Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring

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Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring

by

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SUPERVISOR:
Dr Gerhard Genis

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Declaration of Originality

I, Petronella Nondumiso Nompilo Machimana (student number 17274622) declare that this thesis titled **Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring,** which I hereby submit for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Curriculum and Instructional Design and Development at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

Signature: 

Date: 24 August 2020

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The author, whose name also appears on the title page of this thesis, has obtained, for the research described in this work, the applicable research ethics approval. The author declares that she has observed the ethical standards required in terms of the University of Pretoria's *Code of ethics for researchers and the Policy guidelines for responsible research.*

PNN Machimana

August 2020

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Dedication

I dedicate this PhD thesis to my beloved husband,
Dr Eugene Gabriel Machimana,
and our precious sons,
Tomtenda Nkateko Machimana and
Minkateko Tatenda Machimana.

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"Commit everything you do to the Lord. Trust Him, and He will help you."
Psalm 37:5

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"Each generation will tell their children about the good things the Lord has done".
Psalm 22:31

Like the psalmist, I too will tell the next generation about the goodness of the Lord forever.

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Abstract

This study aims to identify, explore and elucidate the language-learning strategies used by African English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring in Gauteng province, South Africa. Informed by pragmatism, this study was situated in a constructivist epistemology and a relational ontology. Consistent with a constructivist epistemology, Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory was utilised and adapted for the purpose of this study to reflect a hybridised model which is more suitable for studying the language-learning strategies used by indigenous learners. Using a convergent mixed methods design, a total of 137 second-language learners in Grades 8 and 9 from seven different peer tutoring programmes were purposefully sampled to be part of this study. The data collection methods used for this study were: a quantitative as well as a qualitative questionnaire, focus group discussions and non-participant observation.

The findings of this study show that learners use a range of conventional strategies at a high frequency (metacognitive, social, cognitive and affective) while compensation and memory strategies were used at a medium frequency. The qualitative results show that the use of conventional strategies took place in a collectivist manner, which relates to the relational ontology of this study. A significant insight derived from this study is that African second-language learners use a range of indigenous strategies for L2 learning. These strategies include various art forms such as dance, music, poetry and word games. Consistent with the use of humour by many African literary scholars, learners in this study also used humour for downplaying their second-language mistakes, managing emotions and for critical thinking. The use of strategies was shown to be affected by learner motivation, gender, resource availability, identity, home language knowledge and the context in which learners learn. The peer tutoring learning context was shown to be an effective method for scaffolding second-language learning by allowing learners to be taught within their zone of proximal development.

I theorise that the use of a hybridised framework that combines both conventional and indigenous knowledge systems should be considered to aid the learning of a second language. This framework lends support for strengthening learners' home language(s) through translanguaging practices and by valorising learners' translingual identity. Therefore, it is recommended that policymakers should ensure the inclusion of indigenous knowledge systems in the curriculum and put measures in place for monitoring the effective implementation of these indigenous knowledge systems in the South African curriculum.

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Keywords

- Language-learning strategies
- Second-language learning
- Home language
- Peer tutoring
- Individual differences
- Motivation
- Identity
- Indigenous knowledge systems
- Translanguaging
- Constructivist paradigm
- Sociocultural theory
- Convergent mixed methods

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Language Editing Declaration

I, Wilna Swart, solemnly declare that in July 2020 I completed a professional language-edit of Nondumiso (PNN) Machimana's PhD thesis entitled 'Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring'.
Ms Machimana wrote a well-constructed and clearly presented paper in exceptional English applied highly originally to achieve a scientific academic paper of superior quality.
I furnished Ms Machimana, in addition to editorial amendments in tracked mode, with comprehensive editorial comments, notes and recommendations, which Ms Machimana accepted or rejected at her discretion.
Although I know Ms Machimana as a very responsible and ethical person, I reminded her that avoiding plagiarism remained her responsibility.
I wish Ms Machimana top honours in this extremely important academic endeavour.

Professional EDITORS Guild

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANA ..... Annual National Assessments
ACT ..... Adaptive control of thought
CALP ..... Cognitive academic language proficiency
CAPS ..... Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CGT ..... Constructivist grounded theory
CHAT ..... Cultural historical activity theory
CUP ..... Common underlying proficiency
DBE ..... Department of Basic Education
ECD ..... Early childhood development
ELRC ..... Education Labour Relations Council
FET ..... Further education and training
FGD ..... Focus group discussion
GET ..... General Education and Training
HPCSA ..... Health Professions Council of South Africa
IDs ..... Individual differences
IKS ..... Indigenous knowledge systems
LiEP ..... Language in Education Policy
LLS ..... Language-learning strategy
LLSs ..... Language-learning strategies
LoLT ..... Language of learning and teaching
L2 ..... Second language
NDP ..... National Development Plan
NCS ..... National Curriculum Statement
NIAF ..... National Integrated Assessment Framework
NPC ..... National Planning Commission
NPO ..... Nonprofit organisation
OBE ..... Outcomes-based education
PtEL ..... Peer tutoring and English-learning questionnaire
PIRLS ..... Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
SA ..... South Africa
SACMEQ ..... Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality

SCT..... Sociocultural theory

SGB ..... School governing body

SES ..... Socio-economic status

SILL..... Strategy Inventory for Language-learning

SLA..... Second-language acquisition

SPSS ..... Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

STATS SA..... Statistics South Africa

STEM ..... Science, technology, engineering and mathematics

TIMSS ..... Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

ZPD..... Zone of proximal development

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Chapter One
Introduction and Contextualising the Study

1.1 Introduction

This study aimed to identify, explore and elucidate the language-learning strategies (LLSs) used by English second-language (L2) learners participating in peer tutoring in Gauteng province, South Africa. The L2 learners who participated in the study not only took English as a L2 at school, but they also learnt other subjects through the medium of English. In this introductory chapter, I discuss the trends in language-learning strategy (LLS) research and provide a contextual background to the study. This is followed by the rationale for locating the study within a peer tutoring context and I also discuss the rationale and motivation for the study. I then present the research questions that guided the study and define the key terms used. I conclude this chapter by providing an overview of the research design and by presenting an outline of the thesis.

This study about the LLSs used by L2 learners arises from the growing concern in most African countries, including South Africa, regarding learners being taught in a language which is not their home language or what is sometimes referred to as their mother tongue or first language (L1). Several scholars (Rassool, Edwards, & Bloch, 2006; Makgato, 2007; Ferreira, 2011; Carnoy, & Arends, 2012; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016) have criticized the practice of not teaching learners in their L1 by highlighting the barriers this creates in literacy acquisition and the underperformance caused in other areas of learning such as difficulties with mastering subjects like Mathematics, Physical Science and Life Sciences. This comes as no surprise as language proficiency in the medium of instruction is arguably the biggest single factor that affects learner performance at school (Coetzee, Du Plessis, & Messerschmidt, 2001; Brock-Utne, & Holmarsdottir, 2004; Taylor, & Prinsloo, 2005; Smith, 2011). This is because language is possibly the most important element in the learning process since it is "critical for cognitive development as it provides the concepts for thinking and therefore a means for expressing ideas and asking questions" (Vygotsky, 1989, as cited in Botes, & Mji, 2010, p. 124). In other words, language provides a means by which an individual can think autonomously and engage critically and meaningfully with the world around them.

1.2 Trends in Second-language Research

Since the early 1970s, several theories and approaches have been developed to gain insight into effective ways of teaching a L2 (Griffiths, 2004; Yule, 2014). Initial methods for L2 learning included the grammar-translation method, which resulted in L2 learners who were highly

proficient in grammatical rules, vocabulary and written language but could not efficiently use the language in conversation (Singleton, 2014a; Yule, 2014). This method also neglected LLS use as it did not consider the learners' social perspective and what knowledge they bring to the learning environment (Griffiths, 2004). This approach emphasised teaching while devoting very little attention to the aspect of how learners learn (Griffiths, 2013). In contrast to the grammar-translation method, which neglected the spoken language, the audio-lingual method focused on the spoken language. Using drills and constant repetition, the audio-lingual method produced L2 learners who were fluent in the spoken language. However, this method also failed to acknowledge the conscious contributions that learners bring into the learning process (Griffiths, 2004; Scheckle, 2009; Yule, 2014).

The emergence of the communicative approach to language-learning cast the spotlight on the learner and how the learner learns (Griffiths, 2013; Yule, 2014). The communicative approach focuses on grammatical competence (accurately using words and structures), sociolinguistic competence (being familiar with the culture of the language to know when and how to use the language) and strategic competence (the ability to use different strategies to communicate effectively when the individual encounters some or other difficulty in the L2) (Yule 2014). According to Oxford (1990), LLSs encourage self-direction in learners by helping them to manage their own language-learning, therefore taking greater responsibility for their own learning. This shift in L2 learning marked the origins of LLS research, which can be traced back to the seminal work of Joan Rubin in 1975 (Stern, 1975; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978). This early research into LLSs sought to identify the characteristics found in "good language learners", a term used for high-performing learners (Rubin, 1975, p. 42). The rationale for observing high-performing language learners was that knowing what these learners did and what strategies they used in the language classroom would help to assist less successful learners (O'Malley, & Chamot 1990; Cohen, & Griffiths, 2015).

The focus on the high-performing language learners was critiqued by several scholars such as Huang and Van Naerssen, (1987), who found that the strategies used by the high-performing learners did not differ from those used by low-performing learners. This was supported by Anderson (2005), who argued that the difference between high and low-performing learners was not the type or frequency of strategy used, but: (1) how a strategy is used in relation to the task to be completed; (2) that the strategy also needs to match the learner's learning style; and (3) should be used effectively in combination with other strategies. Despite the varying views with regard to LLSs, scholars such as Wenden (1991); Cohen (1998); O'Malley and Chamot (1990); Oxford (1990); Cohen and Griffiths (2015); Griffiths (2013); and Amerstorfer (2018) continue to argue that effective language-learning can be achieved using LLSs.

The study of LLSs has been framed under three broad approaches: (1) individual differences (IDs); (2) the socio-dynamic; and (3) the qualitative, sociocultural and critical (Ellis, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009; Ortega, 2013). The IDs approach regards LLSs as unique traits and characteristics of the individual learner, which determine the trajectory of L2 learning. This approach predominantly applied correlational quantitative approaches to determine the interaction between various IDs. Similarly, the socio-dynamic approach primarily uses quantitative approaches; however, the use of quantitative approaches is neither causal nor systematic. According to this approach, all L2 research is about variability. The third approach combines both sociocultural and critical approaches and uses qualitative research methods to examine the interplay between what learners understand about themselves and the power structures of their social environment (Ellis, 2008; Ortega, 2018). In this study, I frame LLSs within both the ID and the sociocultural and critical approaches to obtain a better understanding of LLS usage in the context of South Africa. This is important as the South African educational landscape is very different to the educational settings in which LLS research has mainly been conducted. For example, the study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) was conducted in suburban schools where the teacher-learner ratio was approximately 1:3 (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990). Therefore, factors such as overcrowding (Marais, 2016), and resource shortages (Ncontsa, & Shumba, 2013) are often not considered in the research yet these factors pose a barrier to L2 learning in South Africa.

Recent developments in LLS research that were proposed by Oxford (2017, p. 65) in her latest strategic self-regulation model (S^2R) include self-regulation, agency, autonomy, "growth mindset, self-efficacy, resilience, hope and internal attributions for success". Although these elements have not been empirically explored, they offer new research possibilities in the field of LLSs. In line with the social turn in L2 learning, Oxford (2017) argues that research into LLSs should consider the context and sociocultural setting of L2 learners. This new development calls for mixed methods research to be conducted into LLSs in order to obtain an in-depth and holistic understanding of the strategies used by L2 learners (Oxford, 2017; Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2018).

1.3 Contextual Background

South Africa has an estimated population of 52 million people (Statistics South Africa, 2019b) and remains one of the most unequal societies in the world (Oxfam 2013; United Nations, 2013; Statistics South Africa, 2019a). The enduring legacy of colonisation and apartheid created a society in which 90% of South Africa's wealth lies in the hands of the richest 10% of the population (Spaull, 2019). This inequality is mirrored in the education system, where the majority of learners continue to receive poor quality education (National Planning Commission,

2011; Spaull, 2013; Ndimande, 2016). The small group of privileged South African learners primarily live in urban areas and have access to higher quality education while 75% are subjected to low quality education and mainly reside in townships and rural areas (Ndimande, 2016; Spaull, 2019). The poor quality of education received by the majority of learners has led scholars to describe the current state of South Africa's basic education as being in "crisis" (Spaull, 2013, p. 437). This assertion emanates from the results of various international, national and regional studies that demonstrate that South African learners are performing at levels below those of their counterparts from different regions of the world (Taylor, 2011; Moloi, & Chetty, 2011; Mullis, Martin, Foy, & Drucker, 2012; Modisaotsile, 2012; Spaull, 2013). Low academic performance can be attributed to a legion of factors, of which language is but one (Reddy, 2004; Howie, Venter, & Van Staden, 2008; Plüddemann, 2015; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016; Van der Berg, 2018).

