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AN INVESTIGATION INTO LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS IN THEIR ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN SELECTED SCHOOLS IN EAST LONDON

By



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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES, UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

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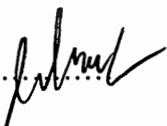
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I declare that "An investigation into language learning strategies used by high school learners in their English Second language learning in selected schools in East London", is my own work, it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other faculty or University, only the sources and that all sources used in this thesis have been thoroughly acknowledged.



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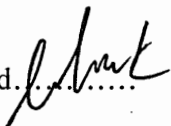
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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the language learning strategies of 150 learners from two selected high schools in East London. It involved 75 learners from one urban school and another 75 learners from one township school. The participants in this study completed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which consisted of 30 questions. This was the main instrument that was specifically modified and used to collect data. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was divided into six categories: cognitive strategies, memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, compensation strategies, social strategies and affective strategies. The findings indicated that all the learners who were participants in both schools reported high use of language learning strategies, township learners reported higher use of language learning strategies than urban school learners; the results also indicated that female learners used more learning strategies than their male counterparts. Lastly, recommendations and future research suggestions were made.

KEY TERMS

Second language

Strategy Inventory For language Learning (SILL)

Cognitive Strategies

Social Strategies

Affective Strategies

Compensation strategies

Metacognitive Strategies

Memory Strategies



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ABBREVIATIONS

EFL (English as a Foreign Language)

ESL (English as a Second Language)

ACT (Assumption College Thornbury)



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

Language learning strategies are imperatively critical in determining the way learners successfully learn a second language. There are a wide range of many strategies and this variety can be divided into two categories: direct strategies which comprise memory strategies, compensation strategies, cognitive strategies and indirect strategies which comprise metacognitive, affective and social strategies (Oxford, 1990). Weinstein and Mayer (1986) state that the goal of learning strategies is to make learning easy whereas the goal of strategy use is to have an effect on motivation, affective state, or the manner in which learners acquire, organize and integrate new knowledge. In this research I will look at different strategies used by high school learners in their second language learning and highlight strategies that enabled certain learners to be more successful in their second language learning than others.

This research is based on the distinctive learning strategies and is also informed by other strategies that have been investigated by other researchers. For example, in their studies of the good learner Naiman and Rubin (1975) found that learners use strategies to learn a language and these strategies make a major contribution to second language learning. They found that these strategies can be classified and described. Rubin (1975) classified strategies into two categories. The primary category which includes, clarification, verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning and practice affect learning. The second category indirectly contributes to learning and includes, creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as communication strategies. For her study, Rubin collected data in various settings. This included fifty hours of classroom observation, a

small group observation of learners who were working on a strip story, the analysis of self-reports from learners of a second language and daily journal entries analysis of two learners who were asked to report on strategies. She found that the classroom observation was the least useful in the identification of strategies.

The study of language learning strategies is particularly essential because it would help learners, teachers and many other researchers identify and implement the strategies that are potentially effective as well as their significant impact on teaching and language learning.

1.1 Background to the Study

Language learning strategies are absolutely crucial in determining the way learners successfully learn a second language. Researchers began to show more interest in the study of language learning strategies in the 1960s with cognitive psychology playing a major role in the development of learning strategies (Williams & Burden 1997). The researchers were interested in the identification of a good learner and the kinds of strategies a successful learner uses in language learning.

Language learning strategies are defined by Rubin (1975) as the techniques or devices which a learner uses to acquire knowledge. She categorizes learning strategies in two groups. Primary group which affects learning directly includes these: clarification and verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing and inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning and practice. Secondary group affects learning indirectly and includes: practice opportunities and communication strategies. In their studies of the good learner, Naiman and Rubin (1975) found that learners use strategies to learn a language and these strategies make a major contribution to second language learning. Similarly, they found that these strategies can be classified and described.

O'Malley (1985) defined language learning strategies as the operations or steps used by the learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information. In his study O'Malley divided language learning strategies into three categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective strategies.

Rubin (1975) conducted a study on the strategies that a good language learner uses and the learning habits of successful learners. She found the following to be the characteristics of a good language learner: The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser, the good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from a communication, the good language learner is often not inhibited, In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form, the good language learner practices; the good language learner monitors his own and the speech of others, and the good language learner attends to meaning.



This research draws on direct and indirect strategies that are mentioned in Oxford (1990). In her investigation, she found that there are 62 learning strategies. These strategies are divided into two types. The first one is a direct strategy which is used to teach a new language. It comprises the following categories: 1) memory strategies 2) cognitive strategies and 3) compensation strategies.

The second type is the indirect strategy which is used to manage learning. It comprises the following categories: 1) metacognitive strategies 2) affective strategies and 3) social strategies, as mentioned before. According to Oxford (1990), direct strategies enable learners to know how to store and recover information. Learners are taught to produce and understand language effectively and efficiently. Oxford found that both direct and indirect strategies should be used by learners as they will enable them to maximize language learning and these methods should be introduced progressively by teachers in their classrooms to achieve maximum results.

Rachmawati (2013) did a study in Indonesia on the application of language learning strategies and their correlation with learners' achievements: a study on ten grades learners in acceleration class, senior high school 5, Malang. This study involved 60 high school learners. The researcher used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning questionnaire to collect data. It was found that learners preferred to use social strategies the most, followed by memory, cognitive, affective, metacognitive and compensation strategies. The results also revealed that there was a sufficient positive correlation between metacognitive strategies and English achievement.



Tam (2013) conducted a research involving 50 first year students at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The aim of his research was to investigate the relationship between gender, second language proficiency, socio-economic status, and language learning strategies. He found that the user's use of language learning strategies was affected by gender, second language proficiency, and socio-economic status. It was also found that males and females differed significantly in using memory, compensation, cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies. He also found that there was a correlation between compensation, cognitive, and social strategies and, furthermore, that the users' second language proficiency and socio-economic status had a big influence on local university students' use of social strategies.

Ojo (2008) conducted a study involving learners in the African language programme, including classes in Swahili, Yoruba and Zulu. His first objective was to find out the type of learning strategies learners use to learn these languages. Secondly, to find the learning strategies that are preferred and, thirdly, to identify the implication of these strategies and the reason why they were adopted.

Another research was conducted in Botswana on the relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs. Magogwe (2005) found that Botswana learners use quite a number of strategies in their language learning and they prefer to use certain types of strategies, namely social strategies, metacognitive strategies and compensation strategies. It was also found that there was a relationship between the use of language learning strategies and proficiencies, level of schooling and self-efficacy beliefs.

Dreyer (1994) conducted a research involving 110 standard 6 Afrikaans-speaking learners who were taking English as a second language at Brits High School in South Africa focusing more on memory strategies. She looked at four intact classes which were divided into one control group by using keyword, semantic, and keyword-semantic. She used multiple choice and cue-recall instruments as a form of measurement. She found that there was a significant difference between both strategies and that the combined keyword-semantic strategy increased retention above the other strategies.

Bialystok (1978) defined learning strategies as the options that learners have to explore information that is readily available to them to improve competence in second language learning. He identified the following groups: inferencing, monitoring, practice, formal practicing and functional practicing. Wenden and Rubin(1987:19) defined language learning strategies to be any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines that the learner uses to obtain, use, store, and retrieve information. According to Chamot (1987:71), language learning strategies are the techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions used by learners to make learning easy to recall both linguistics and content area information. Oxford (1990:8) defined language learning strategies as the operations that the learner uses to acquire, store, retrieve and use the information. She also mentions that learning strategies are specific actions that the learner takes

to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations.

Green and Oxford (1995) conducted a research on strategy use involving 374 Puerto Rican ESL learners. The students were divided into three groups, namely pre-basic, basic and intermediate. They found that learners who were more proficient used cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and social categories. They also reported that females used memory, metacognitive, affective and social categories.

Wharton (2000) reported that social strategies, for example, asking questions, cooperating and empathizing with others is more preferred by learners from Asia who are bilingual than memorization strategies. Leavel and Hong-Nam (2006) did an investigation of 55 ESL learners to determine the language learning strategies mostly used. They focused more on different strategy use to investigate the relationship between language learning strategy use and second language proficiency. Their result revealed that many learners used metacognitive strategies more than affective and memory strategies. They also found in their investigation that females prefer to use affective and social strategies more than males.

Mullins (1992) conducted a research on learning strategies among 110 Thai university students. She found that Thai students used more compensation, cognitive and metacognitive strategies and less memory and affective strategies.

In their study of 262 English native-speaker government employees who were learning foreign languages at the U.S. Foreign Service Institute, Erhman and Oxford (1995) argue that English native speakers used first compensation and social strategies which include asking questions, cooperating and empathizing with others, followed by metacognitive, memory and affective

strategies. They did not report on whether some of these strategies were used more by females than males or vice versa.

Bedell and Oxford (1996) conducted a survey of 353 secondary and tertiary learners who were studying English in China. They reported that Chinese learners used compensation strategy more than memory strategy.

Ku (1997) used the strategy inventory for language learning in his research with 335 college students in Taiwan. She found that compensation strategies were mostly used, rather than cognitive, metacognitive, memory, social and affective strategies. Higher strategy use was reported among students who were more proficient and also among females.

Goh and Foong (1997) conducted a research involving 175 ESL learners from China. They reported that metacognitive and compensation strategies were more frequently used than memory and social categories. They found that compensation and affective strategies were used more by females than males.

This was a follow up to the 1997 study conducted by Goh and Foong. Rong (1999) made an investigation of language learning strategy use among students in a tertiary institution in China and found that compensation and metacognitive strategies were more significantly used than memory and cognitive strategies.⁸⁷ Students who took English as a major subject used more strategies in the cognitive, compensation, affective and social categories than the 84 students majoring in science.

Mochizuki (1999) conducted a research in a Japanese university among students studying English and those who were studying science and reported that compensation strategies were most significantly used and affective strategies were the least used. It was also found in this research that females used more strategies than males. The 113 students who were studying

English used more compensation, social and affective strategies frequently than the 44 science students.

Hong-Nam and Leavel (2006) did a research on language learning strategy use of 55 ESL learners in an intensive English learning context. The learners were from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The program was developed to enhance both basic interpersonal communications skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. They used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning to examine the relationship between language learning strategy use and second language proficiency. The focus was more on gender and nationality. They found that learners in the intermediate phase used more learning strategies than beginning and advanced levels. The study also revealed that learners use more metacognitive strategies than affective and memory strategies and that females use more affective and social strategies than males.



Kavasoglu (2009) conducted a study on learning strategy use of pre-service teachers of English language at Mersin University using the strategy inventory for language learning to collect the data. The research examined gender, the grade of class and the type of high schools to find the type of language learning strategies they use. He found that all students frequently used metacognitive strategies and as far as gender is concerned, he found that females significantly used more strategies than males. It was also reported that there was no significant differences as far as type of high schools were concerned. This study will investigate the language learning strategies used by high school learners in East London. Strategies used by those in model C schools and those in township schools to find the type of strategies they use.

Lachini (1997) used the questionnaire developed by O'Malley and Chamot to sixty students in Iran and found that students use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies than social, affective and compensation strategies.

Tajedin (2001) made an investigation on the use of learning strategies, gender, language proficiency and language situation by Iranian students. He found that metacognitive strategies were used most significantly by Iranian learners as compared to affective strategies. He also found that there was no difference in the use of language learning between males and females.

Akbari (2003) used Oxford's taxonomy among 128 university students in Iran using English as a foreign language. The results revealed that Iranian students used more metacognitive strategies than the other strategies. He also found that more advanced students choose to use cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies in comparison to other learning strategies.

Zare and Sarmadi (2004) made an investigation on the reason why some university students are weak and others strong in their strategy use. Their study revealed that metacognitive strategies affect the students' academic achievement.

Alhaison (2012) investigated the type and frequency of learning strategies used by Saudi EFL learners. His research involved 701 male and female participants who were enrolled in an intensive English language program at the University of Ha'il. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 25, and he used Oxford's (1990) Strategies for Inventory of language learning with some amendments made to it. The SILL proves to be a reliable instrument for measuring language learning strategy use. The research did not only investigate the type and frequency of use of language learning strategies, but it also examined the relationship between the use of language learning and gender proficiency level. Alhaison (2012) found out that students used language learning strategies with low to medium frequency. The results showed that Saudi learners preferred to use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies and used less affective strategies and memory strategies. The study also revealed that no significant

difference was found in the use of language learning strategies by males and females. The difference he found as far as gender was concerned was that females used more social strategies than males. Females also used more learning strategies than males. It was subsequently found that highly proficient students used all six categories of language learning strategies mentioned in Oxford (1990) compared to low-proficiency students in Alhaison (2012). This research examined gender difference in the use of language learning strategies to see if males used more language learning strategies than females in high schools.

Rahimi and Katal (2012) conducted a study on metacognitive strategies awareness and success in learning English as a foreign language. They defined metacognitive as the ability to be conscious of one's mental processes. Their research revealed that metacognitive learners who take conscious steps to understand what they are doing when they learn become the most successful learners. They suggested that more research on metacognitive awareness should be conducted in order to help students activate their metacognitive knowledge.

In all the studies conducted by the above researchers, we find that students apply different strategies to learn a second language. The strategies that are used the most in these studies are metacognitive and cognitive. Here, they practice, receive and send messages, they analyze and reason and create a structure for input and output.

Many people have conducted research on language learning strategies around the world but little research has been carried out in South Africa on how high school learners use language learning strategies in their second language learning using all the six learning strategies proposed by Oxford. Dreyer focused on memory strategies involving only Afrikaans speakers but I focused on strategies that IsiXhosa speaking high school learners use in their language learning by investigating all the six strategies mentioned in Oxford. This study will be informed by cognitive and constructivism theories.

Cognitive theory describes the knowledge that learners have to acquire and the processing of information by the learner. Cognitive theory specifies what learners will be able to do intellectually as a result of learning and constructivism theory describes how learners construct meaning and their own representation of reality.

1.2 Research Problem

A great number of high school learners who are studying English as a second language in high schools struggle to express themselves in English fluently, others are more proficient and have successfully mastered the English language. The matric pass rate in the Eastern Cape is poor because the majority of high school students, especially in Township schools, has a poor command of English. Why is it that certain learners use certain strategies and others use little or no strategies at all? This research will investigate the language learning strategies used by high school learners in their English second language learning in selected schools in East London.

1.3 Research Questions

The research answers the following questions:

1. What learning strategies do learners use in their second language learning?
2. Do females use more language learning strategies than males?
3. Do learners in model c schools use more strategies than learners in township schools?

1.4 Aims of the Study

The aims of this study were:

- To identify language learning strategies that learners use in their second language learning.

- To find out if females use more strategies than males.
- To find out if learners in model c schools use more learning strategies than learners in township schools.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The research sought to investigate strategies that high school English second language learners use. Material developers might find these strategies used by proficient learners useful in designing books for teachers who teach English as a second language in their classes. This study will hopefully help teachers who are reluctant to teach less successful learners to become more confident by using language learning strategies that are more effective and efficient. In a similar vein, learners will also likely benefit tremendously from this study.

1.6 Rationale

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The use of successful language learning strategies is of paramount importance in that it is likely going to help less successful language learners to incorporate those strategies in their studies and become more effective and efficient. They may learn to regulate, store, recover information and probably learn to produce and understand the target language effortlessly.

1.7 Research Methodology

1.7.1 Scope of the Research

This research was conducted in selected urban and township high schools in East London, Eastern Cape. These were schools that accommodated second language learners who used English as a medium of instruction in almost all major learning areas.

1.7.2 Research Design

The research used quantitative research method. According to Harwell (2011), quantitative methods attempt to make the most of objectivity, replicability, and generalibility of findings, and are interested in making predictions.

1.7.3 Data Collection Techniques

The strategy inventory for language learning instrument (SILL), version 7.0, Oxford, (1990), which is readily available, was used in this research to collect data. This served as the primary tool for the study. The SILL was used to investigate the frequency of strategy use among high school English second language learners. This instrument was slightly modified and consisted of 30 open ended questionnaires which were subdivided into six categories: a) memory strategies (questions 1-5) b) cognitive strategies (questions 6-10) c) compensation strategies (questions 11-15) d) metacognitive strategies (questions 16-20) e) affective strategies (questions 21-25) and f) social strategies (questions 26-30). This was used to find the strategies that were used by language learners. Learners were told that it was not a test and there were no right or wrong answers. This instrument was based on a choice of five Likert-scale responses, ranging from 1 to 5. A range of 3.5-5 reflects high use of that particular strategy, 2.5-3.4 medium use, and 1.0-2.4 low use (Oxford, 1990). Learners responded to each strategy with: 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. Learners were asked to indicate on the SILL their response 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 to a strategy such as, "I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English."

1.7.4 Sampling Procedure

For this research, 150 learners attending selected East London high schools were randomly selected and sampled. This included 75 learners from the urban school and 75 learners from township schools studying English as a second language. The strategy inventory for language learning questionnaires (SILL) was administered to all 150 learners. The learners that participated in this study were taken from all races. I contacted the principals of the selected high schools to ask for permission to do the research in collaboration with teachers who are in charge of the English language.



1.8 Data Analysis

The data analysis focused on language learning strategies used by learners in selected high schools in East London. The strategy inventory for language learning was used to sort, organize and identify the range of strategies used by learners and descriptive statistics was used to check how often a particular language learning strategy was used. The SPSS (The statistical package for social science) was used to analyze frequencies, standard deviation and mean as well as the ANOVA (analysis of variance) to investigate the strategies that learners used in their second language learning. A measure of reliability analysis was performed to examine the consistency of the questionnaire.

1.9 Ethical Consideration

Since this study involved the participation of high school learners, permission was requested first from the district office, then from the principals of different schools that were selected. All participants were informed of the purpose of the study. Their responses were treated with confidentiality, they were used for research purposes only and their anonymity was secured. The researcher would not reveal any information that might lead to the identification of the

respondents. The researcher adhered by all means to the University of Fort Hare's ethical code that guides postgraduate researchers in the faculty of social sciences and humanities. Respondents' participation was voluntary and their decisions were respected and they were free to withdraw at any stage. The researcher ensured that he did not get emotionally or sexually involved with respondents, break the law, and invent information or any kind of misrepresentation of himself (Guthrie, 2010:15-23).

