

CHOICE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY BRAZILIAN EFLers: GENDER
DIFFERENCES AND CONTEXTUAL VARIABLES

Tania Salies

Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro

ABSTRACT: Departing from cross-cultural studies on the language behavior of men and women, this study examines how gender relates to choice of language learning strategies (LLS) and to contextual variables. To do so, it collects data from 128 male and 186 female EFLers enrolled in three language institutes in southeast Brazil by means of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and analyze them statistically and in the light of knowledge of the Brazilian context. Results seem to reflect an interaction between contextual variables and gender-related choice of strategies. Males in the study reported using 21 of the SILL strategies with higher frequency than females. Out of these strategies, several are social and affective, a finding that goes against the literature that relates these strategies to behavior typically associated with female learners.

KEYWORDS: SILL; gender differences; EFL; sociocultural context.

RESUMO: Partindo de estudos interculturais sobre as diferenças entre o comportamento linguístico de homens e mulheres, o presente estudo examina como as variáveis do contexto de aprendizagem de inglês no Brasil relacionam-se com a escolha de estratégias de aprendizagem feita por 128 aprendizes do sexo masculino e 186 do sexo feminino, matriculados em três cursos de inglês no sudeste do Brasil. Para tal, gera dados por meio do Inventário de Estratégias para Aprendizagem de Línguas (OXFORD, 1990), SILL, analisa-os estatisticamente e à luz de conhecimento sobre o contexto brasileiro. Os resultados parecem refletir uma interação entre o contexto em tela e as estratégias escolhidas por homens e mulheres. Participantes homens reportaram usar 21 das estratégias do SILL com maior frequência que as mulheres, e várias dessas estratégias são sociais e afetivas, resultado que contraria visões que as associam a comportamentos tipicamente femininos.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE: SILL; gênero; ensino-aprendizagem de inglês como língua estrangeira; contexto sociocultural.

1. Introduction

This study examines how contextual variables relate to gender-based differences in the choice of language learning strategies by means of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)¹. The positive impact of language learning strategies² (LLS) on learners' success in the learning of a foreign language has been previously attested by several studies along the last

1. The SILL is available at http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=VIOYNOQRvnL3_2fERISp4RWw_3d_3d%22%3Eclick%20Here%20to%20take%20survey%3C/a%3E.

2. Oxford (1990) defines Language Learning Strategies (LLS) as steps or actions learners consciously take to facilitate

30 years (RUBIN, 1975; STERN, 1975; BIALYSTOK, 1981; O'MALLEY et al, 1985; CHAMOT, 2004; OXFORD, 1990 etc.). As learners engage in strategy use, not only do they become aware of their mental processes, but also in control of their learning, choosing strategies that are tailored to the task at hand and to their learning styles. McGroarty (1988) and Vann & Abraham (1990), for example, demonstrate how decision-making capability relates to the choice of strategies that are appropriate to the task and context. Flexibility and strategic competence seem to be key in learners' quest to learn a foreign language. Although strategy use will vary according to the task, proficiency, age, and context of learning (RUBIN, 1975; OXFORD, 2003; CHAMOT, 2004), some studies rank social strategies as the most influential (WONG-FILLMORE, 1976; NAIMAN et al, 1978; RUBIN, 1981; BIALYSTOK, 1981) in the process of language learning. This group of strategies includes asking questions, cooperating and empathizing with others. All of them generate involvement and promote co-construction of meaning. Furthermore, cooperation with others also increases self-esteem and confidence, being thus associated with affective strategies and, ultimately, with achievement.

Bialystok's study, for example, strongly correlates the use of language learning strategies to achievement (assessed by means of four tests) in a second language, further confirming the pervasive effect of functional practice across tasks, even on writing or reading. The more learners create practice opportunities and/or production tricks (for example, looking for people to talk in English, encouraging their selves to speak, asking questions and finding interactional opportunities), the better their performance in the L2. The facilitative role of functional practice across language tasks has been further reinforced by studies involving factor analysis such as Oxford (1986), which surveyed 483 non-university adults FL learners at the Defense Language Institute (Monterey).

Other studies have established the statistical link between language learning strategies and

learning, retaining, retrieving and using an additional language. LLS make the learning process easier, more self-directed and enjoyable as well as contribute to learner's ability of transferring language knowledge to new contexts.

achievement, but advised caution in the interpretation of results for two reasons. First, because of the chicken-egg relationship between achievement and strategy use: we will never know which one comes first. Second, other factors, among them gender and culture, may be interacting with the learning situation, blurring the link between achievement and strategy use. This is what Politzer (1983) demonstrates. He correlated the use of language learning strategies 95 undergraduate American FL students reported using with achievement in the FL by means of a questionnaire. He was cautious in the interpretation of his results because he could not discriminate if proficiency increased strategy use or if strategy use resulted in better achievement. Not to mention that gender may have interfered with results related to achievement too.

