

The Relationship between Second Language Achievement and Language Learning
Strategies in English First and Second Language Learners

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Research Report

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this is my own independent work, and has not been presented for any other degree at any academic institution or publication in any form.

It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Educational Psychology by Coursework and Research Report at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background to the Research Study

	Page
1.1. Introduction	14
1.2. Rationale	16
1.3. Aim	18
1.4. Research questions	19
1.5. Concept clarification	19
1.5.1. Language Learning Strategies	19
1.5.2. First Language	20
1.5.3. Second Language	20
1.6. Outline of the Research Report	21

Chapter 2: Review of related Literature and Studies

2.1. Introduction	22
2.2. First Language	22
2.3. Second Language	23
2.4. First and Second Language Learners and Language Learning	24
2.5. Language in the South African Context	25
2.6. Language Acquisition Theory	27
2.7. Theoretical Underpinnings: Learning Strategies	29
2.8. Factors that affect choice of strategies	39

2.9. Learning Strategies and Teaching	39
2.10. Conclusion	42

Chapter 3: Methods

3.1. Introduction	43
3.2. Research Design	43
3.3. Research Questions and Hypotheses	43
3.3.1. Research Questions	43
3.3.2. Hypotheses	44
3.4. Sample	44
3.5. Method of Data Collection	46
3.5.1. Measuring Instruments	46
3.5.1.1. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	46
3.5.1.2. Demographic Questionnaire	48
3.5.1.3. Learner Background Questionnaire	48
3.5.2. Procedure	48
3.6. Method of Data Analysis	49
3.7. Ethical Considerations	50

Chapter 4: Results

4.1. Introduction	51
4.2. Descriptive Statistics	51
4.3. Normality of the Data	64
4.4. Inferential Statistics	70

4.4.1. The relationship between language learning strategies, languages spoken and second language achievement in both English first and second language learners	70
4.4.2. The relationship between individual language learning strategies and second language achievement in both English first and second language learners	73
4.5. A comparison between Language Learning Strategies used by first (L1) and second (L2) English language learners	75
4.6. Qualitative Data	78
4.6.1. Why learn a second language?	78
4.6.2. Favourite Experiences in language learning	79
4.7. Other variables that influence second language achievement	79
4.7.1. Gender	80
4.7.2. Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class	81
4.7.3. Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native - speakers	82
4.8. Conclusion	83

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Introduction	84
5.2. Why study a second language?	84
5.3. The relationship between language learning strategies and second language achievement in both English first and second language learners	87

5.4. The relationship between individual language learning strategies in English first and second language learners	88
5.5. A comparison between language learning strategies used by English first and second language learners	92
5.6. Other variables that impact second language achievement	92
5.7. Strengths, Limitations and Implications of the study	93
5.7.1. Strengths	93
5.7.2. Limitations	93
5.7.3. Implications	95
5.8. Recommendations for future research	95
5.9. Conclusion	96
REFERENCES	98

APPENDICES

Appendix A: District Supervisor Information Form

Appendix B: School Information Form

Appendix C: Legal Guardian Information Form

Appendix D: Educators' Information Form

Appendix E: Learner Assent Form

Appendix F: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 5.1

Appendix G: Strategy inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0

Appendix H: Demographic Questionnaire

Appendix I: Learner Background Questionnaire

List of Tables

- Table 2.1: Oxford's Six Learning Strategy Categories
- Table 4.1: Second Language of Learning of Participants
- Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of Age of Participants
- Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of Mean age of Participants
- Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of Gender of Participants
- Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of Guardians of Participants
- Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics of Residence of Participants
- Table 4.7: Descriptive Statistics of Transport used to School by Participants
- Table 4.8: Home Language of L1 Participants
- Table 4.9: Home Language of L2 Participants
- Table 4.10: Second Languages Spoken by L1 and L2 Participants
- Table 4.11: Third Languages Spoken by Participants
- Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics of number of languages spoken at home by participants
- Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics Use of the Second Language with Parents
- Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics Fluency of Parents in L2
- Table 4.15: Number of Years the Second Language has been studied in both L1 and L2 Participants
- Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics of Mean Age and Years Participants studied Second Language
- Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics of Self-rating of Participants to class and native speakers
- Table 4.18: Importance of speaking a second language

- Table 4.19: Descriptive Statistics of Special Academic Needs of Participants
- Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics of Language Learning Strategies Categories and SILL overall score
- Table 4.21: Descriptive Statistics of Skewness and Kurtosis
- Table 4.22: Inferential Statistics Model Summary
- Table 4.23: Inferential Statistics Test for relative weights of individual variables
- Table 4.24: Inferential Statistics Collinearity Diagnostics
- Table 4.25: Inferential Statistics Correlations between Language Learning Strategies and Second Language Achievement
- Table 4.26: Group Statistics Gender
- Table 4.27: Independent samples t test – Gender
- Table 4.28: Group Statistics – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class
- Table 4.29: Independent samples t test – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class
- Table 4.30: Group Statistics – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native speakers
- Table 4.31: Independent samples t test – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native speakers

List of Figures

- Figure 4.1: Histogram of Memory Strategies
- Figure 4.2: Histogram of Cognitive Strategies
- Figure 4.3: Histogram of Compensation Strategies
- Figure 4.4: Histogram of Metacognitive Strategies
- Figure 4.5: Histogram of Affective Strategies
- Figure 4.6: Histogram of Social Strategies
- Figure 4.7: Histogram of SILL Total Score
- Figure 4.8: Histogram of second Language Achievement (Mark)
- Figure 4.9: Language Learning Strategies employed by L1 Participants
- Figure 4.10: Language Learning Strategies employed by L2 Participants
- Figure 4.11: A comparison of English First and Second Language Learners' use of Language Learning Strategies
- Figure 4.12: Reasons for learning a second language
- Figure 4.13: Favourite Experiences in Language Learning

List of Abbreviations

Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement	CAPS
Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	SILL
English First Language Learners	L1
English Second Language Learners	L2
Basic Interpersonal Skills	BICS
Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency	CALP
First Additional Language	FAL
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation	UNESCO
Language Acquisition Device	LAD

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Fostering an ethos of inclusive education within South African schools is important in order to meet the needs of our diverse population. However, in order to achieve this, it is very important to address a wide array of barriers to learning that are preventing children from reaching their potential. In order to prevent barriers from arising it is essential that we meet the needs of learners in the context of the system as a whole. If we are unable to meet these diverse needs, then learners may not be active participants in the learning process (Department of Education, 2005).

Within South Africa we have 11 official languages and the Constitution of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996) states that people have the right to receive education in the language of their choice, where this is practically possible. However, the reality is that many of the learners within the South African context do not receive instruction in their mother tongue. This has resulted in a large proportion of school going learners in South African schools being second language speakers and therefore not learning in their first language (Fleisch, 2008). This not only leads to difficulties with language learning, but also has implications across the curriculum for academic performance for many of these learners; thus becoming a significant barrier to learning and development. Through developing a clearer understanding of what fosters successful language learning, strategies can be implemented in schools to assist learners in this regard and therefore aid in preventing barriers to learning from occurring.

The world and its people are becoming more interconnected and many more people speak more than one language. Due to cultural and linguistic diversity many countries support populations who are bilingual (Bialystok, Craik, Green, & Gollan, 2009). As noted above, there are 11 official languages in the South African context (Republic of South Africa, 1996) and many people who speak more than one of these. It is therefore important to ask what makes children successful language learners. As our children become active members of society, they may be at an advantage to their counterparts if they can speak more than one language. They may find it easier to interact with and understand some of the many diverse cultures

that are prevalent in our society. Through language, people can gain mutual respect for each other and an understanding of others' perspectives.

Bialystok et al. (2009) argue that as early as the 1960's researchers such as Peal and Lambert (1962) and later Fodor (1983) found that bilingual children displayed greater mental flexibility, which could have resulted from having to switch between languages. These studies further showed that being bilingual may assist the development of other abilities in children and enhance non-verbal cognitive processing skills (Bialystok et al., 2009). This supported the understanding that language is not a separate and independent part of our brain, but a significant link between elements within the brain. A study conducted by the European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture (2009) stated that there is an increasing amount of evidence which points to a heightened level of creativity and enhanced functioning when comparing monolingual and bilingual individuals with the latter being more successful at showing these skills. Therefore, learning a second language from a young age may benefit children and enhance their cognitive processing skills. This being said; understanding what affects second language achievement may assist educators in enhancing second language learning and thereby provide children with skills that may enhance their general cognitive functioning.

The Government Gazette No. 36041, Volume 570 laid out by the Department of Basic Education (2012) states that South African children attending a public or independent school covering the National Curriculum Statement from Grades 1 – 9 must complete two official languages as compulsory subjects. One of these languages should be learned at the Home Language level and the other at least the First Additional Language (FAL) level. If South African children are to be successful language learners, then the variables that may influence their language learning need to be investigated, so that we can establish how to assist learners in being more successful in the language classroom. An understanding of which of these variables play a role and the type of role they play is significant if we are to enhance language learning.

1.2. RATIONALE

When one considers that the majority of South African children who are not English or Afrikaans first language speakers are learning in a second language, the processes they employ to learn a second language and the variables that impact on this learning process are essential to understand. Furthermore, given that the acquisition of a second language is compulsory under the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) curriculum (Department of Education, 2011), some English or Afrikaans first language learners, sitting in the very same classroom as their second language counterparts, also have to learn a second language, i.e. Zulu, Xhosa, Sotho, etc. The strategies that learners employ and the success they enjoy in the Home Language and First Additional Language subjects may help us to understand how we can assist other learners in being successful language learners. If so, finding out about the strategies they employ and how these may enhance their second language achievement is of importance if we are to assist learners in this regard.

Ehrman, Leaver, and Oxford (2003) state that the more we study how individuals learn a language and the variables that influence this process, our knowledge about the complex system of language learning and teaching will be better understood. How can we then be sensitive to these individual variables and their impact on language learning? Through developing an understanding of the strategies learners employ and how these impact on their language learning, we may develop insight into how we can promote successful language achievement (Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 2011). Oxford (1990) states that successful language learners use a wide variety of strategies, and tailor these strategies to match their individual needs. Less able learners according to Ehrman et al. (2003) use strategies in a far more random and unconnected way than their more effective counterparts. As Grenfell and Macaro (2007, as cited in Abakhorn, 2008) argue; further research as to how these strategies are combined by learners and why some do this more effectively than others, will need to be undertaken.

Ehrman and Oxford (1995) completed a study investigating adult language learning strategies in a foreign language programme in the United States. Their aim was to show the relationship between learning strategies and a number of other variables

such as proficiency, teacher perceptions, gender, aptitude, learning style, personality type, ego boundaries, motivation and anxiety. They established links between these variables and foreign language learning, but advocated that further study was required within the context of what impacts on language learning to further knowledge on the subject.

Murray (2010) has also looked at language learning strategy use in a Korean foreign language classroom, in order to establish the effect of language learning strategies on second language achievement. He noted some important considerations in terms of language learning strategy use and advocated that it was important for researchers to find out about the strategies that learners employ while learning, talk to them about the strategies they make use of and find the links they may have across the curriculum. He stated that learning strategies are one of the aspects that could be focussed on in terms of instruction to assist learners with developing their skills (Murray, 2010).

When taking the stated research into consideration, it might be beneficial for us in the South African context, to understand the strategies that learners are employing in learning a second language and assess their effectiveness within the classroom. This deeper understanding will allow us an opportunity to make learners consciously aware of the strategies they use and how to enhance these; which can in turn aid their language learning.

Within the South African context Dreyer and Oxford (1996) looked at field dependence/independence and its link with learning strategies and personality among Afrikaans first year University students in relation to English second language proficiency. They came to the conclusion that learning strategy, learning style and personality; alongside motivation may impact on English second language proficiency. Dreyer (1998) also completed research looking at teacher-student style wars in South Africa. Here the focus fell on the different styles that teachers and learners use in the English language classroom with Afrikaans and Setswana/Sesotho speakers and the significant differences between them. She argued that teachers adopted a specific style without variation that did not suit all learners within the classroom. This highlighted the individual differences that are prevalent in the classroom and the need for further engagement on how to address

this issue (Dreyer, 1998). Learning strategies were noted here as a variable that could impact on the performance of the learner within the classroom and so further investigation may highlight its importance and significance within the South African context.

Many studies as cited above indicate that learning strategies appear to play a role in language learning. However, these studies have generally been conducted with adult sample groups and there appears to be limited published research with young children, especially within the South African context. Hence the development of this study, which looked at primary school children, their use of learning strategies and how this may enhance their second language achievement. Bearing in mind the diversity of languages that are prevalent in South African schools and the number of learners learning in their second language, successful language learners could provide insight into how educators can assist other less successful language learners in developing their abilities. Through integrating knowledge on learning strategies into the curriculum we may be able to enhance learners' language learning abilities and provide them with tools that could assist in this regard.

1.3. AIM

Whilst taking cognisance of the above, the aim of this study was to investigate the correlation between language learning strategies and second language achievement in first and second language English learners. A cohort of 128 Grade 6 and 7 learners consisting of boys and girls from an English medium government school was used as the sample. This was seen to be representative of many of our South African schools, where the learners receive instruction in English (as both first and second language learners) and also learn another language as a FAL. In the context of this study, the FAL was Afrikaans.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As is evident above, research has been conducted on language learning strategies and the variables that may impact on second language achievement around the world. However, much of this research has been conducted with adults and not always focussed on specific variables. In South Africa, published research on learning strategies and first and second language learners' second language achievement appears to be limited despite the significant role it could play in our multilingual learning environments. Therefore, the need for further exploration in this field within the South African context was seen to have merit and was therefore investigated further in this study, especially within the school environment. This study specifically investigated the impact of language learning strategies and how they are employed, on second language achievement for both first and second language speakers.

Taking this into consideration, the following research questions were posed:

- Is there a significant relationship between individual language learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners?
- Is there a significant relationship between English being the participants' first or second language and their achievement in a second language?
- Is there a significant association between the individual language learning strategies in English first and second language learners?

1.5. CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

1.5.1. Language Learning Strategies

For the purpose of this research study, the definition of language learning strategies provided by Oxford (1989; 1990) was adopted. According to Oxford (1989), "Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable" (p.235). These encompass six categories, namely: metacognitive, affective, cognitive, social, memory and compensation strategies, which can be applied to not only the processing of information, but in particular language learning; hence the use of the term language learning strategies.

1.5.2. First Language

Within the context of this study, first language is defined as our native language or mother tongue; the language we learned as children and passed on from generation to generation (Collins English Dictionary, 2003).

1.5.3. Second Language

A second language is defined by Ellis (1995; Diaz-Rico, 2008) as any language other than the first language that learners use to communicate with speakers who do not have the same first language as them. It is considered to be a language that a person learns after their first language and is usually learnt as it is the general language used in an area where the person resides (Collins English Dictionary, 2003).

1.6 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

Chapter	Content
Chapter 1	This first chapter serves as an introduction to the study and covers the rationale, aims and research questions, as well as key terms that will be explored further in this report.
Chapter 2	The second chapter presents relevant literature in the field of language learning strategies and first and second language learning. In addition, it will explore previous research conducted in the area of language learning strategies alongside the theoretical underpinnings of this concept.
Chapter 3	Chapter 3 describes the research design, methods of data collection, research instruments, procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations.
Chapter 4	In Chapter 4 the results of the statistical analysis are presented.
Chapter 5	Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the current study in relation to previous research conducted in the area. In addition the strengths and limitations of the present study will be discussed. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents relevant literature in the field of language learning strategies and first and second language learning. In addition, it explores previous research conducted in the area of language learning strategies. An understanding of language acquisition theory will also be presented, alongside a discussion on language within the South African context. The theoretical underpinning that has formed the basis for learning strategy research will also be addressed. The factors that may impact on learning strategies and how learning strategy use may inform curriculum design and teaching methods will also be discussed.

2.2. FIRST LANGUAGE

In a paper commissioned for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Ball (2011) defines a child's mother tongue as the language that a child may have learnt first and identifies with, alongside being seen as a native speaker of that particular language by others. This is also the language that one uses most regularly and is often termed the primary or first language.

According to Jalongo (2000) we use language to communicate and interact in social settings. As such, language forms part of our lives every day. However, language can also be abstract, governed by rules and used in lots of different forms. According to Bloom (1998, as cited in Dednam, 2011), language is a set of symbols which is used as a code to communicate. If we are to successfully engage in the world around us, we need to have a clear understanding of the conventions involved in language and understand the symbols that are used in this regard. If this is not possible our understanding of what someone is saying or what we are reading will be distorted. Sternberg (2006) notes that certain common properties relating to language exist namely, communication, symbolic referencing, a regularity and multiplicity of structure, as well as its ability to change and be productive in nature. Bearing in mind the technological age in which we live at present, being able to use language effectively, and readily understand text is becoming increasingly important as we communicate using the internet.

In order to communicate effectively we engage in different types of language. According to Venn (2007), both language and thinking involve inner language, receptive language, and expressive language. Inner language is the language we use when we think, process and plan and receptive language involves understanding a message we hear (Sternberg, 2006). Expressive language on the other hand involves the message we convey to others, which can include the spoken word or a written message (Sternberg, 2006). There must not be a breakdown in the way that we receive these messages, if we are to successfully engage cognitively and process messages that are both spoken and written. On the other hand, if we wish to successfully send a message, the language structures we use must be correctly applied in order for the receiver to understand the message being sent; otherwise we have a breakdown in communication.

As noted earlier, first language in the context of this study is defined as our native language or mother tongue; the language we learned as children and passed on from generation to generation (Collins English Dictionary, 2003).

2.3. SECOND LANGUAGE

As defined earlier a second language can be identified as any other language other than a first language or a mother tongue (Ellis, 1995; Diaz-Rico, 2008). It is very often the language or a language that is spoken in the country where the child is learning the language (Cohen, 2011; Griffiths, 2013). It serves as a way for various mother tongue speakers to communicate when they do not speak the same mother tongue (Ellis, 1995). The second language can be referred to as a language that the person learns after they have acquired their mother tongue or first language. It can have both an institutional and social role to play within communities. As very often this language is used in educational and government institutions as well as within communities (Collins English Dictionary, 2003). Within many South African contexts, English plays both these roles within communities, as so many different languages are spoken. When learners are exposed to and learn some of these second languages, they are better able to engage within South African communities. English second language learners are learners who are learning in English as it is the medium of instruction, and their mother-tongue is not English (Nel & Nel, 2013).

Within the South African classroom learners with many different languages abound and these are all playing a role in the child's learning.

2.4. FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

What does it mean for a learner to be proficient in a language? Reference can be made to Cummins' two levels of language proficiency which he terms Basic Interpersonal Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Jang, Cummins, Wagner, Stille & Dunlop, 2015). BICS refers to being able to communicate on a daily basis about everyday things and express one's needs (Nel & Nel, 2013). In this instance the speaker does not only rely on language alone to create meaning, but may also make use of learned language such as gestures, facial expressions and pictures to assist with understanding. CALP forms the academic part of language and is used most often in the academic/school setting. The analogy of an iceberg has been used to elaborate on this concept. Cummins (1984, as cited in Baker, 1996) postulates that above the surface are skills such as comprehension and speaking, but below the surface are the skills of analysis and synthesis, which are required to complete these tasks successfully.

When CALP is used in the classroom the learners rely on language in order to make meaning of what is being discussed. However, when learning takes place in the second language, barriers to learning can be created (Nel & Nel, 2013). Cummins (2001) says that learners learning in their first language are able to acquire a well-developed vocabulary and have an increased knowledge of grammatical skills in comparison to the second language learner. Cummins (2001) advocates that when children begin school with a good foundation in their first language, they are more able to achieve when learning a second language. Furthermore, children are able to transfer knowledge across the varying languages from the first to the second language (Cummins, 2001). This highlights that bilingualism provides children with linguistic advantages if the first language is acknowledged in the school environment and used as a valuable tool in language learning (Cummins, 2001).