1.10 Envisaged Structure of the Research

Chapter 1 of the research is introductory in nature. It defines the study by giving a general overview of the area of study, providing a convincing background of the study, justifying the study and offering a brief outline of the research methodology. Furthermore, it discusses the chapter layout.



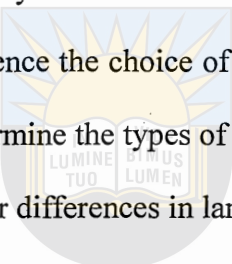
Chapter 2 presents the Literature Review in which the present study finds contextual reference and thus fits in the continuum of Applied Linguistics research. The aim of the detailed review of literature in this chapter is to seek gaps while situating the ongoing study in the current of existing literature as well as using existing research as a point of departure for the study. Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical framework. Chapter 4 will be research methodology and chapter 5 will focus on analysis, discussions and findings while Chapter 6 will reflect on recommendations and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature that the researcher found relevant to understand the nature of the research problem. The literature review is presented under the following sub-headings which are derived from the research questions: the different definitions of language learning strategies that have been given by different researchers, the classification of language learning strategies, the factors that influence the choice of language learning strategies and the studies that have been conducted to determine the types of strategies that language learners use. The literature review also looks at gender differences in language learning and the way learners use language in different contexts.

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2.2 Language Learning Strategies

2.2.1 Definitions

Language learning strategies can be characterised as a set of operations, steps, plans and schedules that learners use to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information (Wenden & Rubin 1989). It alludes to language learning behaviours, strategic knowledge about learning that learners engage in to learn and regulate second language learning (Wenden and Rubin, 1989). Chamot and Kupper (1989) concur with this definition by pointing out that language learning strategies involve detectable and non-detectable aspects that learners utilise to aid the acquisition, storage and recovery of information. Chamot (1987) further portrays language learning strategies as techniques, methodologies or planned actions that learners take in order to facilitate learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information. Oxford (1989) agrees with Rubin and further stresses that language learning strategies are specific

actions taken by the learner to make learning less demanding, speedier, more agreeable, more guided toward self, more compelling and more transferable to new circumstances and that learners use these strategies to enhance their progress in developing second language skills (Oxford, 1990, 1993). Oxford additionally contends that learning strategies assume a pivotal part in language learning on the ground that when learners apply correct strategies, their proficiency improves and they become more confident. Wenden (1987), Oxford (1980) and Ellis (1994) conclude by saying that language learning strategies have more or less the same features. They pursue a particular goal, they are consciously deployed, and they are observable or non-observable, they are open to change, they make a direct or indirect contribution to learning and that there are many different factors that influence language learning strategies.

2.2.2 Classification of Language Learning Strategies

The study on language learning strategies has been broadly researched by four prominent researchers and they classified learning strategies in diverse ways. Oxford (1990) classifies language learning strategies as direct and indirect strategies. Oxford's classification of language learning strategies is presumably the most thorough scientific classification. She divides language learning strategies into two noteworthy classifications, in particular, direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies encompass strategies that involve the target language and use mental processing of language (Oxford, 1999). These direct strategies are arranged into three groups, particularly, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. Oxford (1990) characterises indirect strategies as those strategies that do not include straightforwardly the target language, however, help and oversee language learning effectively. They embody metacognitive, affective, and social techniques.

According to Rubin (1987), language learning strategies are separated into three classes that incorporate learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies. Learning strategies make an immediate commitment to the improvement of the language of the learner and are broken down into cognitive learning strategies which are further subdivided into clarification and verification, guessing and inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring. Metacognitive learning strategies are utilised to control, oversee, and self-direct language learning. They additionally include arranging, organizing, setting objectives and organization toward self. Communicative strategies concentrate all the more on participation in conversations and getting meaning across. Social strategies are activities which learners are involved in to exercise their language knowledge and they are also given the opportunities to be exposed to the target language.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that students used numerous methods as part of their language learning and that these methodologies could be depicted and grouped. Language learning strategies, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), are divided into three fundamental classifications that comprise metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies. Metacognitive procedures incorporate advanced organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring delayed production and self-evaluation. Cognitive strategies include repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualization transfer and inferencing. Socio-affective strategies include cooperation and question or clarification (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Stern (1992) proposes five classes of language learning strategies that include management and arranging procedures, cognitive strategies, communicative-experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies and affective strategies. He depicts management and arranging procedures as the

areas that learners choose to focus on, they learn to set goals that are realistic, attainable and achievable, they choose the methods and resources to be used and eventually monitor progress and evaluate their achievement. Cognitive strategies encompass clarification and verification, guessing and inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring. In Communicative-experiential strategies, learners use circumlocution, paraphrase, gesturing and asking for repetition and explanation in their conversation. Furthermore, in interpersonal strategies learners screen their improvement and evaluate their performance, communicate with native speakers and familiarize themselves with target culture. Learning a new language can sometimes cause a lot of anxieties and frustrations and language learners will begin to develop negative attitudes towards a native speaker. Good language learners create a positive attitude towards the target language by using different affective strategies and involve themselves in activities that will help them overcome these frustrations (Stern, 1992).

Martinez (1996) contends that all these classifications of language learning strategies can be summarized into four classifications: cognitive, metacognitive, social and communicative strategies because they are mentioned in all the classifications. Cognitive strategies are operations that learners use to acquire knowledge and to comprehend the linguistic system. Metacognitive strategies are used by learners to help them to learn. Learners become cognizant of the learning process, they learn how to plan, monitor and do self-evaluation. Fillmore (1979) partners social strategies with social practices of learners and infers that learners in this category figure out how to depend on others for assistance; they interrelate and collaborate with friends.

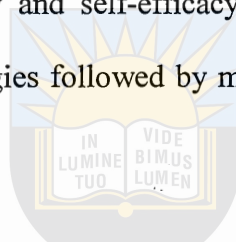
2.2.3 Research in Language Learning Strategies

A considerable amount of literature has been published on language learning strategies that are used by effective learners, however, there has been moderately little literature published on language learning strategies that are used by township and urban high school learners.

Purdue and Oliver (1999) led a study that examined language learning strategies used by 58 bilingual school-aged children. The children were selected from three different groups that included Asians, Europeans and speakers of Arabic. They wanted to find out if bilingual children who have been living in Australia for a long time use different strategies to learn English. Their study uncovered that social strategies were the least used. In his comprehensive investigation into strategy use of 149 students in Hong Kong, Bremmer (1999) concluded that students used more compensation and metacognitive strategies than affective and memory strategies. Sheorey (1999) examined language learning strategies used in the setting of an indigenized variety of English involving 1 261 Indian college students. It was found in this impressive examination that Indian college students studying English, use language learning strategies with high to moderate frequency and their use of strategies was influenced by cultural and educational backgrounds. Sheory observed further that students used more memory strategies in their system of education that focuses more on examination.

The detailed study conducted by Rong (1999), which involved Chinese students who were learning English at tertiary level, uncovered that Chinese students liked to utilise metacognitive and compensation strategies more regularly than memory and cognitive strategies. In addition, Rong found that more capable students, who took English as a major subject, used more cognitive, affective, compensation and social strategies than those who were majoring in science. A comparable study led by Mochizuki, likewise, affirmed that English major students used more compensation, social and metacognitive strategies than science major students.

Akbari and Hosseini (2008) examined the relationship between multiple intelligence and language learning strategies involving 90 participants. The researchers used two instruments, the Multiple Intelligences Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The study revealed that there were critical relations between the use of language learning strategies and Intelligence Quotient scores of the learners. It was along these lines found that memory strategies demonstrated an impressive association with kinesthetic intelligence. In his careful examination of the relationship between language learning strategies, gender, proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs, Yilmaz (2010) found that students use more compensation strategies followed by metacognitive, cognitive and memory strategies.



Nacera (2010) looked at language learning strategies and vocabulary size and found that second year students from the English department used more metacognitive strategies than other direct and indirect strategies. He additionally contends that students who had a decent size of vocabulary used a wide range of strategies that helped them to learn effectively and successfully. Nunan and Wong (2011) directed a study on learning styles and language strategies of effective language learners. The study involved 110 undergraduate university students in Hong Kong. They divided their subjects into two groups that consisted to be of more effective and less effective language learners. The main focus was on the learning strategy preference and patterns of language learning strategies and use. Their study uncovered that the overriding style for more effective students was communicative and that authority-oriented was used by less effective students. The study further demonstrated that out of the nine strategies used, four of them reflected communicative orientation of learners who were more effective.

Sadeghi, Hassani and Hessari (2014) did an investigation on the relationship between learners' needs and their use of language learning strategies. They concentrated all the more on the learners' two noteworthy needs and the patterns of strategy use. Their study involved 150 students; they used two instruments to gather information; a needs analysis survey form and Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. The needs analysis survey form was used first, followed by the SILL. They further divided the selected students in groups of four. Their discovery uncovered that students who preferred different language skills used language learning strategies contrastingly by using various materials and adopted different strategies to learn a language.

Qasimnejad and Hemmati (2014) conducted a research on language learning strategies used by Iranian monolingual (Persian) and bilingual (Persian-Turkish) speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. The study involved 160 EFL students at Urmia Payan Noor University and Tehran Payan Noor University. The SILL was used to gather information from both university and the T-test and Chi-square tests were performed. The findings indicated that there was a generous contrast between the two groups in terms of strategy use. It additionally revealed that the strategy use statistically favoured bilingual students. This perspective is underpinned by Tuncer (2011) who argues that monolingual and bilingual learners use strategies differently. He conducted a comparative study that involved 246 students and found that students who were bilingual used a larger number of techniques than monolingual students. In his detailed examination of successful learners, Tuncer found that effective learners use different strategies and techniques in their language learning more efficiently and this helps them to become more responsible in their learning compared to less successful language learners. Yongyi, also cited in Min (2012), investigated 9 successful students in their second round of Chinese proficiency competition for foreign college students.

The study demonstrated that effective students used compensation and social strategies more frequently than memory and emotional strategies. In a similar investigation on language learning strategies used by successful and unsuccessful Iranian EFL students, Gerami and Baighlou (2011) were, likewise, of the view that students who are successful in their language learning use a variety of strategies. They use more metacognitive strategies than less successful students. Their study also pointed out that less successful students use cognitive strategies to a certain degree.

Ngersawart and Kirkpatrick conducted a comparable study to examine ACT students' English language problems and their learning strategies in grade 10 bilingual program involving 30 learners. Their study used the Assumption College Thorbury (ACT) and the SILL. It was found that frequent use of the SILL and compensation strategies were used more than metacognitive strategies. Safranji (2013) investigated strategies of learning English as a foreign language at the faculty of Technical sciences at the University of Novisad. The findings indicated that the use of strategies in language learning was considerably influenced by gender and proficiency in English.

Cesur (2011) investigated 368 Turkish university prep class students' language learning strategies to see if the strategies that were used could foretell their reading comprehension achievement by using two special instruments, the SILL and the English Language Placement Test. The results indicated that cognitive, memory and compensation strategies interrelated and helped in the prediction of reading comprehension achievement and academic success. Rahimi and Katal (2012) also agree that students who use metacognitive strategies are the most successful in their language learning and suggest that more research ought to be conducted in the region of metacognitive techniques.

Sadeghi and Attar (2013) conducted a study involving 16 more youthful learners and 17 older learners from Iran who were learning English, 12 males and 21 females. The results express that there was not an enormous contrast between them when using learning strategies. Both groups used pretty much the same number of strategies. An alternate study was conducted in Iran by Shalahshour, Sharifi and Nedashalahshour (2012). They researched 65 high school learners who were from distinctive classes. They claim that high school learners use more metacognitive strategies, followed by cognitive strategies. They further contend that successful language learners use a greater number of strategies than those who are less successful. Brown (2007) found that certain learners have the ability to be successful in language learning and others less successful in spite of the methods or strategies they use.

Rubin (1975) conducted an efficient research to identify the characteristics that describe a good and successful language learner. The results uncovered that good and successful language learners use an extensive variety of learning strategies; they find various ways of learning a new language, they generate many chances to put into practice the language in various settings and use linguistic knowledge such as conversing with local speakers of the target language. She also found that once these strategies have been identified, they could be taught to less successful learners (Zare, 2012). Sewell (2003) says that the pace of acquisition, learners' past experience to English, learner's aspiration and the level of ability are fundamental and should be taken into consideration to establish the characteristics and strategies of good language learners.

2.2.4 Factors Influencing Strategy Choice of Language Learning

Wenden (1987) says that there are numerous factors that influence the learners' use of strategies. In this study five imperative factors will be examined. This incorporates motivation, prior learning experience, personality traits and risk taking in language learning, age and

proficiency and gender differences. As per the study that was conducted by Yang (1994) examining the sort of variables that impact the learning strategies of learners, the discoveries demonstrated that the higher the learners perceived their language proficiency, the more frequently they would use different learning strategies.

2.2.4.1 Motivation

Gardner (1985) defined motivation as the degree to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity. Gardener and Lambert (1972) identified two types of motivation; Integrative and instrumental motivation. They define integrative motivation as the interest that a person shows in the people and the culture of the target language, that is, the person spends more time reading the literature of this particular culture, spends his/her holidays in the country of the target language and also looks for native speakers to practice the target language. The establishment of contacts with the speakers of the target language promotes integrative motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that learners with instrument motivation have the tendency to use communicative learning strategies all the more.

According to Dornyei and Cheng (2007), motivation is one of the key components that help teachers to determine success in second language learning. Language learning strategies should seriously be taken into consideration because they form part of the theoretical analysis of motivation in addition to language learning. Learners who lack motivation are generally passive and their learning ability is usually negatively affected. Learners need to display a positive attitude and show interest in the language they are learning, if they do not show any interest, they will develop a negative attitude towards it. The higher the learner's motivation is, the more the learning strategies and the more frequently he will use them (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). The research that was conducted on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation stresses that the

learners with extrinsic motivation tend to choose mechanic learning strategies while learners with intrinsic motivation prefer meaningful organizing learning strategies.

Brown (1994) defines motivation as the inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action. As indicated by him, motivation involves a willingness to learn, the amount of effort put into learning task, tirelessness, the incentive value of success, the level of aspiration, the need for achievement, the expectations, perceptions and attitude. Falk (1978) contends that successful learners are those that, like the speakers of the target language, have a deep admiration of their culture and have a desire to become part of the society in which the target language is spoken. Finegan (1999) confirms that integrative motivation underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a near-native pronunciation. Benson (1991) says that integrative motivation gives a learner a desire to become both bilingual and bicultural. The learner adds another language to his first language as well as the culture of the target language. Instrumental motivation refers to the target language as a means to end. The learner of the target language sees it as a useful instrument to achieve their goals, translation, reading technical material, obtain higher qualifications or improve the prospects of employment.

According to Hudson (2000), instrumental motivation enables the learner to obtain practical and concrete results after learning a second language. Gardner (1985) states that the positive attitudes and motivation are related to success in the target language. It has been found that learners who support the integrative approaches of motivation to language learning are usually more motivated and successful than those who support the instrumental approach (Gardener, 1985). Brown (2007) argues that both integrative and instrumental motivations are not mutually exclusive because learners can choose to use both forms of motivation in learning a second language. Cook (2001) concludes by saying that both integrative and instrumental motivation

may help the learner become more successful in the second language, but the lack of motivation causes a major problem. Dornyei (1994) makes a difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviours are the ones that a person performs to receive a reward, academic requirements or to avoid punishment while the reward of intrinsic behaviours is the enjoyment of language itself or the joy that an individual finds in doing a particular thing.

Dornyei and Csizér (1998) conducted an empirical investigation of Hungarian teachers of English using a list of 51 motivational strategies. This investigation was conducted to check if these techniques were important and effective. The findings revealed that techniques were efficient and are effective in classroom application. Dornyei and Zeng (2007) again conducted a similar research on the use of motivational strategies involving 387 Taiwanese teachers of English who were asked to rate a list of comprehensive motivational strategies. They wanted to find out how much importance Taiwanese teachers attached to motivational strategies and how often these strategies were applied and implemented in classrooms. They found out that some of the strategies employed by the teachers were similar to the one that were on Dornyei and Csizer's 1998 list. Motivation, according to behavioural perspective, is regarded as the anticipation of reward for behaviour and positive reinforcement. Skinner and Pavlov and Thorndike who are the proponents of behaviourism put motivation at the centre of their theories.

Motivation, according to cognitive perspective, is regarded as the importance people put on the choices or the decisions that they make before they engage in a particular activity. It also involves the way people approach and achieve certain goals (Keller, 1983). Ausubel (1968) identified six needs that he considered to be crucial to the construction of motivation and they can be listed as follows; the need for exploration, the need for manipulation, the need for

activity, for movement and exercise, both physical and mental, the need for knowledge and the need for ego enhancement. All these needs make a major contribution to the motivation of learners. Learners need to probe the unknown, process information and internalize the results they get from their explorations and be able to resolve problems successfully (Ausubel, 1968). William and Burden (1997) argue that constructivists view motivation from a different perspective. They put the emphasis on social context, personal choices and the way people act and behave in a particular environment.

Dornyei (2001) found in her research that there were two components of motivation, namely self-efficacy and self-confidence. Self-efficacy is described as an individual's judgment of his/her ability in performing a particular action. This includes past achievements as well as persuasion, reinforcement and evaluation by peers. Teachers are therefore requested to encourage and help their learners establish a solid and strong sense of self-efficacy by providing relevant activities. Self-confidence is defined as the belief that an individual has to produce results, achieve goals or perform activities and tasks successfully.

Dornyei and Csizer (1998) suggest 10 commandments for motivating learners learning foreign languages; Set a personal example with your own behaviour, Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, Present the tasks properly, develop a good relationship with the learners, increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence, make the language classes interesting, promote learner autonomy, personalize the learning process, increase the learners' goal orientedness and familiarize learners with the target language culture. Teachers and educators also need to reinforce the importance of motivation as this enables the learners to acquire a second language successfully. McIntyre and Noels(1996), Oxford,, (1990), Oxford and Nyikos, (1989) conclude by saying that learners with a high level of motivation use a significant wider range of learning strategies than less motivated learners.