The South African schooling system consists of both public and independent education institutions. The public school system comprises the General Education and Training (GET) band and the Further Education and Training (FET) band. The GET band consists of three phases: (1) Foundation phase (Grades R or 0 to 3), (2) Intermediate phase (Grades 4 to 6), and (3) Senior phase (Grades 7 to 9). Grades 10 to 12 are part of the FET band. As of 2016, South Africa has approximately 25 574 public schools with over 12 million learners (Department of Basic Education, 2018). South Africa has 11 official languages, which are enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. English and Afrikaans, which are regarded as colonial languages, according to Ndebele and Zulu (2017), continue to be the most dominant languages of learning and teaching (LoLT) in schools. The majority of learners speak one of the nine indigenous African languages (IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, IsiNdebele, Siswati, Setswana, Sepedi, Sesotho, Xitsonga and Tshivenda), with only 10% of the learner population speaking English and 7% speaking Afrikaans as L1. However, 65% of South African learners use English as a LoLT from Grade 4, which means that learners are expected to have a high level of competence in English by the end of Grade 3 (DBE, 2010, 2011; Plüddemann, 2015; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016). Research shows that learners in Grade 4 have barely mastered reading comprehension in their L1, yet they are expected to learn successfully in a L2 (Desai, 2001; Pretorius, 2002a; Hugo, 2008; Ferreira, 2011; Smith, 2011; Carnoy, & Arends, 2012).

The poor mastery of reading comprehension by South African learners is supported by the 2016 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS-Literacy), which was conducted in the learners' home languages. The findings derived from the PIRLS-Literacy indicate that 78% of South African learners are unable to locate explicit information or reproduce this information from a body of text by the end of Grade 4 (Howie et al., 2017). In the Intermediate phase and Senior phase, the emphasis on language-learning is to strengthen learners' "listening, speaking,

reading and writing skills" in the L2 or what the DBE terms "first additional language" (DBE, 2011, pp. 8-9). However, research by numerous scholars indicate that these learners have not yet sufficiently grasped English second-language to perform well academically (Hugo, 2008; Moloi, & Chetty, 2010; DBE, 2011b; Spaull, 2013; DBE, 2014; Van Staden, & Howie, 2014; Spaull, & Kotze, 2015). Having assessed the difficulties faced by L2 learners, the DBE (2017) introduced English L2 in Grade 1 to allow for greater exposure to English by those learners who will transition to English in Grade 4. This move by the DBE (2017) is yet to be tested empirically to ascertain if such an intervention has any benefits.

While the poor performance of South African learners cannot be attributed to a single factor, Dreyer (1998) and Mahlobo (1999) suggest that one way of addressing poor language proficiency among learners is to consider how learners learn as an important factor in improving the educational prospects of L2 learners. Moreover, focusing on learners and how they learn is congruent with the latest trends in L2 learning, which have shifted from focusing on teachers and methods of facilitating learning to how learners use various strategies in the learning process (Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Griffiths, 2013; Yule, 2014). This shift is seen in the National Curriculum Statement (NCS Grades 1 to 12) of South Africa, which has become learner-focused and interactive, with great emphasis placed on learners' taking responsibility for their own learning (DBE 2011; Oxford et al., 2014). The NCS provides for teachers to teach learning strategies; however, according to Nel (as cited in Oxford et al., 2014), many South African teachers are unaware of learning strategies and do not know how to activate them or integrate them into their classrooms. Nel (as cited in Oxford et al., 2014) makes this claim after a pilot project in the North West and Free State provinces of South Africa, which indicated that both teachers and learners were unaware of the importance of different LLSs. This LLS bankruptcy is a possible factor contributing to the poor performance of South African L2 learners, hence the importance of this study.

1.4 Location of the Study

This study was conducted with learners from township schools participating in peer tutoring programmes run in five townships in the Gauteng province of South Africa. The seven peer tutoring programmes who participated are designed and offered by various nonprofit organisations (NPOs) that seek to support learners in overcoming the educational challenges they face as a result of poor education. According to Ndimande (2016), South African township schools are greatly underfunded and education in such schools is often of a poor quality. Using volunteers from the community and students from surrounding universities, these NPOs provide much needed after-school support to learners who may not have sufficient support at school or at home.

From a sociocultural theory (SCT) perspective, it is insufficient to research the strategies used by individual L2 learners while the emphasis should also be on the classroom as a cultural environment and the learner interactions that occur in such an environment (Donato, & MacCormick, 1994b; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the peer tutoring programmes provided an optimal environment for observing interactions between learners. This environment allows for immediate feedback, and affords learners the chance to reflect on their own learning by providing them with opportunities to engage actively with tutors and other tutees (Naidoo, & Paideya, 2015; Topping, 2015; Bowman-Perrott, deMarín, Mahadevan, & Etchells, 2016; Marieswari, & Prema, 2016). This environment is learner-focused and allows the learner to be actively involved in their own learning and to reflect on this learning. The small-group or one-on-one nature of peer tutoring allows for learners to be taught in their zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf et al., 2015), thus encouraging each learner to use the most appropriate LLS for a given language task (Topping, 2015). Therefore, I argue that the peer tutoring environment acts as a constructivist platform to mediate learning through social interaction, which assists with scaffolding L2 learning. I anticipated that my research would not only contribute to the existing body of knowledge on LLSs, but also expand on this knowledge by illuminating new insights into the mediational factors that help to scaffold learning.

In this study, peer tutoring was conceptualised as an inclusive constructivist learning environment. Peer tutoring as a constructivist learning environment allows for "cultural localisation which means incorporating the local values, styles of learning and cognitive preferences of the target population" (McLoughlin, & Oliver 2000, p. 58). Conceptualised this way, peer tutoring provides for an educational vehicle by means of which translanguaging and indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) can be practiced in a naturalistic manner.

1.5 Rationale and Motivation for the Study of Language-learning Strategies

The literature reviewed shows that LLSs play a fundamental role in L2 learning in that they assist with developing learner autonomy and language competency, and act as a platform for active and self-directed learner involvement (Rao, 2004; Liang, 2009; Griffiths, 2013; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014; Griffiths, & Oxford, 2014; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015; Huang, 2018). Therefore, the LLS encourages learners to be actively involved in their own learning and to take responsibility for their own learning (Little, 1995; Oxford et al., 2014). As argued by Little (1995), learners who take responsibility for their own learning often achieve their L2 learning targets and are likely to maintain a positive attitude towards learning. LLSs can also aid low-performing learners to adopt the strategies used by their high-performing peers (Pineda 2010; Baleni, Malatji, & Wadesango, 2016; Hsia et al., 2016; Tsuei, 2017).

There is a paucity of South African studies examining L2 learning in relation to LLS. The few South African studies that I identified have mainly been conducted with university students (Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Dreyer, 1998; Perea, 2019) and only three were conducted with high school learners (Mahlobo, 1999; Lutz, 2015; Makoni, 2016). The study by Perea (2019) examined the LLSs of university students learning Spanish as a foreign language. Although the language use of university students can inform LLS, it does not fully address the challenges faced in basic education. The study by Makoni (2016) employed a quantitative design to examine the relationship between the L1 and LLSs used by high school learners (Grade 8 to Grade 12 learners) learning English L2. The results of Makoni's study (2016) indicated a minor relationship between the L1 and English L2 strategy use. In terms of the strategies employed by L2 learners, this study indicated that learners predominantly used metacognitive strategies while memory and compensation strategies were the least used. Although Makoni (2016) also examined variables such as age, gender, motivation and number of years learning English L2 this was done in a descriptive manner, thus not exploring learners' motivation to learn the L2.

Similarly, the study by Lutz (2015) also employed a quantitative design to examine the relationship between LLS and L2 achievement by Grades 6 and 7 learners who had English as L1 as well as those who had English as L2. The results of the study by Lutz (2015) suggest that metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies assisted learners with learning a second language and noted the need for learners to be taught different strategies to ensure that maximum learning takes place. The correlational study by Lutz (2015) only sought to establish relationships between L2 performance and LLS and does not consider the possible reasons why the different strategies were chosen by the L2 learners. The study by Mahlobo (1999) examined the contextual and learner-related factors that affect L2 learning and found that the use of direct strategies correlated with L2 proficiency. This mixed methods study by Mahlobo (1999) was conducted with high school learners in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa.

Apart from Mahlobo's (1999) study, it is evident that LLS research in the South African context has mainly been correlational. The studies indicated above merely sought to identify the strategies and to determine their relationship, differentiating between the L1 and English L2 performance, but neglected to consider other possible LLSs that learners bring into the L2 classroom, which might not be accounted for in existing LLS research. The current study thus seeks to identify both conventional strategies, which mainly stem from the Global North (Dados, & Connell, 2012) and indigenous strategies used by L2 learners as well as to provide empirical reasons why certain strategies are preferred over others. Moreover, the current study sought to indicate how these strategies affect L2 performance in general and the four language skill areas (speaking, reading, writing and vocabulary and grammar) specifically. The use of a mixed methods design allowed me to obtain a deeper understanding of why learners choose specific

strategies. Furthermore, the current study illuminates learners' perceptions about L2 learning and how LLS helped to shape the learning environment by means of participants indicating how they learnt best. The current study is unique in that it examined LLSs in the context of peer tutoring, which has not been done before in the South African context.

The gap that I have identified in the LLS research is the omission of indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) used by L2 learners in a South African context to make their learning relevant and effective. IKS pertains to the knowledge systems of indigenous people, which include their culture, identity, language, philosophy and music (Seepe, 2004; Odora Hoppers, 2013; Shava, & Manyike, 2018). The term indigenous people in the context of my study refers to learners who speak one of the nine indigenous African languages as their L1. Although the inclusion of the SCT has made allowances for studying LLSs in specific contexts, studies conducted in LLSs using the SCT have focused primarily on a Westernised cosmology and epistemology. I believe that the inclusion of indigenous strategies for language-learning will not only contribute to LLS research, but also highlight the need to indigenise the learning process of indigenous people. By so doing, the learning experience of indigenous people may be enriched as they would gain from both formal education as well as their natural settings. In my view, L2 learners enter the formal spaces of education, be it in the classroom or in the peer tutoring context, with pre-existing ways of language-learning. These learners have developed, outside the formal structures, unique strategies that help them to navigate the complexities of a multilingual society. It is these indigenous strategies that I uncovered while conducting my research with the view to understanding how they are used in the context of peer tutoring.

There is furthermore also a theoretical gap in the field of LLSs, hence my choice to frame this study within the SCT and cognitive theoretical paradigms (Cohen, & Griffiths, 2015). I envisaged that my findings would contribute to providing some clarity with regard to the theoretical gap which exists in LLS research. Rao's (2004) study about the use of LLSs in the Chinese context provides a crucial theoretical understanding regarding the role of context in LLSs. Moreover, Rao (2004) argues that in order to account for differences in learner performance, learners' cultural and educational backgrounds should be considered. This researcher advocates the re-examination of conventional learning strategies to include unconventional strategies. This is echoed by Jones (2016), who suggests that researchers need to document the strategies that are in use in marginalised communities instead of expecting learners in these communities to use the strategies that were formulated through various inventories from the perspective of the Global North, such as Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL). The L2 learners I included in my research form part of marginalised communities due to the deprivation experienced with regard to the use of their own languages and IKS within the schooling environment (DBE, 2011).

At a personal level, my motivation for conducting this study was to explore how the peer tutoring environment supports L2 learning. The results of this study could be used to inform pedagogical practice in the peer tutoring organisations in order to maximise the peer tutoring interactions between tutors and tutees. Oxford (2003) asserts that harmony between the way that learners learn (learning strategies used) and how they are taught (instructional methodology) results in the learners' feeling confident and experiencing low anxiety levels, which are likely to contribute to their improved performance. This assertion calls for an awareness of how learners learn in order to maximise their learning through scaffolding learning in such a way that instructional methodology matches the learning strategies used by learners.

1.6 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this convergent mixed methods study was to identify the LLSs used by L2 learners and to explain the relationship between LLSs and factors that influence the use of LLS in the context of a peer tutoring environment. More specifically, I sought to identify and obtain an in-depth understanding of both the conventional and indigenous LLSs used by English L2 learners participating in peer tutoring (Creswell, 2014; Ivankova, Creswell, & Clark, 2016). Although the peer tutoring environment was the focus of the current study, learner's school classroom environment was also included to ensure a more holistic understanding of the LLS used by the learners.

