

COMMUNICATING AND LEARNING STRATEGIES: TWO FACES OF THE SAME COIN

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Abstract: Strategies in L2 learning and use are usually treated as strategies to facilitate either communication or learning. As a result, they are presented in a linear fashion that does not demonstrate their interdependence and their interaction in the act of communication by L2 language learners/users. In this paper, I will explore how communicating and learning strategies interact and interrelate making each communicating task a learning task, too, and vice versa. The research reported here is based on EFL oral interaction corpora, namely, EFL task interactions and EFL classroom discourse.¹

1. Setting the scene: Some theoretical considerations in L1 learning

In this section of the paper I will briefly refer to the ‘knowledge and experience’ – acquired via learning their L1 – L2 learners/users bring with them in the act of learning and using a foreign language. Next I will talk about strategies and their relationship to metacognition.

1.1 FL learners/users and their ‘knowledge and experience’

As I have argued in Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987b: 83), the factors pertaining to FL learners’/users’ characteristics when they go into L2 language learning/use are: age, cognitive factors, learning factors, social and affective factors, linguistic proficiency in L1 and L2, knowledge of the world at large, needs and interests, attitude, motivation and purpose. All of them comprise L2 learners’/users’ constraints and resources for L2 communication and learning.

Besides, learners bring along with them in the act of FL learning ‘knowledge and experience’ about what they can do with language in order to communicate and learn (cf. Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987a). This ‘knowledge and experience’ is developed while learning their L1. Of course, depending on age and/or other factors mentioned above learners may or may not be conscious of this ‘knowledge and experience’ of theirs.

These views are in accord with Vanderplank’s (2008: 717-722) who puts forth the argument that if we compare first and second language acquisition we “should not rest research on early child language acquisition but we should consider the developments that take place in the early schooling/middle childhood period” since L2 learners are not only young learners of school age but also adolescents and adults. In particular, he makes reference to ‘inner voice’ (that is the ability to read silently, similar to Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986) ‘inner speech’), ‘mind’s eye’ (that is beginning to learn through language and visualization) and adult-like de-contextualized memory (the fact that language users are equipped with reliable means of recall and memory development). Language users, he argues, develop the aforementioned abilities and skills during schooling – aged 5 to 9 years old.

Similarly, Halliday (1973:10) has argued that ‘the child knows what language is because he knows what language does’. Halliday (1975: 52-56), in his seminal work “Learning how to mean”, put forth the paradigm that L1 acquisition really means a child’s mastering certain basic functions of language, the so-called instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative and informative, each one having a ‘meaning potential’. As children grow older, they expand their repertoire and are able to function well in the adult-like functions of language, subsumed under the ideational, interpersonal and textual ‘metafunctions’. Moreover, Halliday (1975: 66) maintains that children have learnt to express its ‘meaning potential’ in infancy and have used it to serve them in “functions which exist independently of language as features of human life in all cultures”. According to Halliday (1973), the problem with L2 learning is not a matter of linguistic failure but the fact that it is dissociated from what learners know about language and its function, in other words, I maintain, the ‘knowledge and experience’ they have acquired though L1 learning/use.

On the other hand, Bruner (1978) in his interaction theory for L1 learning as well as Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986) theory of proximal zone development with their emphasis on ‘scaffolding’ and ‘support’ respectively for language acquisition and development can provide us with the necessary concepts and research

tools to better understand what is happening in strategic communication for L1 learning and development as well as child/adolescent/adult socialization via interaction. It is this knowledge and experience for learning, communication and socialization via interaction that FL learners bring along with them into the foreign language classroom from L1.

In short, following the arguments briefly stated above, learners do not come to class *tabula rasa*. Depending on age, the learners in our teaching/learning context are perceptually, cognitively, linguistically and socially matured. They know at various degrees of awareness and skill what language is for, how to make use of it to negotiate meanings and achieve certain goals and how to learn what they do not know to achieve these goals as I have argued in Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987a). In other words, in the process of L1 acquisition learners, as language users, do not merely learn how to acquire language but also how to communicate using language.