2.2.4.2 Personality Traits and Risk-taking in Language Learning

Brown (2007) explains that risk-taking is the willingness to gamble, to try out hunches about a language with a possibility of being wrong. Learners should not be afraid of making mistakes or mispronouncing words. Rubin and Thompson (1982) propose that learners should have the ability to make guesses in their language learning. Risk-taking is extremely vital in that it helps learners to stick out their necks and try out something new. Beebe (1983) specified a few consequences that negatively affect learners in and out of the classroom. In the classroom; a bad grade, not passing the exam, teachers reproaching learners, punishment or embarrassment brought on oneself. Outside the classroom; being giggled at when mistakes are made, apprehension of looking ridiculous, frustration, failure to communicate, the dread of estrangement and loss of identity. Second language learners need to create an atmosphere of acceptance that will boost their self-confidence and embolden them to take risks without any embarrassment.

Lightbown and Spada (1999) point out a few personality traits in their research as inhibition, empathy, talkativeness, self-esteem, dominance, extroversion and responsiveness. Their study revealed that extrovert learners tend to be better learners of second language. They are sociable, outgoing, they actively and effectively participate in language activities and discussions because of interpersonal communication skills, and they make contributions and are constantly willing to try whereas introvert learners are more reserved and keep to themselves. Griffiths (1991) argues that introvert learners have more advantages than extrovert learners in that, their observation and thinking are good contrasted with that of extrovert learners and introvert learners develop cognitive academic language ability quicker than extrovert learners. Chun (1994) concludes that teachers should encourage their learners to be more extroverted, but at the same time bearing in mind that there is a contrast between extrovert and introvert learners.

2.2.4.3 Age and Proficiency

Numerous researchers have conducted many researches regarding second language acquisition and the age factor and have found different results and conclusions (Brown, 2000; Johnstone (2002). Brown (2000) looked at the issue of critical period analysis, which he defines as a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire. After doing extensive research on critical period hypothesis, Penfiel (1959, 1967) discovered that there are two reasons that make it difficult to acquire language after puberty. The first reason is that the brain loses its plasticity at puberty, secondly, it was found that children who suffered brain damage before the age of 9-12 years were able to use their language skills, but it was difficult for those children who suffered brain damage after puberty to recover their language skills. They concluded by saying that it was more difficult to learn a language after puberty. The problem with this study is that it only looked at the acquisition of the first language without taking into consideration the second language.

Brown (2000) argues that the main drawback for adults is the lack of native like pronunciation in their second language learning. Neufeld (2001) disagrees and says that adults are able to attain native like pronunciation. Nikolov (2000) did some research involving 33 successful language learners aged 20-70 years old. They all started learning their target language after puberty. She found that some of these learners could speak the target language fluently and with native like accent. Snow (1983) conducted a study on the acquisition of the Dutch by the English speakers and found that younger learners were not better than older ones. The study revealed that the older learners of Dutch did extremely better than younger learners of Dutch. They also found that the performance of teenagers was much better than that of younger

children and they came to a conclusion that children learn more slowly but eventually catch up with adults and do even better than them.

Oyama in Lightbown and Spada (1999) conducted a research by recording samples of speech of Italian immigrants ranging from 5 to 18 years, regarding pronunciation. The finding revealed that the youngest children spoke English without an accent at their time of arrival, while the older ones had a very strong foreign accent. Patkowi (1980) in Lightbown and Spada (1999) did a similar study of the effect of age on how other language features are acquired in second language. He found that only the subjects that had started to learn the target language before the age of 15 were able to attain native-like proficiency. Children learn their second language more easily and quickly than adults. They acquire near-native pronunciation and their accent is similar to first language speakers.

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Sadeghi and Attar (2013) made an investigation on the relationship between learning strategy use and starting age of learning EFL. The study involved 33 male and female learners. The findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the use of language learning strategies between the younger ones and the older ones – that is those who began language learning before and after the age of 9. It was also found that younger ones used English as a means of communication whereas the older ones used it to pursue their studies and seek employment.

A study was conducted in Sweden that involved 2 189 subjects. This included immigrant children between 8-17 years old who were learning Swedish. Proficiency was studied by looking at six aspects of language that included pronunciation, dictation in Swedish, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, free written tasks and oral production. The results revealed that older learners performed better than younger learners in the tests conducted except the oral production which was performed better by those who had been living in Sweden

for a long time regardless of their age (Ekstrand, 1976). Three groups of learners were compared in the study conducted by Harley (1986). He compared 12 English learners who had experienced 1 000 hours of French total immersion programme starting in nursery school, 12 English learners who had experienced French immersion programme from grade 8 and 12 English learners exposed to an early French partial immersion programme since grade 1. The result revealed that the late immersion group performed better than the other two groups and that the older learners acquired second language faster than younger learners.

Swain (1981) conducted a study using the proficiency test that he designed. It involved grade 10 learners who started French immersion during their adolescence and grade 8 who had been learning French since primary school. It was observed that the grade 10 learners performed better than the grade 8 in terms of reading comprehension test and close test. The grade 8 learners outperformed the grade 10 in listening comprehension. In conclusion, the grade 10 learners, even in their late immersion, displayed a better performance overall than the grade 8 learners.

Rahimi (2008) investigated the relationship between strategies and learners' proficiency. The study revealed that proficient learners use more learning strategies than less proficient learners. Sheorey (1999) did an investigation in learning strategies among Indian college students. The study revealed that learners who had a high proficiency in English used more strategies. A group of undergraduate students were investigated in Hong Kong to find the type of strategies that they utilise, it was found that proficient learners used more cognitive strategies and less proficient learners preferred affective strategies (Park, 1997).

In his investigation on strategy use of undergraduate learners in Hong Kong, Bremner (1999) found that there was a connection between cognitive strategies and proficiency among learners who were more capable. The findings also revealed that less proficient learners used more

affective strategies. In Malaysia, a research was conducted to determine the level of proficiency and learning strategies among Malaysian undergraduates. The results revealed that second language proficient level has an effect on strategy use and that proficient learners preferred to use cognitive strategies than less proficient learners (Kayad, 1999). Similar studies were conducted by Bruen (2001) involving 100 Irish college learners. He used the SILL and interviews to investigate proficiency and strategies that learners used in their language learning. His investigation revealed that learners with higher proficiency level used more strategies than less proficient learners. The level of proficiency plays a major role in language learning and influences the strategies that learners use. According to the researches that have been conducted, it was found that, generally, proficient learners use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies than less proficient learners. Teachers should encourage learners to use these types of strategies as they might enable less proficient learners become more proficient.

2.2.4.4 Gender Differences in Language Learning Strategies

Gender plays an extremely vital role in language learning. Many researches have been conducted concerning learning strategies and the findings were that women use a lot more learning strategies than men. In her study, Alhaisoni (2012) found that there was no significant gender difference in language learning strategies with the exception of social strategies. It was also found that female learners tend to use all the strategies more often than males. Kaylani (1996) conducted a similar study; however, her result revealed that female students frequently use memory strategies, compensation strategies and affective strategies (Oxford & Dreyer, 1996).

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) conducted a research involving 1 200 adult learners from different countries and reached the following conclusion: that gender plays a very significant role in

strategy use and that women prefer to use more memory strategies, cognitive strategies and social strategies in their language learning. Women also used more authentic strategies, communication strategies and self-direction strategies. Similar results were recorded when Ehrman and Oxford (1989) conducted a study with 78 adult learners in the faculties of philosophical studies that involved both students and professors using different languages. In another study done by Oxford et al (1988), it was found that female language learners use more social strategies, interpersonal relationships, cooperative and less competitive than males.

Oxford et al (1988) did a review of language learning strategies and found that there was a major gender difference regarding strategy use. Their study revealed again that females frequently use significantly a wider variety of language learning strategies than males. In their studies on the use of language learning strategies involving different groups of occupations, Ehrman and Oxford (1986) found four categories of strategies that females used more often than males, this included general learning strategies, functional practice strategies for searching for and communicating meaning and self-management strategies.

Oxford, Nyikos and Ehrman (1998) conclude by saying that women have a greater desire for social approval, willingness to accept existing norms and verbal ability. Tran (1988) examined gender differences in English language acculturation and strategy use among older Vietnamese living in the United States of America. The study involved 196 males and 131 female adult Vietnamese ranging from the age of 40 to 92 years old. She found that women in the Vietnamese culture and society do not have more control and freedom; they do not actively take part in many social functions and activities. Consequently, it was found that females in this particular society use less language learning strategies than males.

In the study that Green and Oxford (1995) conducted by using the strategy inventory of language learning, it was found that, men used fewer strategies than their counterparts. Zare

(2010) also found similar results to that of Green and Oxford. Dongyue (2004) did a research regarding the correlation between language proficiency, gender and strategy use. The research revealed that some students prefer to use more memory, affective and more general strategies than others. Politzer (1983) examined 90 American college students who were learning foreign languages. His findings revealed that female learners tend to use strategies that focus more on social interaction skills than male language learners. His studies further showed that male students preferred to use strategies that compared the target language to their mother tongue.

Hashemi (2011) did a study on language learning strategies in Iran to investigate language learning strategies that students use and find if males and females use the same strategies. He found that gender plays a major role in language learning and influences the learners' language learning strategies and suggests that teachers should encourage their learners to use different strategies. Yilmaz (2011) argues that females use affective strategies more frequently than males. He also agrees that females use more strategies than their male counterparts. In their study, on the relationship between language learning strategy use, language proficiency level and learner gender, Shalahshour, Sharifi and Nedashalahshour (2012) found that female students used more strategies than males. They used more frequently metacognitive and compensation strategies than memory strategies.

Gavriilidou and Papanis (2012) conducted a study to identify the kind of strategies that university students use. Their study involved 54 males and 63 females who were studying English at the Democritus University. All of them were Greek-speaking students. The results revealed that university students use a variety of language learning strategies. Their study also looked at proficiency in foreign language, gender, career orientation of students and knowledge of more than one foreign language. Their results revealed that there was no significant difference of gender in terms of strategy use. Ching-Yi, Shu-Chen and Yi-Nian (2007)

conducted a research on the influence of gender on college EFL learning strategy use in Taiwan involving 1 758 students. They used questionnaires and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Their findings showed that Taiwanese students used compensation strategies the most, which was followed by memory, metacognitive, social, cognitive and affective strategies. According to the T-test that was used to analyze the results, it was found that females used more cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies than male students. This study will also examine the type of strategies that females use to learn a language.

2.2.4.5 Rural Versus Urban Language Learning Strategy Use

Hu (2009) did a survey on the English learning strategies of rural high school students and urban high school students from two different schools. The participants of their study were 300 rural high school students and 300 urban high school students. They all had previous experiences in language learning. The SILL was administered to measure their language learning strategies. The findings showed that out of the six language learning strategies, students used affective strategies the most and social strategies were the least used by the participants. The findings also revealed that students from urban high schools performed better in all the six learning strategies than students from rural high school. This study involved 90 high school learners that were randomly selected from township schools and ex-model c high schools. In another study, Zhou investigated the strategy use of Chinese senior high school students using the SILL. The study involved 150 students taken from three different grades. He found that Chinese high school students use compensation strategies the most.

The three different grades that were examined used various strategies to learn the English language. The results further revealed that females use more strategies than males. Zainab et al (2012) conducted a similar study involving secondary school students in Malaysia to assess their strategy use. It involved 180 students. The finding revealed that Malaysian secondary

students use all the six strategies mentioned in Oxford, but use the affective strategies the most in their language learning. A considerable amount of literature has been published on language learning strategies that are used by successful learners, however, there has been relatively little literature published on language learning strategies that are used by township and urban high school learners. This study investigates the types of strategies that both rural and urban high school learners use in their language learning.

2.3 Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the definitions of language learning strategies, classification of language learning strategies by different scholars and the factors that influence the choice of language learning strategies. The chapter also looked at some of the studies that have already been conducted in language learning strategies including high school strategy use.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This study attempts to search for ways of understanding the strategies that learners use in their language learning. It draws on direct and indirect strategies that are mentioned in Oxford (1990). In her investigation, she found that there are 62 learning strategies. These strategies are divided into two types. The first one is a direct strategy which is used to teach a new language. It comprises: 1) memory strategies 2) cognitive strategies and 3) compensation strategies. The second type is the indirect strategy which is used to manage learning. It comprises 1) metacognitive strategies 2) affective strategies and 3) social strategies as mentioned before. According to Oxford, direct strategies enable students to know how to store and recover information. Students are taught to produce and understand language effectively and efficiently. Oxford (1990) found that both direct and indirect strategies should be used by learners as they will enable them to maximize language learning and these methods should be introduced progressively by teachers in their classrooms to achieve maximum results. Two important theories emerge from Oxford's research which includes cognitive theory and constructivism theory which attempt to inform this study.

3.2 Cognitive Theory

Richards and Schmidt (2010) refer to cognitive theory as a theory that describes phenomena in terms of mental constructs in the mind of individuals. It is a learning theory that explains how humans acquire knowledge and meaning by following a sequence of development of an individual's cognitive abilities. These cognitive abilities include mental processes of recognition, recollection, analysis, reflection, application, creation and evaluation. The learning

of techniques, procedures, organization and structure is fundamentally important in the process of learning and developing the brain. The development of prior knowledge and integration of new knowledge is of paramount importance. Cognitive theory attempts to give an explanation on human behaviour through the thought processes. In cognitive theory, the emphasis is put more on information processing and the way mental processes are described. The channel through which learning takes place in cognitive theory is reading, watching and experimentation of stimuli.

The basic concept of learning in cognitive learning theory involves thinking by using the brain. This theory clarifies the way intrinsic and extrinsic factors affect mental processes in learners as they learn. Cognitive learning theory can be divided into two categories: The social cognitive theory and the cognitive behavioural theory. Social cognitive theory comprises three variables: behavioural factors, environmental factors and personal factors. These variables complement each other to bring about learning in an individual.

Pajares (2002) explains that in the person-environment interaction extrinsic factors change human beliefs, ideas and cognitive competencies; in the person-behaviour interaction, person's cognitive processes affect the way he behaves and performs and this, in turn, affects his thinking, and the environment-behaviour interaction shows that an individual's behaviour can be affected by extrinsic factors. Pajares further explains that for effective and positive learning to take place a person must develop a positive attitude, conduct himself/herself appropriately and be in an environment that provides full support. The following five basic fundamental concepts have been identified in social cognitive theory and they play a major role in assisting learners to learn effectively: observation of learning: learning by observing other people, reproduction: putting a person in an environment that is conducive to learning, self-efficacy: putting into practice the knowledge that has been learned, emotional coping: learning to cope

with stressful situations and environment in order to achieve effective learning and self-regulatory capability: the ability to control behaviour.

Mayer (2002) did an extensive study on cognitive theories and design of multimedia instruction: an example of the two-way street between cognition and instruction at the University of California. He specifically looked at the way cognitive theory contributes to suggestions for multimedia design principles and argues that cognitive theory offers three theoretical assumptions about how people learn from words and pictures. The following assumptions were studied in more details: the dual channel assumption, the limited capacity assumption and the active processing assumption. The dual channel assumes that pictures which enter the cognitive system through the eyes are processed representation of pictures in the visual-pictorial channel and the words that people speak enter the cognitive system through the ears and are processed as verbal representation in the auditory verbal channel. The limited capacity assumption: the capacity for holding and manipulating knowledge in the human cognitive system is very limited.

The visual pictorial channel becomes crowded if many pictures are presented at the same time and the same thing happens to the auditory-verbal channel when many words and sounds are presented at the same time. The active processing assumption: Learners participate actively by selecting relevant words and pictures and organize them in the pictorial and verbal models.

Mayer (2002) also examined eight predictions that come from the cognitive theory of multimedia learning and the contribution of design principles to testing of cognitive theory. He looked at multimedia principle, contiguity principle, coherence principle, modality principle, redundancy principle, personalization principle, interactivity principle and signalling principle. This is what he had to say concerning each one of them. Multimedia principle: Learning happens when words and pictures are connected together. Contiguity principle: Learning

happens when words and pictures are presented at the same time. Coherence principle: Learning happens when irrelevant words, sounds or pictures are excluded. Modality principle: Learning happens when narration of words is conducted rather than a presentation of words on the screen. Redundancy principle: Learning takes place when words are narrated without combining both narration and on-screen presentation. Personalization principle: Learning takes place when words are presented in a conversation. Interactivity principle: Learning takes place when learners take control of the presentation of words and Signalling principle: Learning takes place when key words in a sequence are signalled rather non-signalled (Mayer, 2002).

The aim of cognitive theory is to identify patterns of cognitive development and show how these developments are reflected in the way language is acquired. Piaget in McLeod (2009) argued that children are born with basic mental structure on which all learning and knowledge is built. Piaget's cognitive development theory is a progressive process of reorganization of mental processes and it attempts to explain how the infant and the child develops to become a mature individual who can use his/her thinking and reasoning abilities. He divides his cognitive theory into three basic stages: schemas (the way of organizing knowledge), processes that enable the transition from one stage to another for example, Equilibrium, assimilation, and accommodation, stages of development which comprise: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational. Piaget's theory focuses more on biological maturation and readiness. He argued that children should reach an appropriate stage of cognitive development before they can be taught new concepts. Vygotsky in McLeod (2013) argues that social interaction plays an important role in the development of cognition. He puts an emphasis on the pivotal role that community plays in shaping the child and meaning making.

Vygotsky's theory is not divided into stages like that of his contemporary Jean Piaget. He argues that culture affects and shapes cognitive development, social factors contribute to cognitive development, and language plays an important role in cognitive development. He

states that language plays two significant roles in developing cognition: It is the channel through which adults communicate with children and an influential means of intellectual adaptation, Vygotsky as cited in McLeod (2007). He also gives three different types of language that include: social speech which people use to interact with others, private speech which is used for intellectual function and silent inner speech which is usually used by children from the age of seven.

Boyse and Du Plessis (2014) revisited the cognitive dimension of Bloom's taxonomy and found six skills that play a crucial role in cognitive theory. The six skills comprise: remember, understand, apply, analyze, evaluate and create. Remembering: The ability to recall and recognize information, understand: making meaning out of reading materials. This also includes the ability to interpret, giving practical examples, classifying, summarizing important points, inferring and giving appropriate explanation, Application: The ability to apply or use strategies and procedures that have been learned, Analyse: The ability to break down information into smaller chunks, Evaluate: The ability to check, criticize and give informed decisions and opinions and Create: the ability to create, plan and produce meaningful activities. Cognitive theories put an emphasis on the role of mental processes in the development systems of knowledge. The manifestation of this knowledge can be seen in automatic skills.