The quantitative data were used to identify the frequency and quantity of conventional LLSs used by L2 learners and how these strategies affected L2 learning in general and the four language skill areas (reading, writing, speaking and vocabulary and grammar) in particular. The qualitative data identified the indigenous LLSs and explored how these LLSs were employed during peer tutoring. My goal in exploring alternative strategies used by L2 learners was informed by the gaps that I identified in LLS research, therefore seeking to fill these gaps. I thus sought to address these gaps by identifying and illuminating the indigenous LLSs employed by L2 learners. This is in line with current views in L2 research which propose that L2 research needs to consider the context of indigenous learners and to valorise these learners' ways of learning (Jones, 2016; Ortega, 2018). Ortega (2018) contends that little progress has been made in L2 research efforts to gain a full understanding of how L2 develops in the case of indigenised language speakers. She further argues that L2 research predominantly highlights and valorises the voices of what she terms pastoral populations. Ortega (2013) describes pastoral populations as learners from higher socio-economic homes with a high level of literacy in terms of reading, writing and numeracy and they have often been raised in monolingual contexts where language oppression has never been experienced (Ortega, 2018). These pastoral populations are in stark

contrast to indigenous language speakers in a South African context, who are often multilingual, have experienced language oppression and are sometime illiterate.

1.7 Research Questions Guiding this Study

This convergent mixed methods study is guided by the following main research question: What LLSs do English L2 learners in a peer tutoring environment use and how does this environment, which includes sociocultural factors, affect LLS usage? In order to answer the main research question, four subquestions were formulated, namely:

1. What are the conventional and indigenous language-learning strategies used by English L2 learners engaged in peer tutoring initiatives?
2. How does the frequency, quantity and type of conventional strategy use affect L2 learning?
3. What are the sociocultural factors (such as gender, motivation, identity and L1 competence) that could be associated with L2 learning and how do these factors affect language-learning strategy use?
4. What role does peer tutoring play in language-learning and LLS usage?

1.8 Operational Definition of Terms

My conceptualisation revolves around defining key concepts based on the relevant literature in order to guide the reader. In this section, I define and contextualise the key concepts used throughout the study:

1.8.1 Language-learning strategies

LLSs are broadly defined as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). These actions are characterised by the relationship between intention and action and views learners as responsible agents who are capable of proactively contributing to their own L2 learning (Anderson, 2005; White, 2008; Gregersen, & MacIntyre 2014). Other terms that are commonly used in the literature relating to strategies for L2 learning include tactics, learning behaviours (Politzer, 1983; Politzer, & McGroarty, 1985) and techniques (Stern, 1975). The term I prefer is strategy as this is the term that enjoys prominence in L2 research (Dörnyei, 2005; Griffiths, 2008; White, 2008; Oxford et al., 2014; Cohen, 2014). The six strategies that form the basis of Oxford's (1990) SILL, which is one of the data-collection instruments I used for collecting quantitative data, are: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and

social strategies. While memory, cognitive and compensation strategies are classified as direct strategies that are responsible for the mental processing of the L2, metacognitive, affective and social strategies are classified as indirect strategies that support the process of L2 learning (Oxford, 1990; Gascoigne, 2008; Kamper, Mahlobo, & Lemmer, 2010).

1.8.2 Language of learning and teaching

The language used for learning and teaching in a given school or classroom is referred to as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) (Dornbrack, 2009). Although the DBE provides for learning and teaching to occur in all 11 South African languages, the predominant LoLT continues to be English, followed by Afrikaans (Hugo, 2008; Ferreira, 2011; Smith, 2011; Carnoy, & Arends, 2012). This implies that most learners do not learn in their L1.

1.8.3 Second-language learning

Learning a L2 involves a conscious process of learning a language by means of formal instruction (Lalleman, 1996). Some scholars argue that although learning can result in greater knowledge of the language, it nevertheless does not always have conversational fluency as outcome (Oxford, 1990; Ferreira, Jordaan, & Pillay, 2009; Yule, 2014). The terms acquisition and learning are at times used interchangeably in various contexts. For the purpose of my study I use the term learning.

1.8.4 Second language

There is controversy regarding the term that should be used for learning a L2. Scholars often utilise the term L2 while others use the terms additional language, additive language or target language (Griffiths, 2013). A L2 is a language that is often spoken in a given community (Yule, 2014) or is a language that is "spoken in the community where the language-learning is taking place" Cohen (2011, p. 8). Oxford (1990) asserts that the L2 often has communicative and social functions in the community where it is being learned. In the South African context, 65% of learners at school use their L2, usually English, as the LoLT (DBE, 2011). This requires that these learners should reach high levels of competence in English as "they need to be able to read and write well in English" (DBE, 2011, p. 8). In the South African case, the term most used to refer to the L2 is "first additional language" (Ellis, 1999, p. 11). This is the language that a learner learns in addition to their home language (Dornbrack, 2009). I use the term L2 to refer to English as additional language. This usage of the term L2 does not suggest a sequential order of languages as learners may have English as a third or fourth language but instead indicates the term preferred for the current study.

1.9 Overview of the Research Design and Methodology

Table 1.1 below gives an overview of the research design and methodological norms that were observed in the process of conducting this empirical study. This was done to ensure the welfare and dignity of the individuals who participated and to ensure rigour and quality findings.

Table 1.1: Overview of research design, methodology and quality criteria

Research design and methodology	Summary
Paradigmatic approach	This study is informed by pragmatism. Pragmatism was applied at various levels of the research process. At a philosophical level, I combined constructivism and Ubuntu and at a theoretical level I combined Anderson's (1976) adaptive control of thought (ACT) model and Vygotsky's (1978) SCT. At the methodological level, I combined the quantitative and qualitative methods by employing a mixed methods design.
Research design	I employed a convergent parallel mixed methods research design. This design allowed me to collect both quantitative and qualitative data in the same phase (Creswell, 2014; Ivankova, Creswell, & Clark, 2016).
Sampling methods	This study was undertaken with learners participating in various peer tutoring programmes in Gauteng, a province in South Africa. Nonprobability snowball sampling was used for selecting the sample of peer tutoring programmes. Once I had located the peer tutoring programmes, I used purposive sampling for sampling Grade 8 and 9 learners in these programmes.
Data-collection methods	The SILL (Oxford, 1990) and the quantitative part of the peer tutoring and English learning (PTEL) questionnaire were used for collecting quantitative data. Grade scores were also collected. Qualitative data was collected through FGD, open-ended questionnaire (section C of the PtEL) and non-participant observations.
Data analysis and integration methods	The quantitative data were analysed through both single-quantity-based descriptive statistics and exploratory-based inferential statistics, as suggested by Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2010). I used the constructivist grounded theory (CGT) analysis method to analyse the qualitative data, as proposed by Charmaz (2006).
Reliability and validity	I conducted a reliability analysis (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Denscombe, 2010; Perry, 2011) to determine the consistency of the SILL and the quantitative section of the PTEL. The results indicated that these two questionnaires were reliable for using in the current study. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), validity is based on establishing the validity of the construct in the quantitative measures used and for establishing triangulation. The use of an established questionnaire with established psychometric properties (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Petrogiannis, & Gavriilidou, 2015; Pawlak, & Kiermasz, 2018) ensured that validity was maintained. For the newly developed PTEL, content validity was ensured through pilot testing the questionnaire and discussing it with learners and consulting with two programme managers who are knowledgeable about language-learning.

Research design and methodology	Summary
Triangulation	Data were triangulated using multiple data sources and using different research methods (convergent mixed methods design) (Denscombe, 2010; Thomas, 2013; Yin, 2016).
Trustworthiness	Trustworthiness was ensured through establishing credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability, as suggested by Denzin, and Lincoln (2011) and Nieuwenhuis (2016). Credibility was enhanced through member-checking, which involved confirming that the data collected reflected the experiences of learners. To establish transferability, I provided sufficient information regarding the data gathered. Confirmability and dependability relate to researcher bias (Denzin, & Lincoln, 2011; Nieuwenhuis, 2016) and ensuring that the research is conducted in a neutral manner, allowing learners to express their own experiences. Researcher bias was mitigated through triangulation and acknowledging my own predispositions. Reflexivity was done through what Carvalho-Malekane (2015) terms "think boxes" to reflect on my research journey and to offer the reader the opportunity to gain some insight into my reflections. This is done through personal reflection of the process as well as reflecting on field observations.
Informed consent and assent	Informed consent was obtained from the parents and guardians of the learners before learners participated in the study. Learners also had to sign an assent form indicating that they understood what they were required to do and that they agreed to participate in the study.
Privacy and confidentiality	No identifying information of both learners and the peer tutoring programmes was reported in the write-up of my study to ensure confidentiality and privacy. In completing the questionnaires, learners were not required to include identifying information to ensure anonymity.

Think box 1.1: My journey begins

My interest in language-learning was sparked by my own unpublished research at one of the state departments in South Africa, where I work, which constantly indicated that language plays a major role in how individuals perform in aptitude tests. In almost every language-based test, English-speaking individuals would score disproportionally higher than their counterparts to whom English is a second, third or fourth language. In attempting to understand this phenomenon, I was drawn to studies on language and how language affects performance. My pragmatic inclination sought not only to understand the phenomenon of low performance by L2 learners, but also to explore how this problem can be resolved. This enquiry led me to the concept of peer tutoring and how this constructivist interaction helps to scaffold language-learning.

1.10 Orientation of Chapters

Chapter One introduces the study and provides a prelude to the thesis by explaining the significance of the study. I discuss concepts used in the study and provide an overview of the

selected paradigm, research design and methodological choices. I conclude this chapter by providing an orientation of the chapters.

Chapter Two provides a detailed description of the context of learning in South Africa. In this chapter I highlight the factors that hinder L2 learning in the South African classroom. I highlight how the sociocultural environment and language policies affect L2 learning. I show how, at policy level, learners are subjected to curriculum changes and a language of instruction that does not optimally support the diverse language repertoires with which they come into the classroom. At classroom level, learners have to learn in overcrowded classrooms and are taught by teachers who are sometimes not proficient in the language of instruction. At the home level, learners are raised in an environment that cannot support L2 learning as parents or guardians are often illiterate. I also discuss how translanguaging, IKS and peer tutoring supports L2 learning. I argue that for L2 learners to become successful there should be concerted efforts to draw on IKS and translanguaging as well as to provide learners with more peer tutoring opportunities.

In **Chapter Three** I review the current literature on LLSs by providing definitions and discussing the various ways in which LLS has been classified. I locate the LLS within the broader framework of learner differences and critical theory, which allowed me to draw from traditional and critical theories in understanding L2 learning. A common theme that runs through this chapter relates to the need to integrate LLS research with the learners' broader sociocultural environment as this environment is key to understanding L2 learning generally and LLSs specifically. In this chapter I also highlighted several factors that affect learning, such as motivation, culture, identity and gender.

Chapter Four provides the philosophical and theoretical paradigms used to situate this study. Using pragmatism as a basis, this chapter combines the constructivist and Ubuntu philosophies to help understand LLS usage among the L2 learners who participate in peer tutoring. In this chapter I also focus on Anderson's (1976) ACT model as this model was key to early LLS research and describes how L2 knowledge is stored in and retrieved from long-term memory. This is followed by a discussion on Vygotsky's (1978) SCT. The basic tenet of SCT is that mental development is irrevocably social, thus placing social interaction at the core of cognitive development. I conclude this chapter by putting forward a hybridised language-learning strategy conceptual framework that draws on contextual and individual factors that affect L2 learning.

In **Chapter Five** I elaborate on the research design and provide the rationale for using a convergent mixed methods research design which allowed me to collect both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time. I delineate the sampling method and sample used in the study.

I also provide a rationale for the data-collection procedures and explain how these would aid in answering the research questions.

Chapter Six focuses on presenting the quantitative findings obtained through the quantitative questionnaires.

In **Chapter Seven** I present the qualitative findings obtained through the FGDs, the open-ended questionnaire and nonparticipant observations.

In **Chapter Eight** I consolidate and discuss the quantitative and qualitative results presented in Chapters Six and Seven. In discussing the key findings, I drew upon existing literature to contrast and confirm the findings. The main theme that runs through the discussion relates to the need to adopt a hybrid understanding of the LLS, which draws from both the conventional and indigenous strategies, and to integrate these LLSs in the broader L2 curriculum. I also illuminate the role of social interaction in L2 learning and how the peer tutoring environment act as a resource for L2 learning by allowing learners to co-construct L2 knowledge.

In **Chapter Nine** I summarise the key findings through providing evidence in support of answering the research questions. I illuminate the contributions achieved through this study with regard to LLSs and L2 learning. I also reflect on both the conceptual framework and the methodology used in answering the questions. This chapter concludes with recommendations for policy and research. Recommendations include the following: (1) the need to include IKS in the schooling environment; (2) the need to implement an additive bilingual/multilingual approach in the classroom instead of the early exit model; and (3) the need to revise the traditional role of the teacher by allowing learners to learn from one another through peer interaction.

