Chapter II  Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

Literature review which is an integral part of any research was undertaken before beginning and synchronously with the present research. This chapter discusses the past research involving key concepts of the present study. The concepts include the literature review and discussion on central ideas such as Autonomous Learning, Learning Strategies, self-review and peer-review, strategy training and skill specific strategies. It involves the review of the relevant teaching materials currently available. The chapter also involves the discussion on the uniqueness of the current study from the perspective of Indian JFL learners.

Since there has not been notable research in India on learning and teaching methodology of Japanese language, it was very crucial for the study to review the previous literature originated in India, in Japan and the literature available on foreign language acquisition in general, Japanese language teaching-learning related research done so far in other countries and the teaching materials. The following focus was determined to review the literature:

1. Understanding the history and trends in research on foreign language acquisition and teaching
2. Understanding the trends in Japanese language teaching
3. Understanding the various experimental designs, data collection, and analysis methods in educational research and help in the selection of the research design
4. Understanding and gaining background knowledge of ideas used by researchers to prepare a questionnaire and opinionnaire surveys
5. Leverage for preparing own guideline for surveys on beliefs of learners and strategy use, which is suitable for Indian learners. Leverage for preparing own guideline of the feedback forms
6. Study of Japanese language materials and selection of materials suitable for the study
7. A perspective and materials to select and create pre-tests and post-tests for both the parts of the study

The literature related to the Research of JFL learners in India was reviewed first. Secondly, the research related to the topic of the present study was reviewed concentrating on the following topics.

1. Learner Autonomy/ Autonomous Learning
2. Learning strategies: Direct and Indirect

These terms proved to be necessary for deliberation of the aims, objectives, methods, and tools. Further, a literature review was conducted for both the parts of the study, first dealing with Speaking skills and strategies, Cooperative learning and Peer review as well as Self-review and self-monitoring which were a part of the first training in strategies.

Later, the literature review was conducted for various models of reading, reading skills and strategies, as well as the teaching materials which dealt with reading strategy training.

2.2 Research on Japanese language education /JFL learners in India

The most recent study on JFL learners in India is by Fukino (2018) ‘Comprehension difficulties in understanding segmented Japanese texts and hierarchy structure by Japanese learners in Western India’. This study aims to clarify how Japanese learners in Western India
comprehend Japanese texts and to find out implications for Japanese reading instruction. This study investigates reading comprehension of Japanese learners from two points of view, “imidanraku” (meaning-wise paragraph units), which Fukino says “is a uniquely Japanese unit of texts, and hierarchy structure.” A survey for this study was conducted at 3 Japanese educational institutions in Western India (61 learners (N1- N3 levels)). In order to compare the result, 17 Japanese native speakers comprised of graduate students and undergraduate students also participated.

The results indicated that the division of imidanraku was different between Japanese native speakers and Japanese learners. The results of the analysis showed that Japanese native speakers comprehend the coherence relation between each imidanraku by five patterns of combination of central idea and conjunctions. On the other hand, only 4 Japanese learners out of 61 participants could correctly grasp the coherence relations between each imidanraku and showed only one pattern of coherence relation.

Though the findings of the above study are important as a description of present situation, there was no experiment (pre-test and post-test model) or establishment of a teaching method as a solution. Therefore, the present study holds the importance for being more comprehensive in understanding of the problem and experimenting the solution for the problem.

Chauhan(2017) has analysed the errors related to the case particle ‘wo’ found in writing tasks produced by Hindi speaking JFL learners from the perspective of predicate transitivity and L1. She asserts that the relation between the understanding of case particle ‘wo’ and the

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12 ‘Imidanraku’ is translated by the present author as ‘meaning-wise units of paragraphs’, which exists in a formal text of most of the languages and may not be called as “unique” to Japanese.
proficiency level of Hindi speaking Japanese learners is strongly positive. She also observes the negative transfer of the L1 of the learners as one of the reasons for errors.

Naresh Kumar (2017) talks about the current spread of internet and possibilities of using the internet as a good resource for Japanese studies. He reports his experience and observation as a teacher that the JFL learners today use the internet but not for collecting information about Japan nor for learning Japanese. He experiments with peer learning using resources on the Internet with a focus on the development of discussion activities. A set of 4 sessions for three groups of JFL learners (with 3, 3, and 2 in each group, eight learners in total) is conducted. The study observes that a significant development in interaction, exchange of information and opinion occurred during the discussions. He also reports that peer learning had a good affective learning environment.

Nabin Kumar Panda (2012) in his Ph.D. thesis reports research on 'foreign language policy' in secondary education in India. The thesis tries to elucidate the development process and characteristics of foreign language policy. The author focuses on the development of Japanese language education as a part of foreign language policy in India. Next, for comparison, he selects countries that are similar to India in terms of developing foreign language policy and language education and who are undertaking various activities in the field of Japanese language education. Ultimately, after these considerations, he summarizes various suggestions in the sense of what India can learn from various countries for developing/enriching Japanese language education as a foreign language policy.

Sathaye (2010) reports research on developing a syllabus for JFL learners aspiring to become industry interpreters and also experimentation of a teaching method and materials on 12
intermediate-advanced learners from Indo-Japanese Association, Pune. She reports that two professional interpreters evaluated the training before and after the interpretation and after the training, a change was seen in the translation and a certain effect was recognized. Furthermore, as a result of translation analysis, learner's evaluation on activity, and a reflection sheet, it was suggested that the direction of training was appropriate.

Yardi (2007) developed a syllabus for intermediate level focusing on Business Communication, based on a survey of the actual Japanese language usage on the Japan India business site. Based on the survey results she reports to have found the great need of bilingual professionals who understand both the sides (local Indians and Japanese customers) and become a bridge for their communication in business. The factors suggested by the Indian and Japanese businessmen that are contributing to the difficulty in understanding the other side are observed to be similar in several points. She further develops a syllabus for teaching Japanese Business Communication to learners till intermediate level.

Shirgurkar (2004) in her dissertation gives an account of Japanese conversation class activities developed for Intermediate Learners based on the functional syllabus. It incorporated group work and peer feedback as a way to secure the quantity of oral communication practice with feedback for a large numbered classroom. The feedback on the usefulness and effectiveness of sessions was collected from the learners, and it reflected very positive evaluation by the learners. However, the study does not establish the principles through experimental (pre-test-training-post-test) method.

Navin Kumar Panda (2002) discusses the various trends in foreign language teaching and states the need for introducing the Communicative Approach in the Japanese language
teaching in India of that period. He analyses the then contemporary teaching methods through interviews of the teachers, and also the prevalent textbooks. He conducts an experiment of the communicative approach in 11 institutions across the country and collects the data in terms of responses to the questionnaire survey conducted at the end of the session and interviews of teachers. There is a high evaluation by teachers and the learners, but there is some criticism also. The learners seem to complain about not getting a chance to speak because of a large numbered classroom.

The account of research work summarised above clarifies that there has not been any study on the awareness, use, and training of Learning Strategies in case of Indian JFL learners. There has not been any precedence of introducing autonomy in classroom or conducting beliefs survey about autonomous learning as such.

2.3 Autonomous learning/ Learner Autonomy

There has been ample study in the world on ‘Autonomous learning’ or ‘Learner’s Autonomy’ and it is not a new element in the philosophy of education. In the domain of foreign language education, it was Holec’s (1981) seminal study ‘Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning’ which acted as a driving force for interest in the concept of ‘learner autonomy’ and has continued to grow in the last three decades.