2. Gender-differences in the use of LLs across contexts

Numerous studies in the field of second language acquisition have examined gender-based differences as related to use of language learning strategies. Politzer (1983) revealed that American females studying a FL engage in out-of class interaction more frequently than males. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Ehrman and Oxford (1989) also investigated a FL environment in the United States. They revealed that females use language learning strategies more frequently than males. Oxford and Nyikos investigated the variables affecting choice of language learning strategies of 1,200 American university FL students, concluding that gender highly influenced formal rule-related practice, general study habits, and conversational input elicitation strategies. Green and Oxford (1993) reconfirmed the influence of gender in strategy choice when surveying 374 EFL/ESL learners at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez by means of the SILL version 7.0. Females not only reported using language learning strategies more frequently, but also using significantly more affective strategies as a group than males. Following the same trend, Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall (1994) investigated American high school students who were learning Japanese by satellite. Females in that sample surpassed males in strategy use in all major strategy

categories, particularly in the cognitive, social, and affective strategies. More recently, Teh et al (2009) and Hashemi (2011) have corroborated such evidence. Their data illustrate the female learners' tendency to use LLS more frequently than males, as well as their preference for social and affective strategies. Oxford (1993) resorts to social development studies to explain these findings, associating gender-based differences to females' stronger social orientation, verbal skills and conformity to norms. According to the author, women demonstrate higher desire to please and gain approval from others, through good grades or social behavior.

However, research conducted in other cultures has revealed different patterns. Wharton (2000), in his study of 678 university foreign language learners in Singapore, revealed that males in the study used LLS with significant higher frequency than women did. Similar results were found by Tran (1988), a study conducted with Vietnamese immigrants in the US. In the first case, learners' proficiency may have intervened with the measure. In the second, according to Tran, employability may have intervened, since those immigrants had to provide for their families and needed to learn English minimally to get a job.

Yet, other research studies found no significant differences between the genders in research conducted in Taiwan (CHOU, 2002), Saudi Arabia (AL-OTAIBI, 2004), Jordan (KAYLANI, 1996) and Tanzania (NYONGESA, 2014) using the same research instrument (the SILL) only or the SILL combined with other instruments such as interviews and classroom observations (KAYLANI, 1996; NYONGESA, 2014). Nyongesa set religion, gender and the learning context as independent variables. Religion was found to be a significant factor while gender and the learning context (urban or rural) were not.

Although many studies in the teaching and learning of foreign languages dedicated themselves to gender-based differences and their relation to reported use of LLSs, few contemplated the importance of social variables in the results. One of them is Kaylani (1996). In his study, he

discusses that both male and female EFLers equally use social strategies to learn English as a foreign language because of economic, social and political factors in Jordanian society. While female learners use social strategies seeking social approval (in Jordan women are socialized to be obedient to authority in the family and social contexts), male learners undergo a great pressure to pass the English exam for college entrance, and, consequently, have access to well-established careers, progressing in their roles as caretakers and leaders in society. The author goes on with his argument, saying that in current times, being employable is also a plus for all women in Jordan, since living with a two-salary income have become a common trend. While male learners are integratively motivated to learn English, female learners are instrumentally oriented, but both state their preference for social strategies in the interviews (a talk-aloud protocol in which participants talked about their strategies to study English) and answers to the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1990), the same instrument I use in the present study.

To contribute to our understanding of how context relates to gender-related choice of language learning strategies in Brazil, I designed the present study. Based on my review of the literature, I hypothesize that a strong instrumental motivation will override gender differences in the Brazilian context of English as a Foreign Language learning.

3. Socialization experiences and language use

Cross-cultural studies on gender differences signal that differences in the way people use language and behave derive from socialization experiences (FLEMING, 1986), not from biological or genetic factors. For example, although spatial skills have long been considered superior in males in the Western culture, studies with Eskimo students have indicated spatial equality between the genders because both men and women in the Inuit culture grow up instrumentally appropriating themselves of space to create social and emotional places. They attach personal and collective significance to places by associating them to settlements, buildings, human beings, survival needs to

such a point that they map topography into memory, articulating it with a store of cultural knowledge (WHITRIDGE, 2002, p. 2-4). In Bali, males need to be part of a couple to vote, a fact that goes contrary to the history of Western societies. Since the appearance of video games, both men and women engage in this experience, a practice correlated with spatial ability. Feng, Spence and Pratt (2007) report that, after 10 hours of training with an action video game, both men and women in their study performed equally well on tasks that required spatial skills. In all, language tends to reflect social structure and social structure has been changing. Consequently, any claim related to gender differences in the choice of LLS can only be sustained in the light of an analysis of context, which is what I set up to do next, based on my experience as a Brazilian and on statistics published by the media.