1.11 Conclusion

In this introductory chapter of the study, I presented the contextual background of the study in order to give an overview of the thesis. I discussed the rationale and philosophical position adopted. In addition, I situated the purpose of my research, and the research questions, and also defined the key concepts used within the broader field of LLS. In conclusion, I provided a brief outline of my choice of research design and research methodology and provided a brief summary of the chapters that follow.

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Chapter Two
The Social and Educational Context of Education in South Africa

2.1 Introduction

Chapter Two provides a contextual review of education through highlighting some of the social and contextual dynamics that affect language-learning in the South African context. This is done to counter the criticism that language-learning research is largely conducted in a decontextualised setting (Ortega, 2013). Drawing from the SCT, the current chapter recognises that the historical, social and cultural environment in which learners find themselves affect their language-learning. In this chapter, I therefore discuss the role of context in L2 learning, specifically focusing on how various factors impeded or promoted the use of a wide range of LLSs.

In Figure 2.1 below, I outlined the academic performance of South African learners by drawing from international, national and regional results of large-scale assessments of learners. Based on a plethora of studies in education (Casale, & Posel, 2011; Moloi, & Chetty, 2011; Taylor, 2011; Madiba, 2012; Modisaotsile, 2012; Heugh, 2013; Spaull, 2013; Van Staden, & Bosker, 2014; Van Staden, & Howie, 2014; Plüddemann, 2015; Van Staden, Combrinck, Roux, Tshele, & Palane, 2019), I argue that poor learner performance is influenced by several factors or barriers that are beyond the learner's control. I therefore illuminated the educational context in which learning occurs in several South African classrooms by paying attention to systemic factors such as curriculum reforms and language policies that govern L2 learning as these are associated with ideologies and beliefs about the various languages (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). I also discussed factors that affect learning in and outside the classroom. These included school-related factors (overcrowded classrooms and teacher knowledge of subject) and home-related factors (socio-economic status). By highlighting these social factors affecting learners both in and outside the classroom, I am by no means suggesting that there are causal relationships between them, but rather encourage being cognisant of the effects that these factors could have on learning.

I concluded this chapter by presenting various opportunities for scaffolding learning that can be applied to mitigate some of the barriers experienced by L2 learners in the South African context. These opportunities include peer tutoring, translanguaging and IKS, which are all supported by the pragmatic and constructivist paradigms used. Among other things, the pragmatic and constructivists paradigms used in this study encapsulates collaborative and cooperative learning as well as the active construction of knowledge (Gumbo, 2018). This type of learning is often

witnessed in the peer tutoring environment. The inclusion of IKS in this study is supported by several scholars (Seepe, 2004; Odora Hoppers, 2001; Msila, 2012; Gumbo, 2018), who state that any educational framework which fails to recognise IKS within the South African context suffers from linearity and incompleteness.

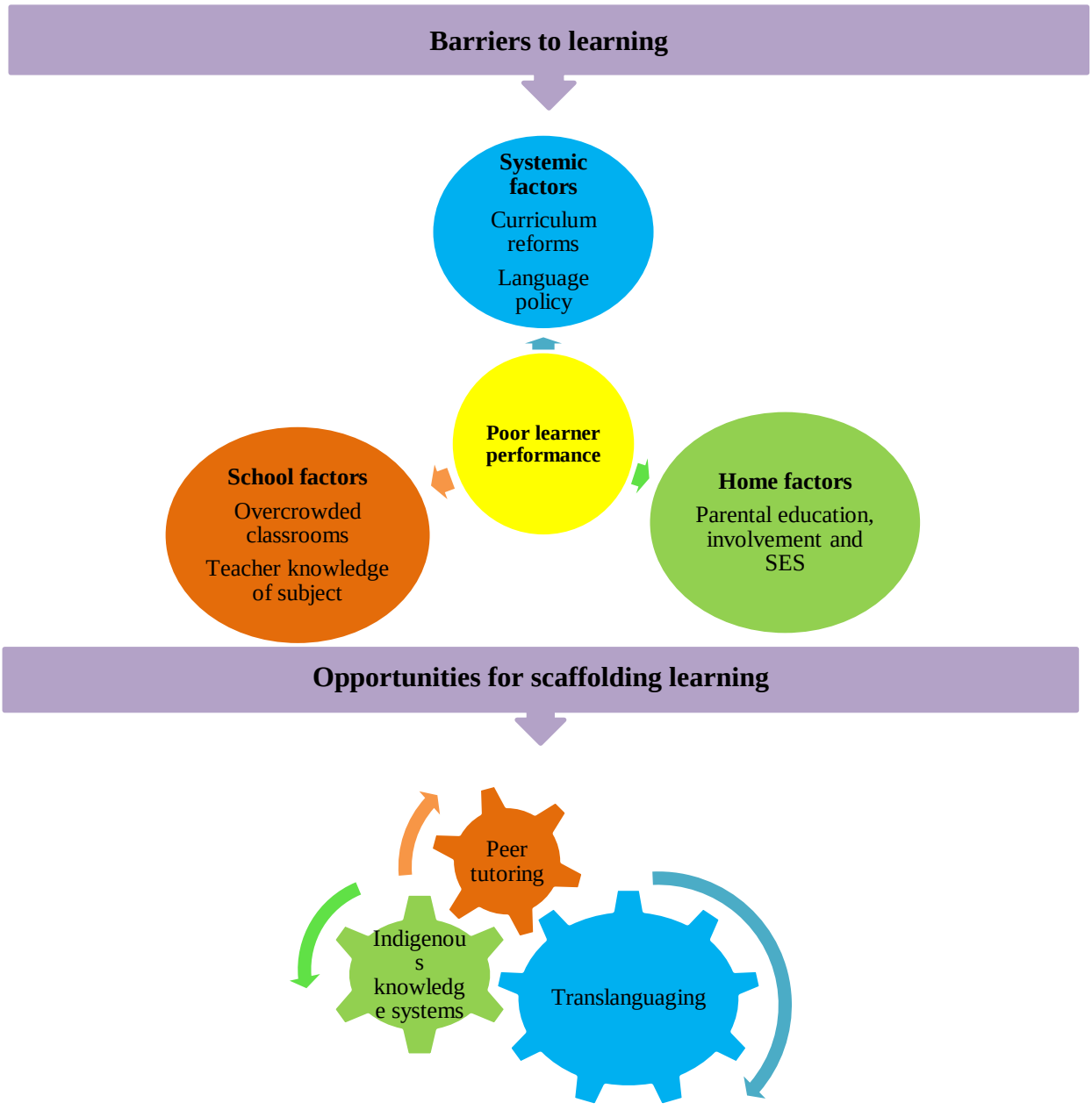

Figure 2.1: Outline of Chapter Two

2.2 Academic Performance of South African Learners

There is some indication that developing nations such as South Africa are making considerable progress in providing greater access to education and ensuring retention rates. However, despite the increased access to schools, major deficits continue to impede these countries when it comes to achieving learning when measured according to cognitive skills (Van der Berg, 2018). These

deficits include underperformance of learners, high dropout rates and lack of resources in schools (Spaull, 2013; Ndimande, 2016). Scholars have noted that South African schools exhibit the full range of performance levels, from a minority of schools that perform well to the majority of schools that underperform when compared to their international and regional counterparts (Spaull, 2013; Desai, 2016).

In South Africa, these deficits are observed in learners' dismal performance in international, regional and national assessments, which has led researchers to declare a crisis in the basic education system (Moloi, & Chetty, 2011; Taylor, 2011; Modisaotsile, 2012; Spaull, 2013, Van Staden et al., 2019). Although these international, regional and national large-scale studies provide useful insights into the performance of South African learners when considering their global peers, these evaluations have been criticised owing to possible problems regarding their validity and reliability (Makgamatha, Heugh, Prinsloo, & Winnaar, 2013; Van der Berg, 2018).

Makgamatha et al. (2013) problematise the use of large-scale assessments such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (Martin et al., 2016; Mullis et al., 2016) for their lack of alignment with the South African Constitution (1996) regarding language equity as such assessments are mainly administered in English or Afrikaans. This means approximately 78% of South African learners are assessed in a L2 with only 22% being assessed in their first language, leading to inequitable assessments. Makgamatha et al. (2013) also note that such assessments are mainly seen to be adding value to educational managers and policymakers rather than providing individual feedback to individual learners, parents and teachers. This might affect the interest levels of both learners and teachers in such assessments. However, Howie (2016) maintains that these assessments can inform improvements in educational systems, motivate learners and help to refine the pedagogical practice of teachers. Moreover, monitoring performance in these assessments allows for comparisons to be conducted in order to satisfy one of the priorities set out in the South African National Development Plan (NDP)[1], which aimed to improve learner performance in international comparative studies by the year 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2011). This is an ideal that is yet to be realised.

At an international level, South African learners have been participating in TIMSS since 1995 (Reddy, Van der Berg, Janse van Rensburg, & Taylor, 2012; Howie, 2016) as well as in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) since 2006 (Van Staden, & Howie, 2014; Howie, 2016). The TIMSS was initially administered to Grade 8 learners in 1995 and 1999. In 2002 it was administered to both Grade 9 and Grade 8 learners and subsequently only

[1] This is a plan that South Africa adopted with the overarching goal of eliminating poverty and inequality by the year 2030. Several priority areas are highlighted in this document, such as improving infrastructure, providing quality healthcare for all citizens and improving the quality of education (National Planning Commission, 2011).

to Grade 9 learners in 2011 and 2015. The initial administration of the TIMSS to Grade 8 learners indicated that these learners were performing at such a low cognitive level that their answers were tantamount to guessing. These results would therefore not yield any useful information regarding the performance of South African learners. The decision was therefore made to test Grade 9 learners instead of Grade 8 learners (Spaull, & Kotze, 2015). A trends analysis of the results of the TIMSS from 1995 to 2011, as conducted by Reddy et al. (2012), shows that the performance of South African Grade 9 learners is improving in both Mathematics and Science. This improvement is also evident in the latest TIMSS 2015 report (Martin, Mullis, Foy, & Hooper, 2016).

Notwithstanding the improvements observed in learners' performance in Mathematics and Science over the years, the performance of South African Grade 9 learners in these subjects continues to be among the worst in the world (Martin et al., 2016; Mullis et al., 2016). Of the 42 countries that participated in the TIMSS 2011, the performance of South African learners was rated among the bottom six countries. This poor performance was also observed in the TIMSS 2015, when South African learners were the worst performers in Science and achieved second-last in Mathematics out of a total of 39 countries (Martin et al., 2016; Mullis et al., 2016).

In 2006, South African Grade 4 and Grade 5 learners participated in the PIRLS study, which is designed to assess the reading literacy of Grade 4 learners. The instruments used in this study were translated from English into the other 10 South African languages to allow learners to be tested in the LoLT (Van Staden, 2010, Van Staden, & Howie, 2012). The results of the 2006 PIRLS reported that South African Grade 5 learners had the lowest score of the 45 participating education systems. South African learners obtained a mean of 253 points, which is considerably below the international reference mean of 500 points (Van Staden, & Howie, 2014). In 2011 South Africa participated in both the PIRLS and pre-PIRLS studies. The pre-PIRLS is a less difficult version of the PIRLS (Mullis et al., 2012). The results of the 2011 pre-PIRLS show that South Africa's Grade 5 learners were the worst-performing of the 9 benchmarking countries that were involved in the study, with a mean of 421. Although this displayed an increase on the 2006 pre-PIRLS results, in which the learners scored an average of 403, the difference was not statistically significant (Mullis et al., 2012). The results of the latest PIRLS, conducted in 2016, indicates that South African learners continue to perform poorly as 78% of Grade 4 learners were found to be unable to "read for meaning or retrieve basic information from the text to answer simplistic questions" (Howie et al., 2017, p. 72).

Furthermore, Moloi and Chetty (2010) have reported on South African learners participating in the Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ III), which began in 2000. Among other things, this study by Moloi and Chetty (2010) aims to

track trends in the reading and Mathematics performance of Grade 6 learners and their teachers. The results of the study conducted in 2007 indicated that the performance of South African learners had improved since 2000. Despite the improvement observed between 2000 and 2007, South African learners continued to underperform in Mathematics and reading compared to the SACMEQ average. Moreover, the results of the SACMEQ III study showed that 27% of South African Grade 6 learners were illiterate as they could not read simple text and derive meaning from the texts they were given. The recommendation that emerged from the SACMEQ study was that more focused interventions should be implemented in order to improve the educational outcome of learners (Moloi, & Chetty, 2010).