The autonomy debate became one of the most discussed themes of foreign language teaching because it deals with adult education. This debate has given rise to two directions of research. The first of these is concerned with the development of learner autonomy and learner training, whereas the other is concerned with ‘describing’ the good language learner by emphasizing
learner strategies and the concept of learning to learn or strategy training (Chamot & Kupper, 1989 and Oxford & Nyikos, 1989 to name a few significant studies, further elaborated in 2.4.4). The above studies have made a comprehensive overview of learner autonomy in language learning.

With their research, three dimensions became more evident, namely 1. definitions of learner autonomy, 2. the factors that affect learner autonomy, and 3. the approaches to foster learner autonomy. The next section of this chapter will mainly discuss the literature regarding definition of learner autonomy and its relationship with language proficiency.

**2.3.1 Definitions of and Approaches towards Autonomy**

Little (2007) stated that learner autonomy is a problematic term because it is widely confused with self-instruction. Since the beginning of the use of the term “Autonomy” has seen various definitions based on different perceptions by the linguists and educationalists. In all, the experts have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy is. However, the most often quoted definition of autonomy was put forth by Holec (1981: 3, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 1). He describes autonomy as ‘the ability to take charge of one’s learning’. To take charge of one’s own learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning:

- Determining the objectives;
- Defining the contents and progressions;
- Selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- Monitoring the procedures of acquisition;
- Evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981).
Learner autonomy is described and defined in many ways in connection with language learning, and there are different viewpoints in literature. Dickinson (1987) talks about ‘Self-instruction’ and how it is a beneficial concept and why it should be encouraged to address individual differences among learners. However, he does not treat ‘Self-instruction’ as a synonym to ‘Autonomy’. He states that Autonomy is achieved gradually, through struggling, careful training and careful preparation by the teacher as well as the learner, and the first stage in this process is the liberation of the classroom to help the learner become independent and responsible.

According to Benson (2001, p.48), there are many terms related to autonomy, which can be distinguished from it in various ways. As a consensus, experts agree that autonomy and autonomous learning are not synonyms of, 'self-instruction', 'self-access', 'self-study', 'self-education', 'out-of-class learning' or 'distance learning'. These terms describe ways and varying degrees of learning by the learner, whereas autonomy refers to abilities and attitudes (or the capacity to control one’s learning). Learning by oneself is not the same as having such capacity to learn successfully by oneself. However, it can be said that autonomous learners may certainly be better than others at learning by themselves, but they do not necessarily have to learn by themselves. Over the last few years, for example, more and more research is conducted on autonomy in the classroom and 'teacher autonomy'. The terms 'independent learning' and 'self-directed learning' also refer to ways of learning by yourself. However, these terms are very often used as synonyms for autonomy.

Dam (1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 16), drawing upon Holec (1983), defines autonomy in terms of the learner’s ‘willingness and capacity to control or oversee his/her own learning’.
We can say that an autonomous learner takes a pro-active role in the learning process, generates new ideas and avails himself of learning opportunities, than merely reacting to various stimuli provided by the teacher (Boud, 1988; Kohonen, 1992; Knowles, 1975).

From the standpoints mentioned above, it is clear that Autonomy is an ambiguous concept because it is proven to be difficult to define precisely.

In Little’s terms (1991),

“Autonomy is essentially a capacity - for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action... It is not something teachers do to their learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method.”

Littlewood’s (1997: 81) three-stage model involved dimensions of language acquisition, learning approach, and personal development. In the context of language acquisition, autonomy involved the following abilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autonomy as a</th>
<th>ability to operate with the language independently and use it to communicate personal meanings in real and unpredictable situations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>communicator</td>
<td>(classroom context) ability to take responsibility for one’s own learning and to apply personally relevant strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learner</td>
<td>(broader context) a higher-level goal of greater generalized autonomy as individuals</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 Littlewood’s Three-stage Model of Autonomy
2.3.2 Implementation of Learners’ Autonomy

It can be said that broadly the experts agree that autonomous learners understand ‘the purpose of their learning programme, explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of learning goals, take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities, and regularly review their learning and evaluate its effectiveness’ (cf. Holec 1981; Little 1991). In short, the prerequisites for implementation of learner autonomy requires acumen, a capacity for self-evaluation, and readiness towards peer learning and interdependence. Though these attributes give us a holistic definition that recognizes cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social dimensions of language learning, it also entails the challenges for the practical implementation in a language classroom.

The path given by Nunan (1997) in the Levels of Implementation for Learners’ Autonomy can be summarised in a diagram the following way:

![Diagram of Levels of Implementation for Learners’ Autonomy]

**Fig. 2.1 Levels of Implementation for Learners’ Autonomy**
1. **Awareness**: Learners made aware of language tasks, learning content and materials. In this stage, the learners identify strategies required for those particular pedagogical tasks and also choose their preferred strategies.

2. **Involvement**: Learners are involved in the process of selecting their goals from a range of goals that is offered.

3. **Intervention**: Learners are involved in the modification and adaptation of the goals and content of the programme.

4. **Creation**: Learners are encouraged to create their own goals and objectives as well as their own tasks.

5. **Transcendence**: Learners on their own go beyond the classroom restrictions and relate classroom learning and the world beyond developing into teachers and researchers.

Nunan’s (1997: 195) attempt involved a model of five levels of ‘learner action’ which could inform the sequencing of learner development activities in language textbooks. These levels also involved dimensions of ‘content’ and ‘process’.

The present study aims at the first, and second level from the above steps of implementation of autonomy and the remaining steps may be explored as the way forward.

Benson (2001), identifying autonomy with certain practices, specifies six approaches that support the goal of autonomy or are intrinsically supportive of autonomy.

<p>| Table 2.2 The 6 approaches stated by Benson (2001) identifying autonomy with practices |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Approach</strong></th>
<th><strong>Practices</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource-based approaches</td>
<td>emphasize independent interaction with learning materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology-based approaches</td>
<td>emphasize independent interaction with educational technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-based approaches</td>
<td>emphasize the direct production of behavioral and psychological changes in the learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom-based approaches</td>
<td>emphasize learner control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum-based approaches</td>
<td>extend the idea of learner control to the curriculum as a whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-based approaches</td>
<td>emphasize the role of the teacher and teacher education in the practice of fostering autonomy among learners</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the beginning of the present study, from among the six approaches stated above, the first 2, resource-based and technology-based approaches could not be experimented because of unavailability of 1.variety of materials that are easily accessible to learners and 2. Easily accessible technology. Therefore the learner based approach and the classroom-based approach were considered for the study. The curriculum-based and teacher based approaches can be said as the further path for fostering the Learner Autonomy.
2.4 Autonomy and Learning Strategies

As Oxford (1990b) suggests, “learners need to know how to learn and teachers need to learn how to facilitate this process”. The study of “Autonomous Learning” so far suggests many ways such as changes in the contents of the course or teaching and learning methods. However, as the first step, exploring the possibility of strategy training was chosen in line with the Learner-based and Classroom-based approaches stated in 2.3.2.

After reviewing the related literature, it can be said that we can divide Language Learning Strategies broadly into two categories.

1. ‘Learning strategies’ as ways to learn a new language more effectively (Indirect strategies)
2. ‘Skill specific strategies’ which help to develop some skills specific to a language skill such as reading/writing/speaking/listening (Direct strategies)
In other words, the goal is to train students in handling linguistic goals as their challenges and using Direct and Indirect Strategies as ways to win over those challenges.

![Diagram of various aspects of autonomy depending on definitions]

**Fig. 2.2 Various Aspects of Autonomy depending on the definitions**
The above definition diagram was referred to in the present study because it proved to be comprehensive by taking care of different aspects of the term “Learner Autonomy”.