1.2 Strategies and metacognition

Strategies have been researched, primarily, in L1 acquisition and development particularly at an early age (cf. Campbell and Smith (eds) 1977, Snow and Ferguson (eds) 1977) as well as in uncovering strategies for reading, listening, writing and problem solving situations such as mathematics (Veenman, Wilhelm and Beishuizen 2004, Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters and Afflerbach 2006) and, secondarily, in L2 language learning (O'Malley and Chamot 1990, Oxford 1990, among others). Most of the research conducted in L1 child language acquisition is based primarily on recorded conversations between children and parents/caretakers,² whereas the research concerning strategies for reading, listening, solving problems in maths etc. is based on data collected via questionnaires, observations and thinking-aloud protocols (see section 2 for L2 learning).

L1 research indicates that the basics of the ability to comprehend, recall and store in memory is developed at pre-school age but this ability including the ability to solve mathematical problems etc. is further refined and developed in school age in particular. The ability to handle things for learning purposes has been named metacognition in the literature, which, as Veenman *et al.* (2006) very nicely put it, “become(s) more sophisticated and academically oriented whenever formal education requires the explicit utilization of a metacognitive repertoire” (p. 8).

As cited in Veenman *et al.* (2006: 3-6), the term metacognition was coined by Flavell (1979) in the context of L1 and was originally defined as “the knowl-

edge about and regulation of one's cognitive activities in learning processes". Flavell further conceptualized metacognition as comprising two basic components, that is, metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive skills. According to Flavell, the former refers to a person's 'declarative knowledge' about the interactions between person, task and strategy characteristics, whereas the latter refers to a person's 'procedural knowledge' for regulating one's problem solving and learning activities (see also Veenman and Spaans, 2005). As Bandura (1989), cited in Veenman *et al.* (2006: 6) maintains, metacognitive behaviour is learnt "via imitation and repetition (modelling) through observation and explicit learning of the behaviour of others" such as teachers, parents, peers without much conscious processing of the adopted metacognitive behaviour.

Besides, Veenman *et al.* (2004) among others maintain that they have obtained substantial evidence, that metacognitive skills (as well as intelligence) have a unique contribution to learning outcomes. Moreover, they state that both are known to increase with age but metacognitive skills application often depends on task and, I may add, on the subjects' familiarization with it. Here I would like to expand the definition of the term 'task' put forth by Veenman *et al.* (2004) in order to incorporate tasks carried out via the L2. I take it to mean not only reading, listening or (mathematical) problem solving tasks, as it is referred to in Veenman *et al.* (2004), but also face-to-face FL communication tasks or FL classroom discourse tasks (cf. Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990). They become problem solving tasks in their own right due to the nature of classroom discourse as well as to the limitations of learners'/users' linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural, contextual, etc. knowledge and their need to surpass these gaps to achieve purposeful communication using the L2 (see also section 3).³

Therefore, as Meijer, Veenman and van Hout-Wolters (2006: 217) argue, following Hacker, Dunlosky and Graesser (1998), "the ability to regulate one's knowledge, processes and affective states in a deliberate and conscious fashion are construed as important facets of metacognitive activity as well". Metacognition is not just passive reflective knowledge but it includes active monitoring and control for language users to achieve their intentions and purposes.⁴ And as Macaro (2006) further argues, learner strategy choice to accomplish a particular end is not simply the outcome of an individual's preference but it also has a socio-cultural dimension arising from the particular (learning) community the individual comes from.

In short, as Veenman *et al.* (2006: 5) state, most conceptualizations of metacognition take the view that there is a complex relation between metacognition and cognition, which involves a "higher-order cognition about cognition

... (functioning) as an agent overlooking and governing the system, while simultaneously being part of it". In the next section, I will turn my attention to strategies and L2 acquisition/learning.

2. Strategies and L2 learning

In the realm of L2 acquisition, the best known inventories to assess 'learning strategies' are Oxford's (1990) 'Strategy Inventory for Language Learning' (SILL) and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) inventory.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990:1) claim that their work on learning strategies in second language acquisition is concerned with "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information". Their data collection was primarily based on interviews and thinking-aloud protocols. As a result, as they themselves state, very little in their data is concerned with social and affective strategies.