In order to overcome some of these difficulties teaching strategies that are employed need to account for learner's individual learning styles and needs, and differentiated instruction needs to form a part of the schooling system (Rothenberg & Fisher,

2007). Rothenberg and Fisher (2007), note that it is essential that key concepts and generalisations are clarified for learners. This may encourage them to apply these skills in other settings, thereby encouraging learners to think about what they are learning and to provide many choices on how content can be worked with. Alongside this in order to improve learner's ability in terms of use of academic language in the classroom, Cummins (2014) notes that the reinforcement of effective learning strategies, visual and graphic organisers, as well as encouraging learners to make use of their first language, may have a positive impact on developing these skills in the classroom. When thinking about the South African context we know that many learners are learning in their second language. Therefore developing ways of assisting learners to achieve within the language classroom will be beneficial, bearing this context in mind.

2.5. LANGUAGE IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

In having 11 official languages, we have a diversity of languages prevalent in our country that are all recognised as official languages and spoken daily throughout our population. This language policy as laid out in the Constitution of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996) aimed to redress the injustices of the past in which certain languages were seen as being given higher status than others (Martin, 1997). At present nine African languages and English and Afrikaans are the recognised languages. According to a census conducted by Statistics South Africa (2011) the following percentages of people are to be noted in relation to the country's official languages: Afrikaans (13.5%), English (9.6%), IsiNdebele (2.1%), IsiXhosa (16.0%), IsiZulu (22.7%), Sepedi (9.1%), Sesotho (7.6%), Setswana (8.0%), SiSwati (2.7%), Tshivenda (2.4%) and Xitsonga (4.5%). Due to this, language policy development becomes a complex area to navigate. Henrard (2002) notes that language policy as a result of the past South African policies in this regard remains a contentious issue within South African society and thereby issues surrounding language will be readily debated. The role of language within South African education thus remains an area of interest and a focus of research due to the circumstances that abound.

Fleisch, (2008) states that "less than one South African child in ten speaks English as their first language" (p. 98). Despite this, by end of the Grade 3 year the majority of school going children are both taught and assessed in English (Fleisch, 2008).

Van Rooyen and Jordaan (2009) note that this poses many difficulties for the learner, when the language required for this purpose needs to be academic in nature, and has to be achieved by so many learners in the second language. They also note that more often than not this second language is English (Van Rooyen & Jordaan, 2009). Probyn (2001) states that often English is seen as the language of power and access and consequently is readily adopted and is likely to remain as the medium of instruction at least within South African secondary schools. Alongside this Sachs (1994, as cited in De Klerk & Gough, 2002) notes that despite attempts to develop multilingualism within language policy and provide greater recognition to indigenous languages, English is still widely supported in the South African context and is cited as being predominant in schools, universities and within the government.

According to the National Reading Strategy (Department of Education, 2008) the language competence of a vast majority of our South African Intermediate Phase learners is below that of their age level. It states that 14% of learners showed outstanding ability in language competence, 23% were said to show satisfactory levels or be partly competent and 63 % were working at a level below their required age level. This indicates a large percentage of South African learners who require support to develop their language competency levels. Research into how this can be achieved in our many diverse South African classrooms may serve to address some of the difficulties learners may be experiencing. If English is to remain as the medium of instruction for so many South African learners then the way we teach and the skills we provide learners with in order to develop their language potential becomes even more important bearing this context in mind. The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) (1992) argues that teacher training needs to incorporate an understanding of the role that language plays in learning, as well as, teachers being able to develop a series of strategies that can be used to meet language demands within the classroom.

2.6. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORY

As stated previously, all learners in the current South African setting according to the CAPS document and government legislation have to learn a second language from Grade One. The process of how this second language is acquired is however, a complex one. Menezes (2013) states that many theories on second language acquisition (SLA) have been proposed over the years; however, she claims that most of these theories have focussed mainly on syntactic structures and do not consider other vital aspects of the learning process.

It is important to note how theorists viewed first language acquisition in order to enhance our understanding of how a second language may be acquired. “Skinner had argued that language was just a set of habits built up over the years by means of conditioning procedures; no special mechanisms beyond conditioning principles were required” (Sharatt, 1987, p.112). For example, care-givers provide reinforcement for the sounds that babies make, which resemble adult speech through encouragement, smiles, and recognition. Due to this reinforcement young children then repeat these sounds (Papalia, Olds, & Feldman, 2006). Skinner followed a behaviourist approach within his language acquisition theories and therefore they reflect his views on operant conditioning. When an infant receives positive reinforcement for making the correct sounds they continue to do it. This is considered to be part of the nurture point of view on language acquisition.

Chomsky, who was an American linguist, had a different view from Skinner’s. He proposed that every normal child has a biological or innate mechanism designed purposefully for acquiring language (Chomsky, 1965; 1968). He spoke about an inborn language acquisition device (LAD) which can programme children neurologically to figure out the rules of language they hear by analysing it (Papalia et al., 2006). Chomsky attempted to “identify a set of simple universal principles that underlie all languages” (Papalia et al., 2006, p.191). His position took a more nativist approach saying that we are born with this ability to acquire language. Developmental scientists now feel that in language acquisition, as in all forms of development, there is inter-dependence between nature and nurture (Papalia et al.,

2006). That is we are born with certain abilities, however, the environments in which we find ourselves may serve to enhance or hinder our development.

When looking at second language learning, Krashen (1977, 1981, 1982, 1985, as cited in Brown, 1987) postulated that adult second language learners ascribed to two methods of learning a new language. Firstly they acquire aspects of the language subconsciously, similar to when children acquire their first language, and secondly they are involved in learning, which is a more conscious process of paying attention to form and rules (Brown, 1987). His theory, however, did refer to the adult learner and is commonly known as “The Input-Hypothesis” (Brown, 1987).

Cognitive information processing theory also provides further understanding as to how a second language may be learnt. According to Anderson (1990) in cognitive information-processing theory declarative knowledge is transformed into procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge according to Oxford (2013) consists of semantic knowledge which includes “facts, concepts, names, dates and rules” (p. 54), as well as episodic knowledge which are the memories we have of events. Oxford (2013), notes that a learning strategy can be considered a type of declarative knowledge, if the learner is able to verbalise information about it. O’Malley and Chamot (1990), state that this knowledge is stored in our “long-term memory in terms of meaning instead of precisely replicated external events” (p.20). This can be considered the first stage in knowledge acquisition, where knowledge is not mentally automatic (Oxford, 2013). Knowledge is being integrated into schema which can be seen as a “configuration of interrelated features that define a concept” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.23).

The learner then, moves into the second stage where mistakes and misinterpretations are found and eradicated and associations are strengthened as they practice the language further (Anderson, 1985, as cited in Oxford, 2013). During this process the learning strategy or any other knowledge gained becomes more of an integral part of the learner but is not yet an automatic process (Oxford, 2013). Oxford (2013), notes that the learner will make use of the strategies to practise these new skills and make associations with what is already stored in their memory.

The third stage encompasses this knowledge becoming a more unconscious activity (Oxford, 2013). Anderson (1980), states that our ability to apply the knowledge of the rules to problem solving and produce language can be seen as an example of procedural knowledge. We are now readily able to automatically apply this knowledge in a variety of situations to enhance our learning. This process repeats itself each time we acquire new knowledge and as our proficiency levels improve, this strategy may be seen as an unconscious habit (Oxford, 2013).

It is evident that language acquisition and language learning are complex processes that move through a variety of stages. If learners are to achieve whilst learning a new language, an understanding of how this can be enhanced is of value in order to maximise this learning potential. If one bears in mind that language is not a separate and independent part of our brain, rather a significant link between the elements within the brain, and alongside this has the ability to enhance non-verbal cognitive processing skills (Bialystok et al., 2009), then the development of our language learning skills plays a significant role in overall cognitive development. Therefore further investigation into language learning is of importance. Learning strategies as seen above may aid in enhancing this language learning process and allow learners to become more actively involved in the language learning process.

2.7. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS: LEARNING STRATEGIES

According to Oxford (2011) many theorists and researchers have focussed on the field of learning strategies for a number of years and some argue that there is not a secure theoretical underpinning to explain the application of learning strategies in the learning process. Herewith is an overview of theory as it stands indicating the contributions that have been made to the field by theorists and researchers alike.

From as early as the 1950's the concept of learning strategies was brought to the forefront by Piaget who completed empirical research so as to describe the stages of cognitive development from birth to adulthood. Piaget did not specifically mention learning strategies; however, the processes he talked about related to cognitive learning strategies. Vygotsky's idea of self-regulation theory whereby individuals make use of higher psychological processes is linked to what today is termed learning strategies (Oxford, 2011).

In terms of Vygotsky's (1978, as cited in John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996) Socio-Cultural Perspective all human activities take place within cultural contexts and there is interdependence between the individual and social processes in knowledge construction. When children learn a new concept they initially rely on more experienced others, usually adults, and then over time begin to take responsibility for their own learning. Wertsch (1991, as cited in John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996) says that higher mental functioning alongside individual development finds its origins in social sources. Human development begins with a reliance on care-givers and social interaction is an important part of this. This development first takes place within the social sphere then moves within the individual (Vygotsky, 1998). There is a dependence on others with more experience to support the child which allows them to then expand on their own ability to learn. This systematic classroom learning alongside everyday experiences correspond with different activities and socio-cultural environments (Kozulin, 2004). According to Vygotsky (1998) the learning of concepts are linked to these two different contexts. Classroom learning is said to develop a child's scientific concepts (in all areas of knowledge), while social experience leads one to develop our everyday concepts (Vygotsky, 1998). The formative influence of the family, community and culture in which the child is immersed will influence the normal developmental pattern which the child undergoes (Kozulin, 2002).

Vygotsky according to Kozulin (2002) acknowledged that the child experienced sensitive periods of development but saw these periods as an interaction between the inner development of cognitive functions and the socio-cultural context in which they found themselves. Vygotsky referred to the Zone of proximal development which he referred to as,

the distance between the actual developmental level as determined through the independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (1978, as cited in John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996, p. 198).

Therefore according to Vygotsky (1987) the ZPD plays an integral role in the dynamics of intellectual development and for instructional success than the actual level of development of the child. According to Wertsch (1991, as cited in John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996) human action at both the individual and social level is mediated by means of tools and signs. Kozulin and Presseisen (1995) discuss three types of mediators' namely material tools, psychological tools and other human beings. In order for cognitive development to take place the child needs to be able to master these symbolic mediators and internalise them to enhance their learning independently. It cannot be assumed that the child will automatically draw symbolic connections between different stimuli even if adults see these as being obvious. Guided experience is required in order for their meaning as cognitive tools to be properly experienced by the child. The mere availability of these tools will not necessarily mean that the child will make use of them, they need to be systematically formed (Kozulin, 2002).

Vygotsky (1987) sees language as a critical cognitive tool. As it serves two fundamental roles namely, a means for adults to provide children with suitable modes of thinking and problem solving, alongside becoming a powerful psychological tool for intellectual adaptation (Shaffer, 1999). Vygotsky, (1999) states that when a child is able to speak in order to solve a problem they elevate their learning to a new level whereby social interaction, the basis whereby learning began, is incorporated into their own development. Language therefore is an important psychological tool to master in order to further intellectual development and actively engage with new experiences. Oxford (1990) terms these social learning strategies which as stated above enhance the child's learning experience as they actively engage in this process.

Feuerstein (1990, as cited in Kozulin, 2002) developed a theory of mediated learning experience (MLE). MLE states that well-intentioned and active people (parents, teachers, competent peers) place themselves between the stimuli and the child and thereby mediate the experience for the child (Kozulin, 2002). This has implications for learning and in light of the socio-cultural perspective it turns the experience for the child into one that is intentional and not just incidental (Kozulin & Presseisen, 1995). The competent human being thus further engages the child by highlighting a means of solving a problem and thus provides the child with psychological tools that

they can employ in other learning situations. These tools become internalised for the child and then they are able to apply these independently in different situations (Oxford, 1999). This process of self-regulation that developed out of Vygotsky's theory involves learning strategies. However he does not describe them as such (Oxford, 1999). According to Oxford (1999), learning strategies which include cognitive strategies, memory strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies, social strategies and metacognitive strategies, encompass many of the essential learning behaviours for successful cognition.

The idea of learners' being involved in their own learning process and generating their own rules or strategies in the language learning process was brought to the fore in the late 1960's. Noam Chomsky (1965; 1968) began to play an important role within linguistic theory at this time. As mentioned earlier, Chomsky spoke of people having a LAD which allowed them to develop their language ability based on an inborn set of principles (Griffiths, 2004). Chomsky (1965; 1968) postulated that behaviourist theories were inadequate at determining how language was generated. His theory developed out of his response to Audiolingualism; a popular method of choice for language teaching at the time based on behaviourist principles. This method made use of drill, repetition and substitution exercises and saw learners as not being active during the learning process, almost as if they were waiting to be programmed (Griffiths & Parr, 2001).

In contrast, Chomsky and McNeill (1966, as cited in Brown, 1987) felt that the child was an active participant in the learning process and stated that the child formulates hypotheses based on the knowledge that is received and then tests these out. As the child's language ability increases, these hypotheses are "revised, reshaped or sometimes abandoned" (Brown, 1987, p.20). Chomsky (1965; 1968) spoke mainly about first language learners; however, Corder (1967) related this concept to that of second language learners. Selinker (1972, as cited in Griffiths, 2004) took the concept further, stating that language learners aimed to organise linguistic input by means of inter-language which was an intermediate system the learner employed while trying to learn the new language. This made it possible for learners to be in

control of the language learning process and brought to the fore studies on learning strategies and how learners employ these (Griffiths, 2004).

This paved the road for Rubin (1975) to begin her work on the good language learner. She began to identify what she termed characteristics of the good language learner. These encompassed strategies that successful language learners might employ in order to be successful at learning a new language. The premise for her research was based upon the fact that the majority of people learn their first language with reasonable success; however, find it difficult to achieve the same success when learning a second language (Rubin, 1975). This pioneering work prompted educators to become more aware of the role that learners play in the learning process and encouraged further research on learning strategies and their role in the language learning process (Oxford 1990; O'Malley & Chamot 1990; Dornyei and Skehan 2003, Dornyei 2005; Macaro 2006; Cohen, 2011). In later years Oxford (1990) developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). This is a widely used instrument for assessing language learning strategies in both first and second language learners.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) alleged that second language acquisition found its roots in cognitive psychology and could be based on information processing. They stated that, "the role of learning strategies in the acquisition of information generally can be understood by reference to the information processing framework for learning" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.17). They stated that we store information in either short-term or long-term memory. Short term memory holds information for a short period of time. Long-term memory is where information is stored for a lengthier period, often as part of an interconnected network (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). These learning strategies may be applied in situations ineffectively by the learner in the early stages as they may be unconsciously applied. Once these strategies become automatic, after repeated use, they may more effectively support the learning process (Rabinowitz & Chi, 1987, as cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). If this is the case, then understanding how learners use these strategies and which strategies they employ may assist teachers and learners in developing their language learning skills; thereby enhancing learners' proficiency in the language they are learning.

Many definitions have been put forward for the term language learning strategies. As noted earlier, Oxford (1989, p.235) provides a definition of language learning strategies which focuses on the behaviours that learners employ to make their acquisition of a language “more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable.” Cohen (2011) provides what he terms a working definition of language learning strategies saying that they are, “thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target language performance” (p.7).

For the purpose of this study the definition provided by Oxford (1989) for language learning strategies was adopted as the researcher looked at which strategies learners employ using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which was developed by Oxford (1990), and how the choice of strategies related to the learners’ second language achievement for both English first and second language learners.

Oxford (1990) and O’Malley and Chamot (1990) provide different taxonomies for language learning strategies. Oxford’s (1990) six categories are summarised in Table 2.1. These according to Oxford (1990) can be seen as direct or indirect strategies. Direct strategies encompass cognitive, memory and compensatory strategies and all require mental processing (Oxford, 1990). Indirect strategies namely affective, social and metacognitive strategies are named as such because they don’t necessarily directly involve the target language but support and assist with language learning (Oxford, 1990).

Table 2.1: Oxford's Six Learning Strategy Categories

Learning Strategy	Definition
Direct Strategies	
Cognitive Strategies	These allow the learner to manipulate language material directly e.g. by reasoning, analysis and note-taking, practising, sending and receiving messages.
Memory Strategies	These assist learners in creating links between concepts but not necessarily in developing a deep understanding of them. Alongside the learner being able to apply sounds and pictures, reviewing and using physical responses, as well as mechanical techniques.
Compensatory Strategies	This involves guessing from a context while reading and listening, making use of synonyms as well as linguistic clues and when speaking using gestures and words to fill in the gaps.
Indirect Strategies	
Affective Strategies	Being able to identify your mood and anxiety in different situations and talk about these feelings.
Social Strategies	Involves talking with a native speaker, engaging with others to get verify, clarify and ask for assistance.
Metacognitive Strategies	Here one identifies your own learning style preference and needs. This enables the learner to organize their own learning process.

Adapted from Oxford (1990, 1996)

Over the years, many of these strategies have been investigated in research studies to explore their significance in terms of language achievement. O' Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) investigated the range and frequency of learning strategy use and the effects of educating learners on learning strategies to enhance language skills amongst English second language high school learners. These learners were able to identify the strategies they used which could be classified under three main areas namely metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. These learners reported using cognitive strategies most frequently as opposed to metacognitive strategies.

Chamot and Kupper (1989) also conducted research in order to investigate strategies used by first language English speakers when learning a foreign language. They discovered that the learning strategies of these learners could be categorised in terms of metacognitive, cognitive or social/affective strategies. A second study was conducted to establish the strategies that learners employed when completing specific language tasks (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Although these contributed to the wider research on learning strategies, it can still be argued that more research into what contributes to successful language learning and in the case of this study, second language achievement is required.

Through further investigation O'Malley and Chamot (1990) began to refer to three main strategies namely; metacognitive strategies such as selective attention, planning, monitoring and evaluating; cognitive strategies which encompass rehearsal, organization, inferencing, summarizing, deducing, imagery, transfer and elaboration; and social/affective strategies such as cooperation, questioning for clarification and self-talk. Many similarities can be found between the two taxonomies, as they both encompass looking at metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies in terms of language achievement.

Oxford (1990) states that learning strategies seek to enhance the learner's ability to communicate. Whilst metacognitive strategies can assist learners in regulating their own learning and enable them to focus, plan and evaluate the progress they are making (Oxford, 1990), affective strategies may play an important role in developing the self-confidence of the learner, alongside cognitive strategies which aid in

recalling and understanding new knowledge. Social strategies provide the learner with the opportunity to interact with others whilst learning and compensation strategies provide the learner with the opportunity to close the gaps that may be occurring in their learning (Oxford, 1990). Language learning strategies thus enable the learner to take charge of their own learning and become more independent learners especially in situations where another competent language speaker may not be able to offer assistance (Oxford, 1990).

Oxford (2003) further states that no learning strategy can be seen as being more or less effective than another, but rather it depends on how the learner applies that strategy to the task at hand. If the strategy relates well to the task, is suited to the learners' style choice, is effectively used, and linked with other strategies, then the outcome will be a positive one. Macaro (2006) also stated that strategies need to encompass an action, goal and a learning situation. This makes them a conscious activity and not a subconscious action. He further argues that these strategies need to be transferred into different learning situations in order for them to be considered effective.

Macaro (2006) has been critical of the previous research completed on language learning strategies and questions the underlying theories. However, he acknowledges that valuable contributions have been made by previous researchers but argues that this is an area that requires a lot more research. Macaro (2006) believes that strategies do not operate in isolation but rather combine as clusters to enhance the learning process. He states that, "more research is needed to illuminate how strategies combine to lead to both language competence and performance" (Macaro, 2006, p.332). Dornyei and Skehan (2003) argues that motivation plays a key role in language achievement,

and that from a self-regulatory point of view learners can enhance the effectiveness of their learning not only by means of applying creative cognitive operations that suit their particular learning styles, but also by generating motivation to learn and finding ways of maintaining their commitment when persistence appears to be flagging (p. 612).

Dornyei and Skehan (2003) refer to the term self-regulation, which he states, has been adopted more recently in favour of learning strategies.

Research on learning strategies has continued and more recently Harris and Grenfell (2008, as cited in Cohen, 2011) completed a study to ascertain the effects of strategy instruction in listening and reading relative to factors such as socio-economic background. They discovered that the learners, while being involved in metacognitive and cognitive strategy instruction, improved their listening skills despite prior achievement, attitude, gender or bilingual status.