Presently, because of lack of exposure to practices supporting Autonomy, our learners cannot be said to be ready for the following aspects/manifestation of autonomy from the above list:

a. ‘studying entirely on their own’,

d. ‘taking the responsibility for learning’, and

e. exercising ‘the right to determine the direction of their own learning’.
Therefore, in the context of Indian JFL learners, point b. stating a facet of Autonomy as ‘a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning’ was taken as the goal of the study. Whereas, nurturing the ‘inborn capacity’ which is otherwise ‘suppressed by the institutional education’ can be seen as the long-term goal of our teachers.

2.4.1 Definition of Language Learning Strategies

There are various definitions given in the literature for the term ‘Language Learning Strategies’.

As stated by Oxford (1990b: 17), there is no agreement on exactly what strategies are or how many strategies exist, and the way to define, demarcate and categorise them. It is also difficult to know whether it is possible to create a scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) define Language Learning Strategies as “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information”. However, the definition given by Rebecca L. Oxford is found relevant for the present study as it sufficiently shows the maximum aspects and also the complexity of the term as follows:

“Learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (1990:8). This definition stresses that learning strategies can be helpful and supportive to the learner but also requires self-direction and learner autonomy.

Cohen (1998) further differentiates between language learning strategies and language use strategies. Language learning strategies are the strategies used in order to identify the material to be learnt from all the available materials, grouping it and memorise it. Whereas he classifies
the language use strategies in four categories namely; retrieval (recalling the learnt material), rehearsal (practicing), cover (compensation) and communication strategies.

All above definitions have a common stand in saying that Language Learning Strategies are initiatives, or more precisely, conscious actions, usually in the initial stages of learning by the learners in order to support their learning and become more proficient and autonomous learners.

2.4.2 Oxford’s classification of Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are many times divided into Direct and Indirect strategies. In 1990, Oxford developed a taxonomy for categorizing strategies under six headings. Three of them are direct strategies and another three are Indirect Strategies.

- **Mnemonic**
  - Memory techniques such as associating between new and priorly known information by using formula/ phrase/ verse and so on

- **Cognitive**
  - Grasping new information through deduction, analysis, and organisation of new information

- **Compensatory**
  - Using various techniques and context while reading and writing to make up for one’s insufficient knowledge or proficiency
The diagrams of the categories and subcategories of all strategies that are elaborated in her book (Oxford, 1990b pp.18-21) are given in Annexure.

Although later on this classification was criticised for its problems in separating mnemonic strategies from cognitive strategies, as many consider mnemonics a sub-group of cognitive strategies. Secondly, it was criticised by some for including compensatory strategies, because they are related to the actual usage and not a way to learn a language. However, Oxford’s classification was taken as a reference in the present study as it was found to be a comprehensive classification of all direct and indirect strategies.

### 2.4.3 O’Malley and Chamot’s classification of Learning Strategies

Another reference with a detailed categorization was referred for the study. O’Malley and Chamot (O’Malley et al. 1985a, 1995), where the learning strategies have been differentiated into three categories depending on the level or type of processing involved. As per Brown et

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metacognitive</th>
<th>Monitoring and managing own cognition through the implementation of planning, organization, and evaluation of the learning process</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective</td>
<td>Monitoring and managing emotions, motivation, and attitude toward learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Interacting with other learners and native speakers to gain opportunities for language learning and cultural understanding</td>
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</table>
al. (1983), **Metacognitive strategies** are placed on the higher end of administrative skills continuum as they require planning for, and monitoring as well as evaluating the success of a learning activity. Among the processes that would be included as metacognitive strategies for receptive or productive language tasks are:

1. **Reading/listening**: Selective attention for particular aspects of a learning task, planning to read/listen for keywords and repetitive phrases;

2. **Reading/listening**: Planning the organisation of written or spoken discourse;

3. **All four skills**: Monitoring/reviewing attention to a task, monitoring comprehension for information or monitoring production of language; and

4. **All four skills**: Evaluating and checking comprehension after completing a language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.

O’Malley and Chamot (1995 p.197) explain that

“Cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning. In these strategies, the learner interacts with the material to be learned by manipulating it mentally or physically.”

The interaction may happen in the form of creating mental images, elaboration on previously acquired concepts, information or skills. Similarly, it may involve physical activity such as grouping items to be learned into categories, taking notes on relevant information that needs to be retained.
Typical strategies that have been discussed in the cognitive category for listening and reading comprehension are (O’Malley and Chamot, 1995 p.45):

1. Rehearsing the language information that has been heard;

2. Organising/ grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes;

3. Inferencing/ using information in the oral text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts;

4. Summarising/ synthesising what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained;

5. Deduction/ applying rules to understand language;

6. Imagery/ using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information;

7. Transfer/ using the known linguistic information to support a new learning task; and

8. Elaboration, i.e. linking ideas contained in the new information or integrating new ideas with known information.

From the survey conducted during the study, an immediate need to focus on all the meta-cognitive strategies the points 2, 4, 5 and 7 from cognitive strategies (organising, inferencing, summarising, deduction and transfer) from above was felt, keeping in view the JFL learners in India.
The Social/affective strategies represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or control over own affect. Generally, they are considered applicable to a wide variety of tasks. The strategies that would be useful in listening comprehension are (O’Malley and Chamot, 1995 p.45):

1. Cooperation/ working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity;

2. Questioning or clarification, or eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples; and

3. Self-talk, or using a mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

2.5 Training of Language Learning Strategies

Chamot and Kupper (1989) summarise the findings of an extensive study which continued as a three-year project. They investigated the use of learning strategies by foreign language students and their teachers, and also suggest specific classroom applications for learning strategy instruction. In all, three studies were conducted under this project: (a) a Descriptive Study identifying learning strategies used while learning foreign languages, (b) a Longitudinal Study identifying differences in the strategy-use of effective and ineffective language learners. It also analysed changes in strategy use over time, and (c) a Course Development Study, in which foreign language teachers taught students how to apply learning strategies. They conclude that students of all levels and abilities use strategies when working with a foreign
language, but differences exist in the ways of strategy use, which in turn contribute to the
different degrees of success in language learning. Effective use of strategies apparently leads
to more effective language learning, particularly it is true for the use of the core learning
strategies such as self-monitoring and elaboration.

Oxford & Nyikos (1989) discuss variables affecting the choice of learning strategies used by
university foreign-language students (n=1,200). If the number of subjects is considered, this
is one of the largest completed studies in language learning strategies. The study addresses
the types of strategies university students report using while learning a foreign language and
the variables which influence the use of these strategies. They indicate that learners with high
motivation for learning will likely use various strategies. As far as language learning is
concerned, achievement can be viewed as one of the indices of motivation because motivation
can lead to and support all activities.

Considerable research has been conducted on the ways to improve L2 students’ learning
strategies. There have been two viewpoints on the training of Learning Strategies. Some
studies show positive results whereas some studies show that the data does not necessarily
support the statement that Strategy training improves the learning or language performance
of the learners. In many investigations, efforts to teach students to use learning strategies
(strategy training) have fetched good results (Thompson & Rubin, 1993). However, all
second/ foreign language strategy training studies have not been successful. Some trainings
were effective in certain skill areas but were not so for other skills within the same study (for
details, see Oxford & Crookall, 1989).
2.5.1 Strategies related to 4 language skills and their training

Specific strategies or groups of strategies are linked to particular language skills or tasks. In the case of ESL and foreign language studies, there has been ample study on Strategy training and its effectiveness. For example, L2 writing (similar to L1 writing), benefits from the learning strategies of planning, self-monitoring, deduction, and substitution. L2 speaking demands strategies such as risk-taking, paraphrasing, circumlocution, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. L2 listening comprehension gains from strategies of elaboration, inferencing, selective attention, and self-monitoring, while reading comprehension uses strategies like reading aloud, guessing, deduction, and summarizing (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Oxford (1990b) gives a detailed chart mapping relevant strategies with listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. In the case of strategy training in Japanese classrooms, there have been various studies in Speaking (conversation) as well as Reading Strategies.