Oxford (1990), on the other hand, discusses learning strategies which were deduced in a similar fashion aiming primarily to serve another purpose, namely, to generate items for a questionnaire designed to assess uses of learning strategies in second language acquisition, the so-called Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as the cognitive actions learners take in order to make learning easier, faster, more pleasant, more self-controlled and self-directed, whereas through practice they become able to apply similar cognitive actions in new learning environments. Oxford has distinguished six concentrations of learning strategies, each one of which comprises a number of individual learning strategies. Table 1 contains the six concentrations followed by a brief description.

Other researchers, however, have paid particular attention to the compensation or social strategies of learners, which are considered as prime strategies to avoid breakdowns in communication (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005, Faerch and Kasper 1983, Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987a, 1990).

It is common knowledge that for communication as a social semiotic to take place, there should be an addressor and an addressee; an intention and a purpose as well as a context. For FL users to realize their intentions and purposes in the act of FL communication they go through the process of choosing the appropriate action scheme or pre-planned discourse that will help them achieve their purposes as participants in an event (cf. Faerch and Kasper 1983). Often, however, due to lack of shared knowledge of all sorts – content, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural, etc. between interlocutors – or due to ignorance of face-saving strategies and/or misunderstandings etc., problems may

Table 1: *Categories of strategies (after Oxford, 1990)*

| | |
|---------------|---|
| Memory | They help learners to store and retrieve information |
| Cognitive | They enable learners to understand and produce new content information, etc. |
| Compensation | They allow learners to communicate despite deficiencies in language knowledge or content |
| Metacognitive | They allow learners to control their own learning through organizing, planning and evaluating including self-assessment |
| Affective | They help learners gain control over their emotions, attitudes, motivation, and values |
| Social | They help learners interact with other people |

(Cited in Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 2004:306)

arise which interlocutors need to tackle before they are able to proceed in accordance with the ‘here and now’ demands of the task they are currently involved in (cf. Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987b, 1997). Tackling problems involves selection of an appropriate strategy to facilitate interaction. This selection process according to a number of researchers such as Veenman *et al.* (2006) is called metacognitive activity or in Flavell’s terms it is indicative of the language users’ metacognitive knowledge or else declarative knowledge. This metacognitive activity is not rigid, in the sense that, once an action scheme is chosen we, language users, follow it doggedly. On the contrary, it is flexible, adaptable, adjustable, reducible or expandable in accordance with the ‘here and now’ demands of the situation we are currently involved in. Language users and in particular FL communicators can exercise control and monitor their talk to achieve certain ends, which in Flavell’s terms is indicative of the language users’ metacognitive skills or procedural knowledge. It is ‘higher-order cognition about cognition’ as Veenman *et al.* (2006: 5) maintain. It is part of our cognitive ability in general.

On scrutinizing the extracts in the Appendix,⁵ therefore, we can spot phrases/expressions indicative of metacognitive activity:

- (1) You don’t understand the word ‘wheels’? (Extract 1)
- (2) Do you know what a ‘broom’ is? (Extract 2)
- (3) You mean below it? (Extract 3)
- (4) And did you have pictures to go with the story? (Extract 4)
- (5) I am not sure but I think we’ve done a wrong. I think they first chased it out of the garden and then // (Extract 6)

(6) Sorry. You said it. It's (...) (Extract 7)

I consider them to be equivalent to the verbalized expressions of metacognition such as “this is difficult for me, let’s do it step-by-step” or “wait, I do not know what this word means” quoted in Veenman *et al.* (2006: 6) as examples of verbalized metacognitive activity. In the examples quoted above from my data, most problems encountered between communicators are language problems. If we examine the examples carefully we will see that most are basically sequences of ‘questions and answers’. Their primary function in discourse is to find out, namely, to elicit new information. This information may relate to the content of the topic of discussion as in examples 3, 4 and 5 or to the language itself as in examples 1, 2 and 6 quoted above. Functionally, the utterances are requests for information or confirmation and responses.⁶ I maintain, therefore, that it is this metacognitive ability and metacognitive skills as ‘knowledge and experience’ that learners bring along in the act of L2 learning. Metacognitive activity helps interlocutors steer out to calm waters by bridging gaps of shared knowledge via the L2 they are using. This distinguishing attribute characterizes the data in question.