The Brazilian context. In Brazil, knowing English has also become synonymous with opportunities. English is the language of commerce with Brazil's major trading partners and the language Brazilians are most likely to need when entering the work force, in almost any field. Brazil's effort to internationalize has been pushing the market to set English as a pre-requisite even for entry-level jobs. According to *Folha de São Paulo*³ (2014), being fluent not only results in higher salaries, but also in more opportunities within a company (see also *O Globo*⁴, on the same subject). Such tendency reflects on the growth of English language institutes. From 2010 to 2011, the revenue of 73 English Language Institutes across Brazil added up to R\$ 3.1 billion, yielding a growth of 11% according to the Brazilian Association of Franchises (*Associação Brasileira de Franquias*, ABF). In addition, English is the language most often used in tourism, pop music (the radio stations play American popular music quite often), and international movies in major theaters as our social experience attests. In other words, Brazilian EFLers do have plenty of instrumental

3. <http://classificados.folha.uol.com.br/empregos/2014/01/1404639-empresas-indicam-novos-cargos-em-que-e-exigido-falar-ingles.shtml>

motivation to learn English. This is true for both females and males. Such instrumental motivation in the Brazilian context may override gender-related differences associated with male and female linguistic behaviors by cross-cultural studies on language use.

4. The Study

In the light of the outlined Brazilian scenario, this study sets out to examine the choice of LLSs by 315 Brazilian EFLers and to verify how it relates to gender. First, it explores how men and women in the sample report using LLSs by means of the SILL. Then it analyzes the data by means of descriptive statistics and Chi-square tests. Finally, it interprets results in the light of the Brazilian context. In doing so, it adds to the sparse number of studies that have taken a contextual perspective in this line of research and, to my knowledge, addressed the topic in the EFL context in Brazil (ROSA and BASSO, 2010; ARAÚJO-SILVA, 2006; PAIVA, 1998; COSCARELLI, 1997). It also adds by allowing comparisons with previous studies that have used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The questions it addresses are (1) how does gender relate to choice of language learning strategies by Brazilian EFL learners? (2) How does the Brazilian environment relate to these choices? Answers to these questions should be of particular interest to FL teachers and to researchers interested in sociolinguistics.

The data have been generated by 315 participants' answers to a Portuguese language version of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, or SILL, Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990)⁵. This self-report questionnaire consists of a fifty-item, Likert-scaled instrument (from one to five) that elicits the frequency with which the respondents use a variety of behaviors for FL learning. For example, respondents indicate if they "almost always" "usually," "sometimes" or "almost never" look for opportunities to speak English. Furthermore, a background questionnaire (adapted from

4. *O Globo*, Caderno Boa Chance, 31 de maio de 2015. *Procuram-se profissionais com inglês fluente*.

5. Please contact the author should you be interested in accessing this version of the SILL.

Oxford, 1990)⁶ elicited respondents' age, gender, number of years of language instruction, self-appraised English proficiency, degree of importance of learning English, reason for learning English, motivation to learn English, and experience in learning other foreign languages. The survey occurred at three English Language Institutes in Rio de Janeiro, southeast Brazil. The three Institutes were selected because of their different approach and method to language teaching. Internal reliability for this specific administration of the Portuguese version of the SILL was .89 (N = 315) on Cronbach's alpha. To analyze the relation between reported use of language learning strategies and gender, I ran Pearson-Chi-square statistical tests on the frequencies the fifty items on the SILL yielded for each gender group, by means of Microsoft's SYSTAT and considered results significant at the 0.05 level.

5. Participants' background profile

The sample consisted of 128 males (Group 1) and 186 females (Group 2) as table 1 shows. Their mean age was (a) 19.8 years in the case of males, ranging from 11 to 48 years; and (b) 18.64 years in the case of females, ranging from 11 to 51 years. All of them were native speakers of Portuguese and have studied English as a FL in the Brazilian school system (private or public). According to their answers, they are experienced language learners: A majority reported having learned at least one other language (76.5% of the females and 81.1% of the males) as well as having a good overall English proficiency (71.8% of the females and 74.1% of the males) on a categorical scale corresponding to poor, fair, good, and excellent when compared to native speakers. In addition, 108 females and 71 males reported having been studying English for at least three years. As to the importance of learning English, a slightly greater percentage of females reported considering English learning very important (76.3% of the females contrasted with 68.7% of the males) on a categorical scale corresponding to: not so important, important, and very important.