Griffiths and Parr (2001), state that all other variables being equal, Language Learning Strategy Theory states, that in part, success in language learning can be attributed to the choice of strategies that learners employ whilst they are learning a new language. This implies that learners can consciously affect the outcomes of their learning and may be termed a cognitive process. In contrast Krashen (1976) states that language cannot be consciously learned, but is rather acquired naturally by means of communication. Through further investigation we may be able to establish if this cognitive process may be enhanced through language learning strategy training.

Salahshour, Sharifi, and Salahshour (2013) further investigated language learning strategy use to ascertain the relationship between the choice of strategies, frequency of use, gender and language proficiency. In this study metacognitive strategies appeared to be used most frequently. The study further found that successful second language learners make use of language learning strategies more frequently and appropriately than less successful learners (Salahshour et al., 2013). Interestingly, in this study the use of memory strategies was found to be low and this was considered surprising due to the high use of memory and rote learning that is used in many other areas of learning within this culture. However, when comparing this study to a study completed by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) memory strategy use between participants was also found to be low. The above mentioned study also notes that females tend to make use of learning strategies more frequently than males (Salahshour et al., 2013). This is of importance for education as it may indicate that males may require further support in developing these skills; once again highlighting the importance of learning strategies and the impact they may be having on learning and in particular second language achievement.

Even though many different viewpoints abound in terms of strategies and how learners apply them, it is evident that most agree that learners are applying some form of strategy to varying situations when learning is taking place. Understanding who is able to apply these strategies most affectively and why, may have a significant contribution to make in terms of second language achievement. Bearing in mind the multilingual South African context and the limited number of studies with this age group within this context, further research aims to enhance this area of study and better understand the impact that learning strategies may have on second language achievement.

2.8. FACTORS THAT AFFECT CHOICE OF STRATEGIES

Many factors contribute to and influence learning strategy choice. Oxford (1989), lists the following; language being learned, age, gender, attitudes, motivation, language learning goals, personality characteristics, personality type, and learning style.

Rubin (1975) also suggested certain characteristics that would be evident in the good language learner, by stating that the good language learner would be an accurate guesser and willing learner and would display a need to communicate with others. An effective language learner would be prepared to make mistakes and would be uninhibited in the language learning process. They would look for patterns in the language, take note of the meanings of words and take time to practise the new language, monitoring their own speech and that of others during this process. Alongside these characteristics, the good language learner applies certain strategies to their learning. These involve metacognitive, affective, social, memory, cognitive and compensatory strategies known altogether as learning strategies (Rubin, 1975). However, are certain learners more able to apply these strategies in different learning situations and how does the application of these strategies affect their second language achievement?

2.9. LEARNING STRATEGIES AND TEACHING

The importance of understanding learning strategies and their impact in second language achievement also plays a role in teaching. As stated previously the emphasis in the later years of research has not been so much on the process of teaching, but on that of learning. However, if teachers are aware of the strategies

their learners are employing when learning a second language, this may enable them to structure their teaching in such a way that maximum learning is facilitated. If teachers are aware of their own strategies that they employ while teaching and how these match those of their learners, this may also impact on the learning process.

That being said, within the South African context research on this topic is limited. Dreyer and Brits (1994) completed research with Afrikaans speaking standard six learners (Grade 8) to compare the effectiveness of three learning strategies, focussing on memory strategies, for English second language vocabulary acquisition. The learners were divided into four groups. Three groups received strategy training on three different methods and one did not. They argued that the learners having received strategy training, in particular the combined keyword-semantic strategy, performed better than those who did not receive training in this method (Dreyer & Brits, 1994). The question of whether or not learning strategies can be taught is also of significance within this study.

Abhakorn (2008) argues that through formal instruction and continued practise, learning strategies can be learned. Through the process of scaffolding, according to social interactionist theory, learners can develop their ability to use strategies. Chamot (2004) states that in language classrooms teachers can assist their learners in acquiring learning strategies, thereby making learning a second language more successful. If learners have a repertoire of strategies that they can draw from, then they may achieve more success.

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) conducted a study that investigated English second language learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) the relationship between language learning strategy use and second language proficiency was investigated with the focus being to compare this use across gender and nationality (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). This study discovered that learners in the intermediate level made use of more strategies than those in the beginning and advanced levels (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). Alongside this the students appeared to make more use of metacognitive strategies as opposed to affective and memory strategies.

This study by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) also noted that beginning learners tend to be more passive in language learning classes due to the lack of vocabulary they may possess in the second language. In this instance the teacher would have the role of increasing conversation time to build fluency and confidence and increase vocabulary (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). Teachers who are effective will scaffold the learning process by incorporating meaningful strategy choices in their teaching. However, when working with intermediate learners, the task of the teacher is to assist the learners in selecting the most appropriate strategies for the learning process and themselves as individuals (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). The more advanced learners are being more autonomous in their ability to lead their own learning and the teacher plays more of a facilitator's role here. This links to cognitive information processing whereby according to Anderson (1990) declarative knowledge is transformed into procedural knowledge and learning becomes a more automatic and unconscious process as we instinctively employ strategies to facilitate our learning process.

From an educational perspective, teachers being aware of their learners' abilities and strategy use may structure lessons in such a way that optimal learning is encouraged. Khalil (2005) notes that teachers would benefit from training in how to deliver explicit instruction in language learning strategies in order to encourage language learning. Khalil (2005) further argues that the curriculum should focus on developing learners' strategy skills by creating purposeful materials which seek to enhance strategy instruction.

In terms of the present study understanding the link between learning strategies and second language achievement may provide us with important information on the repertoire of strategies that would be useful to employ when learning a second language. Significantly for learners, who may not have these strategies as part of their repertoire, further research could be done in order to establish how these strategies could be taught to learners to foster more successful achievement in learning a second language.

2.10. CONCLUSION

Cohen (2011) states that,

an ideal learning situation is one in which learners become savvy consumers of L2's at an early age, maximise their experiences in and out of class, and become life-long users of a host of languages (p.378).

In order for them to do this they need to be aware of their preferred learning style and the strategies they employ and how these may impact on their achievement in a second language (Cohen, 2011). Alongside this the argument that our cognitive processes may be enhanced through learning a second language also adds value to our understanding of how we can effectively learn a new language and achieve success while studying it. If these learning strategies can be effectively applied across learning situations, then our overall achievement may be enhanced too.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the research design, alongside the research questions and hypothesis that were formulated for this study. Information pertaining to the participants in the study, the method of data collection, instruments (SILL, demographic questionnaire and learner background questionnaire) used as well as the procedure that was followed is also discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion on how the data was analysed and the ethical considerations pertaining to the study.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

This was a non-experimental, quantitative study. This type of study identifies variables and aims to find relationships between these variables without manipulating them (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010). In this type of research, data is gathered on two or more variables from individuals and then attempts are made to find relationships between these variables (Ary et al., 2010). The present study took the form of correlational research as it aimed to investigate the relationships between the participants' language learning strategies and second language achievement. This study made use of quantitative methods as it looked at relationships between variables, the approach was deductive and preselected instruments were used, whilst the data was analysed numerically (Ary et al., 2010).

3.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

3.3.1. Research Questions

The focus in this study was on the following key research questions:

- Is there a significant relationship between individual language learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners?
- Is there a significant relationship between English being the participants' first or second language and their achievement in a second language?

- Is there a significant association between the individual language learning strategies in English first and second language learners?

3.3.2 Hypotheses

Hypotheses can be defined as statements that are made about the causal relationship between different variables (Haslam & McGarty, 2003). Gavin (2008) states that they can be likened to informed speculations about what the outcome of the results may be.

In terms of this research study the hypotheses are as follows.

(Ho1) There is a significant relationship between individual learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners.

(Ha1) There is no significant relationship between individual learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners.

(Ho2) There is a significant relationship between English being the participants' first or second language and their achievement in a second language.

(Ha2) There is no significant relationship between English being the participants' first or second language and their achievement in a second language.

(Ho3) There is a significant association between the individual language learning strategies used by English first and second language learners.

(Ha3) There is not a significant association between the individual language learning strategies used by English first and second language learners.

3.4. SAMPLE

The participants in this study were first and second language English speaking boys and girls in Grade 6 and 7 attending a government school in Johannesburg. They ranged in age from 11-14 years old. The sample group consisted of 55 boys and 73

girls. In Grade 7 there were 27 first language English speakers and 51 English second language speakers making a total of 78 learners. In Grade 6 there were 21 first language English speakers and 29 English second language speakers, a total of 50 Grade 6 learners. The first language sample consisted of 48 learners and the second language sample consisted of 80 learners. In total 128 learners made up the sample group for the study.

The majority of the learners that made up the sample, live in the suburbs that surround the school. A small number of the learners reside in the inner city as the school is situated on its border. Some of the learners commute into the school from outlying areas. However, this is a very limited number as government policy stipulates that schools need to first accommodate learners from their surrounding areas. The medium of instruction at the school is English and Afrikaans is taught as a second language or FAL. This is in keeping with the languages that are taught in the High schools, which the majority of the learners may attend in the area.

As the study aimed to look at learning strategy use and its impact on second language achievement for both first and second language English speakers, this target group was used. Purposive sampling was used as the sample was judged to be typical and representative of the group required for the study (Ary et al., 2010). This sample encompasses an age group that not a lot of research has been done with, with regards to this subject area. They fulfil the inclusion criteria of first or second language being English, age, gender, and socio-economic background. Varying ages may make use of learning strategies in a variety of ways and so may impact the outcome of results. Through ensuring that the age range of the learners fell within a certain limit the exposure to the second language and the amount of time the learners had been engaged in learning the language would be similar. Socio-economic background may also impact on the exposure that the learners have had to the language and/or language learning materials and therefore may impact on the outcome of results in the study. From a gender perspective this sample was seen to be representative of many South African co-ed schools and so results may then be applied in a more global sense and be compared across similar settings. The questionnaires that were used had also been standardized for this age group and all

these learners take a second language or are learning in a second language as per their school's curriculum.

3.5. METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was completed by the researcher and results analysed by the researcher and her supervisor. Data was collected by means of questionnaires, which took approximately one hour to complete, as detailed below. All data was kept secure using password protected documents and raw data was stored in a locked cabinet at the University of the Witwatersrand.

3.5.1. Measuring Instruments

3.5.1.1. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Appendix F and G)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was first developed as an instrument for the Defence Language Institute Foreign Language Centre in California to assess the use of language learning strategies by its students (Oxford, 1996). Two versions of the SILL are to be found; namely the English first language SILL for learners learning a second language other than English (Version 5.1) and the SILL for speakers of other languages learning English as their second language (Version 7.0). For the purpose of this study Version 5.1 was used to assess the learners' use of language strategies for the first language English speakers and the Version 7.0 was used with the learners who speak English as their second language.

The SILL version 5.1 aims to establish how English first language speakers engage in the learning process when learning a second language, and what strategies they employ. Version 7.0 looks at the strategies people employ while learning English as a second language. Both versions of the SILL take the form of a 5 point Likert Scale, ranging from 1-5 as follows: never/almost never true of me, generally not true of me, somewhat true of me, generally true of me and always/almost always true of me. The learners were required to respond to a series of statements, for example: "I try to find patterns in English" (Oxford, 1996), according to this scale. Each set of statements on the SILL corresponds with a type of language learning strategy category as detailed in the definition of learning strategies above. Once scored, the SILL provides the participant with a highest score in one category, thereby indicating

which group of learning strategies the participant is most likely to use when learning a second language. It is important to note that the SILL aims to assess the whole learner as it looks at language learning strategies broadly; taking into account cognitive, affective and social strategies that the learner may employ (Oxford, 1996).

The utility of an instrument refers to how useful an instrument is in real world settings for making decisions relative to an individuals' life (Oxford & Bury-Stock, 1995). The SILL is said to have utility in classrooms worldwide, and is especially useful in assessing whether language achievement is enhanced by using language learning strategies. This inventory has been used before in South Africa in a study conducted by Dreyer and Oxford (1996). It was administered to first year University students, however is suitable for use with younger learners and has been used worldwide in studies with school-going children.

Validity refers to the level that an instrument indicates what it says it will indicate (Haslam & McGarty, 2003). According to Dreyer and Oxford (1996), the SILL presents with a high internal consistency, as well as content validity. It further demonstrates a strong relationship with motivation, proficiency and psychological type. As the language learning strategies used related well to language achievement in a number of research studies, the SILL demonstrates construct validity (Oxford, 1996). The results of the factor analysis done when developing the SILL, further indicated construct validity as there were clear variables that related to the learning strategy taxonomy and the available research literature on learning strategies (Oxford, 1986).

Reliability refers to the accuracy that can be established for the scores of a particular instrument (Oxford, 1996). Haslam and McGarty (2003) state that "reliability relates to our confidence that a given empirical finding can be reproduced again" (p. 21) and the results achieved are not just by chance. The Cronbach alpha which is considered to be a measure for internal consistency was adopted in order to establish the reliability of the SILL (Oxford, 1996). The SILL version 5.1 for English first language speakers learning a second language demonstrates a high level of reliability with a Cronbach alpha of .96 in a study conducted by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and .95 for a study conducted by Ehrman and Oxford (1995) and Oxford and Ehrman (1995). The SILL version 7.0 for learners who are learning in English

displayed Cronbach alpha's of between .89-.90 in a study conducted by Oxford (1999). In regression studies the SILL predicted a 46% percentage of the variance of English proficiency (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996) and in a study conducted by Ku (1995, as cited in Oxford, 2011) in Taiwan, 21% variance for English proficiency was to be noted. Correlations between the SILL and proficiency were also established in the study by Dreyer and Oxford (1996) noting that ($r = .73$).

3.5.1.2. Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix H)

The questionnaire consisted of demographical questions to establish the learners' background and home circumstances. This questionnaire also provided information on other extraneous variables such as: language spoken at home, parents' ability to speak the language, gender, barriers to learning and age of the participants.

3.5.1.3. Learner Background Questionnaire (Appendix I)

This questionnaire, developed by Oxford (1990) consists of a set of background questions that the learners completed prior to completing the SILL. This questionnaire provided the researcher with information about how the learner rates their proficiency in the language, how important learning the language is to them and why they want to learn the language. It also asks about their enjoyment of learning the language and their favourite experience when learning the language. This questionnaire aims to shed light on some of the other extraneous variables that may be contributing to the learner's achievement level in the second language.

3.5.2. PROCEDURE

Once ethical clearance had been obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee – Non-Medical, a principal of a local government school in Johannesburg was approached to discuss the purpose and aim of the study. This provided verbal consent to conduct the study in the school. A letter was sent to the District Supervisor of the Gauteng Education Department in order to get written permission to conduct the study. The parents of the learners were also given a letter containing details about the study and a consent form to complete in order to get their permission for their child to participate. Once they had given consent, a demographic questionnaire was sent out for the parents to complete. The children were then given an assent form to sign, ensuring that they gave their consent to

participate in the study. Once all the necessary consent had been completed, the questionnaires were administered with the learners.

Firstly a background questionnaire and then the SILL were completed by the learners. Version 5.1 was completed with the learners who speak English as their first language and version 7.0 with the learners who speak English as their second language. The researcher administered the questionnaires with the learners and was available to assist with any questions they had during the process. The responses from the questionnaires were analysed by the researcher and her supervisor in relation to the learners' end of term marks in the second language they are studying. This enabled the researcher to establish if there was a correlation between the strategies used and achievement in the second language. The information received in the learner background questionnaire and demographic questionnaire was considered in relation to strategy use. Once conclusions have been drawn from the results a report of the findings will be issued to the school for their reference.

3.6. METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Based on the research hypotheses the aim of the study was to establish if there was a significant relationship between language learning strategies and second language achievement. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were used in order to explain the data.

Parametric tests were used to establish the relationships between the variables using the data gathered. Parametric tests are used when the intervals between the scores are equal and therefore termed interval data (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). In order to establish these relationships between the variables a regression or a correlation may be carried out. A regression will allow the researcher to establish to what degree the scores on one variable are able to predict the scores on the other variable (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). A simple linear regression is used when there are only two variables that the researcher is interested in establishing if there is a relationship between them. A multiple regression on the other hand will allow the researcher to establish if there is a strong relationship between two or more independent variables and one dependant variable (Ary et al., 2010). This enables several predictor variables (independent variables) to be introduced (Greene &

D'Oliveira, 2006). A correlation aims to establish whether two variables will be associated with each other (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). Both of these forms of analysis may be used in order to establish these relationships between the variables. A multiple regression was completed in order to explore the extent that the independent variables are predicting the dependent variable. The independent variables in this study were the language learning strategies namely; memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. The dependent variable was second language achievement i.e. the mark achieved in the second language being studied. The relationship between the individual language learning strategies and the impact they may be having on second language achievement was also addressed using the multiple regression analysis.

A nominal predictor can also be added into the multiple regression and is termed a dummy variable (Gavin, 2008). In this study language was added as a dummy variable and this allowed the researcher to establish the impact that having English as a first or second language may have on the participants second language achievement.

In order to establish the relationships between the language learning strategies a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Test was conducted to establish the association that the independent variables may have with each other (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). This also provided insight as to whether there was a positive or negative correlation with the individual learning strategies and second language achievement.

3.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Due to the participants being between the ages of 11-14 years and of school-going age, certain ethical considerations had to be taken into account. Firstly, the study had to be approved by the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee – Non-Medical. Thereafter, the study had to be approved by the Department of Education, school principal and parents of the learners. This was done by means of covering letters detailing the study and what it entailed. There was also a consent form to be completed by the relevant parties to ensure that there was

written agreement. The consent forms highlighted that all information would be treated as confidential. All participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they may withdraw from the study at any time. The children also completed an assent form acknowledging that they were prepared to participate in the study.

The children were not advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires were not seen by any person in the school at any time and were only processed by the researcher and her supervisor. The children's responses were only looked at in relation to all other responses. The participants were able to refuse to answer any questions they had preferred not to. There were no direct risks or benefits attached to participating in this study. The administration of the questionnaires took place during a time which was convenient for the staff and children in order not to jeopardise any academic time.

As the researcher matched demographic information with the results by means of a code, confidentiality and anonymity was ensured in the publication of the final report. Furthermore only the researcher and her supervisor had access to the questionnaires and the test scores, therefore the children's information and test results remained confidential.

The questionnaires were completed with the learners at a time that was suitable for the school so as not to impose on academic time and took approximately one hour to complete. Any learner who was not participating in the study was supervised by a staff member from the school and completed activities relevant to their academic subjects during that time. This arrangement was made with the staff at the school and a teacher from each grade was in agreement to take on this responsibility.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In order to answer the stated research questions; both descriptive and inferential statistics were run. This provided information on the relationship between language learning strategies and second language achievement. The results from the Multiple Regression and Pearson Product Moment Correlation were analysed and the results of these findings are presented in this chapter. Reference is made to the hypotheses that were postulated in Chapter 3 as a means to answering the research questions that were posed.

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Haslam and McGarty (2003) state that descriptive statistics enable the researcher to provide a description of the properties that make up a particular data set. This descriptive data has been used to explain the components of the data within the study. These statistics aim to describe what the data is indicating and allows the researcher to provide quantitative descriptions of outcomes in an understandable way. The data can then be analysed in relation to the number of participants, their demographic information, the language learning strategy variables and second language achievement. In terms of this research study both groups; that being the first (L1) and second language (L2) learners', were looked at in relation to this data.

One hundred and twenty-eight, first and second language learners made up the total number of participants in the study. Below is the demographic information collected from the learners, alongside information about how they rate themselves as second language learners, why they feel it is important to study a second language and the number of years they have studied their respective second languages.