Can this linear presentation of strategies for L2 learning/use presented in Table 1 above really capture the interrelationships between cognitive and metacognitive practices when learners/users are involved in FL communication tasks or FL classroom discourse? Do they reflect the learners’ ‘knowledge and experience’ as a construct for learning and communication purposes? How do they interact and influence each other? In the next section I will attempt to answer these questions.

3. Interfacing strategies

Following the argument developed by Veenman *et al.* (2006: 5) that there is a complex relation between metacognition and cognition, which involves a “higher-order cognition about cognition ... (functioning) as an agent overlooking and governing the system, while simultaneously being part of it”, I suggest that cognitive and metacognitive practices are interconnected like the two faces of a coin (see Figure 1 below). Memory, compensation, affective and social strategies are situated at the interface between cognition and metacognition and pertain as much to the former as to the latter. Memory, compensation, affective and social strategies are the channels of communication between cognition and metacognition or in Flavell’s terms between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge of language learners/users.

I take, therefore, all FL communication encounters (including FL classroom discourse) to be problem solving tasks in a broad sense (see definition

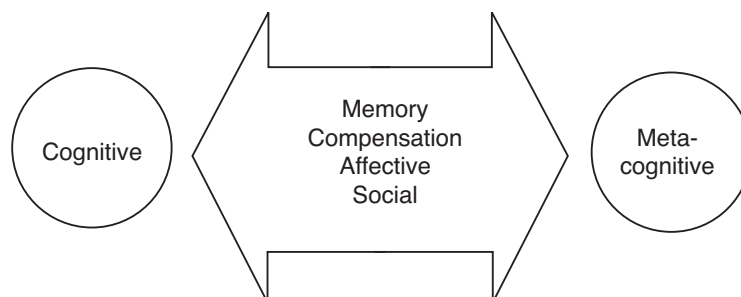


Figure 1. Interrelationships of strategies.

above) since there is a reason and a purpose to be fulfilled in taking part in one, whether it is the social equilibrium that we want to maintain or find out things we do not know about or tell others things that we may think they do not know about or learn to use the L2 and so on. Hence for the purposes of this research, cognitive ability and metacognitive skills are defined as learners' ability to address communication and learning in the act of interaction. In this sense, cognitive ability and metacognitive skills are an integral part of learners'/users' cognition developed and constantly refined in the L1 context through daily interaction, schooling etc. and transferable to L2 as 'knowledge and experience' for language learning/use (see discussion in section 1 above). Each one of these strategies is realized in a variety of linguistic devices that serve a variety of functions "which exist independently of language as features of human life in all cultures" as Halliday (1975: 66) maintains. These linguistic realizations are closely related to the L1 language and culture conventions and the social/learning environment of learners/users. But as the language learners/users engage in learning/using the L2 (and for that purpose L3, L4, etc.) they gradually acquire the L2 linguistic realizations to serve these functions. The L2 linguistic realizations become constantly refined, expanded, and adjusted in accordance with the language and cultural conventions of the L2 learners/users are learning/using and the needs of the current situation language learners/users are involved in. In other words, L2 learners/users map out new verbal realizations for established functions. Hymes' (1974) SPEAKING paradigm very economically describes the parameters involved in a communicative event. Depending on the background of the participants in a FL communicative task, the kinds of realizations of these parameters can be multiplied in accordance with the participating language learners/users' knowledge of the L2 language

and culture conventions and their L1 background (see Papaefthymiou-Lytra 2007, for a discussion on these issues). This view is in accord with Macaro's (2006: 325) argument that language learning strategy research should be defined "in terms of a goal, a (learning) situation and a mental action as the raw material of conscious cognitive processing whereas we should take into account the notion of transferability and the economy principle in strategy use". I would like to expand on the idea of transferability and economy principle and take them to mean not only transferring strategies to tackle problems from task to task in the context of L1 or L2, but also transferring 'knowledge and experience' as cognitive ability and metacognitive skills from L1, to L2 to L3, etc. to master learning and interaction in another language. I claim, therefore, that transferability and economy can be applied vertically and horizontally (for a discussion on transfer and L2 acquisition see Ellis 1985, and Faerch and Kasper 1987, among others).