6. Please contact the author should you be interested in accessing this questionnaire.

Likewise, both genders seem to enjoy language learning (95.6% of the females and 82% of the males marked the item as true of themselves on a categorical scale corresponding to “Yes” and “No”).

TABLE 1
Background profile by gender

REPORTED INFORMATION	MALES (N = 128)		FEMALES (N = 186)	
	N	%	N	%
GOOD ENGLISH PROFICIENCY	92	71.8	138	74.1
VERY IMPORTANT TO LEARN ENGLISH	88	68.7	142	76.3
ENJOY LEARNING THE LANGUAGE	105	82.0	178	95.6
LEARNED OTHER LANGUAGES	98	76.5	151	81.1
	M	SD	M	SD
AGE	19.8	8.76	18.64	7.90

Participants’ reasons for learning English by gender

I also elicited the participants’ reasons for learning English and analyzed them by gender. Subjects marked all answers that were true of themselves by placing check marks in the spaces provided next to six categorical items of the type “I am interested in the language.” Table 2 shows that most males (N=121) and females (N=164) in the sample are moved by instrumental motivation (career goals). They reported to be interested in using the language to advance their professional careers. Also, compared to females, a greater percentage of the males (98%) learn English for professional reasons, travel purposes (67%) or because it is a required elective (50%). In contrast, females reported a higher interest in the English language (84%) and culture (43%).

TABLE 2
Participants’ Reasons for Learning English by gender

RANK	GOALS	MALES		FEMALES	
		N	%	N	%
1	Need English for professional career	121	98%	164	88%
2	Interested in the language	88	68%	157	84%
3	Need it for travel purposes	86	67%	114	61%
4	Required elective	64	50%	92	49%
5	Interested in the culture	41	32%	80	43%
6	Have friends who speak English	29	23%	51	27%

RANK	GOALS	MALES		FEMALES	
		N	%	N	%
7	Others	21	16%	30	16%

* Sample items listed by the respondents: they learn English to learn about the culture, for pleasure, to be able to communicate with people from other cultures, to be able to sing American pop music, to watch movies in English without reading the captions, interest in languages in general, and English is an international language.

6. Gender and the choice of LLSs by Brazilian EFLers

Although males and females in this context have similar profiles, their language learning behaviors seem to be very different. All 50 items on the SILL yielded very high Chi-squares values, as well as highly significant confidence levels ($p < 0.0001$). The same is true of strategy categories. In other words, both males and females in this study reported different frequencies of strategy use when learning English as a foreign language. Their use of memory (MEM), cognitive (COG), compensation (COMP), metacognitive (MET), affective (AFF), and social (SOC) strategies is detailed next. Examples of each strategy category also follow.

Memory strategies. More females reported “associating new to old information” (63% of the females) with high frequency than males (59% of the males). A look at the rankings reveals that this was the memory strategy most used by both gender groups, being immediately followed by “Connecting a word to a mental picture,” which females also reported using with higher frequency than males (60% of the females as opposed to 50% of the males). The third strategy females in the sample reported using more than males was “connecting words and location on a page” (55% of the females as opposed to 40% of the males).

Compared to females, males reported using the following strategies most frequently: “physically acting out new words”, “using flashcards to remember new words”, and “using rhymes to remember new words”, in that order. These strategies show among the least used by the sample as a whole. Both gender groups “use new English words in sentences” moderately.

Cognitive strategies. Out of the 13 cognitive strategies listed on the SILL, males reported

using six more than females did, namely, “Watching movies to learn English” (64% of the males), “Trying not to translate word-for-word,” (49% of the males) and “starting conversations in English” (45% of the males), in that order. They also reported interest in “Practicing the sounds of English,” “Trying to talk like native English speakers,” and “Skimming” more than females did. Among the cognitive strategies females significantly reported using with higher frequency than males are “say or write new words several times” (59% of the females) and “reading for pleasure in English” (51% of the females).

Compensation strategies. Out of the six compensation strategies listed on the SILL, only two are used most frequently by males, namely, “reading without looking up all new words,” and “Trying to guess what comes next.” Females for their part, “use circumlocution or synonyms” more frequently than males. Actually, according to the report of the females in the sample, “Trying to guess what comes next” is their second most frequently used language learning strategy.