McLaughlin (1987), as cited in Lightbown and Spada (1993), states that in cognitive theories, language learners are perceived as active, constructive and organised. The learner processes information, actively sees the way second language system works and practice them until they become automated skills. Skinner (1957), a proponent of behaviourism, does not agree with the cognitive theorists and claims that language acquisition can only take place through observable outputs. He claims that speech is a behaviour that an individual can learn by talking to other people and imitating them. According to Skinner, parents reinforce and shape their children's

language acquisition positively and negatively. Parents correct mistakes and help their children to practice their language skills. In this study I will include social strategies which look at the way language learners ask questions to get clarification, verification and correction, the way they cooperate with other people who are already proficient users of the second language and the way they contend with different cultures and feelings in the society where the target language is used.

3.3 Constructivism Theory

Good and Brophy (1994), as cited in Cooperstein, Kocevar and Wiedinger (2004), mention four aspects of constructivism that are widely used and recognized. Learners construct their own meaning, new learning builds on prior knowledge, learning is enhanced by social learning and meaningful learning develops through authentic tasks. According to Vygotsky (1978), constructivism is defined as a belief about what knowing is and how individuals come to know. Rafai and Resnick (1996) agree with Good and Brophy and state that constructivists refer to the subject as a builder of knowledge, not a passive receiver, but an active constructor. Richards and Schmidt (2010) argue that constructivism theory is based on the belief that learners actively construct knowledge, that cognition is an adaptive process that organizes the learner's experiential world and that all knowledge is socially constructed. They further add that people learn to internalize knowledge and see the world through the process of reorganization and reconstruction.

In this theory, teachers learn to make sense of the classrooms, they are responsible for and take the position of a thoughtful practitioner. This study will attempt to look at the role this theory plays in language strategies, learner beliefs, teacher thinking and other important features that individual learners use to construct knowledge.

Bruner (1986) states that constructivism puts more emphasis on prior knowledge of what we see from our communications with the environment. Constructivists maintain that there is a strong relationship between the individual that knows something and the thing that is known to the individual. Brown (2007) stresses that, both the learners' role to construct their own meaning out of available linguistic input, and the importance of social interaction in creating a new linguistic system, should be the focal point. According to Bruner (1986), the theory of constructivism should deal with three major aspects: predisposition toward learning, the way a body of knowledge can be structured, so that it can be understood by the learner, the most effective sequences to present material and the nature and pacing of rewards and punishments.

Driscoll (2000) presents three key concepts identified by Bruner that help individuals to interpret and present understanding: enactive representation, iconic representation and symbolic representation. Vygotsky focused more on the dialectic between the individual and society and the effect of social interaction, language and culture on learning. He claims that learning is progressive and goes from the current level of the individual to a higher level. He refers to this process as the Zone of Proximal Development and maintains that human development and learning take place during social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). He supports his constructivism theory with three important aspects: a reliance on a genetic or developmental method, the claims that higher mental processes in the individual have their origin in social processes and mediation. A reliance on a genetic or developmental method: This process enables individuals to interact with others by using the complex mental function without any difficulties. It involves internalization and externalization. He claims that higher mental processes in individuals have their origin in social processes. Bruner, on the other hand, states that learning helps learners to construct new ideas that are based on the knowledge that they have. However, constructivists do not approve of the fact that an individual teacher can transfer meaning to the learners by using symbols or transmission, they do not support the idea that

learners can copy the way a teacher does things and uses information in their own learning and they do not believe that knowledge can be identified.(personal.psu.edu/wxh139/construct.htm).

Foster (2006) argues that constructivism enables people to construct their own meaning and reality by making an interpretation of various phenomena. Gilbert (2010) further adds that during this process, the learner takes charge of his/her learning. He/she interacts with the problem in order to find meaning and value. The theory reduces the role of a teacher to that of a facilitator, in that, the teacher guides the learner to find meaning by themselves. The vital point is that learners learn to organize information so that it can make sense to them, according to Gilbert (2010). Piaget (1953) states that learners must be active in cognitively constructing their own meaning and process information. He argues that a learner uses prior knowledge to construct meaning that is sensible. Constructivists assert that learning is individualized, social and takes place within a particular context and the acquisition of knowledge is attained by the active construction of meaning (Nieman & Monyai, 2006).

Henson (2004) says that by constructing their own meaning, learners learn to question their understanding and learn to discover new knowledge. Martin (1998) gives five examples of constructivism and this includes: Trivial or Personal: This type says that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, not passively received from the environment, Radical: Coming to know is a process of dynamic adaptation towards viable interpretations of experience. The knower does not discover truth about the real world, Social: Individuals participate in the learning of a collective, sometimes with what is learned distributed throughout the collective more than in the mind of any one individual, Cultural: The ways in which individuals think are affected by the tools, artefacts and symbolic systems used to facilitate social and cultural interaction and Critical: Myths that keep individuals from being empowered should be made visible and hence open to question. Constructivism can be divided into two branches. Cognitive

constructivism and social constructivism. Brown (2007) says that cognitive constructivism puts more emphasis on how learners construct their own representation of reality. They have to discover and transform difficult information; they play an active role in their learning (Brown, 2007).

Cognitive constructivism also focuses more on the way people make sense of the world around them (Niemam & Monyai, 2006). Piaget in Brown (2007) claims that learning is a developmental process that involves change, self-generation and construction, each building on prior learning experiences. He further focused on two elements of social constructivism which are assimilation and accommodation. He claims that assimilation occurs when a learner brings in new information or knowledge and adds it to the existing schema that is formed within the learner and accommodation occurs when a learner is forced to change the schema to adjust to new information that does not fit within the existing framework, (Gilbert, 2010). Borich and Tombari (1997) consider cognitive constructivism to be an approach to learning that gives learners a chance to make sense of what they are learning by building internal connections or relationships among the ideas and facts that are being taught. Social constructivism, on the other hand, puts more emphasis on social interaction and cooperative learning so that meaningful cognitive and emotional images of reality can be constructed (Brown, 2007).

Social constructivism encourages teachers to provide learners with various opportunities so that they can search, ask questions and construct subjective meaning. It enables learners to actively take part in various activities and reflect on their ways of learning and understanding different concepts. It also helps learners to be more independent and develop strong social relations. Powers-Collins (1994) argues that social constructivism is a social process that assists learners to get knowledge by interacting with their environment instead of solely relying on the teacher's lectures. Interaction is crucial when learning a language. Constructivists encourage

learners to talk to each other and teachers to interact with their learners to improve communication skills.

Vygotsky (1978) affirms that interaction plays a fundamental role in cognitive development. The construction of knowledge is formed by taking into account the learners' cultural groups and their unique experiences. Learning is unique because learners have different experiences and construct knowledge in a unique and subjective way. In his study on constructivism, Spivey (1997) found that, regarding constructivism, many researches put a greater emphasis on social practices, collaborative group and on a global community (Spikey in Brown, 2007). Kaufman (2004) agrees with Vygotsky that children's thinking and meaning making is socially constructed and comes out of environmental social interactions (Brown, 2007).

Constructivism theory is not of the view that an individual teacher can transfer meaning to learners by using symbols or transmission, it does not support the idea that learners can copy the way their teachers understand and use information in their own learning and finally it does not believe that knowledge can be identified. Nieman and Monyai (2006) assume that there are five factors that underlie the theory of constructivism: a) knowledge is constructed from experience b) learning is a personal interpretation of the world .c) Learning is an active process in which meaning is developed on the basis of experience d) conceptual growth comes from the negotiation of meaning) the sharing of multiple perspectives and the changing of our internal responses through collaborative learning and f) learning should be integrated with the task and not a separate activity. Learning a language from a constructivist point of view involves certain implications that need to be taken into account by the language teacher.

Gilbert (2010) argues that there are some key elements that should be mentioned in order for the theory of constructivism to be effectively applied in the classroom, this includes the student centred learning environment which is the most important element as it helps the

learners to discover and create meaning from the information, learning should be authentic, that the problem and situation must be contextualized. Newman and Wehlage (1993) suggest four elements that are crucial to authentic instruction: importance of conversation, higher-order thinking, connections to real problems and real world contexts and depth of understanding and, lastly, collaborative learning which brings learners into communities of knowledge where scaffolding can take place between participants and learners (Oxford, 1997). This study will look at the type of social strategies, similar to collaborative learning, that learners use in their language learning.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter looked at two theories and the way they can be used in classrooms; namely, cognitive theory, both in its cognitive social forms and the four most important elements that the teacher who is using a constructivism approach should take into account. Learners construct their own meaning, new learning builds on prior knowledge, learning is enhanced by social learning and meaningful learning develops through authentic tasks.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to give an outline of the methodology that was used in this study. It deals with the research design and methodology, sampling procedures, the instrument that was used to collect data and analysis methods, the limitation of the study as well as the ethical considerations. The three crucially important questions that were handled in this study were; what learning strategies do learners use in their second language learning? Do females use more language learning strategies than males? Do learners in model c schools use more strategies than learners in township schools?

4.2 Research Methodology

Rajasecar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2013) make a distinction between research methods and research methodology. They state that research methods involve all the different techniques that are employed in research studies. These techniques are usually carefully planned and require the use of various processes, including numerical and experimental procedures. The collection of samples and the data to be analysed is facilitated by the use of efficient methods. Rajasecar et al (2013) further explains that research methodology, on the other hand, is an organized way of finding answers to problems. It guides the researcher to carry out well-organized plan for the research.

4.3 Research Approach

4.3.1 Quantitative Research Approach

Burns & Grove (1987) describe quantitative methodology as an approach that uses numerical description and investigates these numbers by using statistics in a fair and objective manner. Creswell (1994), as cited in De Vos et al (2011), on the other hand, defines quantitative research as an investigation into social or human issues which is grounded on testing a hypothesis made up of variables, measured with numbers and investigated statistically so as to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory are correct. Blanche (2006) states that quantitative research is sort of research that uses a series of prearranged categories that is exemplified in measures that are quantitatively uniform.

Walliman (2006) authenticates that quantitative research approach relies on gathering numerical data and usually processes these data by using mathematical procedures. Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) assert that the primary objective of quantitative research is to explain the relationships between variables.

De vos et al (2011) add that in quantitative methods researchers isolate the variables under study, employ standardized processes to collect numerical data and reach meaningful conclusions by using statistical procedures. Quantitative research also allows researchers to compare quite big numbers of things or people by using a relatively easy index (Litosseliti, 2010). Creswell (2014) points out two critical methods that can be used in quantitative study to identify a sample and population, namely, survey and experimental methods. This study used quantitative research methodology to analyse data. The reason why the researcher chose this approach is that it puts more stress on gathering and analyzing information in the form of

numbers and gathering scores that measure distinct characteristics of people and organizations and on the methods of comparing groups or relating factors about individuals.

4.4 Research Design

Blanche and Durrheim (1999) describe a research design as a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge that is between research questions and the execution or the implementation of the research. Kumar (2005) agrees to this by postulating that a research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation that is used to answer research questions or problems validly, objectively and precisely.

Monette, Sullivan and De Jong in De Vos (2011), on the other hand, state that a research design should portray how the researcher will embark on the project to be carried out and mention the way observations will be done. Babbie, in De Vos (2011), adds that a research design involves decision-making with reference to what topic should be investigated, the population from which a sample will be drawn and eventually the purpose of the research topic. Babbie further claims that the research design should put more accentuation principally on the result including the steps that should be taken so that the expected outcome can be accomplished effectively.

Punch (2006) states that a research design should incorporate five key questions that a researcher has to look into, particularly, the strategy that will be followed, and the structure from which the data will be collected, the technique that will be utilised to collect data and how the data will be dissected.

The goal of the current study was to find the types of language learning strategies that learners in high schools use to learn a language. The study furthermore used quantitative methodology

and the strategy inventory for language learning to collect data. The researcher used the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to analyse the data that were collected.

4.5 Population

Richards and Schmidt (2010) refer to population as any set of items, individuals and objects that share some collective and noticeable characteristics and from which a sample can be taken. Walliman (2006) states that a population is a term that is used collectively to explain the total quantity of objects or individuals in a particular study or research. This study was conducted in two different high schools both of them coeducational and the target population consisted of 150 learners altogether. This population was manageable and comprised high school learners ranging between 16 to 18 years of age. This is the number that was available and committed to participate in the current study.



4.6 Sampling

Sapsford and Jupp (2006) define sampling as a set of elements selected from a population whose goal is to generate reliable and consistent estimates of the represented population. Richards and Schmidt (2010) then again describe sampling as any group of individuals that is selected to represent a population. The selection of individuals can be done randomly or by using a stratified sample (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

Creswell (2014) uses the term sampling to indicate individuals who have equal probability or independent chance of being selected from the whole population and involves decision-making in terms of which people to examine. Kumar (2005) simply refers to it as a part of the population that has been selected to represent the entire population. Walliman (2006) classifies two types of samples fundamentally; probability and non-probability samples. Probability samples use random methodologies to select a sample and are further divided into three

subcategories; simple random sample, stratified random sample and cluster sample. Non-probability sample is based on non-random selection. It is divided into three subcategories; convenience sample, judgment sample and quota sample.

The researcher in this study used a simple random sample purely because, according to Kumar (2005), this is a method that gives each individual of the population a known and equal chance of being selected. The most noteworthy point with respect to sampling is that the researcher should check that the size is sufficiently big enough and representative of the entire population to empower him to make precise estimates (Kumar, 2005).

An aggregate number of 150 participants attending selected East London high schools were randomly selected and sampled in this study. This involved 75 learners from the urban school and 75 learners from the township school studying English as a second language. Out of the 150 learners that were selected, 75 were male and 75 were female and their ages extended from 16 to 18 years old. They were given questionnaires that are based on the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) because, according to Ellis (1994), it is possibly the most comprehensive tool that has been widely used in terms of classification of language learning strategies. The researcher also used questionnaires simply because they are also designed to measure the characteristics of the population with statistical precision (Sukamolson, 2007). As indicated by Kumar (2005), a questionnaire should consist of a number of questions that respondents have to answer and write down the answers on their own. The questionnaires in this study consisted of 50 questions that each participant had to answer honestly.

4.7 Location

The study was conducted in the city of East London, South Africa. East London is a city which is located on the Southeast of South Africa. It is situated in the Buffalo City Metropolitan

Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province. It has a population of more than 267,000. The majority of the people are black Africans, Xhosa is the main language, followed by Afrikaans and English.

The study involved two high schools from two distinctive locations; one urban school and one township school. The greater part of the members in the township high school originated from the same first language background, Xhosa which is widely spoken by the majority of learners, whereas in the urban school, learners came from different first language background.

4.8 Data Collection Procedures



The researcher obtained a letter from the University of Fort Hare to request permission to collect data from the two schools in East London. The researcher applied to the Department of Education to seek permission to conduct the research. One of the schools where the research was conducted was at the school where the researcher works. This school was chosen because it was easy to obtain consent from the principal. It was additionally convenient because the researcher did not have to request special leave from work.

The researcher made special arrangements with the relevant English teachers. In one school 20 questionnaires were given to 20 Grade 10s, 20 questionnaires to 10 Grade 11s and 35 questionnaires to 25 Grade 12s. The same procedure was followed in the township school. The researcher clarified everything that the students did not understand before they started filling in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). Participants were reassured that their responses to the questionnaires would be treated with the strictest confidentiality and that they would be utilised for research purposes only. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires in 40 minutes and were told that they were no right or wrong answers.

4.9 Instrument for Data Collection Methods

The researcher used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning questionnaires (SILL) that was administered to all 150 learners and was used as a primary tool in this study to collect data. This instrument is readily available on the internet for public use. It was piloted first to determine its validity before it was administered to all the participants. The reason why the researcher used this instrument was because, according to Foddy (1994), a questionnaire is an instrument that comprises a number of questions that allow the researcher to collect information from participants. Babbie (2007), as cited in De vos et al (2011), adds that a questionnaire is a document that contains questions and various other items which are intended to request information that is appropriate for analysis. According to Walliman (2006), questionnaires are fast, easy and do not need any specific writing skills.

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The researcher in this study used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning to find the strategies that were used by language learners. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning is divided into six categories; memory, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Learners were told that it was not a test and there were no right or wrong answers. The questions that the strategy inventory for language learning strategy contains was based on a choice of five Likert-scale responses, ranging from 1 to 5 .A range of 3.5-5 reflects high use of that particular strategy, 2.5-3.4 medium use, and 1.0-2.4 low use (Oxford,1990). Learners responded to each strategy with: 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.

4.10 Reliability and Validity of Data Collection Instrument

Salkind (2006), cited in De vos et al (2011), describes reliability as something that is dependable, consistent, stable, trustworthy, predictable and faithful. He additionally maintains that for reliability to take place an instrument needs to measure the same item more than once and produce indistinguishable or nearly identical measurements. Reliability could likewise be defined as the stability of a measure, the degree to which scores do not change over a relatively short time (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). Walliman (2006), on the other hand' points out that the degree of reliability to the results of research should be repeatable and that the measure must be stable after some time. The researcher decided to use the Strategy Inventory for language Learning because its Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient ranges from 0.89 to 0.98 in many different studies.



According to Babbie, in De Vos et al (2011), validity is defined as the degree to which an empirical measure sufficiently reflects the real significance of the concept under consideration. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) claim that the validity of a measurement instrument should measure what it is supposed to measure. Walliman (2006) alludes to validity as the extent to which the research findings are genuine and characterises them into three categories; measurement validity which is the degree to which measures successfully indicate concepts, internal validity which is the extent to which causal statements are supported by the study and external validity which is the extent to which findings can be generated to populations or other settings.

In quantitative research, there are three main forms of validity; content validity is used to ensure that the items measure the content they were anticipated to measure. Blanche and Durrheim (1999) state that content validity is crucially significant for tests of knowledge and should ensure that everything that has been covered in a lesson is adequately represented in the exam. Criterion validity is used to compare the measure with another measure of the same

construct and should make certain that scores predict a criterion measure. Construct validity is used to find out if the items measure hypothetical constructs (Creswell, 2014). Construct validity comprises three fundamental steps, particularly, the specification of a set of theoretical relationships that are between different constructs, test hypothesis empirically and understand the pattern of relationships (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This study used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to analyse data. According to Kavasoglu (2009), the SILL is an instrument that has been tested for reliability and validity in multiple ways.