In the suggested framework, I consider the concentrations and their exponents, namely, the actual strategies employed, either as cognitive practices or metacognitive ones, to be open-ended. Due to continuous research in the field, more or diversified strategies may come up, given the socio-cultural factors pertaining to particular (learning) communities (Macaro 2006) or FL communities of practice (Papaefthymiou-Lytra 2007) vary.

The next step is to establish how this interfacing works in the FL data. In an attempt to develop a taxonomy of analysing thinking-aloud protocols in text-studying and maths problem solving activities to describe metacognitive activity, Meijer *et al.* (2006) came up with the following six categories of analysis: orientation, planning, execution, monitoring, evaluation and reflection.

I will make use of their framework, adapting and refining it in an attempt to explore how cognitive and metacognitive practices are interconnected in FL communication. Here is one reading (but, by no means, the only one) exemplified in the data that captures the interrelationships between strategies when learners/users are involved in FL communication tasks:

- In the *orientation* mode, FL language users orient themselves towards a specific situation they need to address in the context of social practice.
- In the *planning* mode FL language users plan how to go about it usually choosing from pre-planned discourses or action schemes.
- In the *execution* mode FL language users execute the selected plan or scheme step-by-step.
- In the *monitoring* mode FL language users are called upon to resolve linguistic or non-linguistic problems that may come up at any point of

the interaction that cannot be foreseen in advance. Such problems can be due to lack of shared linguistic or cultural knowledge, mishearing, unhearing, broken telephone lines etc. The agent of the monitoring mode can be a speaker or a listener in a task. Via the monitoring mode language users estimate a solution to the problem picking and choosing from the metacognitive strategies at their disposal.

- Upon fixing the problem FL language users enact the *evaluation* mode and appraise the situation.
- Language users will resume main *execution* mode most probably modified in the light of the monitoring phase. Thus, the main cycle becomes re-enacted.
- Last but not least, it is in the *reflection* mode, a very important one for Meijer *et al.* (2006), that FL language users become aware of what they have achieved, how and why they achieved it, in other words, what they have learned content or language-wise and how they did so.

However, as stated, this reading is not the only one. Depending on the negotiators' needs the monitoring mode may be enacted right after the orientation mode if the speaker wants to make sure that certain pieces of information – content- or language-wise – are shared in order to decide which planned discourse or action scheme to select. Similarly, the reflection mode may be enacted when a communicative event comes to an end or it can be an integral part of the on-going process of interaction. It seems that there are as many possible ways that cognitive and metacognitive activity interacts and interrelates as the potential learning/communicating styles of FL learners/users as well as their needs, wants and purposes.

Following this line of argument, therefore, social and affective strategies comprise the core of what I call communication strategies and reflect the socio-cultural dimension of a particular community, whereas memory and compensation strategies comprise the core of what I call learning strategies. I argue that communication strategies are overt communicating strategies but covert learning strategies and learning strategies are overt learning strategies but covert communicating strategies (see Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987a, for a discussion of overt and covert learning and communicating strategies).

In this sense, I consider communicating and learning strategies to be the two faces of the same coin. In oral interaction, you need both to do your job. Expanding on Oxford's definition, therefore, I take "the special thoughts or behaviours" to mean the cognitive and metacognitive activity L2 language

users are involved in as they actively try to comprehend, learn new information and communicate when occupied in oral interaction.

4. Concluding remarks and implications for research

In my concluding remarks, I discuss some key findings and their implications in FL teaching, learning and assessment as well as teacher education:

1. I have argued that, apart from questionnaires, observations, diaries, journals and thinking-aloud protocols, FL oral discourse corpora (recorded or video-taped), can also be utilized as data on cognitive and metacognitive practices, namely, communicating and learning strategies during actual task performance as FL users plan, monitor and evaluate their on-going contributions to achieve successful outcomes. For, although as Veenman *et al.* (2006) claim metacognitive activity is usually implicit in task performance for reading, listening, etc., I maintain that it is always explicit in oral communication for communication to take place unless speakers and/or listeners opt to remain silent, change the subject of discussion or eventually switch off rather than try to uphold communication. This is particularly important in FL communication, which is an explicitly dialogic situation whereas reading, writing and listening whether in L2 or L1 are implicit dialogic situations.