Table 4.1: Second Language of Learning of Participants

	Second Language of learning	Frequency	Percent
L1	Afrikaans	48	100
L2	English	80	100

The sample group was made up of 48 L1 participants and 80 L2 participants as is detailed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of Age of Participants

Age	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
11	20	41.7	16	20.0
12	18	37.5	38	47.5
13	10	20.8	22	27.5
14			4	5.0
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.2 indicates that the ages of the participants range between 11 years to 14 years old. The largest proportion of L1 learners are 11 years old (41.7%) and 12 years old (37.5%), whilst the majority of L2 learners are 12 years old (47.5%). This is representative of this age group within the South African schooling system.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of Mean Age of Participants

	L1 Age	L2 Age
N	48	48
Mean	11.79	12.175
Std Deviation	.771	.8078

The mean age of the participants is detailed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of Gender of Participants

Gender	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Male	19	39.6	36	45.0
Female	29	60.4	44	55.0
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.4 provides information about the gender profile of the participants. In both groups, L1 and L2, there were a slightly higher proportion of females in the sample group; L1 participants (60.4%) and L2 participants (55%).

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of Guardians of Participants

Guardians	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Biological parents	38	79.2	59	73.8
Foster parents			1	1.3
Single parent (deceased)	1	2.1	8	10.0
Single parent (divorced)	5	10.4	6	7.5
Blended family	2	4.2	1	1.3
Adoptive parents	1	2.1		
Adult relative			2	2.5
Other	1	2.1	3	3.8
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.5 provides information on the guardians with whom the participants reside. In both groups the highest proportion of participants live with their biological parents; L1 (79.2%) and L2 (73.8%).

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics of Residence of Participants

Residence	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Informal Settlement			2	2.5
Inner City	3	6.3	17	21.3
Suburb	45	93.8	61	76.3
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 4.6 indicate that the majority of the participants L1 (93.8%) and L2 (76.3%) live in a suburb. This reflects the nature of the school in which the study was carried out and can be said to be representative of a South African urban school, whereby the majority of learners attending the school should live within the area surrounding the school.

Table 4.7: Descriptive Statistics of Transport used to School by Participants

Type	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Taxi	1	2.1	8	10.0
Bus	1	2.1	6	7.5
Personal Vehicle	33	68.8	34	42.5
Lift club service	3	6.3	8	10.0
Walk	10	20.8	24	30.0
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.7 provides insight on how the participants travel to and from school. Both the L1 and L2 learners have similar profiles here with the largest proportion of learners either coming in a personal vehicle (L1-68.8%, L2-42.5%) or walking (L1-20.8%, L2 30%) to school.

Table 4.8: Home Language of L1 Participants

	Frequency	Percent
English	48	100.0

The L1 participants (100%) all speak English as their Home Language as indicated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.9: Home Language of L2 participants

Language	Frequency	Percent
English	1	1.3
Shona	2	2.5
Setswana	12	15.0
Sesotho	8	10.0
Zulu	27	33.8
Xhosa	9	11.3
Sepedi	4	5.0
French	5	6.3
Portuguese	2	2.5
Chinese	4	5.0
Swahili	1	1.3
Tsonga	1	1.3
Afrikaans	1	1.3
Siswati	1	1.3
Venda	2	2.5
Total	80	100.0

It is evident that the L2 Home Language profile of the participants is diverse and many African Languages are spoken by the participants as shown in Table 4.9. When one considers that South Africa has 11 official languages (Republic of South Africa, 1996) this is representative of the diverse culture of language that is present in South African society. Fleisch, (2008) further notes that less than one in ten South African children speaks English as a first language. Despite this, by the end of Grade 3 many children at school are both taught and assessed in English (Fleisch, 2008). Van Rooyen and Jordaan (2009) put forward that this poses many difficulties for the learner, as the language required here has to be academic in nature, and has to be achieved by so many learners in the second language. It is evident from the above that many of the participants in this study are learning in a second language and therefore obtaining skills or strategies in order to enhance academic achievement may assist them in developing their second language learning.

Table 4.10: Second languages Spoken by L1 and L2 Participants

Language	Frequency	Percent
L1		
Shona	2	4.2
Zulu	5	10.4
Xhosa	1	2.1
French	2	4.2
Portuguese	1	2.1
Swahili	2	4.2
Afrikaans	23	47.9
None	9	18.8
Hindi	2	4.2
Urdu	1	2.1
Total	48	100.0
L2		
English	68	85.0
Setswana	2	2.5
Sesotho	1	1.3
Zulu	3	3.8
Xhosa	1	1.3
Swahili	2	2.5
Afrikaans	1	1.3
Venda	1	1.3
Ndebele	1	1.3
Total	80	100.0

Table 4.10 represents the profile of second languages spoken by the L1 and L2 participants. Afrikaans (47.9%) and English (85%) being the most frequently spoken languages of the L1 and L2 groups respectively.

Table 4.11: Third Languages Spoken by Participants

Language	Frequency	Percent
L1		
Sesotho	1	2.1
Xhosa	3	6.3
French	4	8.3
Portuguese	1	2.1
Swahili	2	4.2
Afrikaans	5	10.4
None	31	64.6
Spanish	1	2.1
Total	48	100.0
L2		
English	7	8.8
Setswana	3	3.8
Sesotho	8	10.0
Zulu	9	11.3
Xhosa	1	1.3
Portuguese	2	2.5
Swahili	1	1.3
Tsonga	1	1.3
Afrikaans	18	22.5
Siswati	1	1.3
Venda	27	33.8
Ndebele	1	1.3
Lingala	1	1.3
Total	80	100.0

Table 4.11 details the third languages spoken by participants. Within the L1 group 64.6% of the participants do not speak a third language. The L2 group has a larger number of third languages being spoken amongst the participants.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics of number of languages spoken at home by participants

Number	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	34	70.8	24	30.0
2	13	27.1	43	53.8
3	1	2.1	13	16.3
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.12 details the number of languages spoken at home by the participants. The L1 group has a large proportion of participants who only speak a single language at home; 70.8%. Within the L2 group 53.8% of the participants speak two languages at home, indicating that code switching may often take place within this setting.

Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics use of the second language with Parents

	L1						L2					
	Parents		Speak to child		Assist with		Parents		Speak to child		Assist with	
	speak L2		in L2		homework in L2		speak L2		in L2		homework in L2	
	F*	%**	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yes	35	72.9	13	27.1	30	62.5	73	91.3	53	66.3	63	78.8
No	13	27.1	35	72.9	18	37.5	7	8.8	27	33.8	17	21.3
Total	48	100.0	48	100.0	48	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0

*Frequency

**Percentage

The profile of descriptive statistics and the use of the second language at home with parents are detailed in Table 4.13. Both groups show a high percentage of parents who speak the second language that their children are learning; L1 (72.9%) and L2 (91.3%). 66.3% of the L2 parents speak to their children in their second language, whilst only 27.1% of the L1 learners' parents speak to their children in their second language. Probyn (2001) states that often English is seen as the language of power and access and therefore is readily adopted. This certainly seems to be the case within this sample group, as parents seem to be using the English language readily in their homes with their children. These parents may therefore feel as Probyn (2001) states, that it is important for their children to have a good command of the language.

Table 4.14: Descriptive Statistics Fluency of Parents in L2

	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Fluent in L2	16	33.3	50	62.5
Limited fluency in L2	23	47.9	26	32.5
Do not speak L2	9	18.8	4	5.0
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

The profile of language fluency of parents is reflected in Table 4.14, with (62.5%) of the L2 participants' parents regarding themselves as fluent in the second language which their children are being taught in; namely English. This once again reflects how readily the language is used within South African society. The percentage of L1 parents is less at (33.3%); reflecting their proficiency in Afrikaans, the second language these learners are learning. It is important to note here that this may be reflective of parents' attitudes to languages and which they value as languages that need to be practised and readily used. Sachs (1994, as cited in De Klerk & Gough, 2002) notes that although many attempts have been made to encourage multilingualism within language policy and provide more recognition to indigenous languages, English is still widely supported in the South African context and is cited as being predominant in schools, universities and within the government.

Table 4.15: Number of Years the Second Language has been studied in both L1 and L2 Participants

Years	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	1	2.1	3	3.8
3	6	12.5	1	1.3
4	13	27.1	5	6.3
5	11	22.9	3	3.8
6	6	12.5	11	13.8
7	3	6.3	17	21.3
8	5	10.4	18	22.5
9	1	2.1	11	13.8
10	1	2.1	8	10.0
12	1	2.1	2	2.5
13			1	1.3
Total	48	100	80	100

Table 4.15 details the length of time the participants have been learning the language. The L1 participants on average have been studying the second language for 4 years (27.1%). The L2 learners have been learning the language for on average 8 years (22.5%). This is reflective of the fact that many of the L2 learners have been taught from the start of formal schooling in South Africa in English. This is the medium of instruction in many South African urban schools where English is favoured over mother-tongue instruction. By the end of Grade 3 the majority of school going children are taught in English (Fleisch, 2008). Cummins (2000, as cited in Nel, 2011) notes that it takes between two to four years to be able to confidently make use of an additional language and a further three years to become proficient at using the language at a cognitive and academic level. This means that many of the participants have been learning in a language that they may have had limited proficiency in for the majority of their schooling career.

Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics of Mean Age and Years Participants studied Second Language

	L1		L2	
	Age	Years studied	Age	Years studied
N	48	48	48	48
Mean	11.79	5.29	12.175	7.325
Std Deviation	.771	2.073	.8078	2.2601

The descriptive statistics in Table 4.16 details the mean age and years the second language has been studied. The L1 participants have studied the language for 5.29 years on average and the L2 participants for 7.325 years.

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics of Self-rating of Participants to Class and Native Speakers

Rating	L1				L2			
	Ability (Class)		Ability (Native speakers)		Ability (Class)		Ability (Native speakers)	
	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent	Freq	Percent
Excellent	8	16.7	6	12.5	16	20.0	20	25.0
Good	26	54.2	11	22.9	55	68.8	33	41.3
Fair	13	27.1	20	41.7	8	10.0	24	30.0
Poor	1	2.1	11	22.9	1	1.3	3	3.8
Total	48	48	48	100.0	80	100.0	80	100.0

The participants rated themselves in relation to their classmates and native speakers. The profile in Table 4.17 indicates that the L1 participants most frequently rate themselves as good (54.2%) when compared to their classmates and as fair (41.7%) when compared to native speakers of the language. The L2 participants most frequently rate themselves as good against their classmates (68.8%) and the native speakers (41.3%) when making use of the second language of learning.

Table 4.18: Importance of Speaking a Second Language

Rating	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Very important	19	39.6	63	78.8
Important	24	50.0	17	21.3
Not so important	5	10.4		
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

The L2 participants rated the importance of speaking the second language they are learning as very important in Table 4.18 (78.8%). However, the L1 participants felt that learning the second language was only important (50%).

Table 4.19: Descriptive Statistics of Special Academic Needs of Participants

	L1		L2	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Special Academic needs	7	14.6	7	8.8
No special Academic needs	41	85.4	73	91.3
Total	48	100.0	80	100.0

Table 4.19 details any special academic needs that the participants may have. In terms of this sample group only a small percentage of participants indicated that they have special needs which need to be accommodated in their learning environment. 14.6 % of the L1 participants and 8.8% of the L2 participants. It can be noted according to the comments made by parents/guardians on the questionnaires that two learners presented with Attention - Deficit / Hyperactivity Disorder while one learner was said to fall within the Autistic Spectrum. Five of the learner's parents cited medical conditions as a special need. Four learners are cited as having academic needs. Whilst one has a parent who is not working and another has experienced the loss of a parent.

4.3. NORMALITY OF THE DATA

The statistical methods used are based on a number of underlying assumptions. Scores within a data set should be normally distributed. A normal distribution can be defined as a “frequency distribution in the shape of a bell curve” (Gavin, 2008, p.70). Histograms were plotted to determine the normality of each of the independent variables in relation to the dependent variable. A histogram is provided for each of the categories of learning strategies and the second language achievement (mark) for the participants.