Here, it is necessary to clarify the difference between skills and strategies as far as the four language skills, namely; reading, writing, speaking, and listening are concerned.

In the present study, the reference for the above differentiation is based on Carrell’s explanation (1998). According to her, Strategies for reading comprehension refer to concrete strategies and action plans which learners select actively to achieve a specific learning goal. On the contrary, Skills refer to the passive (innate) ability of learners. She quotes (1998) as given below:

“Skills refer to information-processing techniques that are automatic. Skills are applied to a text unconsciously … In contrast, strategies are actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals. An emerging skill can become a strategy when it is used intentionally.
Likewise, a strategy can “go underground” and become a skill.” Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991, p. 611)

The above differentiation holds high importance from a strategy training perspective. The trainers should be well aware of this gradation while guiding the learners.

2.5.2 Metacognitive Learning Strategies and their training

Many poor language learners are not able to choose useful strategies. They do not realize when to incorporate these strategies while taking up the challenge of learning. The metacognitive ability to choose a particular strategy for a particular task or on a particular time implies that the learner is thinking about his own learning and making conscious decisions about the learning process. However, in order to select and use strategies, the learners should be familiar with a wide range of strategies that can be used. This fact emphasizes the importance of explicit training of the strategies in the classroom. As per the literature available, the key components of Metacognition are

1. To develop an action plan

2. To retain the plan over a period in order to monitor the learning.

3. To reflect on and evaluate the performance.

Planning a strategy before beginning a particular language task orients us and consciously keeps us on track during the activity. It also leverages judgments from time to time, assessment of readiness for various activities with higher difficulty, and monitoring our comprehension, decisions, performance, and behaviors.
Meta-cognitive strategies are recognised as a higher level of strategies by the researchers. Metacognitive strategies are higher order administrative skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of learning activity (Brown et al. 1983). They are classified as indirect strategies by Oxford and also have significance in O’Malley and Chamot as stated in the previous section. Wenden (1983) was also found to be effective to incorporate Metacognitive Strategies in training. Her study concentrated on self-directed learning among adult foreign language learners. Based on interviews, she explored self-directed language learning activities in a variety of social settings.

O’Malley & Chamot (1990) assert that a number of strategies can also develop motivation. E.g., self-evaluation is an important driving force to increase motivation because learners can learn to attribute their degree of achievement to their own efforts than to some unchangeable innate ability.

Compared to direct strategies concerning four language skills, there have been lesser experiments with training in metacognitive strategies. CALLA was developed as a Metacognitive Strategy Training model by O’Malley & Chamot. CALLA is said to help teachers to plan a lesson and bring together language and content with learning strategies. The main principles of CALLA model are to provide opportunities to learners to compare new learning against their prior knowledge. Secondly, it provides for training and practice in self-evaluation. This model has five instruction phases (Chamot and O’Malley, 1994, p. 43-44). They are: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation and Expansion. The above-said model was adapted and modified as per the needs of JFL learners in Western Pune. Points 1, 4 and 5 were written down on self-review forms. The medium of writing was English.
| **Planning** | • Advance organisers: Preview the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learned (skimming the text to find the organizing principle) |
| **Directed attention** | • Decide in advance to attend to a learning task in general and to ignore the irrelevant distractions. |
| **Functional planning** | • Plan for and rehearse linguistic components necessary to carry out the upcoming language task. |
| **Selective attention** | • Prior to the input, decide to attend to specific aspects of input (scanning for key words/concepts, and/or linguistic markers) |
| **Self-management** | • Understand the conditions that facilitate learning and arrange for the presence of such conditions |
| **Monitoring** | • Self-monitoring: Check own comprehension during listening/reading or check the accuracy and/or appropriateness of one’s oral/ written production during its delivery. |
| **Evaluation** | • Self-evaluation: Check the outcomes of one’s language learning against a standard after its completion. |

**Fig. 2.4 Meta-cognitive strategies O’Malley J.M. & Chamot A. U (1995)**

The above detailing is taken from O’Malley J.M. & Chamot A. U (1995, Pg. 119, which is adapted from O’Malley et. al. 1985a.) Based on the survey, a need to focus on the direct strategies was felt and focus on points 1, 3, 6 and 7 was finalised for the training course.
Fig. 2.5 A suggested representation of meta-cognition

The above diagram is a suggested representation in the present study, based on Neil J. Anderson (2008), ‘Metacognition and good language learners’, where he says that Metacognition is not any one element in isolation. It is the blend of all five metacognitive skills into a “kaleidoscopic view”. It is not a linear process from preparing up to planning and evaluating, but more than one processes can happen simultaneously.

Yuh Huann, Seng-Chee Tan(2010)give a detailed account of their study based on CALL instrument and the intervention focusing on scaffolding students in metacognitive reflection on their own oral performances. They report that a remarkable improvement was seen in the mean scores of pre-test to post-test of oral performance. Such an improvement indicated the
benefits of training in metacognitive reflection. The learners were found to adopt a systematic approach in their reflection with the sequence ‘evaluating → monitoring → planning’, with special attention devoted to the monitoring strategy. However, a disproportionate distribution of metacognitive knowledge usage was found in students’ self-assessment. Task knowledge was the predominant metacognitive knowledge used by students, whereas person knowledge and strategy knowledge were neglected by the students. They suggest that teachers who are keen to implement a similar instructional approach could develop strategies to focus the students’ attention on the latter two types of metacognitive knowledge.

2.6 Literature review related to conversation training

There has been a more extensive study on writing and reading strategies than on speaking strategies. When it comes to Speaking, there is a wide range of language performance. Speech, presentation, conversation, and discussion are some of them. Among these, speech and presentation have received more attention for skills. However, there is less literature available on Japanese conversation skills and strategies.

2.6.1 Conversation Strategies and their training

Communicative competence was defined by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) identifying the following four key factors.
A typical Indian JFL classroom has always focused on linguistic competence in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and expressions. However, there is a need to give inputs on and practice to the learners for other three aspects.

Canale and Swain (1980) define ‘Strategic Competence’ as “the mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in L2 used when attempting to compensate for deficiencies in the grammatical and sociolinguistics competence or to enhance the effectiveness of communication”. However, the present study has not focused merely on the compensatory strategies suggested above. That is because there is a debate on the usefulness of such compensatory strategies. Among many, Yule and Tarone (1989) were on the side of Communication Strategies instruction. Dörnyei (1995) reports his study and asserts that “by using communication strategies learners feel a sense of security and allowing them to cope with difficulty in L2”. However, there was a controversy in the ‘teachability’ of Communication Strategies. Bialystock (1990) and Kellerman (1991) have expressed the opposite view. Bialystock’s goal in Communication Strategies is "to find a means of explaining how strategies function in the speech of L2 learners" (1990: 13). She criticises the
focus on theoretical ambiguity in the definitions of Communication Strategies and argues that there should be a clearer view of identification, explanation of Communication Strategies. She asserts that the teachers “should teach language not strategy” and Kellerman (1991) asserted “there is no justification for providing training in compensatory strategies in the classroom …. Teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves” (p. 158).

Therefore, Instead of concentrating only on compensatory strategies, the present study focused on other Japanese Speaking strategies such as composing an appropriate discourse and using negotiation strategies for successful communication. From the training point of view, the viewpoint by Marianne Celce-Murcia, Zoltan Dörnyei, Sarah Thurrell (1995:14) was found to be crucial. The present study on Training in Japanese Conversation tried encompassing most relevant strategies from among those proposed by them.

