptions:

**Memory strategies:** These strategies, which help students store and retrieve information to serve learning learned previously. For example, to begin a new lesson, habitually and customarily, Vietnamese students always stir up something inside their heads by reviewing the old structures (old knowledge before absorbing new knowledge). Oxford (1990) described that “Learners usually get great benefits from memory-related strategies to help learners memorize vocabulary and structure in the early stages of language learning”. Richards (1990) stated that “creating mental linkages is important in memory strategies” (p. 64).

**Cognitive strategies:** Students use cognitive strategies to facilitate and maximize the acquisition of certain knowledge or to employ the independent potential techniques, and to help
solve specific problems or tasks which they confront during the language learning process (Derry & Murphy, 1986; Rubin 1987). According to Brown (2000), “input and output play an important role in learning for any students who are engaging into the lessons, lectures. Input is simply the process of comprehending language (listening and reading), and output is the production of system of language (speaking and writing)” (p. 255). Cognitive strategies allow the classroom students to comprehensively understand and produce new structured language (e.g., target language that is closely attached to intentional and incidental learning). Cognitive strategies consist of making predictions, translating, summarizing, and closely linking with prior knowledge or experience, applying language systems, and guessing meaning from contexts (Zhang & Guo, 2020). Classroom activities are found in the cognitive strategies listed in follow-up actions like repetition, receiving, sending messages, creating a structure for input and output, analyzing and reasoning (e.g., imitating a model of language, overt practice, silent rehearsal, note-taking, and so on). Therefore, knowing about cognitive strategies is not enough; students have to do more regularly practice to improve their own learning significantly.

Compensatory strategies: Like other groups of non-native speakers, Vietnamese students learn English as a foreign language. Of course, they also face missing knowledge, which means that limitations in communicative competence and performance are hindering them. So, they need to overcome these gaps by using different edutechs like circumlocution (exemplifying the target object of action) or synonym or guessing intelligently (e.g., using monolingual clues to guess the meaning as known linguistic signals: gesture, facial expression, mine etc.); literal translation from their first language into second language (translating an L1/L3 from; foreignizing (using a L1 word, called non-L2 form, by adjusting it to L2 phonology or morphology, appeared like L2 form); code-switching (oralling L1 or L3 with its pronunciation into L2 embedded within a stream of speech in L2); (direct or indirect); appeal for helps the students overtly or covertly request or do not request assistance (e.g., When students stuck a particular word or phrase to express, the best way for them to choose to smooth speech at this time is that overtly requested assistance used like “what’ this? or this means etc.” in a paradigm of direct appeal while body signals are used like pause, eye gaze, puzzled expression, raising intonation in a paradigm of indirect appeal). These strategies are commonly used by language students to perfect imperfect knowledge or missing knowledge. Oxford (2003) strongly believed that “compensatory strategies that help the language learners to make up for missing knowledge” (p. 13).

Metacognitive strategies, which are much known to enhance language input. In Anderson’s theory (1983, 1985), metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, knowing about learning, and controlling learning through planning, monitoring, self-regulating, and evaluating. In conception, metacognitive strategies, which are abstract but visible by not eyes but feel, are able to be strongly believed to help students center their learning by linking new information with already known coursebooks or materials used in the classroom, enabling students to arrange, plan, measure and to evaluate their learning outcomes, Richard and Lockhart (1994, pp. 63-64) listed metacognitive strategies into academic category of seven sub-metacognitive strategies in details that learners can be and bring them into the classroom “Learners can be of (1) self-regulation, (2) time management, (3) self-monitoring, (4) goal setting or objecting gaining, (5) concentration, (6) self-awareness, (7) self-evaluation” Halim, Ariffin, and Darus (2021) described that category of seven sub-metacognitive, which can backbone to activate and subordinate student’s learning positively. Metacognitive strategies raise student’s awareness in managing the overall learning process. Vann and Abraham (1990) studied about metacognitive strategies of second language learners on a variety of classroom tasks and found that unsuccessful students still had appropriate strategies but they failed in their ability to
choose the best ones for applying to solve these tasks, they were not successful in self-regulatory skills. Their decisive choice was, therefore, misleading them to failures in task completion. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) stated that “students without metacognitive approaches are ones without opportunities to monitor their progress and to review their accomplishments, and future learning directions” (p. 8).