Metacognitive strategies. Out of the nine metacognitive strategies listed on the SILL, females used six of them more frequently than males. Among them, “paying attention when one speaks”, is the strategy most used by the sample as a whole as well as by males. Males, for their part, revealed greatest interest, as compared to females, in “seeking many ways to use English”, “seeking opportunities to read in English”, and “looking for people to talk to in English”, all interaction-related strategies.

Affective strategies. They were among the strategies least preferred by the sample, immediately followed by memory strategies. The exception was “Encouraging self to speak.” Surprisingly, they are the strategies which males significantly reported using more frequently than females. “Encouraging self to speak showed among the strategies most used by males (rank fifth) while females gave it a rank tenth. “Trying to relax to speak English” is the only affective strategy females reported using more frequently than males (65% of the sample).

Social strategies. Males reported higher interest than females in “asking questions in English”, a strategy that showed in the 8th rank in males’ preferences, and in “trying to develop cultural understanding”, a strategy they reported using with moderate frequency. Females, for their part, reported higher frequency of use of four social strategies, among them “asking the interlocutor to slow down and repeat”.

Overview by frequency of strategy use. Figure 1 illustrates the patterns of learning behaviors of males and females in all 50 items of the SILL. Their behaviors follow the same trends, but the frequencies are different. The rankings suggest that females reported using more than half of the items on the SILL more frequently than males (n=29). Males reported high to moderate frequency of use of 25 strategies, but their frequencies were significantly lower than those reported by females. In 21 items on the SILL, they reported using strategies more frequently than females and these strategies were predominantly cognitive and affective. Many of them, such as “starting conversations in English,” “Seeking many ways to use English,” “Encourage self to speak when afraid” are functional practice or interaction-related strategies.

The five strategies females reported using with highest frequency were “ask the other person to slow down or repeat”; “pay attention when someone is speaking English”, “use circumlocution or synonyms”, “think about progress in learning”, and “notice mistakes and try to learn”. Both groups demonstrated interest in being corrected. The strategy “asking to be corrected” shows in the sixth rank for both gender groups, being almost always true of both males and females.

Males and females seem to agree as to the least used strategies: They reported using strategies such as “record feelings in learning diary,” “make summaries of information,” “physically act out new words,” “use rhymes to remember new words,” and “use flashcards to remember new words” with low frequency.

Overview by strategy category. In general, males and females emerged as metacognitive

and social learners. The reported mean frequencies of use across categories of strategies were slightly different, but statistically significant, yielding high confidence levels as well as Pearson-Chi-square (χ^2) values. Gender related moderately to the categories of language learning strategy as the Cramer V coefficients for each strategy category shows: memory strategies ($\chi^2 = 188.128$; df = 56; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V coefficient = 55%); cognitive strategies ($\chi^2 = 22.7.059$; df = 88; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V coefficient = 60%); compensation strategies ($\chi^2 = 189.286$; df = 48; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V coefficient = 56%); metacognitive strategies ($\chi^2 = 211.924$; df = 64; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V coefficient = 58%); affective strategies ($\chi^2 = 188.508$; df = 48; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V = 55%); and social strategies ($\chi^2 = 184.860$; df = 46; $p < 0.0001$; Cramer V = 54%).



Figure 1. Mean frequencies of strategy use

I may say then that in this sample, gender could predict strategy category at least 54% of the time. Appendix A details the mean frequencies of use of each strategy by gender and how they ranked according to frequency.

7. Summary and discussion

Gender is significantly associated with the choice of learning strategies by respondents in this sample as the Cramer V coefficients and chi-squares reveal. Females reported higher frequency of use in 29 of the SILL items, demonstrating greater tendency to choose among strategies that foster functional practice as well as among those that manipulate the language analytically. Males reported higher frequency of use in 21 of the SILL items, reporting greater interest in “watching

movies to learn English,” in “asking questions to learn” (a social strategy) and “starting conversations.” They also drew on affective strategies more frequently than females, reporting that they try to encourage their selves to speak when afraid and that they try to relax when speaking English.

Their use of affective and social strategies seems to reflect how contextual variables relate to learners’ choice of learning strategy despite of their gender. As I have pointed out earlier, people who know English in Brazil tend to have better job opportunities and a better chance to advance in their professional careers. Males seem to respond to such strong environmental stimuli, drawing on affective and some functional practice strategies that have been related to achievement across tasks and that have been typically favored by females in other language learning contexts (see my literature review). In the Brazilian language learning environment, males, similar to females in other studies, try to engage in communication networks and seem to see the learning of English as a tool to advance professionally. Compared to females, they try to start conversations in English, they look for people to talk in English, they encourage their selves to speak whenever afraid, and they ask questions more frequently.