Figure 4.1: Histogram of Memory Strategies

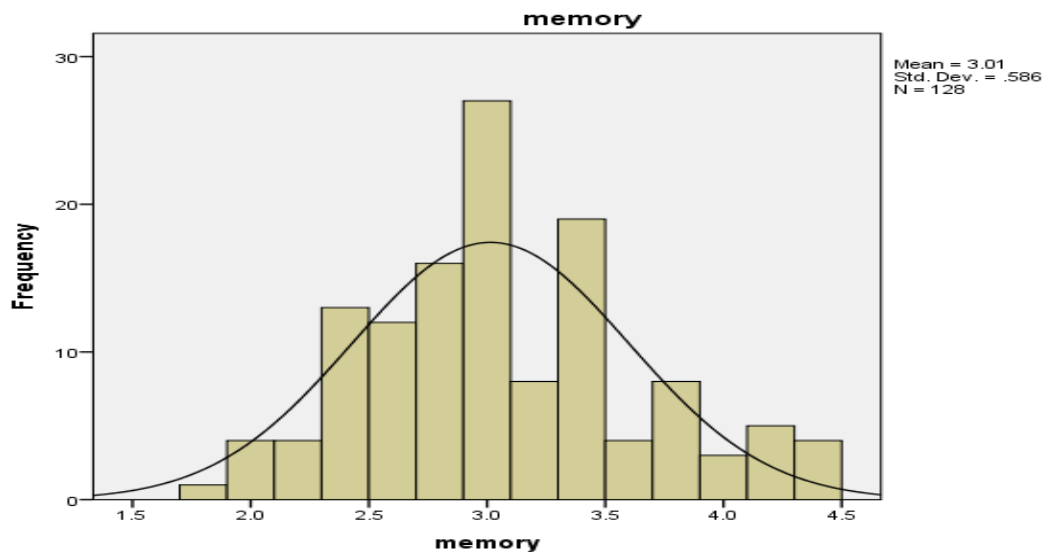


Figure 4.2: Histogram of Cognitive Strategies

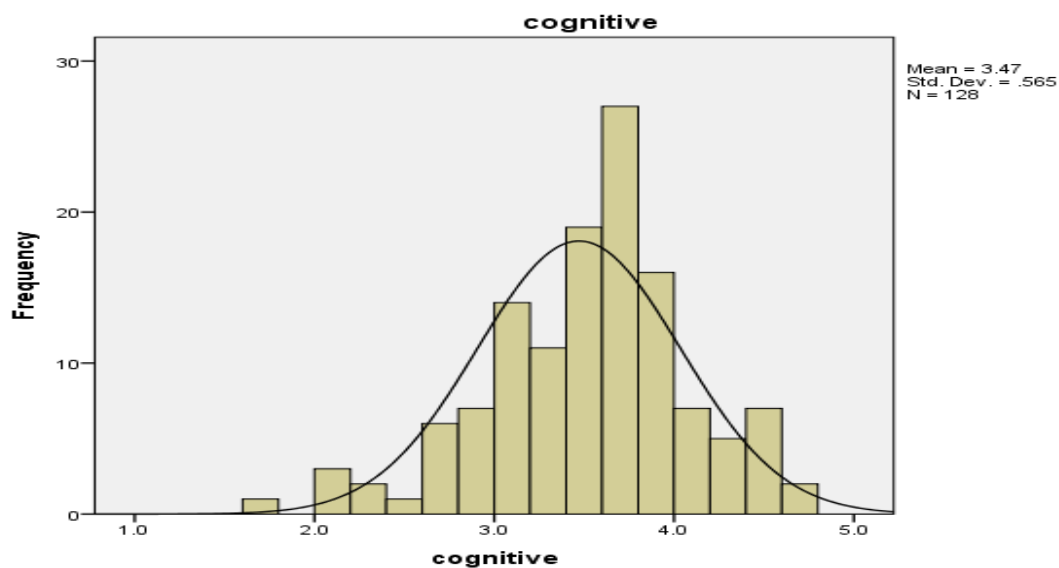


Figure 4.3: Histogram of Compensation Strategies

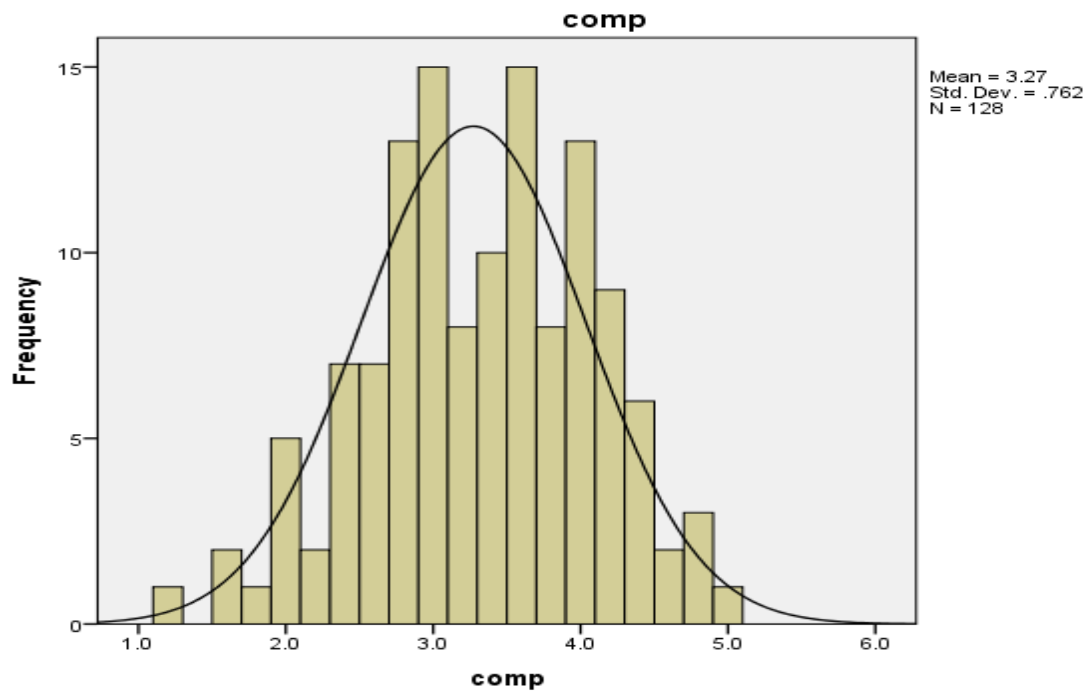


Figure 4.4: Histogram of Metacognitive Strategies

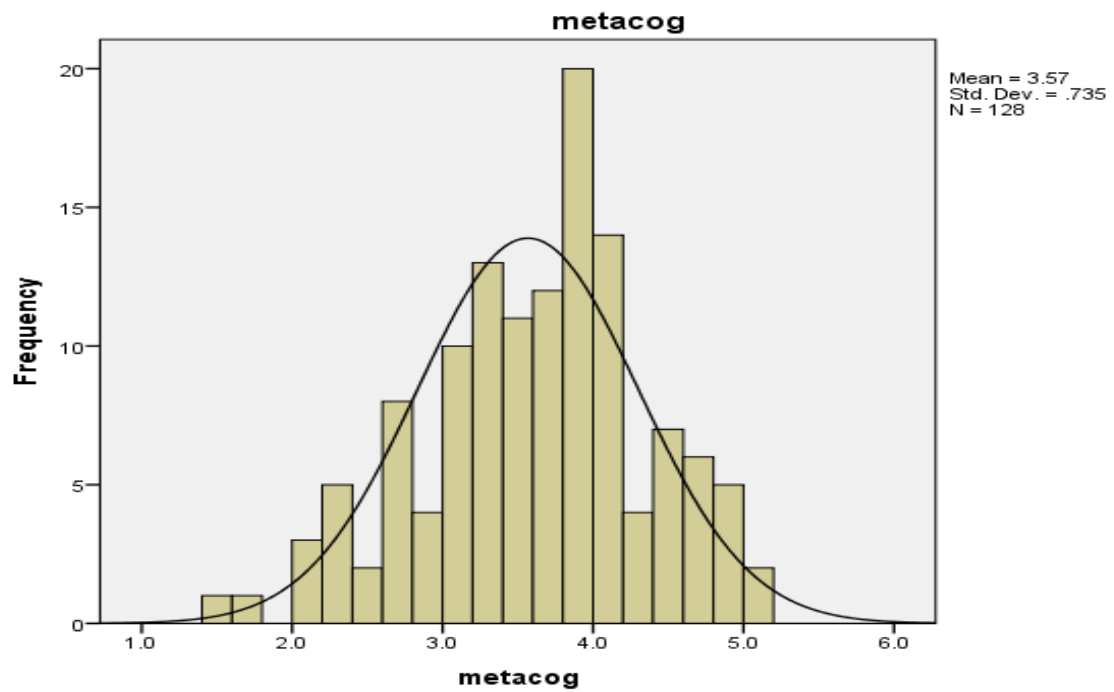


Figure 4.5: Histogram of Affective Strategies

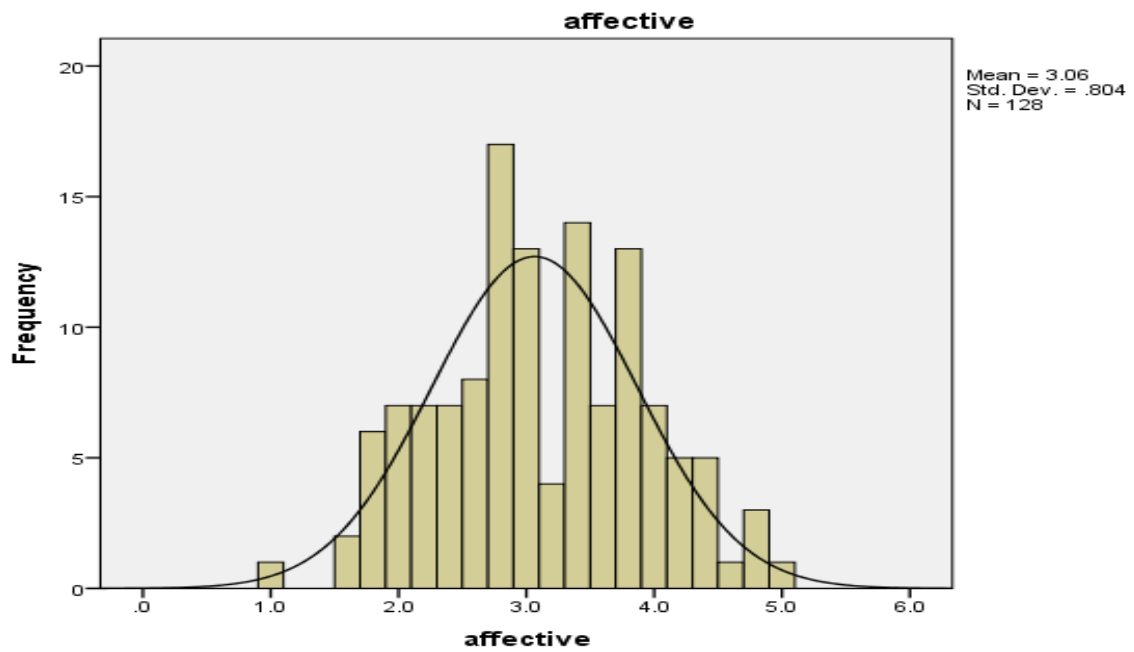


Figure 4.6: Histogram of Social Strategies

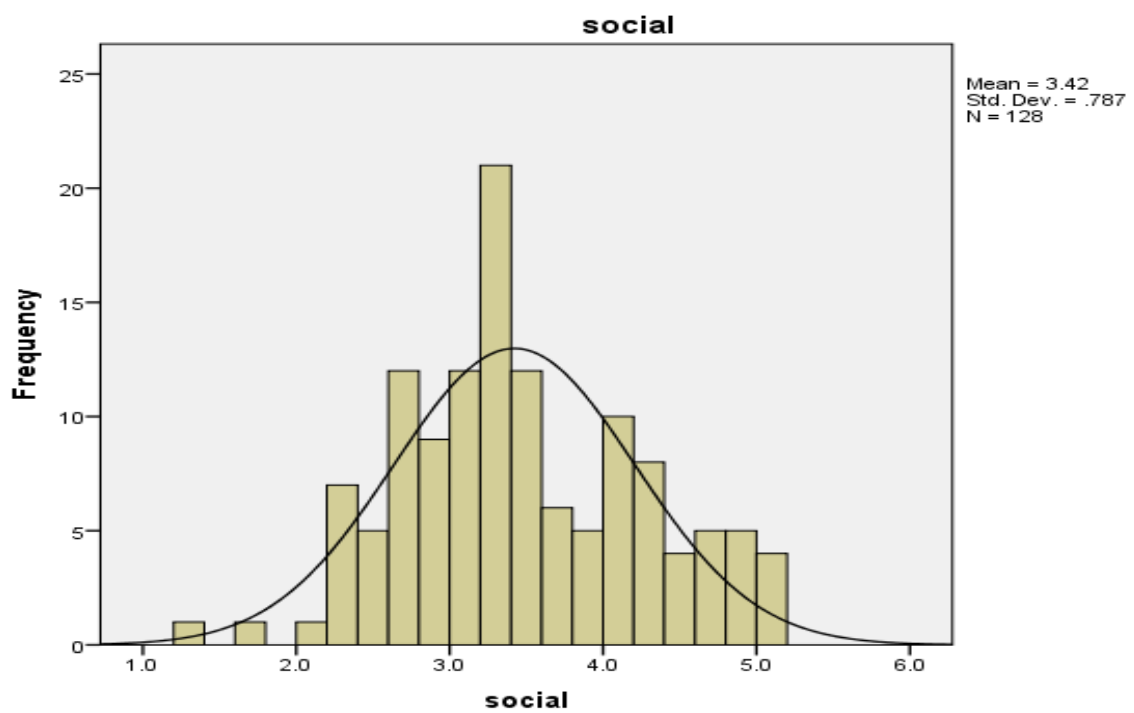
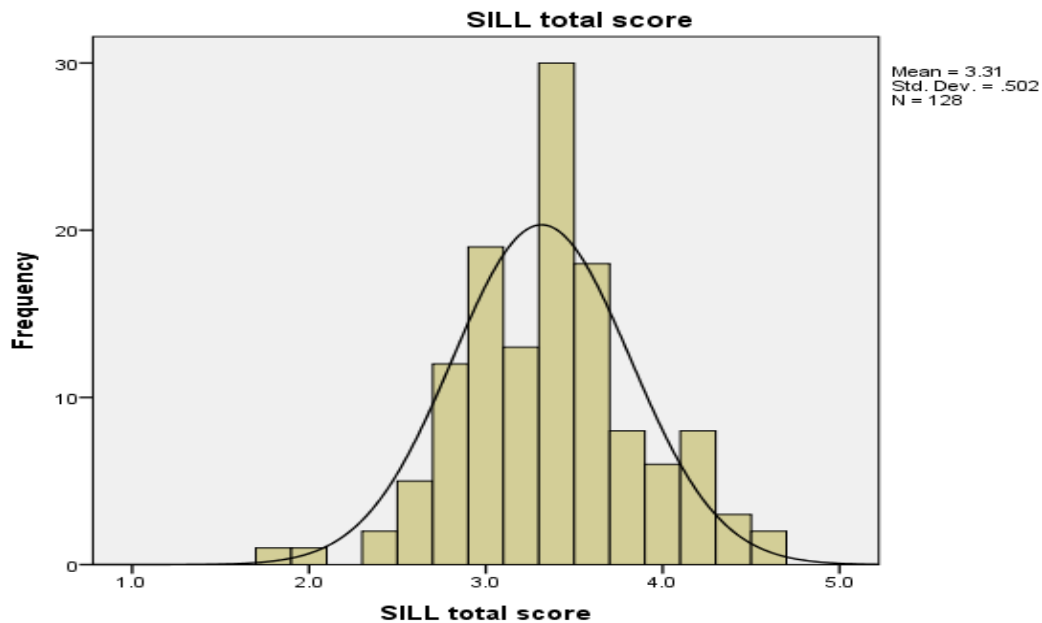
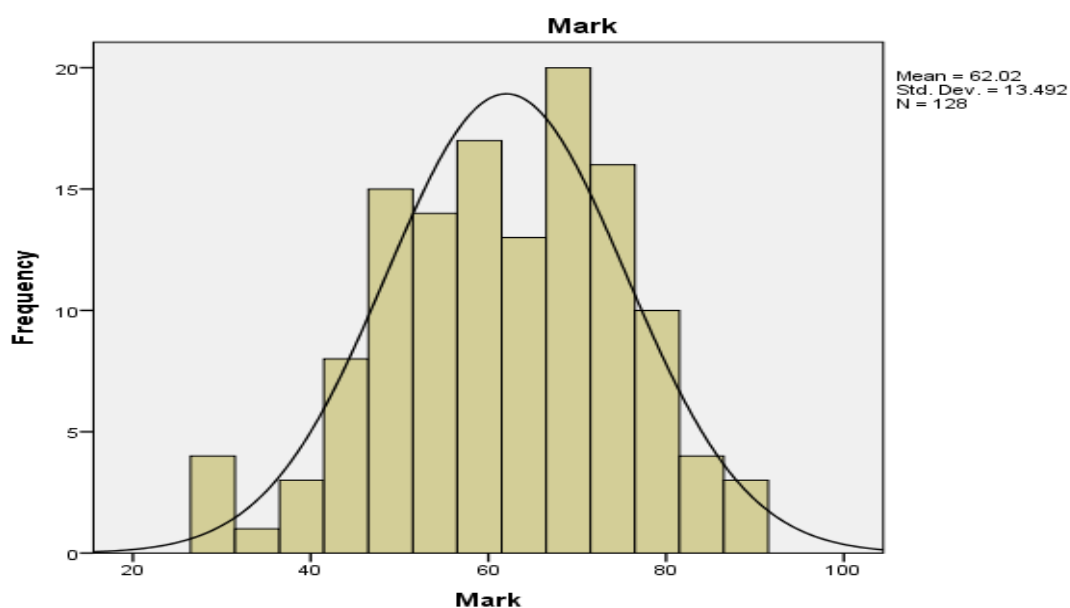


Figure 4.7: Histogram of SILL Total Score



The independent variables namely each of the categories of learning strategies as represented in Figures 4.1-4.6 were approximately normally distributed as identified through visual inspection of the above histograms. The SILL total score (see Figure 4.7) indicates a slight skewness in the bell curve. The values for skewness of each of the variables are highlighted in Table 4.20 below.

Figure 4.8: Histogram of Second Language Achievement (Mark)



The dependent variable as depicted in Figure 4.8 also indicates a normal distribution of data with scores being relatively evenly distributed.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics of Language Learning Strategies categories scores and SILL overall score

	memory	cognitive	comp	metacog	affective	social	SILL total score	Mark
N Valid	128	128	128	128	128	128	128	128
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	3.014	3.471	3.273	3.567	3.064	3.422	3.315	62.02
Median	2.900	3.550	3.300	3.700	3.000	3.300	3.300	62.00
Mode	2.9	3.6	3.5 ^a	3.8	2.7	3.3	3.3	71 ^a
Std. Deviation	.5862	.5647	.7618	.7353	.8037	.7867	.5024	13.492

All variables that have a normal distribution also have a mean and a standard deviation which indicates the deviation of the data as a whole from the mean (Gavin, 2008). Table 4.20 above provides values for the mean and standard deviation of each of the independent variables alongside the SILL total score and the second language achievement marks. The variables appear to be normally distributed around the mean thus confirming the normality of the data.

Table 4.21: Descriptive Statistics of Skewness and Kurtosis

	memory	cognitive	comp	metacog	affective	social	SILL total score	Mark
Skewness	.383	-.482	-.180	-.344	.053	.163	.041	-.225
Std. Error of Skewness	.214	.214	.214	.214	.214	.214	.214	.214
Kurtosis	-.138	.451	-.386	-.092	-.533	-.451	.300	-.423
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.425	.425	.425	.425	.425	.425	.425	.425
Minimum	1.8	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.8	29
Maximum	4.4	4.6	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.5	91

The Skewness and Kurtosis of the variables as detailed in Table 4.21 provides further information on the distribution of the scores around the mean and assists in determining the normality of the data (Gavin, 2008). The Skewness and Kurtosis alongside the histograms should be looked at when deciding on the normality of the data. The data is normally distributed according to these scores alongside a bell curve being present when looking at the histograms.

4.4. INFERENCEAL STATISTICS

4.4.1. The relationship between language learning strategies, languages spoken and second language achievement in both English first and second language learners

A standard multiple regression was carried out to establish the relationships that may exist between several variables. This enabled the researcher to establish the most relevant weighting of two or more independent variables and their ability to provide a maximum correlation with one dependent variable (Ary et al, 2010). The multiple regression will allow the researcher to establish to what degree the scores on one variable are able to predict the scores on the other variable (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). The independent variables were the learning strategy categories and language with the dependent variable being second language achievement (mark).

Table 4.22: Inferential Statistics Model Summary

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.443 ^a	.196	.149	12.446	.196	4.177	7	120	.000

Table 4.22 indicates how well the regression model fits the data that has been used. The coefficient of determination or R^2 indicates what percentage of the sample is predicting or explaining the variation in the learners mark (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006). In terms of this study 19.6% of the total sample can account for the variation in the second language achievement.

Table 4.23: Inferential Statistics Test for relative weights of individual variables

Model	Coefficients ^a								
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	75.380	8.012		9.408	.000	59.516	91.244		
memory	-4.686	2.354	-.204	-	.049	-9.348	-.025	.641	1.561
cognitive	4.473	3.031	.187	1.476	.143	-1.528	10.475	.416	2.402
comp	-.387	1.599	-.022	-.242	.809	-3.553	2.779	.822	1.216
1 metacog	4.949	2.242	.270	2.207	.029	.509	9.389	.449	2.229
affective	-6.399	1.857	-.381	-	.001	-10.076	-2.723	.548	1.826
social	-1.231	2.229	-.072	-	.582	-5.645	3.183	.397	2.522
Lang	-4.513	2.670	-.163	-	.094	-9.799	.773	.725	1.380
				1.690					

a. Dependent Variable: Mark

The multiple regression analysis calculates the relative weights that each predictor variable may have in determining the criterion variable (Greene & D' Oliveira, 2006). The predictor variables (Independent variables) in this study were the categories of language learning strategies, namely memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. The criterion variable (dependent variable) was second language achievement. To establish the relationship between these individual variables and second language achievement and address whether there is a significant relationship between these language learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners, the above mentioned analysis was applied to the data.

Three of the independent variables indicated a statistical significance in terms of second language achievement. These were memory strategies, metacognitive strategies and affective strategies. In order to establish the statistical significance of these independent variables the p value should be $p < 0.05$. With reference to the

Table 4.23, it is evident that the independent variables of memory strategies $p = 0.049$, metacognitive strategies $p = 0.029$ and affective strategies $p = 0.01$ all have $p < 0.05$ and therefore may be considered to be statistically significant in predicting the outcome of the dependent variable namely second language achievement. It can be said that memory strategies and affective strategies have a negative correlation with second language achievement as the unstandardized coefficient B has a negative value indicating that as the use of memory and affective strategies decreases the second language mark increases. Alongside this, metacognitive strategies have a positive correlation with the second language achievement as the B value indicates that when the use of metacognitive strategies increases so does the second language mark. The other three independent variables; cognitive strategies $p = 0.143$, social strategies $p = 0.582$ and compensation strategies $p = 0.809$ are not statistically significant in predicting the dependent variable of second language achievement as $p > 0.05$.

A nominal predictor can also be added into the multiple regression and is termed a dummy variable (Gavin, 2008). Language as mentioned previously was included as a dummy variable. When looking at language, either first or second language, it can be noted that there is no significant correlation with second language achievement, $p = 0.094$ which is not $p < 0.05$ and therefore not predicting second language achievement. This addressed whether there was a significant relationship between English being the participant's first or second language and their achievement when learning a second language.

Table 4.24: Inferential Statistics Collinearity Diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions							
				(Constant)	memory	cognitive	comp	metacog	affective	social	Lang
1	1	7.776	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.082	9.732	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.11	.00	.49
	3	.055	11.866	.01	.00	.00	.43	.01	.11	.05	.02
	4	.026	17.362	.01	.38	.02	.28	.02	.29	.00	.20
	5	.022	18.707	.12	.14	.01	.08	.26	.22	.14	.13
	6	.017	21.359	.49	.29	.01	.11	.15	.00	.13	.11
	7	.013	24.281	.30	.06	.00	.01	.31	.22	.66	.03
	8	.009	30.095	.07	.12	.96	.07	.24	.05	.02	.02

An important consideration in multiple regression analysis is multicollinearity. This can be defined as a high degree of linear correlation among a few of the independent variables thereby making it difficult to establish the effect they may be having on the dependent variable (Gavin, 2008). Table 4.24 indicates that the Condition Index for the variables is not greater than 30 and therefore falls within acceptable limits for this not to be assumed (Jeeshim & KUCC265, 2002). It is to be noted that a conservative estimate for the condition index is <30, however, <50 is considered acceptable (Jeeshim & KUCC265, 2002).

4.4.2. The relationship between individual language learning strategies and second language achievement in both English first and second language learners

Table 4.25: Inferential Statistics Correlations between Language Learning Strategies and Second Language Achievement

							SILL		
		cognitiv		metaco	affectiv		total		
		memory	e	comp	g	e	social	score	Mark
memory	Pearson Correlation	1	.535	.286	.411	.387	.466	.692	-.202
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.023
cognitive	Pearson Correlation	.535	1	.376	.638	.303	.553	.835	.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.814
comp	Pearson Correlation	.286	.376	1	.188	.176	.178	.469	-.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.033	.047	.044	.000	.644
metacog	Pearson Correlation	.411	.638	.188	1	.419	.646	.799	.033
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.033		.000	.000	.000	.716
affective	Pearson Correlation	.387	.303	.176	.419	1	.617	.622	-.332
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.047	.000		.000	.000	.000
social	Pearson Correlation	.466	.553	.178	.646	.617	1	.789	-.173
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.044	.000	.000		.000	.051
SILL total	Pearson Correlation	.692	.835	.469	.799	.622	.789	1	-.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.164
Mark	Pearson Correlation	-.202	.021	-.041	.033	-.332	-.173	-.124	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.814	.644	.716	.000	.051	.164	

A Pearson product moment correlation test was conducted to establish the association that the variables may have with each other (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006).

The p value is said to indicate a significant correlation between the variables if its value is $p < 0.05$. The Pearson r provides information on the direction and the strength of the relationship that may occur between the variables (Ary et al., 2010). This enabled the researcher to establish if there was a significant relationship between the language learning strategies that were being used by the English first and second language learners. Information was also provided here on whether or not there was a positive or negative correlation between the independent variables and second language achievement.

Firstly correlations between the independent variables were established. There were significant correlations between many of these independent variables as the p value for each is < 0.05 , see Table 4.25. However, one needs to take cognisance of the r value in order to establish the strength and direction of these correlations (Ary et al., 2010). Table 4.24 indicates a positive correlation between certain of the variables namely memory strategies and cognitive strategies $r = +0.535$, cognitive and metacognitive strategies $r = +0.638$, metacognitive and social strategies $r = +0.646$, affective and social strategies $r = +0.617$ and cognitive and social strategies $r = +0.553$. These variables are all positively correlated meaning that high scores in the one variable will also mean high scores in the corresponding variable (Greene & D'Oliveira, 2006).

Alongside this there is a significant correlation between memory strategies $p = 0.023$ and second language achievement, as well as affective strategies $p = 0.000$ and second language achievement. The strength and direction of these relationships as noted by the r value indicates that memory strategies $r = -0.202$ and affective strategies $r = -.332$ have a negative correlation with second language achievement. Therefore, when memory strategy and affective strategy use increases the participant's second language achievement mark decreases.

4.5. A COMPARISON BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY FIRST (L1) AND SECOND (L2) ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Figure 4.9: Language Learning Strategies employed by L1 participants.