**Affective strategies:** Affective strategies involve students’ socio-psycho linguistics. These strategies are so important to cool the student’s mood or state. According to Weinstein and Mayer (1983), students will be relaxed and alert, they are easy to overcome anxiety. Affective strategies stop to prevent thoughts poor performance and fears of failure in learning. For example, using music or laughter, non-verbal language to lower students’ anxiety while they are engaging the tasks and let them feel safe, secured with their learning, eliminating inhibition. Strategies are co-operative learning, which involve peer interaction to achieve common goals in learning (Slavin, 1980). As usual, classroom teachers ask their students to work in groups or pairs to help each other among them, to encourage themselves in many ways, e.g., sharing success, rewarding, intrinsically motivating themselves. “Affective strategies involve either social interaction or control over learning, relax, free student’s anxiety” (O’Malley, Chamot, & Walker, 1987; Weinstein & Mayer, 1983). Students, who get affective strategies embedded within learning, will help them control over their emotion, attitude, motivation, value, and lifelong success (Richard & Lockhart, 1994, p. 64).

**Social strategies,** according to Richard (as cited in Slavin, 1980), are of asking questions for clarification or verification. Furthermore, said he that students will be more easily successful if they interact with other people. Students make great efforts to cooperate with their proficient peers, mates of new language. For example, in some remote regions like Tra Vinh, or Kien Giang, Soc Trang Province, Viet-Kinh students learn Khmer language as an additive language in bilingual education program. The best ways for them to choose are approaching, cooperating with the Khmer or Mien students (as the native speakers) to facilitate their language learning. Additionally, social strategies get students together and work better. The old saying that “two heads are always better than one”. The optimum learning benefits the students harvest are empathy, empathizing with others will promote to develop cultural understanding. As Elmi (2020) carefully described as follows: “Social or Emotional Learning (SEL) strategies develop skills linked to cognitive development, encourage students focus and motivation, improve relationships between students and teachers, and increase students confidence and success. More attention should be paid to students’ emotions in higher education to enhance students’ engagement in the classroom and improve social awareness” (p. 848).

### 3. The roles and responsibilities of language teachers in oral language teaching

It is significant to realize teachers’ important roles in establishing appropriate teaching methods that are well matched with their students’ learning strategies on the basis of the different social and cultural backgrounds (e.g., multinational groups like Viet-Kinh and Mien-Khmer). As a part of teaching activities, teachers can maximize the good rapport between teachers and students so that both get mutual understanding (Santos, 2020). In the process of teaching and learning, a couple of burning statements is that “how to be a good teacher and how to be a good learner” must be equally reciprocal. Teachers’ methods can affect their students’ learning, and students can be encouraged by their teachers to employ learning strategies effectively.

Oral language teaching refers to the instruction and development of a person’s ability to communicate effectively using spoken language. It involves activities and strategies designed to improve a person’s listening, speaking, and conversational skills. It typically includes activities
like discussions, role-playing, storytelling, and other interactive exercises that encourage learners to actively engage in using and understanding spoken language. The goal of oral language teaching is to enhance a person’s ability to express ideas, thoughts, and emotions verbally, as well as to comprehend and interpret spoken language in different contexts. Furthermore, teachers will be doing their best so that students are able to use language later and to promote their students’ success (Harmer, 2008).

Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) stated several teacher responsibilities in oral language teaching. In terms of their responsibilities, teachers need to go through five steps including preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion as follows.

1. Preparation: Teachers need to activate students’ background knowledge of language learning strategies and help them understand the importance of using these strategies to enhance their language learning process.

2. Presentation: Teachers should provide explicit instruction on how to use different language learning strategies effectively. This can include modeling and demonstrating the use of strategies in the classroom.

3. Practice: Teachers should create a positive and supportive classroom environment where learners feel comfortable and motivated to use language learning strategies. This can involve providing constructive feedback and encouragement to learners as they apply the strategies.