### 2.6.2 Cooperative learning and Autonomy

The principles of co-operative learning are aligned with the social strategies specified in Oxford’s classification of strategies and also with the social/affective strategies from O’Malley and Chamot’s classification. Peer cooperation and peer review or feedback can be seen as a manifestation of cooperative learning.

It can be said that through peer feedback, we can ensure the compliance of the Five Key Elements of cooperative learning proposed by Johnson et. al. (2006) to differentiate from merely putting students into groups to learn. The five elements are as stated further.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>When is it achieved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Interdependence</td>
<td>When learners perceive that they “sink or swim together.” The whole team believes that each person’s efforts benefit not that individual, but the whole team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Accountability</td>
<td>When “students learn together, but perform alone.” A lesson’s goals are set in such a way that it can be measured whether (a) the team is successful in achieving the goals, and also (b) each team-member is successful in achieving them. Although cooperative learning requires teamwork, it entails individual accountability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face (Promotive) Interaction</td>
<td>When team members become personally committed to the goals of other members through face-to-face interaction. Significant cognitive activities and interactions occur when learners promote each other’s learning. It includes oral explanations of solving problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal and Small Group Social Skills</td>
<td>When learners learn academic content (language task) and also interpersonal skills within a small team (team-work).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Group Processing

When the learners are encouraged to analyse the team dynamics and the application of social skills after completion of individual tasks. However, it is not idle time, but tasks with specific goals are given, where the above two aspects are revealed.

In the present study, the face-to-face interaction was encouraged in both parts of the study. After each learner’s individual effort to solve the problems, the answers were discussed among learners.

2.6.3 Peer review as a social strategy and its training

There are many studies which report the benefits of providing students with opportunities to give feedback to, and receive it from, their fellow students (see e.g. Falchikov, 2001; Liu and Carless, 2006). Falchikov introduces the methods and practice of “peer tutoring” focusing on how to set up schemes and how to cope with common problems. She discusses the rationale behind this learning form and its benefits. Liu and Carless (2006) report a large-scale survey of teachers and students in Hong Kong showing resistance to peer assessment using grades. They state that peer feedback helps learners to take an active role in managing their learning. They also claim that it can be quicker and more accessible sometimes than the feedback provided by a tutor, and it does not normally give rise to the anxiety which is often linked with the peer assessment with marks or a grade.
The experimental study by Kurt and Atay (2007) claims that results of the quantitative data showed that the group which received feedback from peers experienced significantly less anxiety while undertaking writing tasks than the group which received feedback from teachers at the end of the study. The interview results also revealed that the learners benefited from the process of peer feedback as it was through their friends that they became aware of their writing mistakes. Additionally, during the feedback, they received opinions as readers from their friends to elaborate. It helped them look at their writing from a different perspective. According to them, overall there are very positive effects of peer feedback in class.

From the above literature, we understand that the first benefit of peer-feedback is that it provides an alternative for teaching and feedback method against the traditional way of teacher’s feedback. In these sessions, learners work with their peers to improve their writing skills. Secondly, the anxiety is lowered and learners are more motivated because they become aware of common problems faced by them and the peers. Thirdly, peer feedback helps learners to take more responsibilities for their learning. They feel responsible for reading the peer’s text with care and giving constructive feedback. Lastly, the significant benefit is that such sessions provide opportunities to inculcate social affective strategies in learners.

However, there are also some drawbacks of peer feedback. According to Connor and Asenavage (1994), teacher feedback has more influences on learners’ writing. Only five percent of peer feedback during their study influenced the writing. Learners respect and respond more to the teacher’s feedback compared to their peers’ feedback. Eventually, they tend not to make corrections based on peer feedback. Therefore, the teachers’ strict instructions to do revisions is critical for incorporation of feedback given by a teacher or a
Besides, some learners cannot actually give peer feedback because of insufficient knowledge. In such cases, learners hardly learn from others, resulting into a peer feedback defeating its original purpose and rationale to help peers to improve.

In his work on “Chinese EFL Students’ Attitudes to Peer Feedback and Peer Assessment in an Extended Pair work Setting”, Tim Roskams (1999) discusses the patterns and perceived usefulness of peer interaction, feedback and peer evaluation in the light of cultural values of Chinese learners. He States that about 5% of students did not enjoy the collaborative assessment. Overall response to peer assessment as a learning experience was favourable, but students were unsure about its fairness and felt less comfortable about it as an assessment exercise than a learning exercise.

*Peer review has been widely used in Japanese language instruction* before. However, most of the studies have focused on Peer Learning for Improving Writing Skills or Reading with peers (See Ikeda 1998,1999,2004, Tateoka 2000, 2005, Kageyama 2001). Ikeda, Tateoka (2007) give a detail introduction of Peer Learning as a way to design creative learning.

In her Ph.D. research, Nguyen Song Lan Anh (2015) explored the Peer Feedback and Self Feedback for extempore speech activity of Vietnamese JFL learners. She reports that the following phenomena were observed. Change1) Appearance of “Presentation of improvement plan”, Change2) Appearance of “meta-viewpoint”, Change3) Appearance of “Feedback from listeners’ viewpoint”, Change4) Appearance of “Evaluation by designating specific parts”, Change5) The emergence of “expression of willingness to learn”
She reports that the learners seem to be consciously observing his / her speech “before” in comparison with the speech “after” the feedback and noticed the problem in their speech and began to think about a plan to correct it. Secondly, she examined the relevance of change in self-feedback with the change in peer feedback but found no clear evidence that there was a causal relationship, but common points in the direction of change in both. She also observes the emergence of autonomy to a certain extent with the help of collaboration.

2.6.4 Self-review and self-assessment

Self-assessment and self-review can be perceived as one way to facilitate the practice the use of the meta-cognitive strategies.

Based on recommendations for the teachers, it was decided to bring the learning process and value addition through peer feedback to learners’ notice in a concrete way. Therefore, self-review and peer review sheets were formulated and improvised throughout the training as per the response of the learners.

It is noted in several studies that there is a difficulty faced by students when they self-assess. Most difficult factor is the accuracy of scores. Orsmond, Merry, and Reiling (1997) found that students many times misjudged the assessments. They used a science class assessment project and compared students’ self-assessment scores with the scores given in teacher’s assessment. The study showed that there was an overall disagreement between the markings of 86%. While 56% of students over-marked themselves, 30% students under-marked themselves. They also noted that generally, poor students tended to over-mark their work and the good students tended to under-mark their work. Sadler (1989) counteracts these difficulties by emphasizing the need for a teacher to pass the responsibility of assessment to the student...
through a process of students becoming a trainee in assessment. The teacher’s role is to guide the student in critical evaluation of their learning. If we provide a guided, but direct and authentic evaluation experience for students, it enables them to develop their own evaluative knowledge, thereby including them within the range of people who can determine the quality of performance using multiple criteria. It also enables the teacher to transfer some of the responsibility for making decisions to learner.

2.6.5 Training materials for Japanese conversation

There is a wide range of materials available in Japan especially for conversation practice. They vary with the target level namely; basic/beginners, intermediate, advanced and business level Japanese demanding higher order skills. None of them are sold in India, however are available in libraries and can be ordered online. Although there is a wide variety of teaching materials for Japanese conversation practice, the focus of the study helped to narrow down on particular books. The training programme developed for conversation intended to create awareness and practice of language functions, set expressions, usage of honorific language and discourse specific to Japanese social aspect. The following are the books referred to for the above-said purpose.