The TIMSS as well as the SACMEQ studies showed that learners who spoke the language in which the test was set at home achieved higher scores than those who did not speak the language of the test (Hungi, 2011; Brock-Utne, 2013; Mullis, Martin, & Foy, 2013; Mullis et al., 2016). A study conducted by Mullis, Martin and Foy (2013) that investigated the relationship between reading and performance of Grade 4 learners in Mathematics and Science found that high levels of reading were positively related to higher performance in Mathematics and Science. The results of this study revealed that the best readers generally obtained higher Mathematics scores than less proficient readers across the 34 countries in which the TIMSS 2011 took place. This suggests that language, reading in particular, plays an important role in not only language testing, but also in academic achievement.

In South Africa, the performance of learners has been monitored and tracked through the Annual National Assessments (ANA), which were administered to learners in Grades 1 to 6 as well as to Grade 9 learners. These standardised assessments were introduced in 2011 but in 2017 the Minister of Basic Education replaced the ANA with the National Integrated Assessment Framework (NIAF) (Gerber, 2017; Phakathi, 2017). Table 2.1 below shows the performance of South African learners in the ANA between 2012 and 2014.

Table 2.1: Learners' performance in the ANA (Adapted from DBE, 2014)

Grade	Subject	2012	2013	2014
1	Home language (L1)	58%	61%	63%
2	Home language (L1)	55%	57%	61%
3	Home language (L1)	52%	51%	56%
4	Home language (L1)	43%	49%	57%
	First additional language (L2)	34%	39%	41%
5	Home language (L1)	40%	46%	57%
	First additional language (L2)	30%	37%	47%

Grade	Subject	2012	2013	2014
6	Home language (L1)	43%	59%	63%
	First additional language (L2)	36%	46%	45%
9	Home language (L1)	43%	43%	48%
	First additional language (L2)	35%	33%	34%

As illustrated in Table 2.1 above, the ANA results show some improvement in the scores of learners in L1 and L2 across the different grades, except for Grade 9. No improvement was observed in the home language scores of Grade 9 learners between 2012 and 2013 but some increase is observed in 2014. Results for the L2 show a decrease in performance between 2012 and 2013, with some improvement between 2013 and 2014. These results might confirm the assertion by Spaull (2013) that the majority of South African learners fail to reach several literacy milestones due to the poor education system in which they find themselves. In literacy, challenges in both L1 and L2 include learners' inability to interpret a sentence or give an opinion when required to do so, difficulty in summarising texts in their own words and also a lack of editing skills when writing (DBE, 2014).

In a study of learners in the intermediate phase (Grades 4, 5 and 6) in a Soweto school in Gauteng province, South Africa, Sefotho and Makalela (2017) found that learners who spoke the Sotho languages (Sesotho, Sepedi and Setswana) were performing well below international benchmarks. Although these learners were tested in their L1, with tests that were at the same difficulty level as their grade (Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017), these learners underperformed in decoding at the word level and comprehension at the text level. This highlights the challenges that South African learners are experiencing regarding literacy in general and English literacy in particular.

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that South African learners are not performing optimally in both their L1 and their L2. In order to understand this poor performance, I now turn to policies that inform learning in the South African context and illuminate the factors relating to both school and home that have been found to affect performance.

2.3 Factors Affecting Learner Performance in South Africa

Numerous scholars (Cummins, 1979, Odora Hoppers, 2001; Reddy, 2004; Todd, & Mason 2005; Van Staden, & Bosker, 2014; Van der Berg, 2018) assert that various factors can affect the academic performance of learners. At policy level, Van der Berg (2018) argues that educational policies and strategies applied in educational settings are major contributors to how an educational system functions. In the current study, policy and practice factors that I discussed

include curriculum changes and language of instruction practices. Furthermore, poor and diverse performance is intricately linked to a complex yet connected set of issues occurring in the learner's school, home and community environments. Due to the multiple issues at these different levels, I limited my discussion to the school and home environments. At the school level issues such as low teacher qualifications, inadequate staffing, poor learning cultures, school infrastructure and resources can all be associated with poor performance. In the home environment issues of poor socio-economic status, inadequate housing as well as a lack of parental support and high illiteracy among adults can affect how learners perform. Some of these factors are discussed below to contextualise L2 learning in South Africa (Reddy, 2004; Van Staden, & Bosker, 2014).

2.4 Systemic Factors

2.4.1 Curriculum changes

Since the dawn of democracy in South Africa many policy changes have been made to ensure the quality of basic education. These policy changes were introduced as a means to provide equitable education for disadvantaged learners, which was severely lacking among most black learners in the apartheid era (Spaull, 2013). The substandard education that black South Africans received under apartheid and continue to receive under the current democratic dispensation is partly due to the high levels of inequality that plague the country, which have also permeated education (Lemon, 2004; Lemon, & Battersby-Lennard, 2009; Leibowitz, 2010).

Although the hegemonic system of apartheid has long been abolished, its enduring legacy in education is still being felt (Leibowitz, 2010; Mapesela, Hlalele, & Alexander, 2012; The World Bank, 2012). Education played a critical role in apartheid and was used to entrench social inequalities which ensured the perpetual poverty of the black majority (Van der Berg, 2007; Spaull, 2013; Ndimande, 2016). The Bantu Education Act (Act 47 of 1953) prioritised the education of white learners to the detriment of black learners. This Act subjugated the black learner by offering substandard education that lacked the right intellectual stimulation, thus ensuring that black learners were only good enough to become manual labourers (Masemula, 2013; Ndimande, 2016; Ned, 2019). Under apartheid there was an elevation of the values and knowledge systems of the dominant white racial group, which resulted in the marginalisation and suppression of IKS (Gumbo, 2012; Ned, 2019). In redressing the ills of apartheid education and to prepare all South African learners to be globally competitive, radical educational reforms were implemented by the DBE (Todd, & Mason, 2005; Ned, 2019).

The period between 1989 and 1994 saw a transformation of education in South Africa and ushered in a new era on the education landscape. This transformation resulted in the adoption and implementation of Outcomes Based Education (OBE) in 1997, which formed the philosophical framework of the current curriculum (Todd, & Mason, 2005; Du Plessis, Conley, & Du Plessis, 2007). This was done through the policy statement termed Curriculum 2005 and marked a departure from the apartheid curriculum, which segregated education by race (Van Staden, 2010; Van Staden, & Howie, 2012; Du Plooy, 2015; Ned, 2019), to the current system marked by resource segregation. Resource segregation relates to disparities in resources prevalent in the country, which sees high SES parents choosing the best-resourced schools that are often the most expensive, whereas low SES parents have to resort to taking their children to poorly resourced schools that they can afford or the no-fee schools. They, therefore, have a limited say in the quality of their children's education (Ndimande, 2016; Ned, 2019).

The Department of Basic Education's OBE system did not produce the desired results owing to several difficulties relating to the implementation and the overall ambiguity of focus and structure of the curriculum (DBE, 2011). A lack of resources in schools and insufficient teacher training to implement the OBE system have all been highlighted as factors that caused the failure of this system (Todd, & Mason, 2005). These difficulties led to a review of the OBE curriculum in 2000, which resulted in the 2002 Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R to 9 (NCS-R to 9) as well as the National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10 to 12 (NCS-Grades 10 to12) (DBE 2011). Implementation and resource challenges were further experienced with both the NCS-R (Grades R to 9) and NCS (Grades 10 to12), which prompted further revision in 2009. In 2012, the ongoing revision of the curriculum resulted in a merger between the NCS-R and NCS-Grades 10 to 12 to form the current NCS Grades R to 12, also known as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). CAPS not only builds on the previous curriculum, but also expands on it with the aim of providing clear specifications relating to what is to be taught during the different school terms (DBE, 2011).

Although the NCS-CAPS curriculum has the intention to value IKS, social justice, human rights and inclusivity (DBE, 2011), it has been criticised for the manner in which English L2 is taught as well as its failure to centralise IKS (Madiba, 2012; Ned, 2019). Ned (2019) contends that this failure to centralise and build on IKS may be attributed to mainstream teacher training, which does not provide teachers with the required training for the integration of IKS in the NCS-CAPS curriculum. Madiba (2012) argues that the problem with the NCS-CAPS is its promotion of a monolingual approach to language teaching, where each indigenous language is used separately from the others as though they were discrete entities. This approach is contrary to the work of scholars such as Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004); Makalela (2014, 2015a); Nkadimeng and Makalela (2015a); Sefotho and Makalela (2017); and García-Mateus and Palmer (2017),

who propose the use of learners' full linguistic repertoires in the classroom to help enhance academic performance and valorise learners' multilingual identities. Another problem with the NCS-CAPS framework, as highlighted by Madiba (2012), is that the English curriculum became the source document from which the indigenous African language curriculum was drawn. This neglected the essential academic language registers of these indigenous African languages, such as folktales, praise poems and songs. This practice undermines the rich language registers of these languages and constricts learners' expressions of identity. Restricting learners in utilising their full linguistic repositories limits the use of the full range of LLSs that have been acquired in their indigenous communities.

2.4.2 Language policy

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) recognises 11 official languages and urges the state to ensure that indigenous languages such as IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, Xitsonga, Sepedi, Setswana, Sesotho, siSwati and Tshivenda are elevated and advanced as these had historically enjoyed little use and status. In aligning itself with the prescripts of the Constitution (1996), the DBE formulated the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP), which would guide schools regarding the LoLT (DoE, 1997). The LiEP, which was adopted in 1997, was designed to elevate the status of African languages and to transform attitudes and practices regarding these languages (Plüddemann, 2015). The LiEP does not prescribe which language or which language model should be used in schools; however, it leaves this decision to the school governing bodies (SGBs). These SGBs comprise parents, school principals, staff members as well as learners and they are the ultimate decision-makers about the language of the school. The LiEP advocates the additive bilingual/multilingual approach, which allows for the maintenance of home language(s) (L1) while providing the effective acquisition of additional language(s). However, the common practice in South Africa is to adopt the early exit model from Grade 4, which favours English (DoE, 1997; Madiba, 2012; Plüddemann, 2015). This bias towards the use of English as LoLT ignores the academic evidence which shows that the use of the L1 or multilingualism helps to scaffold academic language-learning (Cummins, 2001; Madiba, 2012; Early, & Norton, 2014).

Table 2.2 below shows the different language typologies that can be used to advance multilingualism, thereby fulfilling the ideals of the Constitution (1996) and the requirements of the NCS-CAPS curriculum to promote all languages. The most commonly used typology in South African schools is submersion, code-switching and early exit methods.

Table 2.2: Typology of language models (Walter, 2008)

Language models	What the model entails	Level of L1 support
Submersion	This model involves the use of the L2 with the assumption that the learner will automatically master the language.	None
Code-switching	This model involves the use of the learners' L2 with an ad hoc switch to the L1 to provide instruction to ensure that the learners understand.	Minimal
Early exit programmes	This model involves the use of the L1 with some L2 instruction for the first few years of schooling and then switching to the L2 around the third or fourth year of schooling. This model assumes that the L2 instruction given in the first few years is sufficient for proficiency.	Initially high but little to none subsequently
Late exit programmes	In this model, learners are taught in their L1 for five or more years while receiving L2 instruction. By the time learners switch to the L2 they are sufficiently proficient in the L2 to achieve better educational outcomes.	High throughout

Despite the provision of additive bilingual education, provided for by the LiEP, South African learners continue to be subjected to submersion, code-switching and early exit models, which favour English (Howie, Venter, & Van Staden, 2008; Casale, & Posel, 2011; Madiba, 2012; Heugh, 2013; Plüddemann, 2015; Van Staden, Bosker, & Bergbauer, 2016). In a learner population of close to 12 million, 8 out of 10 of these learners use their home language in Grade 1. However, this number is reduced to 1 in 10 by the time the learners reach Grade 4 (Plüddemann, 2015; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016). In 2017 the DBE introduced English L2 in Grade 1 in the hope of equipping learners who will, in Grade 4, transition to English as LoLT (DBE, 2017). This project is still in its infancy and the DBE has yet to assess the impact such a move may have on these learners.

This early transition model applied in most South African schools entails teaching L2 learners in their home language for the first three years of school and thereafter transitioning to English in Grade 4, when English becomes the LoLT (Howie et al., 2008; Plüddemann, 2015; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016). However, in some instances the transition to English occurs even before learners have completed Grade 3 (Casale, & Posel, 2011; Madiba, 2012; Heugh, 2013; Plüddemann, 2015). This early transition to the L2 requires learners to use English for reading and writing in all their subjects except for the L1, which they retain as a subject until Grade 12 (Brock-Utne, & Holmarsdottir, 2004; Madiba, 2012).