4.11 Data Analysis

The researcher used the strategy inventory for language learning strategies (SILL) to identify the type of strategies that learners use. The criteria that were used to assess the frequency of strategy use were centred on the 5-point Likert scale. Descriptive statistics was employed to check how often a particular language learning strategy was used. Data was also sent to a statistician who knows how to use the SPSS (The statistical package for social sciences) to analyze frequencies, standard deviation and mean as well as the ANOVA (analysis of variance) to investigate the various strategies that were used by learners in their second language learning. The researcher also made use of the two-way repeated measure ANOVA together with a post hoc comparison test to investigate the way participants employ various strategies.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Babbie, as cited in De vos et al (2011), describes ethics as the preferences that influence performance in human relationships, in compliance to a code of principles, the guidelines of conduct, the accountability of the researcher and the criteria of a given profession. In this study, the researcher strictly adhered to the University ethical guidelines to ensure the privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of all the respondents who participated in the study. Privacy is

referred to as that which is not intended for other people to observe or analyse and confidentiality is described as the extension of privacy (De Vos et al, 2011). Therefore, it is vitally important that researchers protect the identity and confidentiality of participants.

Permission was requested and obtained from the principals of the two different schools that were selected in East London. All participants were sufficiently informed of the purpose and nature of the study and the type of information the researcher wanted to obtain from them. They were told that their responses would be treated with confidentiality and that they would be used for research purposes only and their anonymity was safeguarded. The researcher also identified the learners who were under the age of 18, with the assistance of the two principals; they were given permission by their parents before the study was conducted.

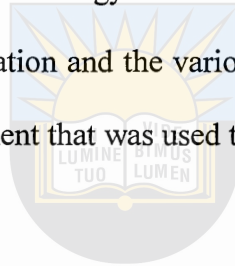
The researcher followed all the ethical guidelines regarding trustworthiness, honesty and integrity. Respondents were assured that the researcher would not reveal any information that might lead to their identification and that their names would not be published or used for any other purposes. Rubin and Babbie (2005) as cited in De vos (2011), say that participation in any study or research should always be voluntary and no participants should be forced to take part in a research. In this research, the respondents' participation was voluntary, there were not under any pressure to fill in the questionnaires, their decisions were respected and they were free to withdraw at any stage.

They were also ensured that no harm would be inflicted on them during their entire participation. Creswell (2003), as quoted in De Vos et al (2011), adds that the researcher's ethical obligation is to make sure that participants are protected from any form of physical and emotional discomfort that may arise while conducting an investigation. Furthermore, the researcher did not use any deception to mislead or withhold any information from participants. The researcher ensured that he did not get emotionally or sexually involved with respondents,

break the law, and invent information or any kind of misrepresentation of himself (Guthrie, 2010).

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the research methodology that was chosen in this study. It looked at the definition of research methodology. Secondly, it looked at the location where the study was conducted, the description of quantitative research methodology and the reason the researcher adopted the quantitative research methodology. The chapter, furthermore, looked at the research design, the definition of population and the various ways of collecting data including the reliability and validity of the instrument that was used to data collection.



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CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS, DISCUSSIONS AND FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter concentrated on the research design and methodology that is used in this study and this chapter focuses on the analysis, discussion of data and findings. In this chapter the researcher also looks at the three research questions individually as well as the types of learning strategies that both urban school learners and township school learners use in their second language learning. The researcher's main objective was to see if the findings showed that urban learners used more learning strategies than township learners and also to find out if female learners used more strategies to learn a language than their male counterparts. Specifically, the researcher sought to answer the following research questions:

- What learning strategies do learners use in their second language learning?
- Do learners in urban schools use more strategies than learners in township schools?
- Do female learners use more language learning strategies than male learners?

The researcher used the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning strategies that was designed by Oxford (1990) for data collection in order to be able to answer the following research questions. The inventory consisted of 30 questions that were grouped into five categories as follows; memory strategies (1-5), cognitive strategies (6-10), compensation strategies (11--15), metacognitive strategies (16-20), affective strategies (22-25) and social strategies (26-30). All the participants were asked to read each statement on the questionnaire and respond to the questions using a 5 Likert scale below and write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells how true the statement was to them.

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.

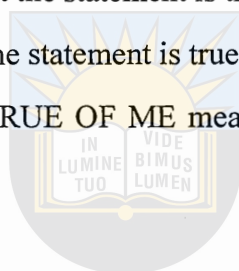
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

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 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.



5.2 Research Question 1

University of Fort Hare

The first research question sought to know the learning strategies that second language learners use. Therefore, Figure 1 below presents the different learning strategies, questions, responses and percentages of all the participants in both urban and township schools. The results in figure 1 reveal that the learners reported high use of metacognitive strategies (56%). Metacognitive strategies involve the centering of learning, arranging and planning and evaluating their learning. It helps learners to coordinate their progression of learning. This was followed by cognitive strategies (54%). The cognitive strategy involves practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing, reasoning and creating structures for input and output. The compensation strategies were in the third position as far as the frequent use of strategies is concerned (46%). This strategy involves guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

The affective strategy and the social strategies tallied at position number four. The learners indicated a similar use for both strategies (43%). The affective strategy involves taking

emotional temperatures, learners’ ability to encourage themselves and learn how to lower anxieties. On the other hand, the social strategy deals with the ability of learners to ask questions; cooperate with other students and show empathy. The findings also showed that all learners showed the least use of memory strategies (36%). In memory strategies, learners create mental linkages, they apply images and sounds, they review well their lessons and they also employ actions.

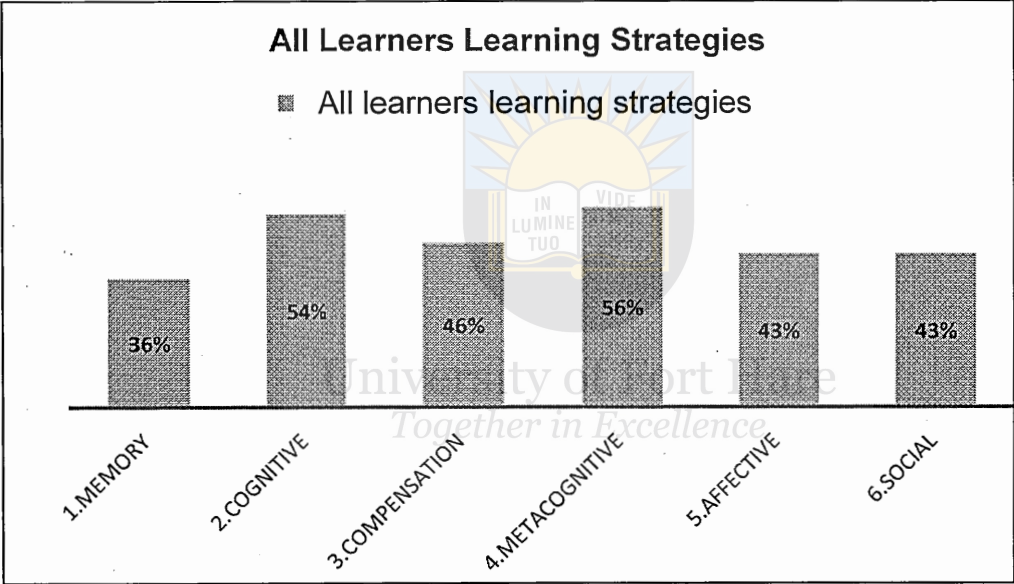


Figure 1: All Learner's Learning Strategies

5.3 Research Question 2

The focus of the second research question is on the language learning strategy use between urban and township learners. To this end, the language strategies used by these two groups were compared so as to establish if one group was using more strategies than the other. Tables 1 to 30 below present the different learning strategies, questions, responses and percentages of all the participants in both urban and township schools. The researcher used the questions and statements as they appear under each category on the questionnaire in order to answer research question 2.

5.3.1 Memory Strategies

Question 1: I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.

Table 1: Thinking of Relationships

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	13	17	7	9
Usually not true of me	12	16	15	20
Somewhat true of me	13	17	12	16
Usually true of me	21	28	32	43
Always or almost true of me	16	21	9	12
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 1 reveal that 28% of urban learners responded to the statement usually true of me, meaning that they think that there is a relationship between what they already know and new things that they learn in English. Only 16% of urban learners feel that it is not true of them, which means that they do not think that there is a relationship between what they already know and the new things they learn in English. On the other hand, 43% of township learners felt that it is usually true of them, meaning that they also felt that there is a relationship between what they already know and new things they learn. At the same time, 9% of township learners do not think that there is a relationship between what they already know and new things they learn.

The highest percentages of both township and urban learners see the relationship between what they already know and new things they learn in English. One of the reasons why there is no difference is that both township and urban learners are exposed to technology, such as television, which helps them to see this relationship and these could be the learners that are

proficient in English. The lowest percentages for both urban and township, which is 16% and 9%, respectively, are those who do not feel that the relationship exists. This could be the students who are not exposed to technology and maybe are not proficient in English.

Question 2: I use English words in a sentence so I can remember them.

Table 2: Using English Words in a Sentence.

Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	11	15	7	9
Usually not true of me	13	17	13	17
Somewhat true of me	18	24	11	15
Usually true of me	21	28	21	28
Always or almost true of me	12	16	23	31
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 2 show that the biggest number of urban learners, 28%, selected the category usually true of me, this means that they use English words in sentences so that they can remember them and the lowest number, 15%, chose the statement never or almost never true of me, which shows that they do not use this strategy to help them remember English words. At the same time, the highest percentage (31%) in the township school responded to the statement, always or almost true of me, that is, they use English words in sentences so that they can remember them, these could be learners that are used to making sentences in English. The lowest number (9%) came from learners that selected the category never or almost never true of me which confirms that they do not use this strategy to help them remember English words.

It is apparent from table 2 that the biggest number of learners in both urban and township schools uses English words in sentences so that they can remember them and the lowest percentages for both urban and township schools which is 15% and 9% are learners who do not

use words in different sentences in order to remember them. These learners might be the ones that find it difficult to construct sentences in English.

Question 3: I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or a picture of the word to help me remember the word.

Table 3: Connecting the Sound of a New English Word and an Image.

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	20	27	6	8
Usually not true of me	16	21	8	11
Somewhat true of me	18	24	22	29
Usually true of me	15	20	21	28
Always or almost true of me	6	8	18	24
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 3 reveal that the highest percentage (27%) of urban school learners responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which clearly shows that they do not connect the sound of a new English word and an image or a picture of the word to help them remember the words and the lowest percentage (8%) of urban learners chose the category always or almost true of me, which means that they use this strategy to help them remember words. At the same time, the highest percentage (29%) of township school learners positively responded to the statement somewhat true of me, that is, they partially agree that they connect the sounds of new English words and images or pictures to help them recall words and the lowest number (8%) chose the category never or almost never true of me, which means that they hardly ever use this strategy in their language learning. The results, as seen in the table above, indicate that there is a difference in terms of using this strategy between the two groups of learners.

The highest percentage of the urban school does not connect the sound of new English words to images or pictures in order for them to remember words that they have learned, on the other hand, the highest percentage in the township school say that they somewhat connect the sounds of English words and images to help them remember the words that they have learned in English. This could be images they see on TV or sounds that they hear around them.

Question 4: I review English lessons often.

Table 4 : Reviewing English Lessons Often

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	27	36	4	5
Usually not true of me	21	28	9	12
Somewhat true of me	14	19	12	16
Usually true of me	8	11	30	40
Always or almost true of me	5	7	20	27
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 4 reveal that the highest number (36%) of urban school learners responded to the statement never or almost never true of me, which means that they do not review their English lessons and the lowest number (7%) of urban learners selected the category always or almost true of me, that is, they have the habit of revising their English lessons. In contrast, the biggest percentage (40%) of township learners say that they review their English lessons because they chose the category usually true of me and the lowest percentage (5%) came from learners that do not use the strategy of reviewing lessons, they selected the statement never or almost never true of me. As shown in the table above, (40%) of township learners review English lessons quite often, whereas 36% of urban learners do not review their English lesson. The lowest percentage at the urban school reviews its English lessons; whereas, the lowest

percentage in the township school do not use the strategy of reviewing lessons. The reason could be that township learners do not have time to go through their notes and revise their work whilst some urban learners have set aside time to review what they have learned in class.

Question 5: I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Table 5: Remembering New English Words or Phrases.

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	18	24	9	12
Usually not true of me	8	11	11	15
Somewhat true of me	12	16	13	17
Usually true of me	18	24	29	39
Always or almost true of me	19	25	13	17
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 5 show that the biggest percentage (25%) of urban learners responded to the statement always or almost true of me, they remember the location of new English words on pages, boards and street signs. The lowest percentage (11%) in urban school was from learners that selected the category usually not true of me, which means that these learners do not use this strategy. The highest percentage (39%) in township school was from learners that selected the statement usually true of me, they remember new English words by locating them on the page, on the board, or on a street sign, whereas the lowest percentage (12%) responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do not use the strategy of locating words. As follows from the figures shown above, it was found that the highest percentages in both schools use this strategy. This might be because they like paying attention to details and like reading what is written on boards and pages, whereas the lowest percentages do not use this strategy to help them remember new words.

5.3.2 Cognitive Strategies

Question 6: I say or write new English words several times.

Table 6: Writing New English Words Several Times.

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	15	20	11	15
Usually not true of me	14	19	8	11
Somewhat true of me	19	25	17	23
Usually true of me	11	15	23	31
Always or almost true of me	16	21	16	21
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 6 reveal that the highest percentage (25%) of urban learners responded to the statement somewhat true of me, this shows that they say or write new English words many times to a certain extent and the lowest number (15%) selected the category usually true of me, these learners say or write new English words several times. On the other hand, in the township school the biggest percentage (31%) responded to the category usually true of me which means that they also write new English words many times and the lowest percentage (11%) was from those that selected the category usually not true of me, these learners do not utilise this strategy in their language learning. The overall measurement results summarised above show that the biggest number of township learners chooses to write new English words a number of times so that they do not forget them and the biggest number in the urban school only uses this strategy to a certain degree. This strategy usually helps second language learners master the pronunciations and sounds of many English words. It was also found that the lowest number of learners in the township school does not use this strategy, but the lowest number in the urban school makes use of this strategy.

Question 7: I try to talk like native English speakers.

Table 7: Talk Like Native English Speakers

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	18	24	7	9
Usually not true of me	8	11	8	11
Somewhat true of me	15	20	12	16
Usually true of me	18	24	32	43
Always or almost true of me	16	21	16	21
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 7 show that the biggest number of learners (24%) in urban school came from both learners that responded to the statements never or almost never true of me which means that they do not try to talk like native speakers and the other 24% responded to the statement usually true of me which means that these learners try to imitate the way native speakers talk and the lowest percentage (11%) in urban school selected the statement usually not true of me, these learners hardly try to talk like native speakers. The highest percentage (43%) in township school was from learners that indicated that they try to talk like natives speakers because they chose the category usually true of me and the lowest number (9%) chose the category never or almost never true of me, these learners do not try to imitate native speakers. It has been found that the highest percentage in both schools like to talk like native speakers. This could be because many learners watch many British and American movies, news and comedies. It was also found that the lowest percentage in both schools do not try to talk like native speakers, this might be due to the fact that many of these learners feel that they want to keep their African accent and are proud of it.

Question 8: I watch English language TV shows or go to the movies spoken in English.

Table 8: Watching TV and Movies in English Language

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	0	0	4	5
Usually not true of me	2	3	2	3
Somewhat true of me	4	5	8	11
Usually true of me	10	13	23	31
Always or almost true of me	59	79	38	51
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 8 reveal that the highest percentage in the urban school (79%) was from learners that responded to the statement always or almost true of me which means that they watch English talk shows on TV and go to the movies that are spoken in English and the lowest number 3% was from learners that selected the category usually not true of me, these learners do not use this strategy. At the same time, the biggest number (51%) of township learners responded to the statement always or almost true of me, which means that they watch English programs in English and go to the movies that are made in English and the lowest percentage (3%) in township school selected the statement usually not true of me this clearly shows that these group of learners do not use this strategy. As can be observed from the table above, it has been reported that the highest percentages in both urban and township learners watch programs on TV that are broadcast in English. This could be because many learners have easy access to TV and live closer to movie houses.

These programmes help learners improve and become more fluent in English. On the other hand, both the lowest percentages in township and urban schools do not make use of this strategy in their language learning.

Question 9: I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.

Table 9: Writing Notes, Letters and Reports in English

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	2	3	1	1
Usually not true of me	1	1	8	11
Somewhat true of me	4	5	9	12
Usually true of me	10	13	18	24
Always or almost true of me	58	77	39	52
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 9 show that the highest percentage (77%) of urban learners responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that they write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English and the lowest number (1%) came from those that selected the category usually not true of me which confirms that they do not write notes, messages, letters or reports in English. In contrast, the biggest number (52%) of township learners selected the statement always or almost true of me also shows that they use this strategy extensively. The greatest number (52%) of township learners chose the statement always or almost true of me and the lowest percentage in the township school (1%) was from learners who responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that these learners do not use this strategy in their English language learning. From the table above, it can be seen that the highest percentages of both urban and township learners enjoy writing in English. This strategy helps learners to use the words that they have learned to write messages and letters to their friends.

Learners who write extensively are likely to get good marks in English compositions and essays. The results also reveal that the lowest percentages in both urban and township schools

do not practice the strategy of writing messages, notes and messages. This could be attributed to the fact that many of them show little or no interest in writing in second language.

Question 10: I try to translate word-for-word.

Table 10: Translating English Words

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	8	11	13	17
Usually not true of me	15	20	21	28
Somewhat true of me	20	27	22	29
Usually true of me	14	19	12	16
Always or almost true of me	18	24	7	9
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 10 confirm that the biggest number (27%) of urban learners responded to the statement somewhat true of me which shows that they try to translate word for word to a certain degree and the lowest number (11%) chose the category never or almost never true of me, which clearly proves that they do the translation of words. The biggest number (29%) of township learners selected the option somewhat true of me which explains that they also try to translate words to a certain extent and the lowest percentage (9%) in the township school came from those that selected the statement always or almost true of me which provides evidence that they translate word for word in English language learning.