1. 『マンガで学ぶ日本語会話』 ALC Press, Japan 2006 Authors: Shinro Kaneko, Minorifukada, Mikiko Kurokawa, Tomoko Miyashita

Target Level: Japanese learning latter half stage of basic level to intermediate level first half
Aim: It aims to learn commonly used natural phrases and also acquire knowledge about Japanese customs and culture. The primary objective is to enable learners to conduct a smooth communication in daily situations without any friction.
Structure: It is split into PART1 "How do you speak at such time?" PART2 "How do you speak in such a situation?". The first part consists a functional syllabus, and the second part deals covers a situational syllabus. Together with PART 1 and PART 2 there are 12 chapters, each consisting of [Comics + Commentary + Practice + Plus α Information + Column]. Learners are be able to understand the flow of conversation visually, along with the theme-related grammar and expressions. The script of the comic strips is included in the CD. ‘Commentary’ focuses on the grammar and expressions coming in a manga episode and explains the learning items. ‘Practice’ involves various types of items such as paraphrasing the learned expressions, sorting words, substitution drills. The book also gives ‘Plus α’, i.e. specific attention points, hints and convenient expressions for smooth progress of conversation. ‘Column’ gives cultural information such as Japanese customs, manners, and things.

The easy to understand story and conversation pictures were useful to motivate learners to talk. The book incorporates certain compensatory strategies such as ‘Asking once again, asking/providing the meaning/explanation, asking for rephrasing’ to name a few. Communication strategies such as ‘giving appropriate encouraging expressions(あいづち)’ and negotiation strategies ‘Assert oneself softly’ which are unique to Japanese communication style are given a good coverage. All these aspects were found to be similar to the stand taken by Marianne Celce-Murcia, Zoltan Dörnyei, Sarah Thurrell (1995:14). Moreover, the practice sets and columns assist self-study before and after the training sessions. For the above-said reasons, the material was found to be crucial for the training.
2. 『なめらか日本語会話』 (1997) ALC Press, Author: Tomisaka Yoko

**Target level:** Learners who have completed basic level and proceed to intermediate, are good in language knowledge but lack in Japanese oral communication skills.

**Structure:** It is divided into 3 parts namely; 1. Sound change 2. Conversational style and 3. Speech functions, with 23 chapters with details on conversation rules and inputs that are important for natural flow of the conversation.

For the training in natural conversation, the book was found to be very effective because it provided the inputs such as sound changes/short forms/ ellipses in spoken language that are not covered in a standard textbook focusing more on formal and written Japanese. The contents of the book helped in keeping Japanese communication as the base for structuring syllabus (contents) and curriculum (sequencing and presentation) of the training programme. Particularly part one and two were of utmost importance from a point of view of communicating in a natural style.

3. 『会話に挑戦！中級前期からの日本語ロールプレイ』

3 A Network, Japan 2005 Authors: Nakai Junko, Kondo Fumi, Suzuki Mariko, Ono Megumihisako, Aramaki Tomoko, Morii Tetsuya

**Target level:** From early intermediate level onward.

**Structure:** The book is structured in such a way that learners through role-playing become aware of what was missing in themselves, what kind of language knowledge, linguistic
expression was necessary, and go on acquiring the language in the process. It covers 22 situations from scenes and situations which JFL students are likely to come across.

The textbook very elaborately gives various possible variations in practical situations, which were necessary for the conversation training in the present study. The book was particularly useful in providing a good introduction and practice for expressions and techniques necessary for the natural flow of the conversation such as fillers, quick responses and set expressions.


The book gives a variety of situations and natural expressions for conversation. It has a CD with conversation recorded with natural phrases. With the technique of sync reading and shadowing, one can listen to plenty of Japanese in conversation. It gives all variations that are required and likely to be used in a similar scenario. Learners can practice in class lessons, as well as by themselves.

Though this book was not focused on as teaching material, it helped in giving insights into the variations that may occur in individual responses.

2.7 Literature review related to training in reading

Although reading was considered to be a passive language skill earlier, it was proven that the reader is active while reading a text with several mental activities, both conscious and subconscious. Though the processing within the human brain has remained an ever exciting area for the researchers, the references taken for the study are mainly from a language teaching point of view.
2.7.1 The Three Reading Models

An individual’s reading proficiency depends on various factors, including general language proficiency, experience, the complexity of the text, purpose of reading and topic of specific texts as well as the logical thinking, which is required while reading for example for drawing an inference. Experts in language reading developed various models of the reading process which are used in comprehending texts. Hedgecock & Ferris (2009) gave an account of three distinct models for reading processes and development as the following: 1.bottom-up, 2.top-down, and 3.Interactive. Usually bottom-up and top-down are considered to be opposite approaches and the interactive model employs a combination of strategies from both models as per requirement. Many experts advocate for the third, i.e. the interactive approach because it is closer to the reading process in real-life in a variety of texts as per the need of the text and purpose of reading.

![Diagram of the three models of reading](image)

**Fig. 2.7 The three models of reading**

Hedgecock & Ferris (2009) described the *bottom-up model* as a process, which focuses on discrete vocabulary, world level, and gaining comprehension by translating informational
texts piece-by-piece. The term “bottom-up” comes from a concept that reading begins from the “bottom” i.e. smallest and most basic units such as letters, then simple words and morphemes, then gradually works its way “up” with larger units such as sentences, paragraphs, and the whole text. Barnett (1989) explained it as a linear process, where text has to be received before higher-level mental stages of comprehension and decoding information can be used. Barnett further stated that the process of bottom-up is mainly text-driven and progressive, because small portions of text are analysed and slowly added on to make them meaningful and comprehensible.

We should note that graphics and symbols play an essential role in the bottom-up model, as it relies heavily on the text itself, particularly in case of Japanese, compared to European languages having the alphabetic system. It has “2 categories of writing systems: logographic which indicates meaningful units and syllabic. The syllabic has two scripts (hiragana and katakana), and one script in the logographic category (kanji)” (Matsumoto, 2013). This explains the script and vocabulary oriented teaching-learning focused in India, where the analytical and Bottom-Up approach has been the tradition for centuries. Secondly, the reading speed which is of high concern for learners and teachers is a direct result of over-use of Bottom-Up model of reading.

In the case of reading in a second or a foreign language (L2), using bottom-up strategies to decode may be difficult due to the differences in writing systems of a first language (L1) and L2. Orthography can affect the accuracy of L2 word recognition as well as the strategies used to process those words (Koda, 1989, 1996). Koda compared the difference in performance in reading comprehension and correlated vocabulary knowledge between learners with related
orthographic backgrounds and those with unrelated. Learners with related orthographic background had a greater advantage initially and also had significantly better test performance over time. Particularly in the case of Japanese, kanji does not have a clear connection between orthography, phonology, and meaning (Matsumoto, 2013). As a result, even if one cannot pronounce a particular kanji, recognition of the character itself may enable a reader to decode the meaning of the text. Thus, identifying a kanji’s meaning without knowing the reading may enable readers to continue with decoding and assist with reading comprehension.

Another feature of the bottom-up model is the theory of automatic information processing, created by Laberge and Samuels (1974, cited in Logan 1997). This theory states that the human mind works like a computer, and can perform tasks one by one, giving attention to specific tasks as needed. The term automaticity was used to indicate that a reader has limited ability to shift their attention between processes of decoding and comprehending. Therefore, in order to achieve an automatized process of reading, a successful bottom-up reader begins by developing macro-level processing skills in a structured manner and practices those skills until they become automatic over time (Anderson, 1984). After achieving this stage, the macro-level skills operate from working memory without conscious effort. An individual’s learning style can have an effect on the model of reading used.