The early transition to English results in myriad disadvantages for L2 learners. Brock-Utne (2016) argues that the implementation of the early exit model disadvantages learners on three fronts: (1) English becomes a barrier to learning different subject matter in the curriculum, such as Mathematics and Science; (2) English also becomes a barrier in the development of cognitive and language skills in the learner's own language; and (3) in the development of the additional language or L2. This early exit model contradicts extensive L2 research that indicates that the L1 critically influences the learning of a L2 and acts as a springboard from which learners construct meaning in the L2 (Canagarajah, 2002; Chimbganda, & Seru, 2009; Gumbo 2012). In a study by Chimbganda and Seru (2009) in Botswana, which investigated the LLSs used by high school learners in learning English, it became evident that the L1 is crucial for learning the L2. In this study, the majority of learners indicated that they utilised the L1 as a resource for learning the L2. The L1 thus becomes a strategy used by learners to learn the L2 and highlights the need to appreciate and valorise the language repertoires of the learners in order to foster an environment conducive to L2 learning.

Moreover, Pretorius (2002a) maintains that learners in Grade 4 have barely mastered reading comprehension in the L1, yet they are expected to do this successfully in the L2. These learners often do not have sufficiently well-developed ability in English to enable them to succeed in academic life as they cannot grasp the concepts that are being taught and they cannot express themselves proficiently in English (Desai, 2001; Hugo, 2008; Ferreira, 2011; Smith, 2011; Carnoy, & Arends, 2012; Joubert, Phatudi, Moen, & Harris, 2015). Madiba (2012) contends that the current language curriculum with its early transition model destabilises the development of academic language proficiency and fails to recognise academic language as a distinct register which can be taught and transferred across languages.

As described by Madiba (2012), the destabilisation of academic language through the implementation of early transition models has immense implications for cognitive development and language proficiency as advanced by Vygotsky (1978) and Cummins (1980a). Vygotsky (as cited in Haenen, Schrijnemaker, & Stufkens, 2003) postulates that a child's mental development is dependent on two key concepts, namely everyday concepts and academic concepts. Everyday concepts originate from the child's own experiences, whereas academic concepts are believed to develop through the process of teaching and learning (Haenen et al., 2003). Vygotsky's (1978) theory advances the idea that cognitive development is a result of the interplay between children's unmediated experiences in the world (everyday concepts) and their intentional social interaction with more knowledgeable adults or peers (academic concepts). Vygotsky's (1978) everyday concepts are comparable to learners' home languages, while academic concepts compare to L2 learning. Conceptualised this way, cognitive development requires the maintenance of the home language while learning the L2. This maintenance of the L1 while

learning the L2 is congruent with Cummins' (1979a) theory of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). However, as argued by Nunan (2001), this transfer depends on the similarities that exist between the languages, with positive transfer occurring between languages that possess similar linguistic rules. In a study by Kolisi (2009) with IsiXhosa-speaking Grade 8 learners, the results indicated that transfer of writing skills was possible between IsiXhosa and English. These findings provide some evidence that transfer of learning from the L1 to the L2 is possible in the South African context.

2.4.3 Rationale for early exit models

There are many reasons for schools and parents advocating an early transition to English. According to Taylor and Von Fintel (2016), the default to English is attributed to the fact that, in South Africa, English and Afrikaans are the only languages with developed academic literature and the only languages used for writing the school-leaving examinations. International assessments such as the TIMSS are also presented only in English or Afrikaans (Taylor, Van der Berg, Vijay, & Janse van Rensburg, 2015). What compounds this discourse is that English continues to be the primary medium of instruction at most South African universities, with some institutions making English a prerequisite for entry into university (Mutasa, 2015).

Another argument often cited in favour of English is that English is the language to use to achieve upward mobility (Dustmann, 1994; Casale, & Posel, 2011; Taylor, & Von Fintel, 2016). The results of a study conducted by Dustmann (1994) on migrants in Germany reveal that fluency in German was related to migrant workers having higher earnings. In the South African context similar findings were observed in the study conducted by Casale and Posel (2011), which demonstrated that English proficiency was related to upward mobility in the labour market. Using a traditional earnings function methodology, the study conducted by Casale and Posel (2011) found that English proficiency had great economic benefits for African men at various educational levels. Moreover, this study also found that the benefits of educational achievement increased only for those men who were reported to be proficient in English. The aforementioned researchers suggest that this may be reflective of the peculiar nature of the South African education system or indicative of workplace practice, whereby qualifications are evaluated on the basis of proficiency in English. An individual with a diploma and poor English proficiency may consequently be ranked lower than another individual with the same qualification, but who is proficient in English.

Notwithstanding these findings, Casale and Posel (2011) also warn against the misguided notion of abandoning the home language in favour of English as they found that being proficient in an African language correlated well with proficiency in English. This finding is consistent with

Cummins' linguistic developmental interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979b) as well as the common underlying proficiency (CUP) model of bilingualism (Cummins, 1980b). The linguistic developmental interdependence model proposes that the level of competence in an additional language (L2) is in part a function of the competence that was developed in the first language (L1). According to this model, a strong development of concepts and vocabulary in the L1 results in high levels of competence in the L2. On the contrary, immersion in L2 without the necessary competence in the L1 impedes the development of a L2 as well as further development of the L1 (Cummins, 1979b). In addition, the CUP model argues that common underlying cognitive or academic concepts are present in every language. For example, learners with a highly developed understanding of concepts in the L1 will theoretically be able to transfer this knowledge in learning the L2 (Cummins, 1980b; Chuang, Joshi, & Dixon, 2012).

Moreover, the suggestion that English is a language for economic upward mobility is contrary to what is observed worldwide, especially in non-Euro-American countries. Countries such as China, Japan, India and Korea have had great economic successes despite these countries promoting the use of their own, indigenous languages. Shava and Manyike (2018) argue that the promotion of indigenous languages in these countries enables their learners with epistemological access, which allows learners to relate to the language, the content and context of learning. This again highlights the value that the L1 has for the development of the L2. Thus, when learners are allowed to utilise the knowledge with which they come into the L2 classroom (everyday concepts), they are able to construct and reconstruct indigenous knowledge into academic knowledge (academic concepts), which subsequently results in cognitive development (Haenen, Schrijnemaker, & Stufkens, 2003; Malebese, 2017).

2.5 School-related Factors

2.5.1 Teacher knowledge of subjects

In South Africa numerous studies have indicated that teachers' content knowledge of the subjects they teach is very poor and this negatively affects learners' acquisition of knowledge (Plüddemann, 2002; Nel, & Müller, 2010; Pournara, Hodgen, Adler, & Pillay, 2015; Mulaudzi, 2016; Jansen van Vuuren, 2018). An observation by Plüddemann (2002) is that the failure of English as a L2 in South Africa and elsewhere on the continent is partly due to the low English proficiency of teachers, for whom English is their L2. Notwithstanding the above-mentioned arguments about the need to ensure quality in teacher training, Julie (2014) observes that there is no simple relationship between teacher training and effectiveness. She highlights the fact that teachers with the highest qualifications are at times ineffective in conveying knowledge and some with lower qualifications are at times more effective in relaying knowledge. This alludes

to the complexity of teaching that needs to be given due regard when interventions for enhancing teacher effectiveness are considered.

In a case study conducted in Thohoyandou in the Limpopo province in South Africa, Mulaudzi (2016) found that most of the teachers did not possess content as well as pedagogic knowledge of English as a First Additional Language (FAL) (referred to as L2 in this study). Part of the reason for this was that 40% of the teachers did not have English L2 as a major during their teacher training and have had inadequate in-service training. The results of a mixed methods study conducted by Nel and Müller (2010) on student teachers at the University of South Africa show that teachers' limited English proficiency negatively affected learners' acquisition of English L2. This research found that these teachers often made language errors when teaching learners between the ages of 6 and 11 years old. These language errors produced by teachers negatively affected learners' English acquisition as they learnt incorrect grammar, spelling and communication structures. This highlights the need for teachers to be subjected to a board exam to ensure that they possess the required skills and knowledge in their specific subjects (Spaull, 2015).

Although the results of the study by Nel and Müller (2010) also highlight multiple factors, such as class size, that influence L2 learner performance it is crucial for policymakers to ensure that all teachers are proficient in the subjects they teach. Ensuring that teachers are knowledgeable in the subjects they teach is essential as teachers cannot teach what they do not know (Spaull, 2015). Considering the sociocultural notion of the more knowledgeable other, which is meant to assist the learner to improve, teachers are regarded as the knowledgeable other. However, teachers are often confronted with up to 99 learners in a classroom, which highlights the multiplicity of factors that affect learning in the South African context.

Teacher knowledge of English not only affects L2 learning but can also negatively affect learning in other subject areas if English is used as the LoLT. This was the case in a qualitative study by Ferreira (2011), which was conducted in the Gauteng province, South Africa, with teachers from public schools. In this study it emerged that some teachers lacked adequate English skills to assist learners who experienced difficulties in the Life Sciences classroom as the teachers struggled with English as medium of instruction (Ferreira, 2011). Thus, mastery of the LoLT is essential for the implementation of the curriculum.

2.5.2 Overcrowding in classrooms

The issue of class size has received considerable attention from policymakers and researchers for over a quarter of a century (Li, & Konstantopoulos, 2016). In spite of all the research on the topic, there is no agreement in the literature regarding what constitutes an acceptable class size

or when a class can be labelled as overcrowded. In the United Kingdom (UK) a study conducted by Blatchford, Russell, Bassett, Brown and Martin (2007) conceptualises small classes as those with 25 or fewer learners and large classes as those with 31 and more learners. In the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) classrooms, West (2017) recommends a maximum of 24 learners per teacher. West (2017) notes that due to the nature of STEM classrooms, where learners often handle hazardous chemicals, tools or equipment, it is not advisable that learner numbers should exceed 24 as teachers may not be able to supervise and manage larger classes properly. The experimental Student-Teacher Achievement Ratio (STAR) project conducted in Tennessee provides evidence that smaller classes, fewer than 20 learners, have a positive effect on academic performance, especially in the early grades (Blatchford, Moriarty, Edmonds, & Matin, 2002). Therefore, according to the STAR project, classes with more than 20 learners are regarded as overcrowded.

Motshekga (2012), citing Resolution 4 of the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) of 1995, states that the maximum recommended learner-teacher ratio in South Africa is 40:1 for primary schools and 35:1 for secondary schools. Subsequent to the ELRC agreement, the Post-Provisioning Model (PPM) was adopted by the DBE, which specifies new norms for the learner-teacher ratio. This model aims for a 30:1 learner-teacher ratio irrespective of whether it is a primary or a secondary school. In accordance with the PPM, the national learner-teacher ratio is on average 30:1, with some provinces even achieving a learner-teacher ratio below 30:1 (Motshekga, 2012). This proposed teacher-learner ratio is consistent with global and regional policies in Europe, Nigeria and the United States, countries that also strive for a 30:1 learner-teacher ratio (Hoxby, 2000; Babatunde, 2015; Li, & Konstantopoulos, 2016).

The national learner-teacher ratio of 30:1 has not been attained in several schools across the country as some schools have disproportionately high numbers of learners per teacher. In one school in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) it is reported that there is a maximum of 150 Grade 1 learners per teacher. In this same school the Grade 2 class has 78 learners, while a joint Grade 6 class has 140 learners (Venktees, 2011). Singh (2005) found that the average number of learners was 44, with a minimum of 38 learners and up to 50 learners in one class at five different schools in Durban. Overcrowding in other provinces, such as the Eastern Cape and North West (Marais, 2016) has also been reported.

The plethora of studies regarding class size has not gone without debate on the effect that large classes have on academic achievement. Some studies have found that class size did not affect academic performance or had minimal effect (Hoxby, 2000; Li, & Konstantopoulos, 2016; Watson, Handel, & Maher, 2016) while others have found that large classes have a negative effect on learning (Masitsa, 2004; Blatchford, 2005; Blatchford, Bassett, & Brown, 2011;

Vandenberg, 2012). A study by Hoxby (2000), which used a natural variation method, indicates that class size has no effect on achievement. However, this study examined class sizes in the range between 10 and 30 learners per class and would therefore not be entirely applicable to populations with class sizes of over 30 learners per class. Hoxby (2000) goes as far as to caution against the extrapolation of his findings to populations with over 30 learners per class. Similarly, a study conducted by Li and Konstantopoulos (2016) also indicated that reducing class size did not contribute to an improvement in the Mathematics achievement of learners who had participated in the TIMSS 2011. This study was conducted in 14 European countries with Grade 4 learners whose class sizes varied between 24 and 30 learners per class.

Several studies have demonstrated that overcrowded classrooms result in poor academic performance in both primary and high schools (Masitsa, 2004; Blatchford, 2005; Blatchford et al., 2011; Vandenberg, 2012; Ncontsa, & Shumba, 2013; Kimuni, & Bhorat, 2014; Almulla, 2015; Babatunde, 2015; Glaser, 2015; Marais, 2016). Using different methodologies, these studies indicate that learners in smaller classes perform better academically than those in larger classes. A number of factors have emerged from the literature that can be attributed to the poor academic performance of learners in overcrowded classes. These factors include but are not limited to teaching and disciplinary challenges, teachers' inability to support learners fully and to apply time management.