4. Evaluation: Teachers should guide and monitor learners’ use of language learning strategies, offering guidance and support when needed. They should also provide opportunities for learners to reflect on and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies they are using.

5. Expansion: Teachers should encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning and become autonomous language learners. This can involve facilitating self-reflection and goal setting, as well as helping learners develop strategies for independent language learning.

These steps can be briefly summarized in the following figure.

![Figure 1. Teachers’ and students’ responsibilities in oral language teaching and learning](image)

Source: Chamot and El-Dinary (1999, p. 46)
Thanks to the administration of responsibilities stated by Chamot and El-Dinary (1999), teachers are believed to be able to foster their students’ use of learning strategies in oral language teaching. However, understanding people’s emotions is also an essential factor for educators to help students develop their full potential as lifelong learners (Tiing et al., 2021). The choice of strategies would vary depending on students and on instructional goals. Teachers’ responsibility is to do what they think is the best for their students to help them overcome obstacles and soon become more successful language learners (Chamot, 2004). Strategies which students are using in the classroom are extremely available for teachers, teachers can gather full valuable academic data to evaluate exactly their students’ strengths and weaknesses. So, teachers should always employ the appropriate teaching ways to promote student’s learning strategies based on their wants, desires, needs and expectations. Without full evaluations of students’ styles or preferences, teachers will not promote their student’s success. An important aspect of teaching is that classroom teachers help their students create effective strategies and control them to an end to debilitate, discourage ineffective ones (Richard & Lockhart, 1994). Oxford (1990) briefly said that an important aspect of teaching is to promote learners’ awareness so that they can choose the right strategies to maximize quality of effective learning and minimize the use of ineffective strategies that can let their learning down.

4. Pedagogical implications

The implementation of strategies may have significant implications for the ways in which teaching and learning practices in the classroom are comprehensively understood. Theory cannot stand on the water, there is a close gap between theory and practice, it needs to be proven with the real-life scenario. Harmer (2008) described that “the experienced teachers should have an eligible assessment for their student’s learning capacity. Furthermore, they care more about their students’ learning than they do about their students’ own learning” (p. 3). In fact, learning strategies emphasize meaningful strategic approaches on the part of the students. In pedagogical context, classrooms offer possibilities to maximize the options for all students as well as responsibilities for teachers to motivate their students in learning. According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Ellis (1997) there are many individual ways of learning a language successfully and one of them is from varied, flexible, and appropriate learning strategies best done by students. The effectiveness and perfectness of using learning strategies to achieve second language learning underlies between classroom teachers’ teaching experiences, and students’ personality and character (Helal, 2016, p. 152).

One of the greatest contributions teachers can make to lifelong and life wide learning is to develop language learning strategies alongside with teacher’s roles. Therefore, teachers should place student’s interests and personalizing learning at the heart of teaching process through the roles that teachers are acting in the classroom, like teachers as organizers, observers, prompters, tutors, performers, learner trainers, coordinators etc. Teachers need to take systematic approaches to develop their students’ skills and provide structured supports to lift up students’ learning desires and outcomes, too. For example, teachers can help students fulfill their varied learning opportunities or connect to others to facilitate their learning progress. Teachers help their students understand their own learning processes and meta-cognitive knowledge (Belmont, Butterfield, & Ferretti, 1982). In the modern educational environment, teachers are always required to well prepare some fresh ideas derived from teaching methodologies to refresh and renew the classroom routines and make remarkable improvements in students’ learning quality, the model of the cooperative learning or ESA toolkit-fit withdrawn from its specific strategy is a good example to cope up with the challenges in learning in this case. However, such implications
may depend on the classroom size and student’s level and teacher’s experience and, of course, classroom atmosphere and textbook curriculum and types of classroom activities etc. Here is a good premise so that teachers can choose appropriate and effective ways of teaching to apply and fit into the classroom. Also, whether employing strategies effectively or not is on the basis of both of the teacher’s experience, teaching context and the students’ need and awareness. Teachers can help them select the most appropriate strategies for a given task and students need to learn how to use strategies that they find effective for the kinds of tasks they need to accomplish in the L2 (Chamot, 2004, p. 7). Therefore, within the short-term education training every summertime for new school year preparation, teachers are trained to renew the teaching methodology and are always recommended and recalled, weighing pros and cons carefully because of being terribly over-used for one certain period of lesson. As teachers, there is no doubt that the best strategy with the best support from experienced or less experienced teachers must maximize the best lesson with the best quality of teaching and make students perfect.