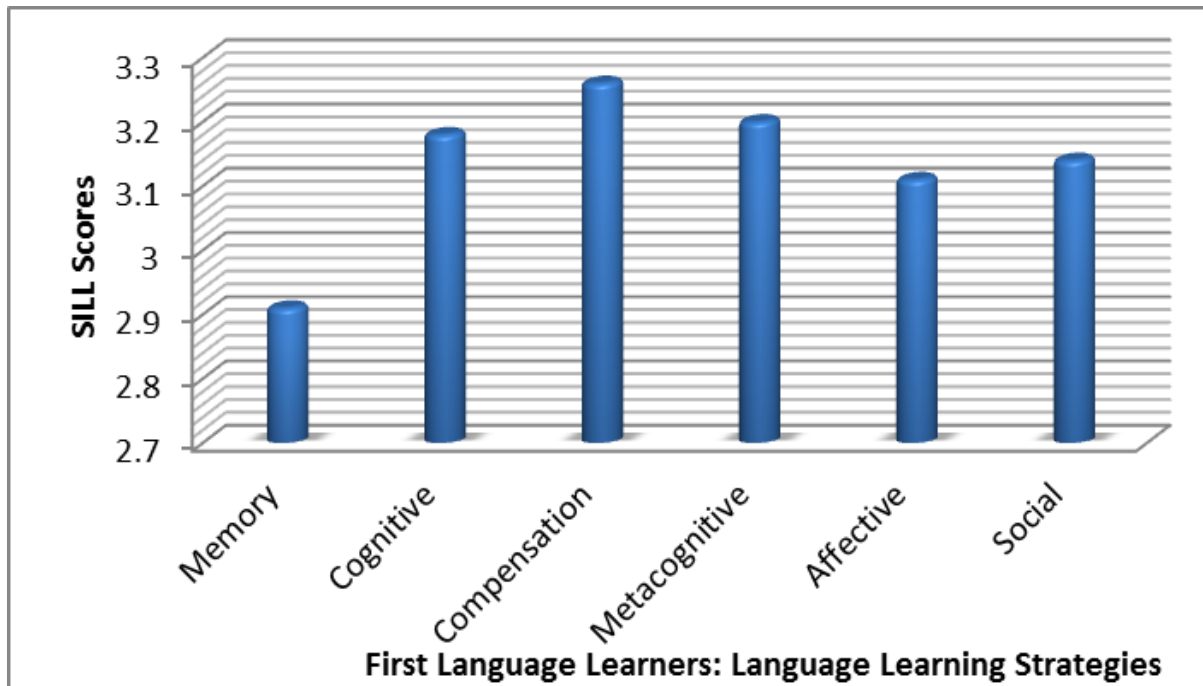
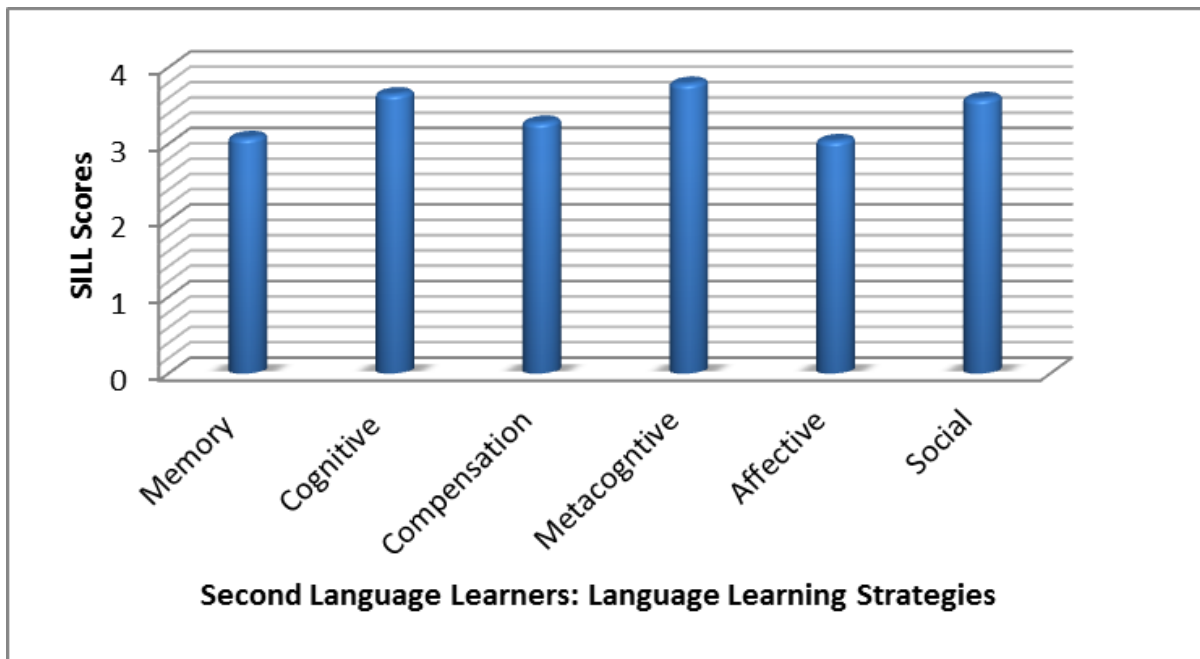


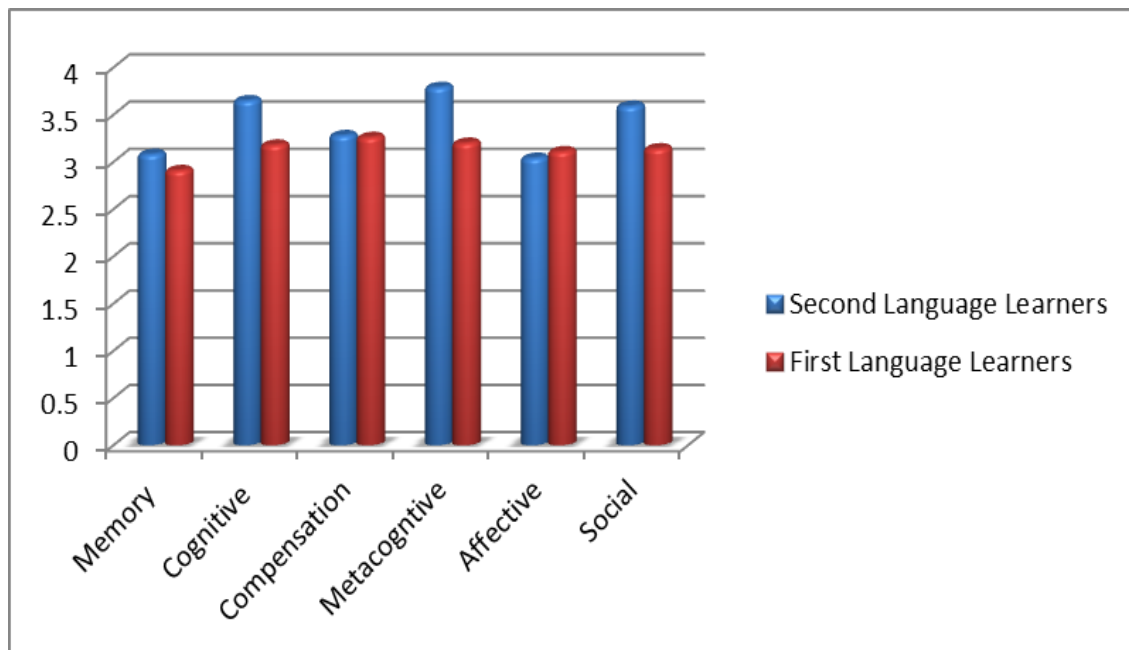
Figure 4.9 details the Language Learning Strategies used most frequently by the English first language participants. Compensation strategies (SILL average score 3.26) are used most readily with cognitive (SILL average score 3.18) and metacognitive strategies (SILL average score 3.20) used less often. Memory strategies (SILL average score 2.91) are used least often by the English first language participants.

Figure 4.10: Language Learning Strategies employed by L2 participants



The English second language participants use metacognitive (SILL average score 3.79), cognitive (SILL average score 3.65) and social strategies (SILL average score 3.59) most frequently as indicated in Figure 4.10.

Figure 4.11: A Comparison of English First and Second Language Learners' use of Language Learning Strategies

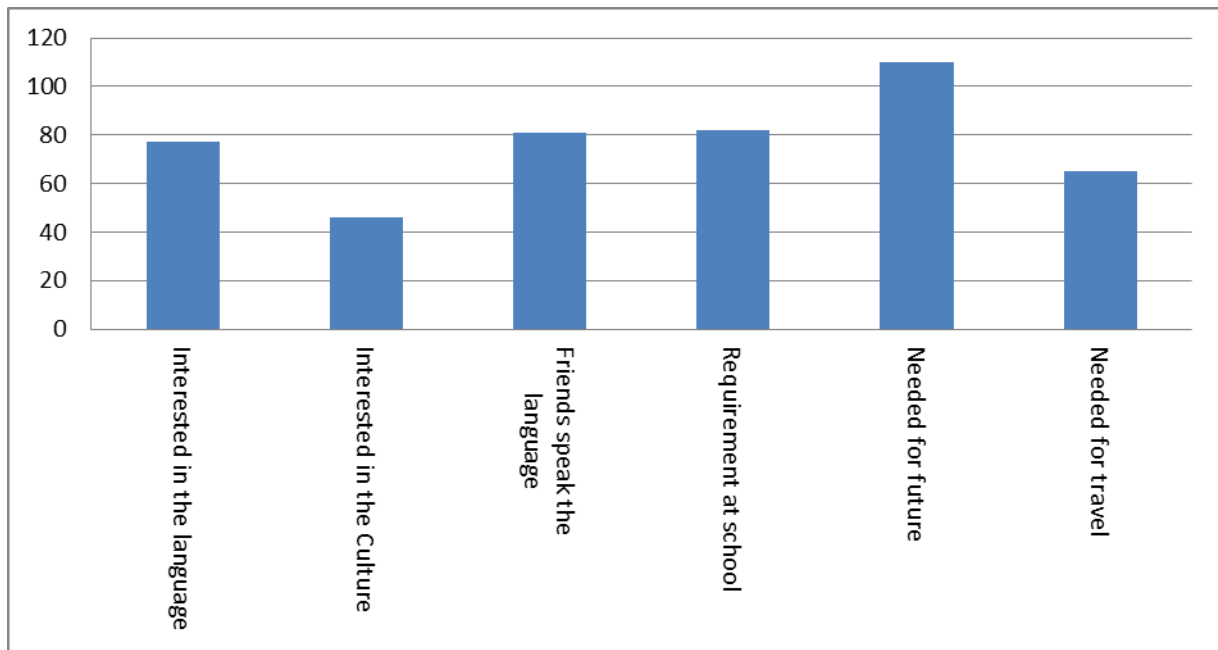


When comparing the use of language learning strategies between English first and second language participants' similar scores are to be noted for memory, compensation, and affective categories of language learning strategies. However, second language learners appear to make use of cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies more readily than their first language counterparts as detailed in Figure 4.11.

4.6. QUALITATIVE DATA

4.6.1. Why learn a second language?

Figure 4.12: Reasons for Learning a Second Language



In the questionnaire conducted with the learners the question was posed as to why the participants felt learning a second language was important for them. Both groups of participants felt that learning a second language was important for their future (N=110). They also cited their friends speaking the language (N=81) and it being a requirement at school (N=82) as reasons for learning the language. Less significant reasons were requiring it for travel (N=65) and being interested in the culture (N=46) as is detailed in Figure 4.12.

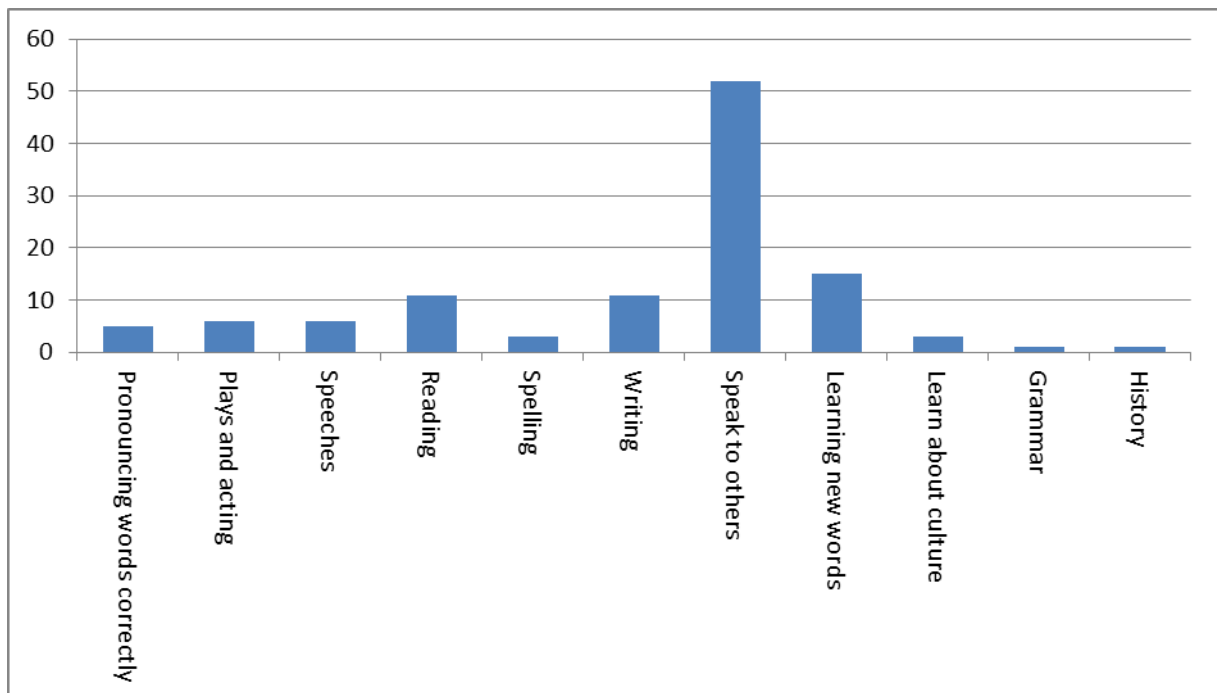
Cook (2013) has conducted research to establish the reasons why learners want to study a second language. In her study she made use of the Gardner questionnaire (Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery) with second language learners to establish if their motivation for learning the language was instrumental (for future career use) or integrative (living in a country where the language is spoken) (Cook, 2013). Cook (2013) discovered that this varied depending on the country, namely Belgium, Singapore, Poland and Taiwan. However, the need for integration was considered more important than for instrumental purposes in these studies. If one considers the South African context in relation to this it is evident that as the language is regarded necessary in so many settings (Probyn, 2001; De Klerk & Gough, 2002) it can be

considered that it would serve both an integrative and instrumental purpose here. As was evident in this study the participants wanted to communicate more readily with other speakers of the language but also felt that it would be relevant for future use. Affirming that depending on the circumstances that a learner may find themselves in the reasons for studying the language may vary.

4.6.2. Favourite Experiences in Language Learning

The learners as detailed in Figure 4.13 below indicated with great significance that they enjoyed speaking to others (N=52). This was seen as something they really enjoyed when learning a new language.

Figure 4.13: Favourite Experiences in Language Learning



4.7. Other variables that influence second language achievement

Many factors may contribute to and influence second language achievement. Oxford (1989), lists the following; language being learned, age, gender, attitudes, motivation, language learning goals, personality characteristics, personality type, and learning style. In terms of this study, the participants' gender, as well as their ratings of their own language proficiency when compared to their classmates and native

speakers of the language, showed significant results. Further investigation in this regard will be necessary in order to establish the level of significance that these extraneous variables may exert on second language achievement.

4.7.1. Gender

Table 4.26: Group Statistics Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mark	Boys	55	57.18	13.202	1.780
	Girls	73	65.66	12.612	1.476

Table 4.26 details the number of boys and girls that made up the sample group (N=55 boys) and (N=73) girls.

Table 4.27: Independent samples t test - Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Mark	Equal variances assumed	.348	.556	-3.689	126	.000	-8.476	2.298	-13.02	-3.929
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.665	113.531	.000	-8.476	2.313	-13.06	-3.894

An independent t-test was conducted to compare the second language marks of the boys and girls that took part in the study. As can be seen from Table 4.26 and Table 4.27 there was a significant difference in the mean scores of the boys ($M = 57.18$, $SD = 13.202$), when compared to the girls ($M = 65.66$, $SD = 12.612$); $t(126) = -3.69$, $p=0.000$. On average the girls' marks are (8.4%) higher than the boys, which is meaningful, significant and strong ($d = -0.66$). Thus, the results of this study indicate that gender plays a role in second language achievement, with girls performing consistently better than boys.

4.7.2. Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class

Table 4.28: Group Statistics – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class

Ability Class dichotomous		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Rating	Excellent/Good	105	63.10	13.930	1.359
	Fair/Poor	23	57.04	10.102	2.106

Table 4.28 details how many participants rated themselves as excellent/good (N=105) and how many rated themselves fair/poor (N=23) in relation to the other members of their class in terms of language proficiency.

Table 4.29: Independent samples *t* test – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to their class

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means				
Mark		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances assumed	5.660	.019	1.974	126	.051	6.061	3.071	-.017	12.139
	Equal variances not assumed			2.418	42.581	.020	6.061	2.507	1.004	11.118

As can be expected, students who rated themselves as excellent/good ($M = 63.10$, $SD = 13.93$) scored significantly higher marks than those who rated themselves as fair/poor ($M = 57.04$, $SD = 10.10$); $t(42.58) = 2.42$, $p = 0.02$, $d = 0.45$ in comparison to the other children in the class (Table 4.29).

4.7.3 Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native speakers

Table 4.30: Group Statistics - Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native speakers

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ability native speakers dichotomous					
Rating	Excellent/Good	70	64.31	13.526	1.617
	Fair/Poor	58	59.24	13.031	1.711

Table 4.30 details the number of participants who rated themselves as excellent/good (N=70) and fair/poor (N=58) in relation to native speakers of the language.

Table 4.31: Independent Samples t test – Participants own rating of language proficiency compared to native speakers

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
Mark		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances assumed	.717	.399	2.147	126	.034	5.073	2.362	.398	9.748
	Equal variances not assumed			2.155	123.132	.033	5.073	2.354	.413	9.732

As noted above, it can be expected that the students who rated themselves as excellent/good ($M = 64.31$, $SD = 13.53$) scored significantly higher marks than those who rated themselves as fair/poor ($M = 59.24$, $SD = 13.03$); $t(126) = 2.15$, $p = 0.03$, $d = 0.38$ (Table 4.30 and Table 4.31).

4.8. CONCLUSION

The results as presented in this chapter inform us that memory strategies and affective strategies have a negative correlation with second language achievement, while metacognitive strategies are positively correlated to second language achievement. The above mentioned strategies are considered to have the most significant relationships with the dependent variable. Whether the child speaks English as their first or second language on the other hand, is not significant in terms of this study in predicting second language achievement. Alongside this memory and cognitive strategies, cognitive and metacognitive strategies, metacognitive and social strategies, as well as affective and social strategies are positively correlated with each other. Gender also seems to play a role in second language achievement with the girls achieving higher results than the boys in the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This study aimed to look at the relationship between language learning strategies and second language achievement in English first and second language learners. This chapter discusses the results laid out in chapter 4 with reference being made to the literature review. The strengths, limitations and implications of the study alongside recommendations for future research will also be discussed.

5.2. WHY STUDY A SECOND LANGUAGE?

As stated previously the Government Gazette No. 36041, Volume 570 laid out by the Department of Basic Education (2012) states that South African children attending a public or independent school covering the National Curriculum Statement from Grades 1 – 9 must complete two official languages as compulsory subjects. One of these languages should be learned at the Home Language level and the other at least the First Additional Language (FAL) level. Even though this is a requirement many learners according to the National Reading Strategy (Department of Education, 2008) are struggling to become proficient language learners. This coupled with the many languages that form the basis of South African culture, enhancing language learning is essential within this context. It is important to note that a second language can be referred to as a language that is spoken in the country where the child is learning the language (Cohen, 2011).

One of the reasons put forward for studying a second language, states that learning a second language can be seen as a means to cognitive enhancement and flexibility. Peal and Lambert (1962) and Fodor (1983) discovered that bilingual children had a higher mental flexibility in comparison to other learners, perhaps because of having to switch between languages whilst learning. Alongside this, within the South African context Janco-Worall (1972) was able to show that bilingual children display a greater cognitive flexibility in a study of English and Afrikaans speaking children. This research was said to have made valuable contributions to research in this field and has been considered internationally to have been path-breaking within the study of bilingualism and education. Bialystok et al. (2009) have also postulated that being

bilingual may enhance non-verbal cognitive processing skills and support the notion that language provides a link between elements within the brain and so has a vital role to play in cognitive processing. Whilst a study conducted by the European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture (2009) stated that there is an increasing amount of evidence which acknowledges that bilingual individuals have a heightened level of creativity and enhanced functioning in comparison to monolingual individuals. Therefore, learning a second language from a young age may benefit children and enhance their cognitive processing skills. Thus, one can see that the policy statements laid out by the Department of Basic Education (2012) have merit and besides just developing learners' abilities to communicate more effectively within South African society, may also have cognitive benefits.