In addition, in this context, it is easier to see how affective and social strategies operate, because of the presence of co-participants in oral interaction or classroom discourse. Working with oral discourse corpora we can appraise cognitive and metacognitive activity in action while employing a data driven strategy (bottom-up strategy) rather than a theoretically driven strategy (top-down strategy). Thus, generalizations will be based on the examination of as much data as possible that operate at the level of discourse (Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990). Moreover, placing the data in a broader context of meaning negotiation as a social semiotic for a particular purpose to be achieved, the researcher is able to uncover what prompted learners'/users' successes or failures in managing communication and learning and explore the respective verbal and non-verbal exponents, be it in L1, L2, L3, etc. It is important to bear in mind that there are often more than two languages operating in FL encounters, be it face-to-face interactions in naturally occurring situations or FL classrooms. Besides, interactive activity is mediated by non-verbal means, an important aspect of language communication, not to be missed in FL research. (cf. Lytra *forthcoming*).

This argument is also supported by Tseng, Dornyei and Schmitt's (2006: 80) assertion that "it is not decided yet whether learning strategies should be regarded as either observable behaviours or inner mental operations or both".

I believe it is in oral communication that learning strategies become particularly observable as they integrate and blend with communicating strategies at the 'here and now' of social interaction or classroom discourse rather than talking about them retrospectively. I argue, therefore, that FL oral discourse corpora can be useful sources for identifying cognition and metacognition in action, namely, strategies for learning and communication purposes.

2. Considering Halliday's (1973) argument that the problem with L2 learning is not a matter of linguistic failure but the fact that it is dissociated from what learners know about language and its functions, I maintain that learners/users can become better learners/users if they are aware of the 'knowledge and experience' they bring with them in the act of FL learning/use. As I have argued in Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987b, 1997), this 'knowledge and experience' constitutes part of their strategic competence. Metacognitive awareness has an instrumental role to play in order to fulfill wants, needs and purposes in the act of communication. It will help learners/users improve fluency in performance and autonomy in learning and communicating. Moreover, L2 learners'/users' ability to handle metacognition in the L2 successfully is a feature of prime importance in assessing learner/user fluency in language testing and assessment. Bachman and Palmer (1996) have also made similar arguments. However, it is only recently that strategy awareness is incorporated in textbooks even though very often teachers ignore this aspect of learner training (see Wenden 2002, for further discussion).

3. Expanding on the argument about learners'/users' metacognitive awareness, I believe, teachers can improve their practice if they are aware of what learners do to manage negotiation in the L2, which actually means how their learners 'communicate and learn' while interacting with others including their teachers. In this way, I maintain, they will purposefully allow learners enough 'wait-time' to make use of their metacognitive skills to manage communication and learning. Teachers should consider themselves as collaborators in meaning negotiation; after all, they are the only live language user models in the classroom, who can demonstrate to learners how the L2 works to do things with it (cf. Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987b, 1990). In this sense, I would like to contest the claim that learners would exercise more negotiation of meaning working in groups without the inhibiting presence of the teacher. I maintain that, if properly trained, teachers as 'knowers' (cf. Berry 1987) can encourage and demonstrate to learners how to make use of metacognitive activity to bridge gaps of L2 shared knowledge and bring interaction to a successful end (for a discussion of these issues see Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990, 1997).