To reach success, students are encouraged to be active in learning by using various strategies to highlight their learning process, nurture motivations, and boost learning outcomes in some way or another. For example, as Žindžiuvienè’s (2019) description, when students learn activities of skills such as listening, reading, speaking, writing, vocabulary training, grammar and pronunciation, intonation, or stress, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies can be optimal choice for integrating into knowledge picking up. Further, he strongly believed that these two types of strategies could help students form better learning habits for life-long learning and to become socially competent, culturally aware emotionally intelligent, and raising self-confidence. Also, to become exceptional students, qualified ones, requires students to stay motivated even within and beyond their time. The use of appropriate strategies can be prior to help students overcome challenges boost students’ own progress and maintain language input. According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), “the main purpose of using language learning strategies enables to help students fully comprehend the tasks” and “appropriate strategies make learning easier, faster, more effective more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). In the same vein, learning strategies are tied to the learner’s learning styles and personal characteristics of the learner, e.g., anxiety, fear, and inhibition (Brown, 2000).

As briefly mentioned above, such implications will help teachers motivate their students, support students’ well-being, and achieve sustainable, long-term results in their teaching and student’s learning. More importantly, students will be more self-regulated and self-aware of fostering their personalizing learning (specific interests, needs, wants, desires, capacity, etc.) and energizing learning activities in the class regularly thanks to using their own strategies. As Harmer (2008) described, “Why is one strategy appropriate for student A but not for student B, self-answered: Because each student brings a unique strategy into the classroom and own different thought before involving the tasks” (p. 7).

5. Conclusion

Briefly, students’ strategies contribute to direct and indirectly academic success as well as partly great impact on students’ personalities and critical thinking, and capacity for problem-solving in learning processes. Students’ abilities will be monitored in pursuit of their learning goals and learning outcomes. Strategies that are used by classroom students are the fundamental steps to establish explicit and implicit learning and knowledge. However, strategies do not come easily. They need to be nurtured throughout students’ fostering learning life, difficulties,
problems which students encounter and across different subjects that students are engaging in. Students surely learn better and faster if they actively identify the problems or tasks raised within the lessons or lectures, and then they determine choosing appropriate strategies as ideal approaches to meditate burning problems cooler and easier. Employing strategies in student’s own learning involves how students cognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally promote their own academic achievements as well as improve their understanding and persisting in their learning. In learning, students will be less successful if they are integrating themselves into the lessons, or lectures without (flexible or mono) strategies. The series of strategies, like memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies, social strategies, and cognitive strategies, are fundamental to the notion of lifelong learning and will guide students to set learning goals, to monitor their own implicit and explicit linguistic competence and performance and to enrich their own knowledge. Consequently, as cited in Harmer (2008), “Teacher’s job not only provides learning but is also to expose students to language so that they can use it later with appropriate strategies” (p. 52). Beyond this line, teachers personally can benefit from an understanding of what makes students successful and unsuccessful in establishing personally can benefit from understanding what makes students successful and unsuccessful in establishing adequate strategies for each student. Most importantly, one of the greatest significant contributions that classroom teachers and instructors can make for their students now is to make lifelong learning meaningful and significant, to look at the best ways to encourage them to self-regulate, to perceive themselves to be effective, and to support them in developing the learning strategies necessary for identifying learning needs in pedagogical context. The suggestion of O’Malley, Chamot, Kupper, et al. (1987) is that “teachers should be confident that there exist a number of strategies which can be embedded into their existing curricula, that can be taught to students with only modest extra effort, and that can improve the overall class competence and performance” (p. 143).

In the final words, theoretically, successful language learners are more flexible and appropriate in their use of learning strategies (Ellis, 1997). No more doubts: the more students understand and mobilize flexible strategies, the more successful they will surely be. Strategies are the “trademark” for successful students in the new trend of today’s integrative education.

References