Discipline is often cited as a serious impediment to academic achievement in large classes as overcrowded classes have a negative influence on managing discipline. This was true for novice teachers (Marais, 2016) as well as those with many years of teaching experience (Vandenberg, 2012; Muthusamy, 2015). Using an exploratory qualitative design, Marais (2016) explored the challenges faced by South African final-year students who enrolled for a Bachelor of Education degree specialising in Grades 1 to 3. The 112 student teachers who participated in the study had taught in various schools across South Africa during the practical component of their studies. The learner numbers in the classes they taught varied between 50 and 80 and could therefore be regarded as overcrowded. The student teachers reported high levels of noise, bullying, screaming, fighting and generally chaotic classroom environments. As a result, student teachers were unable to complete the lessons as most of the classroom time was spent on trying to instil discipline. Furthermore, the chaotic environment of overcrowded classrooms did not afford those learners who wanted to learn the opportunity to do so as they would be heckled and ridiculed (Marais, 2016).

Similarly, the study by Muthusamy (2015), who used a case study for her research, also found that teachers at a primary school in KZN experienced discipline problems in the large classes they taught. This was in spite of the fact that these teachers had an average of 11 years' teaching

experience. All the teachers in the study conducted by Muthusamy (2015) indicated that discipline problems seriously impeded effective teaching and learning. This was similar to the finding by Ncontsa and Shumba (2013) in a study with high school learners in the Eastern Cape province. The teachers in this study reported that overcrowding negatively affected teaching and learning. Some of the discipline problems experienced by teachers include disruption and noisiness, violence, theft as well as sexual harassment, which are all serious problems. These discipline issues reduce the time that could have been dedicated to innovative pedagogical efforts but instead teachers have to devote their time to addressing problems with discipline (Opotow, 2006). Similar findings were observed by Vandenberg (2012) in a study of well-experienced teachers in Georgia, USA, who taught small classes (25 and fewer) as well as large classes (30 and more). Many teachers who were surveyed indicated that they experienced fewer distractions and interruptions as well as less learner conflict in smaller classes than they did in larger classes (Vandenberg, 2012). This indicated that smaller classes created an environment that was more effective for teaching and learning.

In overcrowded classrooms teachers often report that they are unable to support all the learners or provide comprehensive assessments of performance (Blatchford, Russell, Bassett, Brown, & Martin, 2007; Vandenberg 2012; Marais, 2016). Studies conducted by Blatchford et al. (2007) as well as Vandenberg (2012) note that teachers in large classrooms are concerned about not being able to meet the needs of all their learners. Teachers report that large class sizes prevent them from providing individualised instruction to learners. Moreover, they are unable to give proper feedback, monitor homework and identify or assist those learners who are falling behind in their work (Marais, 2016). Furthermore, these teachers point out that in large classes they are unable to notice immediately when learners are experiencing difficulties. This may lead teachers to work with those who are participating, thereby ignoring the more passive learners (Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu, & Van Rooyen, 2009; Sosibo, & Nomlomo, 2014). Thus, learners who are struggling may not be given the necessary attention they require, causing them to struggle even more in later grades. As a result, the learners who are struggling academically remain in the cycle of underachievement as the teachers cannot assist them.

There is some indication that teaching large numbers of learners poses a threat to effective teaching and learning, which are crucial for the development of higher cognitive functioning. Marais (2016, p. 8) asserts that overcrowded classes inhibit “critical thinking, creativity and problem-solving”. These higher cognitive skills are generally enhanced through interactive involvement in the learning process, which overcrowded classes do not allow. In overcrowded classrooms, teachers are often unable to practice hybrid instructional methods that encourage learner participation, due to the disruptions and noise levels that are commonly experienced in these classrooms. Therefore, these teachers tend to resort to what Opoku-Asare et al. (2014, p.

123) call the "whole-class, chalk-and-talk" approach to teaching. This approach is teacher-centred and does not allow for much interaction on the part of the learners. A central feature of the teacher-centred approach is that it is one-dimensional, with teachers doing most of the talking, only occasionally requesting responses from learners (Blatchford et al., 2007; Blatchford et al., 2011). Opoku-Asare, Agbenatoe and deGraft-Johnson (2014) maintain that the lecture-style method of teaching often ignores practical activities, as a result inhibiting active learning and exploration.

As Marais (2016) stated, classroom overcrowding is a problem that will remain with South Africa for the foreseeable future. In this regard it would be prudent to heed the call by Blatchford et al. (2007) that encourages the exploration of more creative ways for optimal teaching to take place in overcrowded classrooms. They suggest that peer-based learning should be explored to maximise teachers' input during a lesson and to allow learners to engage in collaborative work.

2.6 Home-related Factors that Affect Learner Performance

2.6.1 Socio-economic status and academic performance

SES is a considerably complex construct to define as it is characterised by a combination of parental education, occupation, family income, psychological and physical health, housing conditions, family environment and characteristics of the neighbourhood (Hackman, Farah, & Meaney, 2010; Gearin, Fien, & Nelson, 2018; Buckley, Broadley, & Cascio, 2019). While there are ongoing debates about the definition of SES, researchers seem to agree that SES is associated with lower cognitive development (Burneo-Garcés, Cruz-Quintana, Pérez-García, Fernández-Alcántara, Fasfous, & Pérez-Marfil, 2019) and lower academic performance (Bush et al., 2009; Hungi, 2011; Smith, 2011; Blair, 2014; Kimuni, & Bhorat, 2014). Mohseni and Rabiee (2013) have found that learners from low SES backgrounds used fewer LLSs than those from higher SES backgrounds. This study specifically focused on the financial, human and social capital that learners have at their disposal. They conclude that high SES homes afford learners opportunities to access educational resources such as books, computers and extracurricular activities, which challenge and push learners to be more strategic in their learning of the L2.

The degree of academic performance by learners has been associated with the level of parental education (Bush et al., 2009; Blair, 2014), especially the level of maternal education (Reddy et al., 2016). These studies have shown that parental education relates positively to learner achievement (Reddy et al., 2016), whereby learners with literate parents are more likely to have a better chance to access continued education opportunities when compared to children with illiterate parents. This is a disconcerting finding given the high illiteracy (reading and writing)

rate in South Africa. According to the DBE (2016), South Africa has 9.6 million illiterate adults above the age of 15. Of this figure, 4.7 million are illiterate and innumerate. These adults are often unable to provide the necessary academic support to their children, leading to a cycle of undereducation.

Bush et al. (2009) argue that the problem of parental illiteracy in the South African context also relates to their poor command of the English language. The outcome of this is that illiterate parents are unable to provide the necessary assistance their children require to succeed, thus being unable to scaffold learning in the home. To illustrate this point, I draw on the study by Nishioka and Durrani (2019), conducted with English L2 learners in Malawi. This study measured the relationship between linguistic capital and learning outcomes and not only showed significant associations between SES and English literacy but also indicated associations between English literacy and parental linguistic capital. The results indicate that learners from lower SES families were disadvantaged in school. When parents were proficient in both English and Chichewa[2], learners were observed as having a better chance of acquiring a higher level of English literacy. Thus, lower SES and parents' poor proficiency in the English language are associated with lower English literacy among learners. Moreover, Bush et al. (2009) argue that the number of learners without parents, who are in child-headed households or is raised by grandparents or siblings, continues to increase in South Africa. This creates a larger learner population that is without any academic support.

Several reasons, such as resource shortages and hunger, have also been posited for the difference in performance between learners from high SES and those from low SES (Du Plessis et al., 2007; Hungi, 2011; Smith, 2011; Mullis et al., 2016). An analysis of the Grade 6 SACMEQ II data by Smith (2011) showed that differences in the mean reading and Mathematics scores of learners were attributed to their SES. The variation in mean scores was found to be significantly larger between learners from the poorest and learners from the wealthiest groups. The factors that were identified as negatively influencing the performance of learners from a poorer SES included the following: unstable home environment, lack of resources, the lack of opportunity for learners to practice the LoLT and a general lack of fluency among peers. Resource scarcity is a challenge in low SES homes as learners may not have access to the necessary material to help them thrive in their studies.

The association between low resource availability and poor performance was also highlighted in the TIMSS study (Hungi, 2011; Mullis et al., 2016) as well as in a study by Chmielewski (2019), who mapped the trend of the SES gap using a total of 30 large-scale assessments such

[2] One of the indigenous languages in Malawi (Nishioka & Durrani, 2019).

as TIMSS, the Evaluation of Education Achievement (IEA), and the First International Reading Comprehension Study (FIRCS), which represented 109 countries. Countries with large income inequalities were observed and these studies indicate that the SES gap in performance is not only a problem in low-income countries such as Hungary, Poland, Iran and Thailand but also affected high-income countries such as Belgium, Norway and Ireland. The strong link between SES and achievement has implications for the way that achievement has been understood. As indicated by Chmielewski (2019), SES explained a large amount of variance in the performance of learner achievement over time. These findings by Chmielewski (2019) suggest that performance is largely an element of opportunities and resources provided to learners to help scaffold learning rather than an element of intelligence, which indicates inherent ability. This raises concerns regarding the resource inequality that prevails in South Africa and calls for the urgent implementation of systemic reforms to address factors of inequality, resource shortages at schools and lack of early childhood education. At school level, Gearin et al. (2018) recommend that strategies should be implemented that reduce the individual differences among learners (as discussed in Chapter Three). This includes strategies that treat learners as active co-constructors of knowledge, which is consistent with the constructivist paradigm adopted in the current study.

Although low SES has been shown to have a debilitating effect on learner performance, motivation, academic self-efficacy (Wang, & Finch, 2018) and hope (Dixson, Keltner, Worrell, & Mello, 2018) have been found to mediate the effect of SES on learner performance. A study by Wang and Finch (2018), conducted with young adults aged between 18 to 29, suggests that motivation and academic self-efficacy can mediate the effect of SES on academic outcomes. This is supportive of the argument of Dixson et al. (2018), who found that hope can mediate the achievement gap between learners from low and high SES families. In this study by Dixson, hope was conceptualised as cognitive motivation and agency. As discussed in Chapter Three, section 3.4.1.2, motivation and agency play an important role in language-learning.

2.7 Opportunities for Scaffolding Learning

According to the DBE (2011b, p. 9), learners entering Grade 7 should be proficient in English as regards “interpersonal and cognitive academic skills”. However, the department concedes that this is not the case and recommends that learners should be given support in order to strengthen their language skills. Accordingly, several communities have taken on the responsibility to support learners through designing peer tutoring programmes. Translanguaging practice and the implementation of IKS are also key in addressing the language problem. Accordingly, I have conceptualised these two constructs as opportunities for learning.

2.7.1 Peer tutoring

Drawing from a constructivist theory such as Vygotsky's SCT (1978), peer tutoring is viewed as a structured and collaborative approach to teaching and learning, which encourages learners to learn from one another, thereby co-constructing knowledge together as well as taking responsibility for their own learning and that of their peers. This includes metacognitive regulation of the collaborative peer tutoring environment. This metacognitive regulation of the interaction between peers can lead to co-construction of knowledge, in so doing producing self-directed and independent learners (Hartman, 1990; De Backer, Van Keer, & Valcke, 2015; Marieswari, & Prema, 2016; Tsuei, 2017).

Invented by Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell in the late eighteenth century, peer tutoring has been rediscovered in the recent past as a way of providing learners with individualised instruction, especially in overcrowded classrooms (Goodlad, & Hirst, 1990; Geddes 2016). The term peer tutoring is at times interchangeably used with the terms peer-assisted learning or peer-mediated learning, group learning and cooperative learning (Ginsburg-Block, Rohrbeck, & Fantuzzo, 2006). A common element in all these terms is that learning occurs between people who are not professional teachers (peers) who support one another in learning (Topping, 1996). In the current study, the term peer tutoring was used, but this also encompassed peer assistance as well as peer mediation.

2.7.1.1 Peer tutoring models

Four types of peer tutoring models have been identified in the literature: (1) classwide; (2) cross-age; (3) reciprocal; and (4) same-age peer tutoring. Same-age peer tutoring involves the matching of learners who are the same age so that they are enabled to review relevant work together. These learners may have varying levels of ability (Robinson, 2005). Cross-age tutoring involves the pairing of learners at different grade levels, with the older learners assuming the role of tutors and the younger learners assuming the roles of tutees (Robinson, 2005). In this model the positions of the tutor and tutee do not change in that the tutor can never be a tutee and the tutee can never be a tutor due to the ability levels of the partners in the pairing (Hott, Walker, & Sahni, 2012). King (1997) challenges labelling cross-age tutoring as peer tutoring and asserts that such labelling is a misnomer as older learners are not truly peers. Despite the view of King (1997), the peer tutoring in the current study includes cross-age tutoring as tutors in the various peer tutoring programmes were not professional teachers (Topping, 1996).