4. Last but not least, teachers and learners can profit from materials that demonstrate how cognition and metacognition operate naturally to achieve certain goals (see dialogues 9-10 in the Appendix, for instance). Particularly, dialogue 10 is an excellent example of metacognitive activity in action, i.e. (turn 2) Terry: Pardon? How long am I ... what? In Terry's turn, at first there is an interjection requesting a repetition thus interrupting the flow of interaction indicating that the listener has had a problem. It is followed by a request for clarification where the problem, namely, a comprehension or an unhearing one, is specified. The interlocutors need to solve the problem before the execution mode is resumed. They comprise interesting examples of input from learning material where strategic communication is influenced by a variety of pragmatic, linguistic, sociocultural etc. reasons. Expanding on the arguments put forth above concerning learners/users' metacognitive awareness as well as teachers' awareness of how learners/users learn and communicate, I claim that teachers and learners/users alike have much to gain if they try to understand what is happening in dialogues such as the ones appendixed in this paper and why, in other words, what functions such utterances serve in discourse and what goals language users try to achieve when they employ them for learning and communicating purposes.

Notes

1. The data comprise the Greek Learner/User English Corpora (GL/UEC). The corpora project contains oral (FL task interactions and FL classroom discourse) and written (exam essays) discourse samples of Greek learners of English. This corpora project is supported by and housed in the Multimedia Centre (Εργαστήριο Πολυμέσων για την Επεξεργασία Λόγου και Κειμένων, ΦΕΚ 13/23-1-2003) of the Faculty of English Studies, University of Athens.
2. A good example of such recorded corpora for L1 is CHILDES, the Harvard University Child Language Acquisition Corpus.
3. For a discussion of the issues pertaining to L2 communication tasks as problem solving ones, when interlocutors from various cultural and language backgrounds come together, see Papaefthymiou-Lytra (2007).
4. Suffice it to say now, this conceptualization of metacognition brought forth a proliferation of metacognitive terms such as metacognitive beliefs, metacognitive awareness, metacognitive experience, metacognitive skills, metacognitive strategies etc. in an attempt to elaborate on and better define the original concept that can lead to a unified theory of metacognition. For a full discussion of the issues pertaining in the explorations for a unified theory of metacognition with reference to L1 use in particular see Veenman et al.'s (2006) review article.
5. In the Appendix, extracts 1-3 are from Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987a; extracts 4-5 are from Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1987b; extracts 6-8 are from Papaefthymiou-Lytra 1990.

They are now part of Greek Learner/User English Corpora (GL/UEC). Dialogues 9-10 are from O'Neill 1982: 25.

6. Of course, in examples 5 and 6 there are more than one utterance in the turn. I take them all (i.e. Ex 5: 'I am not sure but I think we've done a wrong.' ... : Ex. 6: Sorry. You said it.' ...) to pave the road to serving the main function of the turn and to indicate how strategies are interrelated in turns. However, discussing these issues is beyond the scope of the present paper.

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Appendix

Examples of communication activity in EFL: task interaction (1-5), classroom talk (6-8), learning material (9-10).

Extract 1

(adolescents, x and z are NN speakers, male)

- 217 x: Because I see something I might / there might be wheels. You don't understand the word wheels?
218 z: Yes. Will you describe?
219 x: Oh, no I can't / the car is running
220 z: || Yes.
x: :: with what is running every car? In every car there are four. Two in one side and two in the other
221 z: || Yes.
x: :: what / how we call them? I think, I am not sure, I think we call them wheels, w-h-e-e-l-s. *(spells out the word)*
222 x: Well, I / yes, I have understood.

Extract 2

(adults, x is a NN speaker, female; z is a N speaker, male)

- 94 z: ... /Above the box I can see some books and the books are red, green and purple. There is also
95 x: Just a minute
z: :: a broom. Do you know what a broom is? Well, a broom is something you sweep with, you clean with.
95 x: Just a minute.

Extract 3

(adolescents, x is a N speaker, female; z is a NN speaker, male)

- 40 x: Yeah. Where does the ladder go?
41 z: It's down the train
42 x: You mean below it?
43 z: Yes.
44 x: Are you sure?
45 z: The one of them is below but there is one which is not below the train.
46 x: So there are two of them.
47 z: Yes, there are two.
48 x: And there is one above and one below.

Extract 4

(adults, x is a N speaker, female; z is a NN speaker, male)

- x: They are old favourites, I think.