Cook (2013) specifically looked at the reasons why learners would want to study a second language and if their motivation was instrumental, i.e. for future use or integrative, i.e. residing in a place where the language is spoken. Cook (2013) established that this varied depending on the country the participants lived in. In terms of her study the need for integration was considered more important by the participants than making use of the language for instrumental purposes.

Of the 128 participants in this study 82 noted that they studied the second language as it was a requirement at school. However, 81 participants stated that their friends speaking the language motivated them to learn the language, while 65 participants said they may need it for travel. Forty-six participants cited being interested in the culture as the reason for studying the language. That being said, of the 128 participants in this study, 110 of the participants felt that learning a second language was important for their future. Fifty-two of the participants also stated that they enjoyed speaking to others in their second language and cited this as their favourite activity in second language learning. Communicating with others in the second language or being able to converse with others in another language appears to be important to these participants. Within South African society the need to study a second language appears to have both an instrumental and integrative purpose. Keeping in mind the elevated status of English within South African society (Probyn, 2001; De Klerk & Gough, 2002); both of these reasons become essential for members of the community to effectively engage within it. As very often this

language is used in educational and government institutions as well as within communities (Collins English Dictionary, 2003) within South African society.

As Ellis (1995), and Diaz-Rico (2008) states, a second language has both an institutional and social role to play within society. It becomes a way for different mother tongue speakers to communicate when they do not speak the same language (Ellis, 1995). Within many South African contexts, English plays both these roles within communities, as so many different languages are spoken. When learners are exposed to and learn some of these languages, they are more likely to be able to engage within South African communities and this seems to be important to the participants in this study.

It is also to be noted that in terms of this study 85% of the second language learners speak English at home as well as 78.8% of them stating that it was very important to learn English as a second language. Probyn (2001) states, that in many instances English is seen as a language of power and access, therefore it is readily adopted. This certainly seems to be the case within this sample group. Alongside this Sachs (1994, as cited in De Klerk & Gough, 2002) notes that although attempts have been made to encourage multilingualism within language policy and more readily recognise indigenous languages, English is still widely seen as being predominant in schools, universities and government, within the South African context (De Klerk & Gough, 2002). Perhaps this is the reason that many South African parents adopt the use of the English language within their homes and so the importance of English as a second language appears to be reflected within this sample group. It may also be reflective of many urban South African societies similar to the one from which this sample group was drawn.

5.3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT IN BOTH ENGLISH FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS.

Hypothesis one sought to establish whether or not relationships could be found between individual language learning strategies and second language achievement. The sample group in this case was made up of 128 English first and second language learners. The results indicated that there was a significant correlation between memory strategies, affective strategies and metacognitive strategies in relation to second language achievement. Alongside this the researcher wanted to establish whether or not these results were positively or negatively correlated with second language achievement. In terms of the results there was a negative correlation between memory and affective strategies and second language achievement. This meant that as the use of these strategies by the participants increased, the second language achievement (mark) decreased. This indicated that making use of these types of strategies more frequently did not improve the participant's second language achievement. Metacognitive strategies on the other hand were positively correlated with second language achievement. This meant an improvement was identified in the participants mark in the second language when they made use of these types of strategies more readily.

According to Oxford (1990) those language learners who are most successful tailor their strategy use to match their individual needs. On the other hand less able learners according to Ehrman et al. (2003) use strategies in a far more random and unconnected fashion than more able learners. Furthermore Griffiths (2003) and Griffiths (2003, as cited in Griffiths, 2013) states that more able students report using a larger number of language learning strategies more frequently than less able students. Alongside this metacognitive strategies appear across all students strategy use and higher level students make use of a wide variety of strategies (Griffiths, 2013).

The results as indicated by this study reflect this use of how certain strategies selected to suit the requirements at hand may enable the learner to more readily achieve in language learning. Metacognitive strategies according to these results are creating a positive impact on second language achievement and so if learners are taught to use these types of strategies and be aware of the negative effects of other

strategies on their learning, a positive impact may be created. According to Griffiths and Parr (2001) learners can consciously affect the outcomes of their language learning if the choice of strategies they employ is effective.

In the study by Griffiths (2003) and mentioned above, a statistically significant relationship was established between the frequency of language learning strategy use and the level of achievement in class. The relationship was not seen to be strong, but put forward that 7% of the variance in level in class may be as a result of language learning strategy use (Griffiths, 2003). Considering the variables that may impact on strategy use and second language achievement this 7% of variance was regarded as a significant factor worthy of further investigation (Griffiths, 2013). In terms of this study 19.6% of the total sample can account for the variation in the second language achievement. Thereby indicating that language learning strategy use may have a significant role to play in second language achievement.

In terms of other research in this area O' Malley, Chamot, Stewner- Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) investigated the range and frequency of learning strategy use amongst English second language high school learners. In this study the participants reported using cognitive and metacognitive strategies most frequently. However, the impact of the use of these strategies on second language achievement was not investigated. Oxford and Dreyer (1996) also noted that learning strategy may be considered significant in terms of second language proficiency amongst other variables in a study they conducted. However, they did not advocate which strategies would have the greatest impact which this study sought to address.

As language learning strategy use may impact on second language achievement, teacher perceptions and use of strategies within the classroom also becomes significant. Nyikos (1996) looked at the level of teacher awareness of language learning strategies in order that teachers may assist the learners with the development of these strategies. Nyikos (1996) states that "procedural knowledge of how to teach learning strategies should be an integral part of teacher development programmes" (p. 117). The aim of applying this knowledge will ensure that language learning strategies become an efficient tool that learners consciously apply in varying situations (Nyikos, 1996). Khalil (2005) more recently highlighted the benefit that is to be found in educating teachers on how to deliver explicit

instruction in language learning strategies and that purposeful materials that enhance strategy instruction should be used in the curriculum. Given that, Cognitive Information Processing Theory according to Anderson (1980) advocates that the ability we have to apply our knowledge of rules to problem-solving and thereby produce language can be seen as a form of procedural knowledge. However, if we do not have the knowledge of the strategies to apply in varying situations then our cognitive processing may not be enhanced. It is evident that language learning strategies appear to have a significant relationship with second language achievement and therefore further investigation in this regard would be beneficial within the South African context to establish the effect strategy instruction may have on second language achievement.

Hypothesis two aimed to address the relationship that English being the participant's first or second language may have on second language achievement. In terms of this study no significant relationship was found between the language spoken by the participants and second language achievement. Further investigation in this area is required in order to establish the impact of language spoken on second language achievement.

5.4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDIVIDUAL LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS.

Oxford (1990) refers to six categories of learning strategies that are represented in the SILL. These according to Oxford (1990) are referred to as direct or indirect strategies. Direct strategies include cognitive, memory and compensatory strategies and all require mental processing (Oxford, 1990). Indirect strategies namely affective, social and metacognitive strategies don't necessarily directly involve the language being learned but support and assist with this learning (Oxford, 1990). Hypothesis three aimed to address the association these learning strategies may have with each other and thereby impact on second language achievement.

The results of this study indicated positive correlations between certain of these categories of learning strategies, namely, memory and cognitive strategies, cognitive and metacognitive strategies, metacognitive and social strategies, as well as

affective and social strategies. As these were positively correlated, an increase in the use of one resulted in an increase in the use of the other. Bearing in mind that metacognitive strategies, as detailed above, has a positive effect on second language achievement, because of these correlations social and cognitive strategies may also play a role in improving learners abilities to use metacognitive strategies more effectively and thereby enhance their second language abilities.

Metacognitive strategies enable the learner to identify their own learning style and needs thereby allowing them to organise their learning process. This encompasses using skills such as paying attention, looking for opportunities to practise, planning when completing language tasks, evaluating your own progress and monitoring the errors you may make (Oxford, 1996). Cognitive strategies allow the learner to reason, analyse and summarise, which are reflective of deep processing, as well as practising in general (Oxford, 1996). Social strategies involve asking questions, working with native speakers and being culturally aware (Oxford, 1996). Based on the results of this study one can identify links between these strategies and can see how they can enhance each other. Through encouraging learners and making them aware of how they can use these strategies effectively second language achievement may too be enhanced.

In terms of these strategies a key factor that stands out is that they all involve contact with others as a means to enhance language learning. Bearing in mind that 52 participants in this study stated that speaking to others in the second language was one of their favourite language learning activities, incorporating these strategies into language learning may seek to further enhance learning as the motivation for such tasks is already there. Macaro (2006) believes that strategies do not operate in isolation but rather combine as clusters to enhance the learning process as can be seen from this study. Alongside this Dornyei and Skehan (2003) argue that motivation plays a key role in language achievement and these participants seem to be motivated through interaction with each other. Therefore through combining these strategies and incorporating them into second language learning and teaching, second language achievement may be enhanced.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) further investigated learning strategies and sought to identify whether the task the learner was engaged in influenced the type of strategy that would be employed. They identified certain cognitive and metacognitive strategies that were specifically related to certain language tasks. In vocabulary tasks the metacognitive strategies of monitoring and self-evaluation were used, alongside the cognitive strategies of resourcing and elaboration. In listening tasks selective attention, self-monitoring and problem identification were the metacognitive strategies employed whilst, note-taking, elaboration, inferencing and summarizing were the cognitive strategies being employed. Cloze procedures and writing tasks were also used to establish which metacognitive and cognitive strategies were being employed (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Although correlations were found in the present study between metacognitive and cognitive strategies, how these strategies relate to specific language tasks requires further investigation with this age group and within the South African context.

Peacock and Ho (2003) investigated English for Academic Purposes across students in eight disciplines in a university in Hong Kong. This study aimed to compare strategies used across the various disciplines and examined whether or not relationships could be found between strategy use, second language proficiency, age and gender (Peacock & Ho, 2003). This study made use of the SILL alongside in-depth interviews in order to gather the data. Various strategies were seen to be used more readily within certain disciplines, with English students making use of the strategies most frequently and computer study students less often. Positive correlations were established between 27 of the strategies and proficiency in the language. The most frequently used strategies were found to be compensation strategies whilst metacognitive, cognitive, social, memory and affective were used from most to least in that order. This study was conducted with university students. However, further investigation within the school setting would also be valuable as further evidence could be gathered across disciplines to establish whether learning strategies are employed in other areas in the school setting and which strategies may assist in developing proficiency in that discipline or subject. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies within this study also appear to be linked as well as metacognitive and social strategies. Bearing in mind that communicating with and engaging with others was noted in the present study as being a favoured means of

learning a second language it appears that enhancing these strategies across the curriculum may have a positive impact on language achievement.

5.5. A COMPARISON BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY ENGLISH FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS.

In comparing first and second language learners use of language learning strategies, English first language learners use compensation, metacognitive and cognitive strategies most frequently and social, affective and memory strategies less frequently. Compensation strategies are used most often achieving the highest score amongst English first language learners. The English second language learners make use of metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies most regularly and memory, compensation and affective strategies are used least. English second language learners used metacognitive strategies most often. However, more research will need to be conducted in order to establish the effect that this use of strategies is having on the group's second language achievement independently from English first language speakers.

The second language learners' results are in keeping with a study conducted by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) in which they discovered that the English second language participants in their study used metacognitive strategies as opposed to affective and memory strategies most often. Salahshour et al. (2013) further investigated language learning strategy use to ascertain the relationship between the choice of strategies, frequency of use, gender and language proficiency. In this study metacognitive strategies appeared to be used most frequently. The study further found that successful second language learners make use of language learning strategies more frequently and appropriately than less successful learners (Salahshour et al., 2013).

5.6. OTHER VARIABLES THAT IMPACT SECOND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

As stated previously other variables may also be impacting on second language achievement. Within this study it was established that gender may play a role in second language achievement, as on average the female participants in this study achieved higher results than the male participants in terms of second language

marks. Research conducted by Peacock and Ho (2003); Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) and Salahshour et al. (2013), discovered that females tend to make use of learning strategies more frequently than males. Further investigation into strategy use amongst different genders within the South African context will need to be carried out to establish more conclusive evidence in this regard. In order to establish the role that gender may play in second language achievement and if it can be linked further to learning strategy use.

It is evident from this study that learners who rate themselves highly as language learners in comparison to their classmates and native speakers also appear to achieve good results in the second language. This may provide an opportunity for further investigation into the link that self-esteem may have with language learning strategy use and second language achievement. This will need to be further investigated to establish if any links can be drawn.

5.7. STRENGTHS, LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.7.1. STRENGTHS

The following strengths can be identified within this study. Namely the group of participants could be seen to be representative of many urban schools within the South African context. Alongside this there has been limited research in South Africa with learners of this age group on learning strategy use and its impact on second language achievement. Therefore this research study aims to provide some information on this sample group within the South African context. Bearing in mind language and its importance within the South African context research on how language achievement can be enhanced within the South African context may provide a means of addressing some of the barriers to learning that may be experienced by South African learners.

5.7.2 LIMITATIONS

The results of this study should be read within the context of the following limitations. The English second language learners completed the SILL in English and not in their home language. Although the language within the questionnaires was looked at in relation to this, difficulties with comprehension may have arisen. To compensate for this the researcher was available to the participants throughout the process of

completing the questionnaires to assist with any difficulties in understanding that may have arisen.

The sample group size could be increased to establish a greater effect size in terms of language learning strategy use and second language achievement. The English first language group was also smaller in size than the English second language group. However, this could be said to be representative of many South African school settings and so the sample group represents a real world setting. The study was also conducted at a single school and could be replicated in a few schools in order to obtain more significant conclusions.

As very little research in this area has been conducted within the South African context comparative data was limited and so results could not be evaluated across settings within this context.

It is important to note that according to Anderson (1980) in the third stage of Cognitive Information Processing Theory we are more readily able to automatically apply knowledge in a number of situations to enhance our learning and thus strategy use may become an unconscious habit. More proficient learners may apply these strategies automatically without being aware they are doing so and so may not report on these strategies when completing the questionnaires. In order to further establish learner's use of language learning strategies, interviews could be conducted to enhance the quantitative data that has been collected.

Motivation, nationality, age, gender, cognitive ability and the number of years the language has been studied are extraneous variables that may also impact on use of language learning strategies. These areas need to be further investigated to establish any further impact they may have of second language achievement within the South African context.

Many of these limitations provide opportunities for further research within the South African context and this is addressed below.

5.7.3 IMPLICATIONS

Alongside the recommendations for future research as detailed below, this study has further implications within the South African context. There has been limited research on this topic within this context and this study provides some information on how learning strategies may impact on how teaching methods can be enhanced. Through further understanding of the repertoire of strategies that successful language learners employ when learning a second language, these strategies could be taught within the classroom setting and thereby enhance language learning.

When one considers the multilingual environment within South African classrooms being able to identify how second language achievement may be enhanced within this context is important. This study provides some insight on an aspect that could be introduced into the curriculum and thereby have a positive impact on language learning. As Khalil (2005) argues teachers would benefit from training on how to explicitly teach learning strategies in order to encourage language learning. Alongside this purposeful materials should be developed to enhance strategy instruction. This study provides a starting point for further studies within the South African context that deal with how to enhance second language achievement and the factors that may influence this.

5.8. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this study suggest that further research in the area of second language achievement and language learning strategies needs to be conducted.

Firstly through conducting research with a larger sample group and in a variety of settings within the South African school context and across grades to establish more rich data in this area for comparison.

Strategy training and looking at the effect that this may have on language learning would also be valuable as it would provide further insight into how language learning strategies could impact on language learning. Dreyer and Oxford (1996) conducted research in South Africa in this regard; however, further investigation would be beneficial.

Considering the number of second language learners within the South African context looking at various difficulties that may be experienced by these learners and how strategy training could impact on language achievement would be useful. Westwood (2004, as cited in Nel & Nel, 2013) notes many difficulties that second language learners may experience such as; listening comprehension difficulties as they have a limited vocabulary, an inability to grasp word order and limited sight word vocabulary to name a few. Strategy training could be carried out and the effects thereof monitored as a means to encourage and develop language learning.

Oxford (1990) states that highly motivated learners also use learning strategies more appropriately. Further investigation in this regard would also be beneficial bearing in mind the reasons participants in this study stated for why they would study a second language.

Further comparison of first and second language learners could further enhance the language learning research and establish more readily the role language plays in second language achievement and in learning across the education system within South African context.

Finally how language strategy use could be encouraged across the curriculum and the effectiveness of doing this could also be investigated.

5.9. CONCLUSION

The context of South African society is a diverse one, where many cultures and languages abound. This is replicated within our school settings where learners from many diverse backgrounds are found in South African classrooms. Keeping this context in mind this study aimed to investigate the relationship between learning strategies and second language achievement. The learners' levels of strategy use were assessed using the SILL and examined in relation to their second language achievement. It was found that there were significant relationships between metacognitive, memory and affective strategy use and second language achievement. Alongside this certain learning strategies were found to be correlated with each other and due to this relationship may also impact on second language achievement. It was also established that the relationship that gender has with second language learning also needs to be further investigated. Alongside this

further investigation within the South African context and across settings within this context would be of merit to further enhance the results established through this study. Language as stated previously is likely to remain an area of significant interest within South African education and this research study endeavours to encourage further research in this area.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

District Supervisor Information Form

Dear District Supervisor

Good day. My name is Nicky Lutz. I am presently studying for my Masters' degree in Educational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently conducting research for the purpose of obtaining this degree. My research aims to investigate the relationship between second language learning achievement and language learning strategies in English first and second language learners.

I would like to request your permission to conduct my research at Jeppe Prep School which I have identified as a suitable school given the cross cultural diversity at the school. More specifically, the study will be conducted with learners from Grades 6-7, where further research is required in order to develop the skills of these learners.

Participation in this study is voluntary and will require the learners who participate to complete a questionnaire which will take a maximum of an hour comprising the following:

- A demographic questionnaire which will include questions with regards to ethnicity, age, gender, socio-economic status. These are factors that have been identified to impact on English language learning and are thus important to investigate as part of this study.
- A learner background questionnaire.
- The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.

Participation is voluntary, and learners will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to participate in the study or not. The questionnaires will not be seen by any person in the school at any time and will be processed only by myself and my supervisor. The learner's responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. Learners may choose to refuse to answer any questions they would prefer not to and they may choose to withdraw from the study at any time. All information collected will be treated as confidential. There are no direct risks or benefits attached to participating in this study. The administration of the questionnaire will take place during a time which is convenient for the staff and learners in order not to jeopardise any academic time. The process will take one hour (instructions, completing the questionnaire, receiving feedback).

As we will match demographic information with the results by means of a code, confidentiality will be ensured in the publication of the final report. Furthermore as only my supervisor and I will have access to the results, the learner's information will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and at no time will the school have access to the raw data. The above mentioned report, which will be written once the data, has been analysed and processed and a summary of the results will be made available to the school. Also, the research conducted may be published by the researcher in the form of a peer reviewed article, or presented at a conference. However, the information of the school and the participants will remain confidential.

Your consent for this study to be conducted at Jeppe Prep School will be greatly appreciated. Please do not hesitate to contact me or my research supervisor should you require further information. Please complete the attached form.

Kind Regards

Nicky Lutz

Nicky Lutz

Adri Vorster



District Supervisor Consent Form

I _____ give consent for the learners at Jeppe Prep School to partake in the study explained on the page entitled District Supervisor's Information Form.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- The learners may refuse to answer any questions they would prefer not to.
- The learners may withdraw from the study at any time.
- No information that may identify any child or the school will be included in the research report and all responses will remain confidential.
- There are no direct risks or benefits for participation in this study.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix B



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

School Information Form

Dear Principal

Good day, my name is Nicky Lutz. I am presently studying for my Masters' degree in Educational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently conducting research for the purpose of obtaining this degree. My research aims to investigate the relationship between second language achievement and language learning strategies in English first and second language learners.