Based on the results in table 10, it was found that the biggest number of learners in both urban and township schools somewhat translate English words so that they can easily understand them but there is a difference between the lowest percentages in both schools which shows that township learners prefer to translate words in English whereas urban learners do not do the

translations of English words. This might be because urban learners are exposed to the English language on a daily basis whereas township learners are not.

5.3.3 Compensation Strategies

Question 11: To understand unfamiliar words, I make guesses.

Table 11: Understand Unfamiliar Concepts

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	5	7	11	15
Usually not true of me	14	19	15	20
Somewhat true of me	10	13	23	31
Usually true of me	24	32	17	23
Always or almost true of me	22	29	9	12
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 11 show that the biggest number (32%) of learners in the urban school chose the option usually true of me which shows that, for them to understand unfamiliar words, they make guesses and the lowest number (7%) was from learners that responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that they do not make guesses to understand words that are new to them. The greatest number of learners (31%) in the township school responded to the statement somewhat true of me which reveals that they use this strategy to a certain degree and the lowest number (12%) selected the statement always or almost true of me which explains that they make guesses to understand unknown words. The results thus obtained indicate that the biggest number in both schools more or less make guesses every time they come across words that they have never seen or heard before in the English language. Some learners might have heard words that are similar to the ones that are totally new to them and try to make a guess.

The lowest percentages in both schools reveal that learners in the township school make use of this strategy widely by making guesses to understand new words as they are not exposed to the English language every day and urban learners do not use this strategy because they might be familiar with most of the new English words they learn in class.

Question 12: When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.

Table 12: Using Gestures

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	10	13	7	9
Usually not true of me	7	9	10	13
Somewhat true of me	20	27	22	29
Usually true of me	13	17	19	25
Always or almost true of me	25	33	17	23
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 12 reveal that the highest percentage (33%) in urban school responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that they make gestures when they cannot think of a word during a conversation in English and the lowest number (9%) was from those that responded to the statement usually not true of me which means that they do not use this strategy which could be a sign that they are fluent in English. The biggest number (29%) of township learners chose the option somewhat true of me which means that they use gestures during a conversation to a certain degree and the lowest percentage (9%) selected the statement never or almost never true of me which clearly shows that they do not use this strategy. As can be seen in the table above, it was found that the biggest numbers in both urban and township schools more or less use gestures when they do not have the right words to use in conversations. These gestures help the listeners to fill in the blanks and possibly guess what the

speaker intended to say and the lowest percentages in both schools do not use gestures as this could be an indication that they speak English confidently.

Question 13: I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.

Table 13: New English Words

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	31	41	18	24
Usually not true of me	17	23	13	17
Somewhat true of me	12	16	12	16
Usually true of me	7	9	23	31
Always or almost true of me	8	11	9	12
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 13 reveal that the biggest number (41%) of urban learners responded to the statement never or almost never true of me, which shows that they do not make new words if they do not know the right ones in English and the lowest number (9%) in the urban school selected the option usually true of me which means that if they make up new words if they cannot think of the right one in English. In the township school, the highest percentage (31%) came from learners that chose the category usually true of me which confirms that they use this strategy in their language learning and the lowest number (12%) of learners in the township school responded to the statement always or almost true of me which means that they also make up words if they do not have the right ones to use in English. As shown in the table above, it was found that the biggest number of learners in the urban school do not make up words whereas the biggest number in township school does.

The reason why township learners make up words could be because they desperately want to be better English speakers as opposed to many urban learners who are already proficient in the language. The lowest numbers in both schools make up new words in English when they do not have the correct ones. This shows that they desperately want to interact with their friends and make themselves clear.

Question 14: I read English without looking up every new word.

Table 14: Read English Words

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	3	4	13	17
Usually not true of me	12	16	20	27
Somewhat true of me	11	15	18	24
Usually true of me	19	25	14	19
Always or almost true of me	30	40	10	13
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 14 show that the highest percentage (40%) of learners in the urban school selected the statement always or almost true of me, which shows that they read English without using a dictionary and the lowest percentage (4%) was from those that responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they always look up words in a dictionary when they read English. The highest percentage (27%) of learners in the township school came from learners that selected the category usually not true of me, which confirms that they look up words every time they read in English and the lowest number (13%) responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that they do not look up words when they read. As can be seen in the table above, the biggest number of learners in the urban school read English without using the dictionary. This strategy may be a good idea for

learners to improve their comprehension skills and the ability to understand difficult terminologies.

The biggest numbers in the township school use this strategy probably because many of them are not regular readers therefore there are many English words that they do not understand. The lowest percentage in the urban school look up words when they read and the lowest number of township learners does look up words in the dictionary every time they read. This is probably to ensure that they understand everything that they are reading.

Question 15: If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

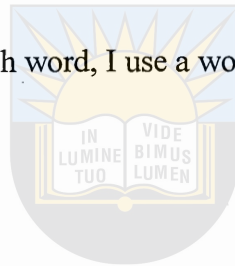
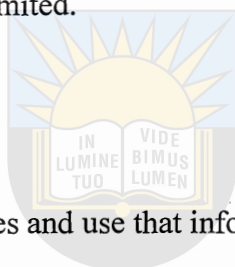


Table 15: Using of English Phrase

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	3	4	2	3
Usually not true of me	8	11	2	3
Somewhat true of me	6	8	12	16
Usually true of me	30	40	32	43
Always or almost true of me	28	37	27	36
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 15 demonstrate that the highest percentage (40%) of urban school learners responded to the option usually true of me which means that, if they cannot think of an English word, they use a word or phrase that means the same thing and the lowest number (4%) selected the category never or almost never true of me, which shows that they do not make use of this strategy. The biggest number (43%) of township learners chose the statement usually true of me which clearly confirms that they use a word or phrase that means the same thing if they do not have the right words in English and the lowest percentage (3%) came from both

learners that responded to the statements never or almost never true of me and usually not true of me, these learners obviously do not use this strategy in their English language learning. As can be seen in the table above, the biggest numbers in both urban and township schools use words that have the same meaning if they cannot think of the right words in English. The reason for this might be due to fact that some learners have a limited vocabulary and, consequently, they use words or phrases that may have similar meanings. The lowest numbers in both urban and township schools do not use this strategy simply because they read extensively and their vocabulary is not limited.



5.3.4 Metacognitive Strategies

Question 16: I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.

Table 16: Noticing Mistakes University of Fort Hare
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	Grade 10-12 learners			
Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	2	3	1	1
Usually not true of me	3	4	2	3
Somewhat true of me	11	15	5	7
Usually true of me	29	39	37	49
Always or almost true of me	30	40	30	40
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 16 establish that the greatest number (40%) of learners in the urban school responded to the statement always or almost true of me, which means that they notice their mistakes and use that information to help them better their English and the lowest number (3%) in the urban school was from learners who responded to the statement never or almost never true of me, that is to say, these learners do not use this strategy when they are learning English. The highest percentage (49%) in the township school, on the other hand, was from learners

who selected the statement usually true of me which means that they also notice their mistakes and use the information they get to help them better speak and write the English language and the lowest percentage (1%) came from learners that selected the statement never or almost never true of me, which confirms that that these learners do not use this strategy to learn from their mistakes. As can be seen in the table above, the highest percentage of both urban and township learners say that they learn from their mistakes.

Every time they make mistakes, their teachers and the people are around to correct them and they carry on with their learning. The lowest percentages in both urban and township schools prove that some learners do not approve of this strategy. This could be because they are not concerned about fixing the mistakes they make in English and learn from them.

Question 17: I pay attention when someone is speaking English.

Table 17: Learner Attention

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	5	7	2	3
Usually not true of me	8	11	3	4
Somewhat true of me	16	21	4	5
Usually true of me	20	27	31	41
Always or almost true of me	26	35	35	47
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings show that the biggest number (35%) of urban school learners chose the option always or almost true of me which suggests that they pay attention when someone is speaking English and the lowest number (7%) of urban school learners came from those who selected the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do not pay attention to the speaker. The highest percentage (47%) in the township school came from learners that

responded to the option always or almost true of me which confirms that they also pay attention to the speaker and the lowest number (3%) in the township school came from those who selected the category never or almost never true of me which proves that they do not pay attention when someone is speaking to them in the English language. As shown in the table above, the biggest numbers of both learners in urban and township schools pay particular attention to people who speak English to them. They pay attention because they want to understand what the speaker is saying so that they can improve their listening skills. The lowest percentages in both urban and township schools reveal that learners do not pay attention to their English speakers. This might be due to the fact that some learners have problems focusing and are easily distracted by what they see around them.

Question 18: I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.

Table 18: Good Learner

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	5	7	4	5
Usually not true of me	10	13	1	1
Somewhat true of me	23	31	12	16
Usually true of me	22	29	31	41
Always or almost true of me	15	20	27	36
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 18 reveal that the biggest number (31%) of learners in the urban school responded to the statement somewhat true of me which means that they try to find out how to be a better learner of English and the lowest percentage (7%) was from learners that selected the category never or almost never true of me which clearly shows that they do not want to become better learners of English. The highest percentage (41%) in the township school came from learners who responded to the statement usually true of me, which means that they also

try to find out how to be better learners of the English language and the lowest number (1%) came from learners that responded to the option usually not true of me which obviously shows that they do not make use of this strategy in their language learning. Based on the results that were found in the table above, learners in both schools want to be good learners of the English language. They use this strategy by reading English articles, listening to the news and talking to learners who are fluent in the target language whereas the lowest percentages in both schools do not want to be better learners of English.

Question 19: I look for people I can talk to in English.

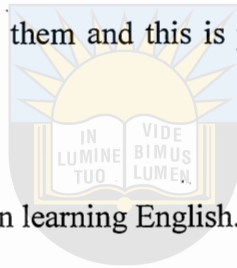
Table 19: Communicating in English with Others

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	22	29	5	7
Usually not true of me	23	31	9	12
Somewhat true of me	14	19	20	27
Usually true of me	9	12	26	35
Always or almost true of me	7	9	15	20
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 19 demonstrate that greatest number (31%) of learners in the urban school came from learners that selected the option usually not true of me, that is, these learners do not look for people they can talk to in English and the lowest percentage (9%) responded to the statement always or almost true of me which means that they look for people to talk to in English. The highest percentage (35%) came from township learners that chose the category usually true of me which clearly reveals that they talk to people who speak English fluently and the lowest percentage (7%) responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do not look for people who speak English so they can improve their English.

As can be seen from the table above, a large number of township learners look for people that are fluent in the English language so that they can talk to them as this strategy helps them to express themselves and use the new words and expressions they have learned in English, whereas the biggest number in the urban school do not use this strategy as many of them are in the same classes with native speakers.

The lowest percentage in both schools shows a discrepancy in that some urban learners look for native speakers so that they can talk to them whereas some township learners do not look for native speakers so that they can talk to them and this is probably because they do not go to school with them.



Question 20: I think about my progress in learning English.

Table 20: Progressing in English

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	11	15	4	5
Usually not true of me	13	17	3	4
Somewhat true of me	12	16	12	16
Usually true of me	24	32	26	35
Always or almost true of me	15	20	30	40
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 20 establish that the greatest number (32%) came from learners in the urban school that responded to the statement usually true of me which means that they think about their progress in learning English and the lowest number (15%) responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that they do not think about whether they are making progress or not. In the township school the highest percentage (40%) was from

learners that selected the statement always or almost true of me, that is, these learners think about their progress and the lowest number (4%) came from learners who responded to the statement usually not true of me which clearly confirms that they do not think about whether they are making any improvement in their language learning. As shown in the table above, the biggest number of learners in both urban and township schools are more concerned about their progress in English and they constantly think about it. This strategy helps them to check if they are making any improvement or not, whereas the lowest number of learners in both schools do not approve of this strategy. The reasons may be because they are happy with the achievement they have accomplished thus far or they are not interested in finding out if they are on the right track.

5.3.5 Affective Strategies

Question 21: I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.

Table 21: Afraid of Using English

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	19	25	3	4
Usually not true of me	9	12	4	5
Somewhat true of me	11	15	10	13
Usually true of me	15	20	31	41
Always or almost true of me	21	28	27	36
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 21 reveal that the biggest number (28%) of learners in the urban school selected the category always or almost true of me which means that they try to relax whenever they feel afraid of using English and the lowest percentage (12%) responded to the statement usually not true of me which shows that they panic and do not relax every time they speak

English with other people. The highest percentage (41%) in the township school chose the statement usually true of me which means that they also relax every time they use English and the lowest number (4%) responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that they do not try to relax during an English conversation, especially orals. It was found that the biggest number of learners in both township and urban schools try to relax every time they feel nervous or scared during an interaction with other individuals. This is probably because they have mastered the English language and are more comfortable to use it in any situation. The lowest percentages, on the other hand, feel that they panic and are nervous every time they find themselves situations that require them to use the English language.

Question 22: I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.

Table 22: Speaking English

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	10	13	2	3
Usually not true of me	7	9	6	8
Somewhat true of me	11	15	11	15
Usually true of me	23	31	36	48
Always or almost true of me	24	32	20	27
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 22 demonstrate that the greatest number (32%) of urban school learners responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that these learners encourage themselves to speak English, even when they are afraid of making mistakes, and the lowest number (9%) was from learners that responded to the statement usually not true of me which means that these learners give up easily, especially when they make mistakes in English. The highest percentage (48%) in the township school came from learners that selected the

option usually true of me which means that they do not give up when they make mistakes, they encourage themselves and carry on speaking or ask someone to correct them, and the lowest percentage (3%) was from learners that chose the statement never or almost never true of me, which shows that they do not encourage themselves and give up easily. It is apparent from the table above that the biggest numbers of both learners in urban and township schools do not stop speaking English even when they make mistakes. They do not mind people laughing or making fun of them, instead, they ignore their friends and proceed with their conversations. The lowest numbers in both schools give up easily every time they make mistakes in English. This could be because they do not want people to make fun of them or embarrass themselves.

Question 23: I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

Table 23: Nervous During English Class

Grade 10-12 Learners				
Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	27	36	4	5
Usually not true of me	14	19	12	16
Somewhat true of me	17	23	11	15
Usually true of me	9	12	28	37
Always or almost true of me	8	11	20	27
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 23 show that the biggest number (36%) of learners in the urban school selected the option never or almost never true of me which means that they do not notice if they are tense or nervous when they are studying English and the lowest percentage 11% responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that they notice when they are nervous. In the township school, the greatest number (37%) came from learners that selected the statement usually true of me which shows that they feel nervous when they are studying or

using English in different situations and the lowest percentage (5%) came from learners that responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do not feel tense every time they involved in different English activities. On the basis of the evidence currently available, it seems fair to say that (37%) of township learners feel tense when they are using the English language and (36%) of urban learners do not feel nervous; this could be due to the fact that they are used to speaking English on a daily basis. The lowest percentage in the urban school says that they feel tense when they use English, whereas township learners say that they do not feel tense or nervous because they desperately want to express themselves in the target language.

Question 24: I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.

Table 24: Language Learning Diary

Grade 10-12 Learners				
Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	61	81	9	12
Usually not true of me	3	4	16	21
Somewhat true of me	4	5	13	17
Usually true of me	4	5	23	31
Always or almost true of me	3	4	14	19
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 24 reveal that the greatest number (81%) of respondents from the urban school selected the statement never or almost never true of me; this means that they do not write down their feelings in a language learning diary and the lowest numbers (4%) came from both learners who responded to the statements usually true of me and always or almost true of me, which shows that they write down their feelings in a language learning diary. The biggest number (31%) of learners in the township chose the category usually true of me which means

that they use the diary to write their feelings down and the lowest percentage (12%) was from those that responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do not use this strategy. Based on the evidence in the table above, it seems fair to say that (81%) of urban learners do not write their feelings in the diary whereas the highest percentages in the township school write their feelings in a language learning diary. There is a contrast between the lowest percentages in both schools. Township learners say that they do not write their feelings in a diary whereas urban learners report the writing of feelings in the diary. This might be due to the fact that urban learners like keeping a record of the things they do and township learners show little or no interest in keeping a diary.

Question 25: I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Table 25: Talking about Learning English

Grade 10-12 Learners				
Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	56	75	8	11
Usually not true of me	7	9	20	27
Somewhat true of me	5	7	13	17
Usually true of me	3	4	14	19
Always or almost true of me	4	5	20	27
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 25 prove that the biggest number (75%) of learners in urban school selected the statement never or almost never true of me, which means that they talk to someone else about how they feel when they are learning English, and the lowest number (4%) came from learners that chose the statement usually true of me, which confirms that they do share their feelings with someone else about their experience in learning English. The highest percentage (27%) came from both learners in the township school that responded to the statements usually

not true of me, that is, they do not use this strategy and always or almost true of me which reveals that they do use this strategy and the lowest number (11%) responded to the category never or almost never true of me which shows that they share their feelings with other people regarding their language learning experience. The evidence shows the biggest number of both learners in township and urban schools do not share their feelings with other people when they are learning English; instead they feel more confident when they are learning the target language. The lowest number in the urban school says that they talk to other people about how they feel when they are learning the English language whereas township learners do not use this strategy.



5.3.6 Social Strategies

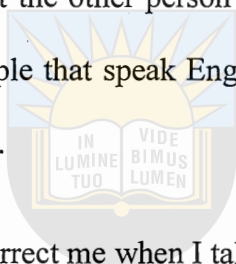
Question 26: If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.

Table 26: Explain Clearly English Concepts

Statement	Grade 10-12 learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	8	11	2	3
Usually not true of me	6	8	3	4
Somewhat true of me	20	27	9	12
Usually true of me	19	25	27	36
Always or almost true of me	22	29	34	45
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 26 demonstrate that the highest percentage (29%) of learners in the urban school responded to the statement always or almost true of me, which means that if they do not understand something in English, they ask the other person to slow down or say it again and the lowest percentage (8%) responded to the category usually not true of me which shows that they

do not ask anyone to slow down if they do not understand anything. The biggest number (45%) of township learners responded to the statement always or almost true of me which shows that they ask people who speak English to repeat what they have said so that they can understand and the lowest percentage (3%) came from learners who chose the option never or almost never true of me which means that they do not make use of this strategy. These results provide confirmatory evidence that the highest percentage of both learners in urban and township schools ask their conversation partners to speak slowly or repeat what they have said in English so that they can understand exactly what the other person is trying to say whereas the lowest numbers in both schools do not ask people that speak English to slow down or say what they have said in order for them to understand.