Usually, bottom-up readers are considered analytical learners because they are detail-oriented and move systematically through the learning process. Hedgecock & Ferris (2009) further described analytical learners as those who closely pay attention to detail, and therefore can easily remember every significant detail (of the text) and even some minor details. They are contrasted to global learners, who have a more holistic, top-down approach to learning.
The contrast model to Bottom-Up model is Top-down Model. Hedgecock & Ferris (2009) explained that the top-down approach is a holistic method that does not rely on small details, but instead on making assumptions of reading based on context. Thus, top-down readers are considered global learners, and often get the gist of text without paying much attention to specifics. This concept of “getting the gist” is the essential focus of the top-down method. Barnett (1989) described top-down as a linear process like bottom-up, yet it proceeds oppositely, starting from the top with higher-level mental stages, and moving down to the text itself. It is reader-driven and progresses by the reader making intelligent guesses about what will happen in the text. Goodman (1967) referred to the top-down process as a “psycholinguistic guessing game”. He explained that construction of the meaning from text includes four interdependent procedures, namely: content prediction, sampling of material, confirming predictions, and also correcting inaccurate predictions. In this process, a reader makes conjectures based on the textual cues, and then confirms or rejects his/her assumptions as reading progresses.

Goodman’s guessing game theory indicated that readers do not need to perceive and understand all parts of the text in order to be an efficient reader. It is believed that efficient readers can make accurate guesses with very fewer cues. In reading, this background knowledge is referred to as ‘schema’, and is a critical aspect of the top-down process. The schema theory states that readers use background knowledge from their prior experiences to comprehend text (content schemata). Formal schema focuses on background knowledge of the formal and organizational structures of different texts (Carrel & Eisterhold, 1983). Different types of text (e.g. stories, letters, informative essays and so on) will be presented in
different forms and structured differently according to their genre. Readers become familiar with these genres through repeated exposure and gaining life experience. Linguistic schemata mean the skills of decoding and discourse processing. Hedgecock & Ferris (2009) stated that this type of schema and knowledge of text macrostructure can be beneficial to readers, whereas gaps in the formal schema can cause difficulty for readers, especially for L2 reading. Reasons for these gaps include a limited experience of reading in general and less exposure to genres, and quite importantly, formal schemata of their L1 may not transfer cross-linguistically. Because of this, many L2 readers need to become familiar with the formal schema of their L2. The content schema is often referred to as the cultural schema, as a person’s culture greatly influences the way they perceive an idea or concept. Rivers and Temperly (1978) stated that cultural knowledge has socio-cultural meaning, which “springs from shared experiences, values, and attitudes”. Because of these shared attitudes, the way text and content is interpreted can vary due to the cultural background of the reader.

The third and final model of reading is the interactive model. This model combines techniques from both the bottom-up and top-down models, thus incorporating surface-reading as well as more in-depth cognitive strategies for reading comprehension. Barnett (1989) stated that unlike the first two, the interactive model is not linear, but a cyclical process where textual information as well as the reader’s mental activities work simultaneously and make an equally important impact on comprehension (p. 28). This concept of simultaneous working is the essence of the interactive model. It suggests that the text sampling techniques of bottom-up and the higher-level decoding of top-down interact continuously together. A typical example of interactive reading is the Interactive Compensatory Model. The compensatory model stated
that strength in one processing stage can compensate for weakness in another. Here, a reader compensates for gaps in reading comprehension with knowledge from other areas. Therefore, a reader less proficient in bottom-up reading gets assistance from greater knowledge of top-down strategies, and it is also possible vice versa.

‘It is not expected that only one extreme model should be used strictly for learning. It was found that a pairing of the two may prove to be best for teachers and students’ (Dahl, 2000). With the interactive model, readers can extract methods from both the bottom-up and top-down approaches. The interactive approach has been favoured amongst many contemporary researchers of language reading, who believe that utilizing this method may better assist readers in achieving a higher level of reading comprehension.

Research in Reading strategies in the Japanese language proved that the interactive model was significant in the process of reading Japanese. The interactive model, using both bottom-up and top-down processing, would help language learners understand the text in Japanese. Based on the information of Horibe (1995) and Toriyama (1993), strategies in the interactive model employed both bottom-up and top-down aspects. For example, grouping strategy functioned in a duel way by analysing at the word level (bottom-up model), while connecting what the learner knew to understand the concepts of the reading (top-down model). Students in Horibe's study indicated that they activated schema to become familiar with the reading and utilized conceptual information to fill in the unknown words and sentence structures. During this task, students were self-monitoring their reading process linguistically such as examining words as well as conceptually. As a result, the students were able to use the strategy of decoding to analyze the unknown words. Thus, students utilized the reading strategies that
were categorized as an interactive model to comprehend the reading in Japanese. Students had patterns of metacognitive and cognitive strategies use (Toriyama, 1993). Toriyama confirmed that ESL reading strategies could be transferable into learning Japanese as L2. The study revealed the gap in reading strategy use, with cognitive strategies accounting for 80% and metacognitive for the remainder. The most used cognitive strategy was making inferences while the most used metacognitive strategy was self-management.

For Indian JFL learners, a need is felt to enable them to pull from the strengths of both models, and for doing so, learners should be made aware of and given practice into both the models.

**2.7.2 Training of Reading Strategies**

In the early era of research on strategies, Carrel (1989) studied in depth the skills and strategies used in second language reading. She studied the strategies used for reading an English text and a Spanish text by 45 English natives learning Spanish language and 75 Spanish natives learning English language. She classified the strategies into two categories namely Local strategies (Bottom Up strategies or BU) that concentrate on comprehension of meaning through content and details in the text and Global Strategies (Top Down or TD) strategies that use background knowledge, knowledge of structure patterns for comprehension of meaning. She observed that, though there are exceptions, proficient readers of L2 perceive TD as effective strategies whereas less proficient readers perceive BU as effective strategies. The 2nd part of the present study has taken the above references while formulating the opinionnaire on the learners’ perception of reasons for difficulty in reading comprehension.
In the case of JFL learners, there have been various studies and reports on Reading Strategy training in classrooms (See Minaminosono1997, Olga 2006, and Kawamori 2015). The early theoretical studies include Itou (1991) who organised all Reading Strategies being researched in Europe and America during that period. One more frequently referred study is by Kudo (1993) who compared the difference in the use of strategies in objective questions and summary writing as well as the strategy used by better performers and poor performers. She also proposes that training in such reading strategies will be effective particularly in case of poor performers who in spite of having domain knowledge, are weak in reading. The reference of reading strategies classified in Kudo (1993) is taken for designing the training module. The 23 strategies listed in her research are given below.

**Table 2.4 The reading strategies organized by Kudo (1993)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Skimming</th>
<th>2. Reading back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Checking new words</td>
<td>4. Skipping unknown words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Looking for keywords</td>
<td>6. Looking for important information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Reading details</td>
<td>8. Drawing underline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Paraphrasing per paragraph</td>
<td>12. Paraphrasing per sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Using background knowledge of the content</td>
<td>16. Summarizing the contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Imaging</td>
<td>18. Inferencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Asking questions to oneself about the important elements</td>
<td>20. Asking questions to oneself about the details</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The strategies with no.1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, and 16 were focused on in the Reading Strategy Training. An additional strategy of “Predicting (the forthcoming content)” which is said to be an important Top Down model strategy (Global) was included. In the present study, the prediction from Linguistic queues was focused. The categorization used in the present study is based on the Japan Foundation reference book 『読むことを教える』 (2004) as given below (the translation was done for the present thesis).

**Bottom Up strategies**

- Confirming new vocabulary
- Grasping the link between sentences by paying attention to conjunctions and referents
- Organising finer details with (in the form of) tables and diagrams

**Top Down strategies**

- Finding only necessary details quickly (Scanning)
- Reading through quickly and grasp the essence of the whole (skimming)
- Reading while predicting
- Identifying important words and sentences and skipping others
2.7.3 Teaching materials for Japanese reading

There is a wide range of materials available in Japan specially for reading practice. None of them are sold in India, however are available in libraries and can be ordered online.