It is also interesting to note that males reported watching movies and/or TV in English more frequently than females, a tendency that, similar to Green and Oxford’s (1993) interpretation of the same evidence in the Puerto Rican language learning context, is probably due to the fact that cable TV programs in Brazil tend to meet the preferences of males, covering mostly sports, news, and music, while Brazilian television networks are internationally known for their popular *novelas* or soap operas, which tend to be the favorites of the female population.

Brazilian female EFL learners in this study, for their part, reported using high involvement strategies in their effort to learn English. They use help-seeking strategies (social) and realistic language practice strategies, confirming findings of previous research (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989;

Green and Oxford, 1993; Politzer, 1983; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall, 1994) in other contexts. Female participants also show concern with form and accuracy. This preference probably emerge from the demands they face in society and in their professions while disputing similar job positions with males. They manipulate the language analytically, plan how they go about learning the language, engage in functional practice to be able to meet the exceptionally high expectations the environment impose on them if they are to succeed.

8. Conclusion

This study investigated how use of language learning strategies relates to gender and contextual variables in the learning of English as a Foreign Language in Brazil. It administered Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in three language institutes in southeast Brazil and a background questionnaire to generate data. Its findings confirm the importance of interpreting data relative to gender differences in the light of contextual variables. Males in this study, similar to those in Tran's (1988) and Kaylani's (1996) study and as opposed to other previous studies on language learning strategies, reported using 21 of the SILL items more frequently than females did. Some of the individual strategies which males reported using with the highest frequency were interaction-related and affective strategies, language strategic behaviors the existing literature typically associates with female learners (see for example Tran's and Kaylani's studies).

In short, findings of this study reinforce Fleming's (1986), Philips, Steele, and Tanz's (1987), Hyde and Linn's (1988), Feng, Spence and Pratt's (2007) understanding that gender differences in the way people use language and behave vary according to socialization experiences. What holds true for one context may prove wrong for others. As the context, so are the language learning strategies of its learners.

References

AL-OTAIBI, G.N. **Language learning strategy use among Saudi EFL students and its relationship to language proficiency level, gender and motivation.** 2004. Doctoral Dissertation in TESOL. Indiana University of Pennsylvania,

USA.

ARAÚJO-SILVA, G.B. **Estratégias de aprendizagem na aula de língua estrangeira: um estudo com formandos em letras**. 2006. Master Thesis. Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, Brazil.

BIALYSTOK, E. The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. **Modern Language Journal**, n. 65, p. 24-35, 1981.

CHAMOT, A. Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. **Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching**, v. 1, p. 14-26, 2004. Available at: <<http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/v1n12004/chamot.htm>>. Accessed on: October 20, 2011.

CHOU, Y. **An exploratory study of language learning strategies and the relationship of these strategies to motivation and language proficiency among EFL Taiwanese technological and vocational college students**. 2002. Doctoral Dissertation in TESOL. University of Iowa, USA.

COSCARELLI, C. V. **Estratégias de aprendizagem de língua estrangeira: uma breve introdução**. **Educação e Tecnologia**. Belo Horizonte: CEFET-MG, v. 4, n.4, p. 23-29, jan./jul., 1997.

EHRMAN, M.; OXFORD, R.L. Effects of sex differences, career choice, and psychological type on adult language learning strategies. **The Modern Language Journal** v. 73, n.1, p. 1-13, 1989.

FENG, J.; SPENCE, I.; PRATT, J. Playing an action video game reduces gender differences in spatial cognition. **Psychological Science**, v. 18, n. 10, p. 850-855, 2007.

FLEMING, A. B. Sex differences and cross-cultural studies. **Women and Therapy**, v. 4, n.4, p. 23-42, 1986.

GREEN, J.M.; OXFORD, R.L. **Learning strategies: Patterns of use by gender and proficiency**. Paper presented at the April' 93 TESOL Convention, Atlanta, GA. 1993.

HASHEMI, M. The impact of gender on language learning strategies of Iranian EFL learners. **International Journal of Academic Research**, v.3, n.2, 2011.

HYDE, J.; LINN, M. C. Gender differences in verbal ability: A meta-analysis. **Psychological Bulletin**, v. 104, n.1, p. 53-69, 1988.

KAYLANI, C. The influence of gender and motivation on EFL learning strategy use in Jordan. In: OXFORD, R. **Language learning strategy around the world: cross-cultural perspectives**. National Foreign Language Research Center, 1996, p. 75-88.

NAIMAN, N.; FROHLICH, M.; STERN, H.; TODESCO, A. **The good language learner** (Research in Education Series, No. 7). Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978.

MCGROARTY, M. **University foreign language learning: Spanish and Japanese**. Los Angeles Center for Education and Research: University of California, 1988.