I would like to invite your learners to participate in this study. Participation in this study will require learner's parents on their behalf to complete a demographic questionnaire, which will ask questions regarding their child's age and gender for example, as well as the learners completing the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Participation is voluntary, and learners will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete the study or not. The questionnaires will not be seen by any person in the school at any time and will be processed only by myself and my supervisor. The learner's responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. They may choose to refuse to answer any questions they would prefer not to and withdraw from the study at any time. All information collected will be treated as confidential. I will also require access to their second term marks for both their first and second language classes. There are no direct risks or benefits attached to participating in this study.

If you consent for your learners to participate in the study, they will be asked to complete the questionnaires as carefully as possible. The administration of these items will take place during a time which is convenient for the staff and learners in order to not jeopardise any academic time. A feedback letter will be provided to the

school once I have analysed my results, these results will be available to you and your learners by a means deemed appropriate by the school. Please note that because participation is confidential I will not be able to disclose information about the learner's scores. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the child's name and scores during the analysis process, thereafter the child's information will remain confidential. Also, the research conducted may be published by the researcher in the form of a peer reviewed article, or presented at a conference. However, the information of the school and the participants will remain confidential.

Your consent for your learners' participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. Please do not hesitate to contact me or my research supervisor should you require further information.

Kind Regards

Nicky Lutz

Nicky Lutz _____

Adri Vorster: _____



School Consent Form

I _____ give consent for the learners at Jeppe Prep School to partake in the study explained on the form entitled School Information Form.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- The learners may refuse to answer any questions they would prefer not to.
- The learners may withdraw from the study at any time.
- No information that may identify any child will be included in the research report and all responses will remain confidential.
- There are no direct risks or benefits for participation in this study.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix C



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Legal Guardian Information Form

Dear Legal Guardian

Good day, my name is Nicky Lutz. I am presently studying for my Masters' degree in Educational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently conducting research for the purpose of obtaining this degree. My research aims to investigate the relationship between second language achievement, and language learning strategies in English first and second language learners.

I would like to invite your child to participate in this study. Participation in this study will require that you on behalf of your child complete a demographic questionnaire, which will ask questions regarding your child's age, and gender for example. As well as your child completing a questionnaire about the learning strategies they employ while studying a second language. Participation is voluntary, and your child will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete the questionnaire or not. The questionnaires will not be seen by any person in the school at any time and will be processed only by myself and my supervisor. Your child's responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. He/She may choose to refuse to answer any questions he/she would prefer not to and he/she may choose to withdraw from the study at any time. All information collected will be treated as confidential. There are no direct risks or benefits attached to participating in this study.

If you consent for your child to participate in the study, he/she will be asked to complete the learning strategies questionnaire as carefully as possible. You will also need to complete the demographic questionnaire. The administration of the

questionnaire will take place during a time which is convenient for the staff and learners in order to not jeopardise any academic time. A feedback letter will be provided to the school once I have analysed my results, these results will be available to you and your child by a means deemed appropriate by the school. Please note that because participation is confidential I will not be able to disclose information about your child's scores. Only my supervisor and I will have access to your child's name and scores during the analysis process, thereafter your child's information will remain confidential. Also, the research conducted may be published by me in the form of a peer reviewed article, or presented at a conference. However, the information of the school and the participants will remain confidential.

Your consent for your child's participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. Please do not hesitate to contact me or my research supervisor should you require further information.

Kind Regards

Nicky Lutz

Nicky Lutz: _____ Adri Vorster: _____



Legal Guardian Consent Form

I _____ give consent for my child to partake in the study explained on the Legal Guardian Information Form.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- My child may refuse to answer any questions he/she would prefer not to.
- My child can withdraw from the study at any time.
- No information that may identify my child will be included in the research report and my child's responses will remain confidential.
- There are no direct risks or benefits for participation in this study.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix D



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Educators' Information Form

Dear Educator

Good day, my name is Nicky Lutz. I am presently studying for my masters' degree in Educational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am currently conducting research for the purpose of obtaining this degree. My research aims to investigate the relationship between second language achievement and language learning strategies in English first and second language speakers.

I would like to invite you and your learners to participate in this study. Participation in this study will require you to provide a copy of your classes academic results for the subject at the time of the questionnaire being administered. Your class will then complete a questionnaire. Participation is voluntary, and neither you nor the children will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete the questionnaire or not. The questionnaire will not be seen by any person in the school at any time and will be processed only by myself and my supervisor. The responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. All information collected will be treated as confidential.

If you consent to participate in the study, the administration of the children's questionnaire will take place during a time which is convenient for you and the children in order to not jeopardise any academic time. A feedback letter will be provided to the school once I have analysed my results, these results will be available to you and your children by a means deemed appropriate by the school. Please note that because participation is confidential I will not be able to disclose information about the children's scores. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the child's name and scores during the analysis process, thereafter the child's

information will remain confidential. Also, the research conducted may be published by the researcher in the form of a peer reviewed article, or presented at a conference. However, the information of the school and the participants will remain confidential.

Your acceptance of participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. Please do not hesitate to contact me or my research supervisor should you require further information.

Kind Regards

Nicky Lutz

Nicky Lutz: _____

Adri Vorster: _____



Educators' Consent Form

I _____, consent to partake in the study explained on the page entitled Educators' Information Form.

I understand that:

- Participation in this study is voluntary.
- I may refuse to answer any questions I would prefer not to.
- I can withdraw from the study at any time.
- No information that may identify me will be included in the research report and my responses will remain confidential.
- There are no direct risks or benefits for participation in this study.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Appendix E



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Learner Assent Form

Date:

Hello

I would like to do some tasks with you to find out the strategies you use when learning a second language. It has nothing to do with your school work. It is only to help me with my university work. You can ask me about anything you don't understand and we can take a break if you're tired. If you don't want to continue we can stop whenever you want. Only I will know how well you did. Your teachers and friends will not be told anything about your tasks.

I _____, agree to participate.

Name of child

Mrs N. Lutz

Child's name

Appendix F – Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 5.1 (Oxford, 1990)



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Instructions:

The following are questions that you can answer by choosing one of the answers that best describes you. Please read each statement. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

- 1. Never or almost never true of me**
- 2. Usually not true of me**
- 3. Somewhat true of me**
- 4. Usually true of me**
- 5. Always or almost always true of me**

- Never or almost never true of me means that the statement is very rarely true of you
- Usually not true of me means that the statement is true less than half the time
- Somewhat true of me means that the statement is true of you about half the time
- Usually true of me means that the statement is true more than half the time
- Always or almost always true of me means that the statement is true of you almost always

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the separate worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. If you have any questions, let the researcher know immediately.

1. **Never or almost never true of me.**
2. **Generally not true of me.**
3. **Somewhat true of me.**
4. **Generally true of me.**
5. **Always or almost always true of me**

PART A

1. I create links between new material and what I already know.
2. I put the new word in a sentence so I can remember it.
3. I place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way (for example, words related to clothing).
4. I link the sound of a new word with the sound of a familiar word.
5. I use rhyming to remember it.
6. I remember the word by making a clear picture in my mind of it or by drawing a picture.
7. I picture the spelling of the new word in my mind.
8. I use a combination of sounds and pictures to remember the new word.
9. I list all the other words I know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show how they are linked.
10. I remember where the new word is on the page, or where I first heard it or saw it.
11. I use flashcards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other side.
12. I physically act out the new word.
13. I revise often.
14. I organize my revision time close together in the beginning and they slowly become further apart.
15. I go back to refresh my memory of things I learned much earlier.

1. **Never or almost never true of me.**
2. **Generally not true of me.**
3. **Somewhat true of me.**
4. **Generally true of me.**
5. **Always or almost always true of me**

PART B

16. I say and write new expressions repeatedly to practise them.
17. I try to talk the way people who speak the language talk.
18. I read a story or dialogue several times until I can understand it.
19. I revise what I write in the new language to improve my writing.
20. I practise the sounds or alphabet of the new language.
21. I use idioms or other routines in the new language.
22. I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.
23. I start conversations in the new language.
24. I watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.
25. I try to think in the new language.
26. I attend and participate in out-of-class events where the new language is spoken.
27. I read for pleasure in the new language.
28. I write personal notes, messages, letters, or reports in the new language.
29. I skim the reading passage first to get the main idea, and then I go back and read it more carefully.
30. I look for specific details in what I hear and read.
31. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.
32. I take notes in the class in the new language.

33. I make summaries of new language materials.
34. I apply general rules to new situations when using the new language.
35. I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which I understand.
36. I look for similarities and differences between the new language and my own.
37. I try to understand what I have heard or read without translating it word-for-word into my own language.
38. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.
39. I look for patterns in the new language.
40. I develop my own understanding of how the language works, even if sometimes I have to revise my understanding based on new information.

1. Never or almost never true of me.

2. Generally not true of me.

3. Somewhat true of me.

4. Generally true of me.

5. Always or almost always true of me

PART C

41. When I do not understand all the words I read and hear, I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the content or situation.
42. I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.
43. In a conversation I think about what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.
44. If I am speaking and cannot think of the right expression, I use gestures or switch back to my own language for a moment.
45. I ask the other person to tell me the right word if I cannot think of it in a conversation.

46. When I cannot think of the correct expression to say or write, I find a different way to express the idea; for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea.
47. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.
48. I direct the conversation to a topic for which I know the words.

1. Never or almost never true of me.

2. Generally not true of me.

3. Somewhat true of me.

4. Generally true of me.

5. Always or almost always true of me

PART D

49. I go over the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know before the actual lesson.
50. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and put other topics out of my mind.
51. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, I focus on the way people who speak the language pronounce certain words.
52. I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.
53. I arrange my schedule to study and practise the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.
54. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quiet comfortable place to do revision.
55. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.
56. I plan my goals for language learning, for instance, how good I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.
57. I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.

58. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as giving a talk in the new language) by considering the task, what I have to know and my current language skills.
59. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, in a listening task I might need to listen for the general idea or the specific facts.
60. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practise the new language.
61. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.
62. I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons for them.
63. I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.
64. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.

Never or almost never true of me.

2. Generally not true of me.

3. Somewhat true of me.

4. Generally true of me.

5. Always or almost always true of me

PART E

65. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about using the new language.
66. I make encouraging statements to myself so that I will continue to try hard and do my best in language learning.
67. I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in language learning, such as guessing meanings or trying to speak, even though, I might make some mistakes.
68. I give myself a reward when I have done something well in my language learning.
69. I pay attention to physical signs of stress that might affect my language learning.
70. I keep a private diary or journal where I write my feelings about language learning.
71. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings concerning learning the new language.

1. Never or almost never true of me.
2. Generally not true of me.
3. Somewhat true of me.
4. Generally true of me.
5. Always or almost always true of me

PART F

72. If I do not understand, I ask the speaker to slow down, repeat, or clarify what was said.
73. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.
74. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.
75. I work with other language learners to practice, revise, or share information.
76. I have a regular language learning partner.
77. When I am talking with a person who speaks the language, I try to let him or her know when I need help.
78. In conversation with others in the new language, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show that I am interested.
79. I try to learn about the culture of the place where the new language is spoken.
80. I pay close attention to the thoughts and feelings of other people with whom I interact in the new language.

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

Recording Sheet: SILL Version 5.1 (Oxford, 1990)

Name: _____

Part A	Part B	Part C	Part D	Part E	Part F	Whole SILL Sum
1.	16.	41.	49.	65.	72.	Part A -
2.	17.	42.	50.	66.	73.	Part B-
3.	18.	43.	51.	67.	74.	Part C-
4.	19.	44.	52.	68.	75.	Part D-
5.	20.	45.	53.	69.	76.	Part E-
6.	21.	46.	54.	70.	77.	Part F-
7.	22.	47.	55.	71.	78.	
8.	23.	48.	56.		79.	
9.	24.		57.		80.	
10.	25.		58.			
11.	26.		59.			
12.	27.		60.			
13.	28.		61.			
14.	29.		62.			
15.	30.		63.			
	31.		64.			
	32.					
	33.					
	34.					
	35.					
	36.					
	37.					
	38.					
	39.					
	40.					
Sum	Sum	Sum	Sum	Sum	Sum	Sum
Divide by 15	Divide by 25	Divide by 8	Divide by 16	Divide by 7	Divide by 9	Divide by 80
=	=	=	=	=	=	=

Instructions for scoring the SILL Version 5.1

1. Total each column and put the result on the line marked "Sum".
2. Divide the sum by the number in the block below to get an average for each part.
3. Round the average off to the nearest tenth. Your average will fall between 1.0 and 5.0 because the only responses on the SILL are 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5.
4. To calculate your overall average, add up all of the sums for the different parts of the SILL. This will give you a total raw score. Divide this raw score by 80 (the total number of items on the SILL). This will give you your average for all the items.
5. Refer to the profile of results below to see how you make use of the learning strategies.

Key to understanding averages:

Frequency of use		Average
High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Generally used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

What this means to you:

1. The overall average shows you how often you use the language learning strategies in general.
2. The averages for each part of the SILL indicate to you how often you use those kinds of strategies. See below for a list of the strategies covered in each part of the SILL.

What strategies are covered in each part of the SILL (Oxford, 1990)

Part A – Memory strategies – remembering more effectively.

Part B – Cognitive strategies – using all your mental processes.

Part C – Compensation strategies – compensating for missing knowledge.

Part D – Metacognitive strategies – organizing and evaluating your learning.

Part E – Affective strategies – managing your emotions.

Part F – Social strategies – learning with others.

APPENDIX G: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1990)

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Instructions:

The following are questions that you can answer by choosing one of the answers that best describes you. Please read each statement. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

6. Never or almost never true of me

7. Usually not true of me

8. Somewhat true of me

9. Usually true of me

10. Always or almost always true of me

- Never or almost never true of me means that the statement is very rarely true of you
- Usually not true of me means that the statement is true less than half the time
- Somewhat true of me means that the statement is true of you about half the time
- Usually true of me means that the statement is true more than half the time
- Always or almost always true of me means that the statement is true of you almost always

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the separate worksheet. Please make no

marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. If you have any questions, let the researcher know immediately.

- 1. Never or almost never true of me**
- 2. Usually not true of me**
- 3. Somewhat true of me**
- 4. Usually true of me**
- 5. Always or almost always true of me**

Part A

1. I think of links between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and a picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their place on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

- 1. Never or almost never true of me**
- 2. Usually not true of me**
- 3. Somewhat true of me**
- 4. Usually true of me**
- 5. Always or almost always true of me**

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I read for pleasure in English.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

- 1. Never or almost never true of me**
- 2. Usually not true of me**
- 3. Somewhat true of me**
- 4. Usually true of me**
- 5. Always or almost always true of me**

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every word.

28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.

29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

1. Never or almost never true of me

2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me

4. Usually true of me

5. Always or almost always true of me

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.

31. I notice my English mistakes and I use that information to help me get better.

32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.

33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.

34. I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to study English.

35. I look for people I can talk to in English.

36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.

37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.

38. I think about my progress in learning English.

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.

40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.

41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.

44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

1. **Never or almost never true of me**
2. **Usually not true of me**
3. **Somewhat true of me**
4. **Usually true of me**
5. **Always or almost always true of me**

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
47. I practice English with other students.
48. I ask for help from English speakers.
49. I ask questions in English.
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Thank you very much for your time.

Instructions for scoring the SILL Version 7.0

1. Total each column and put the result on the line marked "Sum".
2. Divide the sum by the number in the block below to get an average for each part.
3. Round the average off to the nearest tenth. Your average will fall between 1.0 and 5.0 because the only responses on the SILL are 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5.
4. To calculate your overall average, add up all of the sums for the different parts of the SILL. This will give you a total raw score. Divide this raw score by 50 (the total number of items on the SILL). This will give you your average for all the items.
5. Refer to the profile of results below to see how you make use of the learning strategies.

Key to understanding averages:

Frequency of use		Average
High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Generally used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

What this means to you:

1. The overall average shows you how often you use the language learning strategies in general.
2. The averages for each part of the SILL indicate to you how often you use those kinds of strategies. See below for a list of the strategies covered in each part of the SILL.

What strategies are covered in each part of the SILL (Oxford, 1990).

Part A – Memory strategies – remembering more effectively.

Part B – Cognitive strategies – using all your mental processes.

Part C – Compensation strategies – compensating for missing knowledge.

Part D – Metacognitive strategies – organizing and evaluating your learning.

Part E – Affective strategies – managing your emotions.

Part F – Social strategies – learning with others.

Appendix H



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



Private Bag 3, Wits, 2050 • Tel: 011 717 4541 • Fax: 011 717 4559 • E-mail: psych.SHCD@wits.ac.za

Demographic Questionnaire: Please complete this information about your child.

1. Name and Surname of child: _____
2. Age of child: _____
3. Gender: _____
4. Home Language: _____
5. Second language: _____
6. Third language: _____
7. How would you describe the area you live in? (Please circle where appropriate)
 - Rural
 - Informal Settlement
 - Inner City
 - Suburb
8. What transport is used to get to school most regularly? (Please circle)
 - Taxi
 - Bus
 - Personal vehicle
 - Lift club service
 - Walk
9. Your child's guardians are: (Please circle).
 - Biological parents
 - Foster parents
 - Single parent (deceased)
 - Single parent (divorced)

- Blended family
- Adoptive parents
- Other adult relative
- Other not included

10. Does your child have any special academic needs or medical conditions which are known to you and may affect their academic performance?

(Please circle)

- Yes
- No

11. If yes please specify: _____

If your child's first language is English then refer to the second language in the questions as Afrikaans. If your child's first language is not English then refer to the second language in the questions as English.

12. Are you able to speak the second language your child is learning at school?

- Yes
- No

13. If yes, how fluently can you speak the second language your child is learning at school?

- Very fluently
- Limited fluency

14. Do you spend time speaking to your child in the second language they are learning?

- Yes
- No

15. Do you assist your child with school homework in the second language?

- Yes
- No.

Thank you very much for your time.

Appendix I – Learner Background Questionnaire (Oxford, 1990)



PSYCHOLOGY
THE SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT (SHCD)



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Learner Background Information

Please fill in the following information:

1. Name: _____ 2. Date: _____

3. Age: _____ 4. Mother tongue: _____

5. Language(s) you speak at home: _____

6. Second language you are now learning (list only one language):

7. How long have you been learning the language listed in question 6?

8. How do you rate your ability in the language listed in question 6 as compared with the other children in your class? (Circle one).

Excellent Good Fair Poor

9. How do you rate your ability in the language listed in question 6 compared with the proficiency of native speakers of the language? (Circle one).

Excellent Good Fair Poor

10. How important is it for you to become good at using the language listed in question 6? (Circle one).

Very important Important Not so important

11. Why do you want to learn the language listed in question 6? (Tick all that apply in the list below).

___ interested in the language

___ interested in the culture

___ have friends who speak the language

____ required to take a second language course at school

____ need it for my future

____ need it for travel

_____ other (list below)

12. Do you enjoy language learning? (Circle one). Yes No

13. What other languages have you studied? _____

14. What has been your favourite experience in language learning?

Thank you for your time.

**GAUTENG PROVINCE**Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICAFor administrative use:
Reference no: D2015 / 045**GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER**

Date:	8 May 2014
Validity of Research Approval:	8 May 2014 to 3 October 2014
Name of Researcher:	Lutz N.
Address of Researcher:	8 Sun Manor
	Cnr Frank and Marthina Astreet
	Lambton
	Germiston
	1401
Telephone Number:	011 827 3409; 076 455 8736
Email address:	poppeyvw@telkomsa.net
Research Topic:	The relationship between second language achievement and language learning strategies in first and second language learners
Number and type of schools:	ONE Primary School
District/s/HO	Johannesburg East

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the

1

*Making education a societal priority***Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research**9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0508
Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gog.gov.za

above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher/s must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards



.....
Dr David Makhado
Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

2011/05/09



Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Lutz

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

PROTOCOL NUMBER H14/05/32

PROJECT TITLE

The relationship between second language achievement and language learning strategies in English first and second language learners

INVESTIGATOR(S)

Ms N Lutz

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT

Human and Community Development/Psychology

DATE CONSIDERED

23 May 2014

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE

Approved Unconditionally

EXPIRY DATE

04/06/2016

DATE 05/06/2014

CHAIRPERSON

E.M. Tabane
PP (Professor T Milani)

cc: Supervisor : A Vorster

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10000, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

N Lutz

Signature

2014 / 06 / 09

Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