1. 『留学生のための 読解トレーニング ～読む力がアップする15のポイント～』
   Bonjinsha Publication, Japan (May 2011) Edited by Kei Ishiguro, Authors: Michiko Kumada, Chie Tsutsui, Olga Pokrovska, Yumiko Yamada

Level: From intermediate first half to advanced level

Contents: The book covers 15 points to improve reading ability. It aims to enable learners to understand Japanese sentences, paragraphs and texts correctly. It consists of 15 sections, each of which introduces a reading strategy, that is, a technique to read Japanese texts. The reading (skills and) strategies are roughly divided into four parts.

1. "Strategy to understand one sentence" (Part 1: Chapters 1 to 4): It is a long and complicated sentence that learners who have just entered intermediate level feel initially difficult. Grammar has already been learned at the elementary level, but if the sentence is long, they cannot understand how to comprehend it. In Part 1, there is a training to understand a long and complicated sentence without any error.

2. "Strategy to Understand the Continuity of Sentences" (Part 2: Chapters 5 to 7): The sentence one is reading is always connected to sentences before and after by the topic, and the connection is indicated by the demonstrative pronouns, abbreviations, and inter-related phrases. In the second part, the book focuses on expressions showing links with the topic and aims training to understand consecutive sentences correctly.
3. "Strategy to understand the development of sentences" (Part 3: Chapters 8 to 11): Expression that shows the development of text that comes at the beginning or the end of a sentence is placed to help the reader understand. Part 3 focuses on such expressions, carries out training that seeks out the structure of the text and also the author’s perspective.

4. "Strategy to understand using prior knowledge" (Part 4: Chapters 2 - 15) Even sentences with difficult grammar and vocabulary are easy to understand if the reader knows the contents and structure of the sentences. Part 4 asks to use the knowledge that the reader has and aims training that makes it easier to understand the sentences. (From the book's Introduction)

The classification of strategies in the units of sentence level, paragraph level and whole text level were found to be very useful for training purpose. The approach of the present study was to assimilate both; “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches to train learners in reading that is closer to reality. The comprehension passages and the exercises also proved to be useful for actual training.

The sequencing of the strategies was found to be very useful for the training purpose as it gave a specific structure to the training course and also made it easy for the learners to place the content of the input on the continuum of reading strategies. The strategies ranged from the word level to Sentence level, then expanded to paragraph level and the whole text level. However, the book more or fewer guidelines which the trainer has to provide for additional material with examples of conjunctions arrange extra materials.

2. 『速読のための日本語』 Japan Times

**Aim:** Improving Reading Skills of Intermediate and Advanced Students
Structure: divided into 3 parts namely; Scanning, Skimming and Scanning& Skimming. In the last and 4th section of the text, longer and more complicated texts are given for challenge.

This book was originally published as a teaching material for foreign learners of Japanese. However, the level is high, almost near to the level of real-life Japanese. There is an extensive use of authentic materials. In general, teaching materials for foreign language learners are often rewritten by lowering the vocabulary level for learning, but the texts included in this material is what ordinary Japanese people come across and read in everyday life. The book gives a suitable arrangement of exercises and reading skills such as “scanning”, “skimming” or “Identifying the key sentence” and it gives a ready to use a collection of authentic material for enhancing of those specific skills with relevant exercises. Content matching, selection from four options, descriptive questions, etc. are provided after various kinds of materials ranging from newspaper articles, short stories, to TV section of the newspaper and the delivery menu.

It proved to be a good training material as it is grounded in real-life Japanese reading experience, was used in training and also in formulating the tests.

3.『読解をはじめるあなたへ』Bonjinsha Publication, Japan 2011 (3rd Edition)

Level: From basic to intermediate level

Aim: To support "the Bridge from Elementary to Intermediate".

Structure: Main text based on real-life texts, questions on new vocabulary, content comprehension, crossword on Katakana words and column for providing insight into vocabulary background and cultural inputs.
It has gathered interesting topics so that learners at the beginner level get used to reading long texts early and enjoy the activity of reading. A separate vocabulary list with English, Chinese, Korean bilingual is attached. It touches upon various exercises which train in different essential reading skills such as scanning, scheming, getting the gist of the paragraphs and the whole text, as well as grasping the structure of the text.

This text was used as a reference for forming tests.

2.8 Trends in Recent research on Language Learning Strategies

Compared to the earlier research on identifying Language Learning Strategies by observing good learners, more recent research seems to be that of examining practical aspects of strategy training. This type of research has examined language learner strategies in more context-specific situations, rather than all-inclusive category. For example when learners take up tasks in academic writing, they would utilize a different set of strategies than if they were to interact with a native speaker in a daily conversation. Although the terms cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are maintained in strategy research, other learning strategies related to learners managing their affective conditions or social environment usually seem to have classified under a more generic term ‘self-regulation’.

Secondly, there is also a trend of study on the side effects of training in particular strategies. E.g. Lam (2010) studies Metacognitive Strategy Teaching in the ESL Oral Classroom for gauging the Ripple Effect on Non-Target Strategy Use. Her study examines the ‘wash over’ effect on learners’ use of pre-existing, non-target strategies.

Thirdly, there are some studies which attempt to place the strategy training within the courses correctly. E.g. Mohammad (2015) studies learners in ESP(The English for Special Purposes)
and EGP (The English for General Purposes) courses in University of Tabriz, Iran and asserts that if the students try to develop effective strategies to handle the reading skill thoroughly, they will probably be better able to deal with the later ESP courses. They also report that ironically the students memorise a grammatical rules as a requirement to clear the university entrance exam. Therefore there is a need to improvise EGP course and equip the students with strategies for their later courses. Similar trend is observed in the Indian JFL learners.

2.9 Relevance of the present study

The above literature review facilitated various research methods and designs as well as the findings of studies in strategy training. However, there has been extremely less experimental study of Indian JFL learners. There has been no exploratory study of Autonomous Learning. Secondly, it can be said that different models have been conducted for strategy training, and yet very few studies try to comprehensively cover skill-specific cognitive strategies, social strategies and meta-cognitive strategies that form the essentials of Autonomous Learning.

Thirdly, though there is ample study of peer feedback for improving writing and speech, there has been hardly any study in experimenting Japanese conversation.

Therefore, the present study was an attempt to take the research forward and conduct an exploratory study in explicit strategy training which would train learners in Learning Strategies, leading thereby to Autonomous Learning.

2.10 Summary

After reviewing the related literature, the following decisions were made for the experimentation involved in the Training in Conversation and Learning Strategies.
1. A way to provide a detailed guideline for peer feedback during the training

2. A guideline in terms of questions that will initiate self-review

3. To record learners’ feedback to each other in the form of peer review sheets and also in self-review sheets as “Items learned from friends”.

4. Not to implement peer assessment (marking) in a formal set up, but keep it limited to peer feedback for improvisation in performance.

5. Since there is less use of Peer response or Peer feedback in a classroom for improving performance in the Japanese language, it was decided to implement it regularly in the Training in Conversation and learning strategies.

After reviewing the related literature, the following decisions were made for the experimentation involved in Training in Reading and learning strategies.

1. The strategy training model for reading will make learners aware top-down model of reading which was not perhaps known before.

2. The training will involve giving some quick techniques for the prediction from text structures and conjunctions.

3. The training will provide a knowledge of linguistic clues which can be memorized and used while reading.

4. The training will involve time-bound exercises in order to bring efficiency in the use of reading strategies and improving speed.
To sum up, the literature review facilitated the choice of the method of data collection, analysis as well as selection and sequencing of strategies and materials during the development of products, i.e. strategy training programme for Japanese conversation and reading. It helped to narrow down the focus on the nature and scope of the present study. It clarified the relevance of the present study with specific reference to the research on JFL learners in India.