NYONGESA, B.W. **Sociocultural determinants of the choice of English language learning strategies among Learners in Tanzania**. 2014. Doctoral Dissertation in Linguistics. University of Nairobi.

O'MALLEY, J. M.; CHAMOT, A.U.; STEWNER-MANZANARES, G.R.; RUSSO, R.; KUPPER, L. Learning strategy applications with students of English as a second language. **TESOL Quarterly** n. 19, p. 285-96, 1985.

OXFORD, R.L. Toward a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy. In: FALFREYMAN, D.; SMITH, R.C. (Eds.), **Learner autonomy across cultures: language education perspectives**. Basing- toke: Palgrave MacMillan, 2003, p. 75-91.

OXFORD, R. L. **Learning strategies: what every teacher should know**. New York: Newbury House/Harper & Row, 1990.p. 342.

OXFORD, R. L. **Development and psychometric testing of the strategy inventory for language learning** (report 728). Alexandria, VA: US Army Research Institute for behavioral and Social Sciences, 1986.

OXFORD, R. L.; NYIKOS, M. Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. **The Modern Language Journal**, v. 73, n. 3, p. 291-297, 1989.

OXFORD, R.L.; PARK-OH, Y.; ITO, S.; SUMRALL, M. Learning Japanese by satellite: What influences student

achievement? **System** v. 21, n. 1, 1994.

PAIVA, V.L.M.O. Estratégias individuais de aprendizagem de língua inglesa. **Letras e Letras**. v. 14, n. 1, jan./jul. 1998. p. 73-88.

PHILIPS, S.; STEELE, S.; TANZ, C. **Language, gender, and sex in comparative perspective**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987. p. 352.

POLITZER, R. L. An exploratory study of self-reported language learning behaviors and their relation to achievement. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition** v. 6 n. 1, p. 54-68, 1983.

ROSA, A.C.; BASSO, E. Estratégias de aprendizagem em língua estrangeira: investigando a prática da sala de aula. **Revista NUPEM**, Campo Mourão, v. 2, n. 3, ago./dez. 2010. Disponível em: <<http://www.fecilcam.br/revista/index.php/nupem/article/viewFile/104/83>>. Accessed on January 2015.

RUBIN, J. What the “good language learner” can teach us. **TESOL Quarterly**, n. 9, p. 41-51, 1975.

RUBIN, J. Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. **Applied Linguistics**, v. 11, n. 2, p. 118-131, 1981.

STERN, H. What can we learn from the good language learner? **Canadian Modern Language Review**, n. 31, p. 304-318. 1975.

TEH, K.S.M. et al. A closer look at gender and Arabic language learning strategies use. **European Journal of Social Sciences**, v. 9, n.3, 2009.

TRAN, T.V. Sex differences in English language acculturation and learning strategies among Vietnamese adults age 40 and over in the United States. **Sex Roles**, n. 19, n. 11-12, p. 747-758, 1988.

VAN, R; ABRAHAM, R. Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. **TESOL Quarterly**, v. 24, n. 2, p. 177-198, 1990.

WHARTON, G. Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore. **Language Learning**, v. 50, n. 2, p. 203-243, 2000.

WHITRIDGE, P. **Landscapes, houses, bodies, things: a place and the archaeology of the Inuit imaginary**. Report. Archaeology Unit. Memorial University of Newfoundland. St. John's, NL: Canada. March, 2002.

WONG-FILLMORE, L. **The second time around: Cognitive and social strategies in second language acquisition**. Doctoral Dissertation in English, Stanford University. 1976.