- z: Yes.
 x: Donald Duck and Mickey Mouse.
 Z: I sometimes even now read them.
 X: Do you read them in Greek or do you get them in English?
 Z: In Greek.
 X: Yes, children's stories can be very good in helping to learn the language.
 Z: Yes.
 X: Very simple and sometimes not very difficult to read. My first lesson trying to read in Greek was a story, a Mickey Mouse story.
 Z: And did you have pictures to go with the story?
 X: Yes, it helps a child to understand them / what they are talking about.
 Z: Of course, and it helps an adult too. (*laughter*)
 X: We have pictures in our Greek class.
 Z: So do we in our English. (*laughter*)

Extract 5

(Vally, five year old native speaker of Greek, female)

(Ashalan, six year old native speaker of Farsi, male)

- 1V: You, you.
 2A: No, me, you.
 3V: Glass mummy's.
 4A: You broke mummy's glass.
 5V: You broke.
 6A: You broke mummy's glass.
 7V: You broke mummy's glass.
 8M: Did you do it, Vally?
 9V: No, mummy, you. (She meant to say: *No, mummy. He did it.*)
 10A: No, me, you.
 11V: No, me, you.

Extract 6

(T NN speaker, female; L1 NN speaker adolescent, male; L2 NN speaker adolescent, female)

- 1L1: Mr Eldridge and his son arrived in a truck. The Newtons all helped then to load the animals on to it. They chased it out of the garden. On Sunday, Dr. Newton and Arthur had to work in the garden.
 2L2: (*after raising her hand*) I am not sure but I think we've done a wrong. I think they first chased it out of the garden and then //
 3T: They chased it out of the garden first and then they telephoned. ...Right.

Extract 7

(T NN speaker, female; L1 NN speaker adolescent, male)

- 1L1: Also in Zappion we have every time of the year / every three months I think some (...)

- 2T: Exhibition.
§§ What's the word in Greek: //
- 3L1: Sorry. You said it. It's (--)
- 4T: Exhibition.
- 3L1: Exhibition. And in this time of the year we have many, many (...) from France, from England, from America, they are coming here to talk about some subjects for six months, only for six months.
- 6T: All right. Good.

Extract 8

(T NN speaker, female; L1 NN speaker adolescent, male)

- 1T: What's the dialogue between Tony and Bill and Penny?
What's going in this dialogue? Mm? What's Tony saying?
- 2L1 :: Tony is looking to find Depapa on map
- 3T: || OK.
- L1.: and Bill show him
- 4T: ** Bill shows him.
- L1: :: where is it
- 7T: ** where it is
- L1: :: (*laughter*) OK, where it is, and he sees that it is near Terala, a bigger island and Bill says there's an airport in Terala.

Dialogue 9

(A. Listen to Janet and the clerk at "The Park Hotel")

1. Clerk: How long are you staying, Miss Snow.
2. Janet: Three nights.
3. Clerk: Three nights. Thank you. Are those your suitcases?
4. Janet: Yes, they are.
5. Clerk: Porter! Those are Miss Snow's suitcases. Take them to room 404.
6. Janet: Thank you.
7. Clerk: Thank *you*, Miss Snow.
8. Janet: Oh, where's the lift?
9. Clerk: It's on the left. The porter is going there now.

Dialogue 10

(B. Listen to Terry and the clerk at "York Hotel")

1. Clerk: How long are you staying?
2. Terry: Pardon? How long am I ... what?
3. Clerk: How long are staying? How many nights?
4. Terry: Uh ... one night. I 'm staying one night.
5. Clerk: Oh. Here is your key. Room 16.
6. Terry: Where is it?
7. Clerk: Four floors up.

8. Terry: Is there a lift?
 9. Clerk: A lift? No, there isn't.
 10. Terry: Oh. Where are the stairs?
 11. Clerk: On the right.

Transcription symbols in extracts 1-8:

| | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-------------------|---|
| @@ learner response in chorus |] simultaneous speech | // interruption | :: speaker continues with her/his turn |
| <i>ff</i> spoken very loudly | (--) pause | ... take a breath | ** T corrects in an unobtrusive way employing a varia- tion of the back channel strategy. |
| §§ T's utterance addressed to class | (...) hesitation | / self-correction | Speaker employs the communication strategy of back channel |