Question 27: I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

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Table 27: Correcting English Language *ther in Excellence*

	Grade 10-12 Learners			
Statement	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	37	49	6	8
Usually not true of me	17	23	13	17
Somewhat true of me	10	13	18	24
Usually true of me	7	9	26	35
Always or almost true of me	4	5	12	16
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 27 reveal that the highest percentage (49%) of learners in the urban school responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which means that they do ask English speakers to correct them when they talk and the lowest number (5%) in the urban school was from learners who selected the option always or almost true of me which shows that they do ask English speakers for correction when they speak. The biggest number (35%) of

township learners selected the category usually true of me which also means that they ask people to correct them when they make mistakes and the lowest number (8%) came from learners who responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that they do not make use of this strategy. On the basis of the evidence currently available, it seems fair to say that the largest number of urban learners do not ask native speakers to correct them when they speak English.

The reason why they do not ask is either they speak like native speakers or have reached near native accent; the biggest number in the township school says that they ask native speakers to correct them when they make mistakes in English. The findings for the lowest numbers in both schools also show that urban learners ask native speakers to correct them and township learners do not ask native speakers to correct them when they make mistakes in English.

Question 28: I practice English with other students.

Table 28: Conversation

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	25	33	8	11
Usually not true of me	19	25	13	17
Somewhat true of me	16	21	19	25
Usually true of me	7	9	22	29
Always or almost true of me	8	11	13	17
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 28 show that the greatest number (33%) of urban learners selected the statement never or almost never true of me; this means that they do not practice English with other students and the lowest number (9%) came from learners who responded to the statement usually true of me which means that they practice the English language with other students.

The highest percentage (29%) in the township school came from those who responded to the category usually true of me which means that these learners usually practice their English skills with their friends and the lowest number (11%) was from learners in the township school who responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that they do not use this strategy to learn English. The data generated in this table provides convincing evidence that the biggest number of learners in urban school do not practice English with other students. This might be because they are already fluent in the target language and the largest number of learners in the township school says that they use this strategy to practice their English. This is probably because they want to be proficient in the English language.

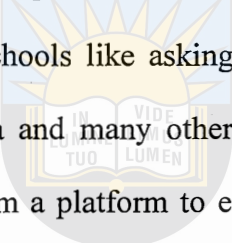
The lowest percentage in the urban school says that they practice English with other students. This might be because there are many native speakers who are around them and the lowest number of learners in the township school does not use this strategy. This could be due to the fact that township learners do not have many native speakers around, with whom to practice their English.

Question 29: I ask questions in English.

Table 29: Interacting in English

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	1	1	4	5
Usually not true of me	1	1	6	8
Somewhat true of me	9	12	22	29
Usually true of me	24	32	30	40
Always or almost true of me	40	53	13	17
Total	75	100	75	100

The results in table 29 establish that the biggest number (53%) of learners in the urban school responded to the option always or almost true of me which suggests that they ask questions in English and the lowest number (1%) came from both learners that responded to the statements never or almost never true of me and usually not true of me, that is, these learners do not ask questions in English. The greatest number (40%) in the township school positively responded to the statement usually true of me which means they ask questions in English and the lowest number (5%) came from learners who selected the statement never or almost never true of me which shows that these learners do not ask questions in English. The data appear to suggest that learners in both urban and township schools like asking many questions in English. Many learners are involved in debates, drama and many other interactive activities, especially in urban schools. These activities give them a platform to express themselves and ask as many questions as they can.


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The lowest percentages in both urban and township schools do not use this strategy in their language learning, in other words, they do not ask questions. The reason for this could be because some of them are shy, have a poor command of English or a limited vocabulary.

Question 30: I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Table 29: English Culture

Statement	Grade 10-12 Learners			
	Urban	%	Township	%
Never or almost never true of me	30	40	17	23
Usually not true of me	17	23	18	24
Somewhat true of me	15	20	20	27
Usually true of me	6	8	14	19
Always or almost true of me	7	9	6	8
Total	75	100	75	100

The findings in table 30 reveal that the highest percentage (40%) of learners in the urban school responded to the statement never or almost never true of me which suggests that they do not try to learn about the culture of English speakers and the lowest percentage (8%) responded to the statement usually true of me which means they try to learn about the culture of native speakers of English. The biggest number (24%) in the township school came from learners who responded to the statement usually not true of me which shows that they do not use this strategy to learn English and the lowest number (8%) selected the category always or almost true of me which shows that these learners learn about the culture of native speakers.

A closer look at the data indicates that the largest number of urban learners do not imitate or try to learn about the culture of native speakers. Many schools in urban areas are multicultural; as a result many learners prefer to follow their own cultures whereas the highest percentage in the township school uses this strategy probably because they want to speak, sound and act like native speakers of English. The lowest numbers in both urban and township schools do not try to change or imitate the culture of English speakers. They prefer to learn the English language but follow their own cultures.

The second research question sought to find out whether learners in urban schools use more strategies than learners in township schools. Data in response to the second research question was analysed through isolating township students' data from the urban learners' data. First, averages of all affirmative responses of 4 and 5 in the Likert scale were calculated per student from both township and urban schools. Then the averages for urban learners and township learners were calculated. The findings in figure 2 and 3 reveal that there was a significant difference between the strategies used by township learners and urban learners.

It was found that township learners used metacognitive strategies the most (68%), then cognitive strategies (57%), affective strategies (57%), social strategies (49%) and memory strategies (44%) was the least used by township learners. In the urban school the following percentages were found; the most used strategy was cognitive strategies (50%), which was subsequently followed by compensation strategies (46%), metacognitive strategies (43%), social strategies (37%), affective strategies (28%) and memory strategies (27%) was the least used. The reason why township learners use more strategies might be because the majority of them are highly motivated to speak and use the English language in class or when they are doing other related school activities. They like to centre their learning, arrange and plan the way they learn, and evaluate what they learn. The other reason why there is a huge difference between the strategies used by township learners and urban learners may be related to the types of learning materials and teaching activities that the teacher gives in class and also the high level of motivation that township learners have towards the English language.

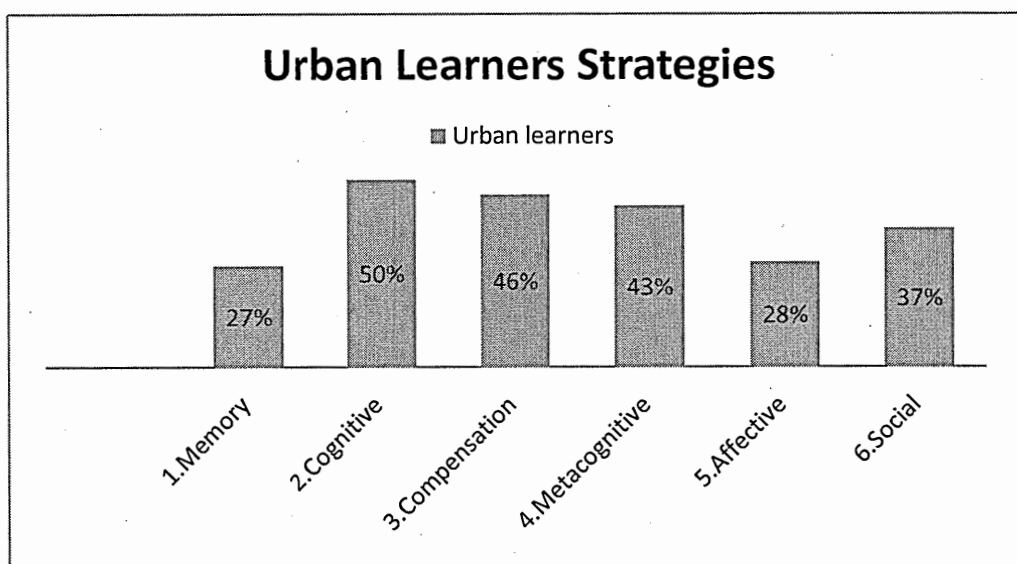


Figure 2: Summary of Strategies used by Urban Learners

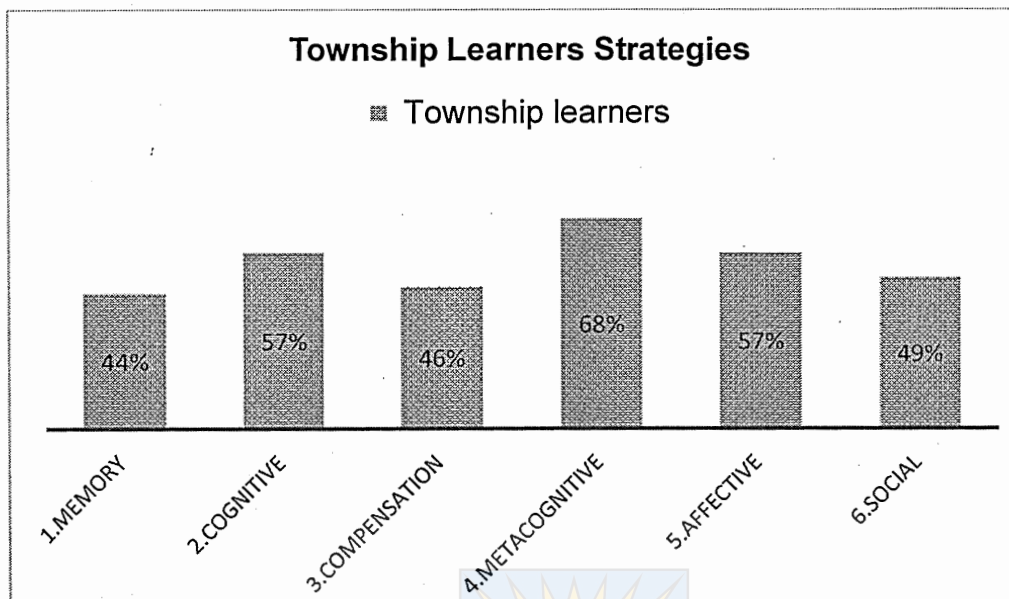


Figure 3: Summary of Strategies used by Township Learners

5.4 Research Question 3

The third question sought to investigate whether female learners use more strategies than male learners. In order to analyse data for the third research question, responses of all female learners from township and urban schools were isolated from responses of all male learners from both township and urban schools. Percentages for each group were calculated and presented in the two figures below, figure 4 representing females and figure 5 representing males. The results in figure 4 indicate that there is a significant difference between strategies used by female learners and male learners. According to the analysis, female learners tend to use all the learning strategies more than male learners.

Female learners are reported to be high users of metacognitive strategies (62%) which mean that they plan, organize and evaluate their learning more effectively than their male counterparts. This is then followed respectively by compensation strategies (54%). These strategies are used to oversee, regulate and self-direct language learning. Cognitive strategies (53%): these strategies involve practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and

reasoning, and creating a structure for input and output. Social strategies (46%): these strategies assist learners to ask questions in English; cooperate and empathise with other learners. Affective strategies (44%): these types of strategies help learners to manage and know how to reduce their anxieties and encourage each other. Lastly, memory strategies were the least used by female language learners (40%). Memory strategies help learners to review well, employ actions and apply images and sounds to their language learning.

Male learners, on the other hand, as shown in figure 5 used the following learning strategies and next to them are their percentages; cognitive strategies (56%), metacognitive strategies (51%), social strategies (42%), compensation strategies (41%), affective strategies (41%) and memory strategies (33%). Findings in the present study are consistent with the findings of Kaylani (1996) and Yilmaz (2010) on gender differences in language learning strategies. Kyalani found that female learners used more strategies than their male counterparts.

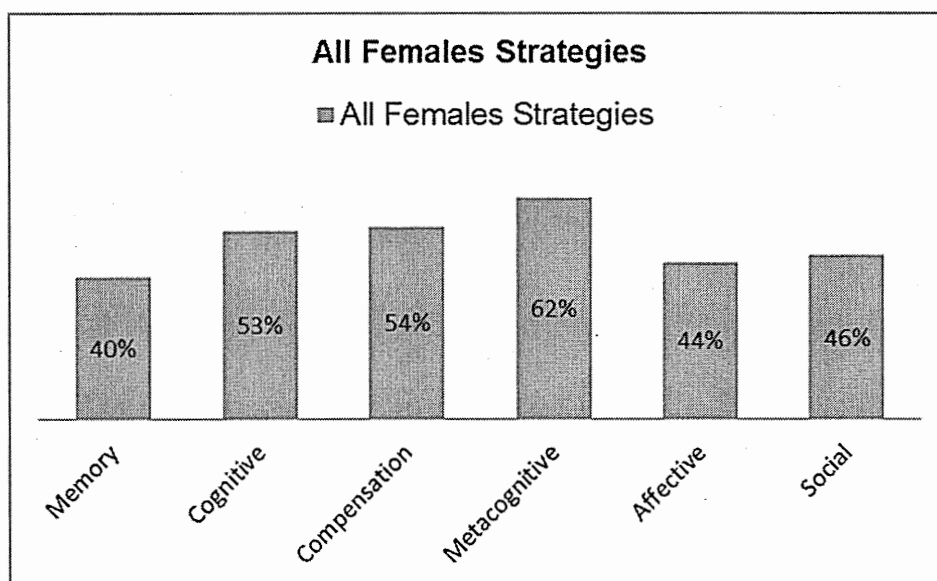


Figure 4: Strategies Used by Female Students

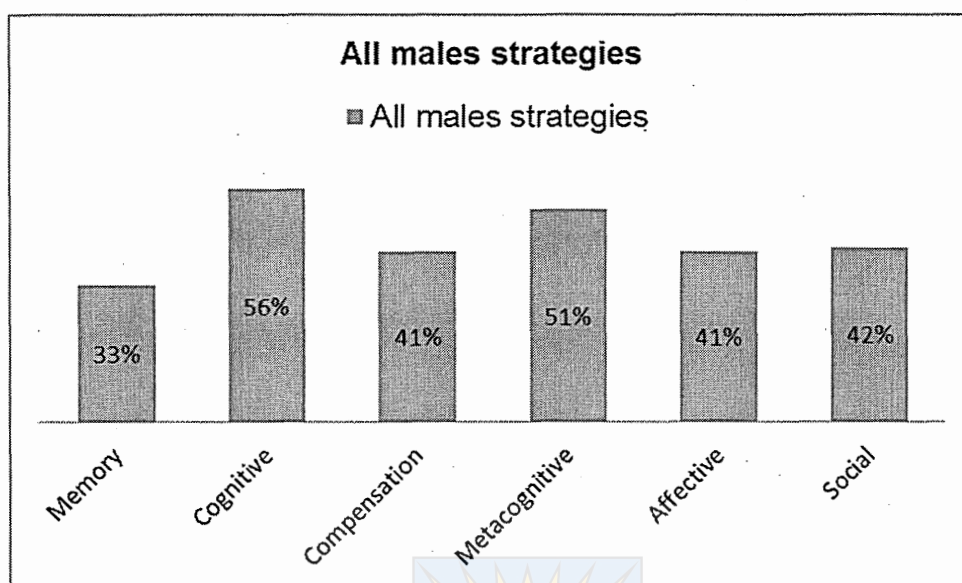


Figure 5: Strategies Used by Male Students

5.5 Discussions and Findings

5.5.1 Overall Learning Strategy use in both Urban and Township Schools

The findings in this study revealed that urban and township high school learners preferred to use metacognitive strategies (56%). They use these strategies because they like to control and coordinate their studies. It was also found that the respondents in this study pay attention when someone is talking to them in English; they correct their mistakes and try to be better English speakers. These results are consistent with that of Yilmaz (2010) who found that English second language learners use more metacognitive and compensation strategies in their language learning.

The second most popular strategies used by high school learners were cognitive strategies (54%). High school learners in both schools reported higher use of cognitive strategies more than any other strategies. These findings are in agreement with those obtained by Oxford (1990) who suggests that cognitive strategies are of paramount importance in language learning

as many language learners use them extensively to receive and send messages and also to get the idea quickly and use resources for receiving and sending messages.

Compensation strategies were the third most popular strategies (46%) that were used by both urban and township school learners. Compensation strategies allow learners to overcome their limitations, they use gestures and mimes to make up for the gaps whenever they do not have the right word to use in their conversations. These results are in line with Bremmer (1999) who found that Hong Kong students use more compensation and metacognitive strategies more than all the other types of strategies.

The fourth strategies that were reported by both schools were affective strategies (43%) and social strategies (43%). Affective strategies enable learners to control their motivations, attitudes and emotions in their language learning and social strategies allow people to interact with others, this involves asking questions, asking for help or clarification (Oxford, 1990) and Alhaisoni, 2012). Respondents in this study said that they ask their friends to repeat what they have said in English or slow down so that they could understand and other respondents reported being nervous or tense when they are learning or using English. Urban and township high school learners in this study reported memory strategies as the least used (36%). This result could be due to the fact that many learners do not apply images and sounds, that is, using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords and representing sounds in memory as they hear and see these things around them almost every day.

5.5.2 Urban Versus Township Schools Strategy Use

The current study found that 57% of township learners reported higher use of cognitive strategies than urban learners. These results may be explained by the fact that township learners like to repeat what they have learned in class, they look for resources to enhance their

knowledge, they use translation methods more in their language learning to facilitate English comprehension and they also like to take notes as this is likely to improve their writing skills (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). 50% of Urban learners also do use cognitive strategies, but to a certain extent. This inconsistency may be due to the fact that urban learners take things for granted. They probably do not like using any translation methods, repeating what they have learned or use the resources they have at hand.

Another interesting finding was that township learners reported higher use of memory strategies than urban learners. It seems possible that these results are due to the fact that township learners prefer to lay out things in order to make association and also for the purposes of reviewing. Even though there is a significant difference between the two groups, 27% for urban and 44% for township learners, it was also found that this study is in line with the studies conducted by Oxford (1990), indicating that the majority of learners apply images and sounds and create mental linkages in their language learning.