APPENDIX A

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY GENDER

Critical value of Chi-square (χ^2) = 29.588 (df = 10), $p < 0.0001$

SILL ITEM DESCRIPTION			FEMALES (N=186)			MALES (N=128)			OBSERVED χ^2
			OVERALL USE		RANK	OVERALL USE		RANK	
			M	SD		M	SD		
A1	MEM	Associate new material w/ already known	3.81	1.01	7	3.68	1.05	9	159.817
A2	MEM	Use new English words in sentences	3.04	1.26	24	2.85	1.29	26	164.825
A3	MEM	Connect word sound w/ image or picture	2.93	1.33	27	2.61	1.32	35	162.574
A4	MEM	Connect word to mental picture of situation	3.52	1.17	14	3.44	1.15	14	162.805
A5	MEM	Use rhymes to remember new words	1.57	0.91	44	1.50	0.93	46	161.342
A6	MEM	*Use flashcards to remember new words	1.53	0.79	45	1.68	1.06	45	115.992
A7	MEM	*Physically act out new words	1.76	1.06	43	1.85	1.16	44	162.343
A8	MEM	Review English lessons often	3.02	1.31	25	2.81	1.32	28	160.660
A9	MEM	Connect words and location on page, etc.	3.33	1.29	16	2.92	1.36	25	166.100
B10	COG	Say or write new words several times	2.96	1.19	26	2.64	1.24	34	163.746
B11	COG	Try to talk like native English speakers	3.19	1.32	19	3.14	1.45	21	164.080
B12	COG	Practice sounds of English	3.19	1.18	19	3.18	1.34	19	110.707
B13	COG	Use known words in different ways	3.08	1.21	23	3.00	1.31	24	160.892
B14	COG	*Start conversations in English	2.96	1.26	26	3.14	1.30	21	161.749
B15	COG	*Watch TV or movies in English	3.71	1.27	12	3.75	1.27	7	159.920
B16	COG	Read for pleasure in English	3.38	1.39	20	3.17	1.46	20	165.253
B17	COG	Write notes, etc. in English	2.86	1.30	30	2.44	1.26	41	169.093
B18	COG	Skim, then read carefully	3.46	1.32	22	3.12	1.51	22	167.100
B19	COG	Seek L1 words similar to L2 words	2.92	1.42	28	2.58	1.35	37	164.559
B20	COG	Try to find patterns	2.54	1.14	38	2.49	1.29	40	111.918
B21	COG	Find meanings by dividing words into parts	2.58	1.34	36	2.53	1.31	39	107.191
B22	COG	*Try not to translate word for word	3.16	1.40	21	3.24	1.14	18	164.971
B23	COG	Make summaries of information	2.21	1.12	42	2.07	1.17	43	109.209
C24	COM	Guess meaning of unfamiliar words	2.81	1.30	32	2.73	1.37	32	159.759
C25	COM	Use gestures when stuck for words	3.28	1.22	17	3.06	1.30	23	164.990
C26	COM	Create new words in English	2.79	2.49	33	2.60	1.45	36	166.446
C27	COM	*Read w/o looking up all new words	2.57	1.34	37	2.75	1.34	31	162.499
C28	COM	*Try to guess what other person will say	2.46	1.16	40	2.64	1.26	34	109.295
C29	COM	Use circumlocutions or synonyms	4.35	0.88	4	4.19	1.02	2	166.232
D30	MET	Seek many ways to use English	3.36	1.16	15	3.35	1.22	16	160.062
D31	MET	Notice my mistakes / try to learn	3.957	1.02	5	3.76	1.14	6	108.353
D32	MET	Pay attention when one speaks English	4.44	0.83	2	4.21	1.01	1	171.102
D33	MET	Try to find out about lang. learning	3.74	1.22	10	3.59	1.28	10	159.374
D34	MET	Plan schedule to have enough time	3.288	1.30	29	2.56	1.37	38	167.469
D35	MET	*Look for people to talk to in English	2.72	1.31	34	2.82	1.32	27	160.821
D36	MET	*Seek opportunities to read in English	3.21	1.19	18	3.28	1.37	17	166.686
D37	MET	Have clear goals to improving skills	3.77	1.19	8	3.53	1.35	12	163.113
D38	MET	Think about progress in learning	4.36	0.93	3	3.97	1.21	4	168.488
E39	AFF	Try to relax to speak English	3.74	1.24	0	3.49	1.43	13	165.746
E40	AFF	*Encourage self to speak when afraid	3.76	1.14	9	3.80	1.11	5	165.248
E41	AFF	*Give self reward for doing well	2.47	1.41	39	2.66	1.34	33	161.518
E42	AFF	*Notice nervous tensions when learning	2.26	1.53	5	2.78	1.55	39	158.852
E43	AFF	*Record feelings in learning diary	1.37	0.86	46	1.49	1.01	47	159.786
E44	AFF	*Talk to someone about feelings	2.25	1.33	41	2.36	1.42	42	168.100
F45	AFF	Ask the other person to slowdown or repeat	4.54	0.76	1	4.17	1.08	3	174.624
F46	AFF	Ask to be corrected when talking	3.91	1.15	6	3.58	1.33	11	114.257
F47	AFF	Practice English with other students	2.79	1.24	33	2.49	1.20	40	165.925
F48	AFF	Ask for help from English speakers	3.72	1.22	11	3.42	1.22	15	166.143
F49	AFF	*Ask questions in English	3.65	1.20	13	3.76	1.21	8	161.135
F50	AFF	Try to develop cultural understanding	2.82	1.29	31	2.76	1.50	30	173.243

*Strategies males reported using more frequently

NOTE: Chi-square values were computed on frequencies