Surprisingly, no significant difference was found in using compensation strategies between township and urban learners. These findings suggest that both groups guess intelligently, the majority of them overcome their limitations in speaking and writing by switching to their mother tongue or using mimes and gestures in their conversations with other people (Oxford 1990). One un-anticipated finding was that township learners use more affective strategies (57%) than urban learners (28%). They know how to lower their anxieties every time they feel anxious, they encourage one another to stay focused and to never give up regardless of many challenges they face in language learning, whereas the majority of urban high school learners do not encourage each other because many of them are fluent in English and some have even reached near-native accent.

What is also surprising is that both groups use social strategies but it was found that township learners use more social strategies (49%) than urban learners (37%). They ask questions in order to get some clarifications; they cooperate with their friends and understand others easily. Urban learners also use social strategies but they do not really pay attention to it because they speak to many people at school. In this study it was found that urban learners do not ask questions to get some clarification as this could be because they understand English questions. The most interesting finding was that township learners use more metacognitive strategies (68%) than urban learners (43%). Township learners and urban learners both like to pay attention in class; they set goals and objectives and evaluate their learning to see if they are making any progress.

Hu (2009) and Zainab et al (2012), who did surveys on language learning strategies among rural and township learners, found that urban learners use more strategies than township learners, but contrary to expectations, the researcher found that township learners use more learning strategies than urban learners. It is difficult to explain these results, but it might be related to the fact that many urban learners are complacent. They are under the impression that they do not need to use any strategies to learn a language whereas township learners use all the six strategies mentioned in Oxford (1990) in order for them to improve their fluency in English.

5.5.3 The Difference between Strategies Used by Male and Female Learners

The current study found that female learners reported higher use of metacognitive strategies, compensation strategies, social strategies, affective strategies, memory strategies than their male counterparts. These findings are consistent with that of Oxford (1990) who argues that metacognitive strategies help female learners to regulate their cognition, to plan, focus and evaluate their language learning. Female learners use this strategy because the majority of them are good at planning and organizing than male learners. Female learners reported the use

compensation strategies in their language learning. Oxford (1990) found that learners who use compensation strategies tend to guess words to compensate for the gaps in their conversations with their friends. The findings corroborate the idea of Kaylani (1996), who suggests that female learners use more compensation strategies than male learners. These results are also in agreement with those obtained by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) who found that females prefer to use more memory and social strategies. A possible explanation for using social strategies might be because they like interacting with people and ask questions if they do not understand something and more importantly ask speakers to repeat what they have uttered.

Male learners reported higher use of language learning strategies in cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies the most which were followed by social strategies, compensation strategies, affective strategies. Memory strategies were the least used in this study by male learners because many learners are probably not interested in arranging things in order, making associations and reviewing.

These findings show that both township and urban learners used their cognitive theories which incorporate mental processes in order for them to recognise, recollect, analyse, reflect, apply, create and evaluate and it was also found that learners use constructivism theories to construct their own meaning and reality by making interpretations of various phenomena and building on their prior knowledge.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter concentrated more on the analysis and discussion of data and findings. Firstly, it focused on the analysis of the learning strategies that learners use in their language learning, secondly, a comparison was made between urban and township learners in order to find out the school that uses more language learning strategies in their second language learning, and lastly, the researcher compared the strategies used by all the female learners to the strategies used by

all male learners to see if there was any significant difference. It was found that township high school learners used more strategies than urban high school learners and it was also found that female learners used more language learning strategies than male learners. The next chapter in this study will focus on recommendations and conclusion.



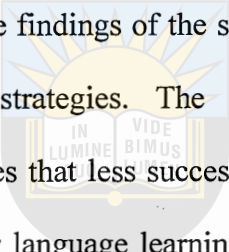
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CHAPTER SIX

RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the recommendations and suggestions for future research based on the findings of the study. The researcher looked at all the three research questions individually and reported the kinds of strategies, township and urban school learners used, whether females used more strategies than males and, lastly, the findings of the school that used more strategies and that of the school that used less strategies. The researcher also suggested some recommendations with regard to strategies that less successful learners could use in order for them to become more successful in their language learning and, lastly, a summary of all the findings was provided.


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6.1.2 Recommendations

The purpose of the current study was to find out if all the learners, in both township and urban schools, use language learning strategies to learn English as a second language. It was found that metacognitive strategies were reported to be the most used in both schools. Metacognitive strategies, as mentioned earlier, involve more planning and setting achievable and attainable goals. The researcher, therefore, suggests that language learning teachers should ensure that they teach learners how to plan when they are learning a second language, as planning is more important in any school setting. Chamot and O'Malley (1990) propose the following strategies for effective planning; planning activities in advance, decide to focus on the most important aspects of the activities, decide to direct attention on particular aspects of the language that help to enhance learning, self-management, advance preparation, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement. Language planners and educators should

put more emphasis on the above mentioned aspects of planning in language learning so that learners become more organised. Evidence from this study also suggests that teachers should motivate their learners to set achievable and attainable goals when they are planning. If learners set goals that they are not able to achieve, they may be discouraged and eventually give up learning the English language.

Another important finding in this study was that learners in both schools reported using a high level of cognitive strategies. According to Rubin (1987), cognitive strategies are the steps and operations that learners take to learn and solve language problems. Based on this definition, the researcher in this study suggests that language teachers use cognitive strategies in their classes and that they should concentrate more on teaching learners skills, such as, asking questions for clarification every time they do not understand what the speaker is saying. Many learners are too shy to ask questions in class and, as a result, they keep all the questions to themselves.

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Teachers may teach their learners expressions such as; ‘would you mind repeating that sentence, please’, ‘I am sorry! But, would you please speak slowly’, or ‘sorry! Could you please say that again’? Such English expressions might motivate timid and shy learners to ask more questions in class and outside the classroom. They should teach learners to write words down several times so that they do not forget them, especially the learners that are really struggling to hold a conversation in English. He suggests that teachers should encourage their learners to practice the English language no matter how hard they might sometimes find it. English conversations with native speakers or any one that uses English will assist learners to become more comfortable and also increase their level of confidence in any situation as practice makes perfect. Practice is important as it helps learners to learn and retain information properly. Teachers of English need to encourage their learners to talk about everyday subjects such as sports, family matters, education and current affairs.

Cognitive strategies were also found to be useful in that many participants from both schools said that they would like to speak English like native speakers and reach near-native accent. The researcher recommends that language practitioners should encourage the learners to watch English language TV shows presented in English or go to movies presented in English, make summaries of information that they hear or read in English as these strategies enhance proficiency in the English language. Reading is extremely crucial as it increases speaking and writing skills, it helps learners to solve problems more effectively and it also improves the concentration of learners. The researcher also suggests that language teachers spend more time teaching the learners to write letters, notes, messages or reports in English.

The researcher also recommends that language teachers allow their learners to use more compensation strategies during their conversations with their friends and ensure that they help learners to overcome their limitations in writing and speaking and also to guess intelligently. According to Oxford (1990), these types of strategies assist language learners to understand the new language and produce meaningful sentences, even if they do not have enough knowledge of the target language. Compensation strategies help learners to switch to their mother tongue to fill in the gaps with the missing words. The researcher suggests that teachers allow their learners to code switch because it helps them to convey meaning accurately and it gives the learners the freedom to communicate their knowledge that they have acquired in English to teachers and friends. It was also found that many learners in both schools use these strategies to fill the gaps whenever they do not have the proper word to use at the right time during a conversation with their teachers or peers.

Surprisingly, the findings in this study revealed that there was no significant difference between social strategies and affective strategies used by the learners in both schools. Many learners make positive statements about their language learning, they use music and laughter to

help them stay focused and relaxed while learning English. The researcher recommends that language practitioners motivate learners to persevere every time they feel that they are not making any progress or are afraid to use the English language. Cohen (2002) describes social strategies as the actions that learners choose to take in order to interact with other learners and teachers.

In this study it was found that 43% of learners in urban and township schools use social strategies to learn how to communicate effectively and efficiently. As mentioned before, teachers should motivate the learners to ask questions for clarification when they do not understand something or ask the speaker to correct them every time they make mistakes. It is, therefore, important that teachers and language planners incorporate a wide range of teaching materials on how learners should interact with one another and include a list of words that learners can use in different situations. They should also ensure that the teaching materials are contextualised and meet individual needs. Learners indicated in this study that they talk to native speakers of English in order for them to improve their communication skills. English teachers should encourage everyone who is learning English to listen to native speakers on TV, radios or on the internet.

The least used strategies by all the learners were memory strategies. These findings may be explained by the fact that many learners are less interested in memorizing new things in English as they can see these items around them every day. Some of them forget what they have memorised easily and quickly. Teachers and language planners are requested to include memory strategies in their curriculums as this is vitally important. Scrivener (1998) proposes a process that language teachers could use to help their learners, and these are: putting what has been learned into storage, keeping it in storage, retrieving and using it. They need to develop materials on every day English with words and useful sentences that the learners can memorise

so that they can become more proficient in the English language. These materials should have sections where learners are taught how to understand and remember the things that they have learned in English. They need to motivate the learners through these materials to use new English words in different sentences and different situations so that they can easily remember them. Once this is established, learners will have a wide range of vocabulary to use in their conversations and communicate more effectively.

The researcher also suggests that English teachers insist that their learners review their lesson regularly because this strategy is important in that it helps learners to improve their academic performance and boost their motivation and self-confidence. This might help them to become even more interested in the target language.

The most interesting findings of this study indicated that township learners used more learning strategies than urban learners. It was found that township learners used metacognitive strategies more than any other strategies. As we know, metacognitive strategies involve evaluating one's learning and self-monitoring. They evaluated and monitored their progress, if they found that they were not getting anywhere with their English studies, they would try and change these strategies and focus on the ones that were more effective. Metacognitive strategies were used the most in the township school.

Evidence from this study suggests that more language teaching materials should be developed to help not only urban learners but also township learners, even if many of them already use these strategies in their language learning. Resources are very important because they assist teachers to teach effectively. Teachers should always have access to a variety of resources as this will facilitate teaching and learning. These resources should be designed in such a way that they would motivate proficient learners of the English language to use various types of strategies, notably popular strategies that have been used by successful language learners. It is

also extremely crucial to encourage language researchers to do more research on these popular strategies in order to help facilitate the learning of English for many learners who are struggling to become more proficient in the target language.

The researcher suggests that more research be conducted in these two schools to find out the reason why many township learners, specifically here in the Eastern Cape, do not produce good results in English when they write their final examination and yet they reported a higher level of strategy use than urban learners. Many factors could be involved in this situation, for example, lack of proper resources; under-qualified English educators or even educators that are not proficient in English could contribute negatively to the progress of the learners and eventually affect their final matric results. This is an important issue for future research as there is need to help the learners become better English speakers.

Social strategies were also used more by township learners than urban learners. Rubin and Wenden (1987) described social strategies to be the activities that learners do and these activities afford them opportunities to be exposed to different situations and practice their knowledge. Learners in both schools reported that they cooperate well and empathise with others when they study English. This is very important because learners understand each other well and do not laugh at other children when they make mistakes. Learning with peers helps other learners to understand by discussing and clarifying the topics that are complex. Teachers are requested to involve learners in as many English activities as possible. These activities should primarily be focused on speaking in order to motivate those who are shy to come out and express themselves freely. English teachers need to encourage their learners to ask more questions in class and, if they do not understand something in English, they should ask the teacher or the person they are having a conversation with to slow down, ask English speakers to

correct them and also encourage second language learners to learn about the culture of English speakers as this goes hand in hand with English language learning.

It was also found that females from both schools reported a higher usage of language learning strategies than their male counterparts. The researcher recommends that teachers use group work more often and these groups should consist of males and females so that they could exchange ideas and possibly discuss the types of strategies that work better for females and the ones that work for male learners. Group work is extremely important as it helps learners to challenge assumptions, they learn to give and receive feedback on their performance, during group work they might find effective friends that they can imitate, they learn how to tackle problems that are more difficult than they could if they were working on their own and they also receive support and encouragement to take risks and challenges. In addition, material developers could use these recommendations to design English lessons that use different learning strategies.

6.1.3 Future Research

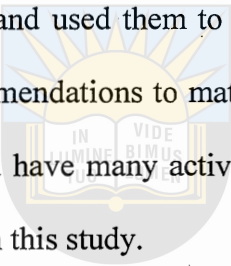
Further research could also be conducted to determine the effectiveness of reading for pleasure in the English language as reading helps the learners to become even more fluent and speak more confidently. It is also recommended that further research be undertaken regarding memory strategies because they were the least used in both township and urban schools.

6.1.4 Conclusion

It was found in this study that all the learners, be it in the township or urban school, used all the six language learning strategies mentioned in Oxford (1990). The most obvious finding to emerge from this study was that the majority of all the learners frequently used metacognitive strategies the most, which were then followed by cognitive strategies, compensation strategies,

affective strategies and social strategies and that, lastly, memory strategies were the least used in both schools. This study seems to be consistent with other previous researchers (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990), Rong (1990) who found that learners who are more successful used a higher level of metacognitive strategies. This chapter looked at some effective language learning strategies that teachers and language practitioners can implement in their classes to help less successful learners become more confident and successful in their language learning.

The researcher focused on language learning strategies that were used the most by different learners in urban and township schools and used them to make recommendations to different stakeholders. He also made some recommendations to material developers that they could use to develop English textbooks that would have many activities that are centered on all the six language learning strategies mentioned in this study.



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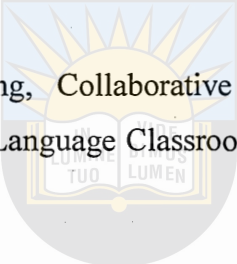
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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter from the University of Fort Hare



University of Fort Hare
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Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities

Private bag X 1314

ALICE



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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Kindly allow Mark Tshidingi who is a Masters student in Applied Linguistics at the university of Fort Hare to collect data from the learners. He needs this data for his studies and nothing else. Information received will be handled confidentially.

Thank you

B.P. Tshotsho (Dr)

0822021783

Appendix B: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Modified Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)
 ©R.L.Oxford, 1989 Korean version prepared by Park Bun-seon, Kwon Mi-jeong, Hwang Jung-hwa, 1998

Background Questionnaire

1. Name		2. Date	
3. Age	4. Sex.	5. Mother tongue	
6. What language you speak at home?			
7. Which language you are now learning?			
8. How long have you been learning the language in #7?			
9. How do you rate your proficiency in the language in #7, compared with other students in your class?			
(Circle one of these options):		Excellent	Good Fair Poor
10. How do you rate your proficiency in the language in #7, compared with native speakers?			
(Circle one of these options):		Excellent	Good Fair Poor
11. How important is it for you to become proficient in the language in #7?			
(Circle one of these options):		Very important	Important Not important
12. Why do you want to learn the language in #7? :			
..... interested in the language.			
..... interested in the culture.			
..... have friends who speak the language			
..... required to take a language course to graduate.			
..... need it for my future career.			
..... need it for travel.			
..... other (explain)			
.....			
.....			
13. Do you enjoy language learning? (Circle one of these options):			Yes No

14. What other languages have you studied?
15. What has been your favorite experience in language learning?
16. What has been your least experience in language learning?.....

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

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Korean version prepared by Park Bun-seon, Kwon Mi-jeong, Hwang Jung-hwa, 1998

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the 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 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 Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes 20 – 30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

EXAMPLE:

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.

Read the item, and choose a response (1 through 5, as above). And write it in the space after the item.

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers of English.

You have just completed the example item. Answer the rest of the items on the Worksheet.

Modified Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

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Part A

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.

1. I think of relationships 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 an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I review English lessons often.
5. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B

6. I say or write new English words several times.
7. I try to talk like native English speakers.
8. I watch English language TV shows or go to movies spoken in English.
9. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
10. I try not to translate word-for-word.

Part C

10. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.

11. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
12. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
13. I read English without looking up every new word.
14. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

15. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
16. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
17. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
18. I look for people I can talk to in English.
19. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

20. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
21. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
22. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
23. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
24. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

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Part F

25. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.
26. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
27. I ask for help from English speakers.
28. I ask questions in English.
29. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Worksheet for Answering and Scoring the SILL

1. The blanks (.....) are numbered for each item on the SILL.
2. Write your response to each item (write 1,2,3,4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
3. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.
4. Divide by the number under SUM to get the average for each column. Round this average off to the nearest tenth, as in 3.4.
5. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMS for the different parts of the SILL. Then divide by 50.
6. When you have finished, look at the Profile of Results. Copy your averages from the Worksheet onto the Profile

Part A		Part B		Part C		Part D		Part E		Part F								
Q1.		Q10		Q24.		Q30		Q39.		Q45								
Q2.		Q11		Q25.		Q31		Q40.		Q46.								
Q3.		Q12		Q26		Q32		Q41.		Q47.								
Q4.		Q13		Q27.		Q33		Q42.		Q48.								
Q5		Q14		Q28.		Q34		Q43.		Q49.								
Q6.		Q15		Q29		Q35		Q44.		Q50.								
Q7.		Q16				Q36												
Q8.		Q17				Q37												
Q9		Q18				Q38												
		Q19																
		Q20																
		Q21																
		Q22																
		Q23																
SUM Part A:		SUM Part B:				SUM Part C:						SUM Part D:		SUM Part E:		SUM Part F:		A+B+C+D+E+F =
SUM ÷ 9		SUM ÷ 14				SUM ÷ 6						SUM ÷ 9		SUM ÷ 6		SUM ÷ 6		A+B+C+D+E+F ÷ 50 =
(Average)		(Average)		(Average)		(Average)		(Average)		(Average)								

Profile of Results

This Profile shows your SILL results. These results will tell you the kinds of strategies you use in learning English. There are no right or wrong answers. To complete this profile, transfer your averages for each part of the SILL, and your overall average for the whole SILL. These averages are found on the Worksheet, at the bottom.

Part	Which Strategies are Covered	Your Average on this Part
A	Remembering more effectively.	
B	Using all your mental processes.	
C	Compensating for missing knowledge.	
D	Organising and evaluating your learning.	
E	Managing your emotions.	
F	Learning with others.	

Key to understanding your averages:

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

5.0						
4.5						
4.0						
3.5						
3.0						
2.5						
2.0						
1.5						
1.0						
	A Remembering more effectively	B Using all your mental processes	C Compensating for missing knowledge	D Organising and evaluating your learning	E Managing your emotions	F Learning with others
						A – F Your overall average

The overall average tells you how often you use strategies for learning English. Each part of the SILL represents a group of learning strategies. The averages for each part of the SILL show which groups of strategies you use most for learning English.