Classwide tutoring divides learners of varying academic abilities into small groups of between two and five and they teach each other. An important feature of classwide tutoring is that the whole class of learners is involved in the tutoring process and the pairing of learners is very

fluid. Learners may be paired according to ability levels or based on groupings that would best promote educational attainment or based on learners' compatibility (Hott et al., 2012). The reciprocal peer tutoring strategy maximises group reward as well as interdependence (Fantuzzo, King, & Heller, 1992). This model allows learners to alternate roles between tutor and tutee and they do so by following a structured format (Fantuzzo et al., 1992). A distinctive feature of the reciprocal tutoring strategy is that rewards are administered according to the performance of the group. The performance of all the individuals is combined to calculate the comprehensive academic accomplishment of the group or dyad (Fantuzzo et al., 1992).

2.7.1.2 Peer tutoring strategies

Scholars seem to agree that the peer tutoring environment is an effective form of social constructivist interaction which facilitates collaborative learning. However, there is no consensus as to the type of strategies or the specific tutoring behaviours that would bring about effective learning, with scholars providing various categories of strategies (Fantuzzo et al., 1992; King, 1997, 1998; Berghmans, Neckebroeck, Dochy, & Struyven, 2012; Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014; De Backer, Van Keer, & Valcke, 2015). According to King (1997) tutoring outcomes are affected by (1) the structure of the tutoring interaction, (2) the degree of learner regulation of the tutoring process, and (3) the tutor-tutee relationship status. King (1997) suggests that a structured environment with tutors who display effective behaviours (supportive communicating, providing and asking questions) and where learners are empowered to reach self-regulation all facilitate effective learning.

Similarly, Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) provide three categories of strategies which they postulate can enhance the tutoring environment, namely cognitive scaffolding, motivational scaffolding and instruction. Cognitive scaffolding refers to a tutoring strategy whereby tutors allow tutees to figure out the solutions to problems on their own. This involves the use of various types of questioning such as open- and closed-ended questions (Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014). This strategy allows learners to assume greater cognitive responsibility in the execution of tasks, which gradually leads to greater self-regulation. Self-regulation refers to the learner's ability to function autonomously and corresponds with Vygotsky's (1978) concept of mediated learning, specifically self-mediated learning (King, 1998; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi 2013). Motivational scaffolding entails tutors providing encouragement to tutees and offering affective support. Instruction refers to direct tutoring whereby the tutor supplies solutions and offers solutions to tutees without allowing tutees to generate their own solutions. Of the three strategies, Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) found that instructional strategies were the most widely used strategy category during tutoring. The study by Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) was conducted with a sample of 10 first-year university students in the USA. The findings by

Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) were supported by those derived from the study by Berghmans et al. (2012) with university students in Belgium, which also found a high usage of answering and directive strategies among tutors. These scholars acknowledge that this direct strategy may be intimidating for some learners. Conversely, they argue that posing questions as opposed to giving instructions can stimulate thinking, develop higher-order critical thinking and encourage dialogue.

Although the tutoring strategy categories offered by Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) differ from those offered by Berghmans and colleagues (2012), there are striking similarities between these two tutoring categories. The latter researchers suggest the following broad strategic categories: structural-organisational support, social-motivational support, answering and directive behaviour, questioning and facilitative behaviour and strategic support (Berghmans et al., 2012).

2.7.1.3 Effects of peer tutoring on tutees

Research on the effectiveness of peer tutoring on tutees has been mixed with some studies indicating that such a pedagogic practice has little to no effect on academic performance (Bray, 2011; Huang, 2013). However, other studies have shown significant academic gains for tutees in various fields of study and at different grade levels (Bude, Imbos, Van de Wiel, Broers, & Berger, 2009; Roll, Aleven, McLaren, & Koedinger, 2011; Lai, & Hwang, 2015; Hsia et al., 2016; Baleni et al., 2016; Tsuei, 2017). Studies that have specifically examined the effect of peer tutoring on L2 learners have also produced mixed results (Bowman-Perrott, deMarín, Mahadevan, & Etchells, 2016; Marieswari, & Prema, 2016; Jones et al., 2017). While the study by Jones and colleagues (2017) indicated gains in the reading fluency of 1,429 Grade 3 learners in southwestern Ontario, Canada, these gains were less pronounced in the case of learners who were from schools that lacked financial and human resources, experienced high transfer rates and where there were recent changes to leadership. This finding points to the need to understand tutoring effects within the scope of the broader systemic inequalities experienced by learners, such as learner SES, school resources and early childhood education when predicting gains in peer tutoring contexts. These variables may limit the gains of peer tutoring interactions.

A systematic review of international studies examining the impact of peer tutoring on achievement in English as a school subject shows significant gains for L2 learners (Bowman-Perrott et al., 2016; Marieswari, & Prema, 2016). These gains identified in the aforementioned studies were not limited to the type of peer tutoring model that was used, nor were they restricted by the design used in the different studies (Bowman-Perrott et al., 2016). The findings of these studies suggest that peer tutoring is a strategy worth considering for enhancing the English

proficiency of learners taking English as first additional language. A recommendation by Bowman-Perrott et al. (2016) is that more research which focuses on English-language learners should be conducted to provide more conclusive results.

In their study with 42 14- and 15-year-old secondary school learners in a large industrial city in the UK, Wood and Wood (1999) emphasise that help-seeking behaviour, in the context of a tutoring relationship, increases learners' chances of improving in academic performance to a greater degree than if they were to attempt to self-correct their errors. This was demonstrated in the case of learners who were classified as high performers as well as those who were deemed to be low performers. More importantly, as regards the low performers, their chances of improvement increased significantly when they sought help rather than when they attempted to correct themselves in problem-solving tasks. The increase in performance of learners who sought help illustrates the importance of collaborative knowledge acquisition and how this is instrumental in achieving advanced performance. This finding in Wood and Wood's (1999) study highlights the importance of the current study, especially to counter the effects of overcrowding in classrooms in the South African context, which were discussed in section 2.5.2 above.

Peer tutoring has also been found to facilitate active engagement between tutors and tutees and encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning (Wood, & Wood, 1999; Bude et al., 2009; Hsia et al., 2016; Tsuei, 2017). Active engagement involves a demonstration of solutions, an indication of errors and the provision of guided instruction on the part of the tutor, whereas the tutee is required to respond to questions and emulate the solutions demonstrated by the tutor. Peer tutoring also encourages acceptance of responsibility, which has been highlighted as stimulating high-quality learning (Cole, 2014). This occurs through ensuring that learners are encouraged to participate in discussions, monitor their own progress and ultimately take charge of their own learning (Bude et al., 2009; Hsia et al., 2016). Both the tutor and tutee assume some degree of responsibility in the engagement process. The tutee is encouraged to ask questions or ask for guidance when errors are detected and the tutor is prompted to provide the guidance and assistance that are required (Tsuei, 2017). This implies that tutees are able to reflect on their own performance and make the necessary corrections based on the feedback received from the tutors (Wood, & Wood, 1999; Hsai, 2016). Crucially then, peer tutoring focuses on the active and cooperative process of knowledge construction within a social context, as propagated by social constructivism and Vygotsky's SCT (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Cole, 2014; Creswell, 2014), and not on the achievement of parroted and measurable outcomes alone. It moreover allows learners to use their idiosyncratic LLSs.

2.7.1.4 Effects of peer tutoring on tutors

Peer tutoring has been highlighted as not only beneficial for tutees but also as producing incremental gains for the tutors (Topping, Campbell, Douglas, & Smith, 2003; Robinson, Schofield, & Steers-Wentzell, 2005; Bowman-Perrott, 2016). The tutoring approach to learning and teaching is characterised by specific role-taking, (Topping et al., 2003). Using role theory, Robinson et al. (2005) assert that when learners assume the role of a teacher, they tend to display the attributes of that role. This leads to tutors feeling and acting in a manner similar to that of their teachers. The expectation is that they will be as competent as the teachers. It is this role-playing that helps tutors to increase their academic performance, which enhances their positive attitudes and increases their performance in other subjects, even those subjects that they are not tutoring (Robinson et al., 2005). This confirms the view held by Marieswari and Prema (2016) that tutors reinforce their own learning through the process of tutoring. This relates to the constructivist idea of learners co-constructing learning with the tutor or the more knowledgeable others (Denzin, & Lincoln, 2000; Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018).

While there is some evidence suggesting the effectiveness of peer tutoring in enhancing tutors' learning, Roux (2009) cautions against over-romanticising the contribution of tutors. She argues that tutors are not experts in the subjects they tutor, and this might limit how they scaffold learning for tutees. King (1998) also shares this concern, indicating that in same-age peer tutoring contexts, tutors may not be able to mediate learning for their peers effectively as they may not be knowledgeable themselves. This may lead to low-level interactions such as rehearsal of facts and checking for comprehension instead of high-level collaborative inquiry, construction of new knowledge, critical thinking and mutual problem-solving. Roux (2009) further notes that both tutors and tutees might have different expectations regarding their roles in the tutoring relationship, which could affect tutoring outcomes.

2.7.1.5 Peer tutoring in South Africa

According to Karolia (2008, p. 21), peer tutoring has not been "widely researched, practised and accepted" as a viable strategy for increasing academic attainment in South African classrooms. An exploration of various academic and nonacademic sources has shown that South African studies on tutoring have mainly focused on higher education (Roux, 2009; Du Preez, Steenkamp, & Baard, 2013; Du Plessis, 2014; Naidoo, & Paideya, 2015; Baleni et al., 2016; Clarence, 2016). Therefore, in the current research a review of published literature on peer tutoring revealed evidence that there was a paucity of studies that examined peer tutoring in South African schools.

The scarcity of research about peer tutoring notwithstanding, the findings from the limited South African studies on peer tutoring have been consistent with international literature as regards academic gains as well as socio-emotional benefits (Xulu, 2005; Fox, Vos, & Geldenhuys, 2007; Karolia, 2008; Malebese, 2017). In the study conducted by Fox et al. (2007), learners from a privileged school were involved in tutoring learners from township schools in the Eastern Cape in Mathematics. Tutoring was conducted in English as the tutors were English speakers. The findings of this study indicate that peer tutoring is an effective pedagogic strategy for increasing academic attainment. Moreover, this strategy was shown to be beneficial for both tutors and tutees, as evidenced by the increased Mathematics scores of both tutors and tutees. Similarly, the study Karolia (2008) conducted with Grade 9 learners indicated significant gains for tutees and tutors. This pre- and post-test quasi experimental study, which used same-age and cross-age tutoring, showed improved scores in vocabulary, comprehension and overall academic scores, which comprised marks from nine learning areas for both tutors and tutees. The findings by Karolia (2008) on the affective benefit of peer tutoring is consistent with other studies which show that peer tutoring can increase the overall confidence of tutees (Murphy, Evans-Romaine, & Zheltoukhova, 2012).

Moreover, the qualitative study conducted by Xulu (2005) at a high school in KZN highlighted the socio-emotional gains that resulted from peer tutoring. The benefits that emerged from this study include enhanced self-concept and motivation. The relationship between self-concept and peer tutoring has been supported by Alrajhi and Aldhafri (2015), who explored the effects of peer tutoring on Omani L2 learners' English self-concept. Results indicated high levels of self-concept in learning English by learners participating in peer tutoring. However, the findings by Xulu (2005) and Alrajhi and Aldhafri (2015) are contrary to those by Cohen, Kulik and Kulik (1982), who found no support for peer tutoring enhancing self-concept.

Think box 2.1: The peer tutoring environment of the current study

The peer tutoring programmes I worked with used a combination of same-age, cross-age, reciprocal and classwide tutoring. Typically, between 4 to 6 learners would sit around the table and help each other with different tasks (same-age tutoring/classwide). These tasks varied and would sometimes include homework tasks or work covered in class that they still had trouble with. Learners worked on the tasks together, with one or two learners voluntarily taking on the role of tutor for some tasks. The role of tutor and tutee was interchangeable depending on the task at hand, with learners taking on tutoring roles to assist other learners (reciprocal model). The use of the reciprocal model occurred in an unstructured manner with the tutor-tutee role not being clearly defined. Despite this lack of structure, collaborative interaction proceeded with great ease, with learners correcting each other when they made errors. When learners had trouble with the successful completion of a task, they resorted to obtaining assistance from a tutor from a higher grade or the university tutor assigned to the group (cross-age tutoring).

2.7.2 Translanguaging

The use of English as LoLT in South Africa is currently a given and Desai (2016) recommends that schools that admit learners who are not sufficiently proficient in English should make a point of providing these learners with opportunities to acquire this language. She advocates interventions that draw on learners' existing linguistic proficiencies, thus acknowledging and valorising the linguistic repertoire of L2 learners. In the literature, translanguaging, is sometimes referred to as code-switching or code-mixing (García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Pun, & Macaro, 2019). Although translanguaging and code-switching share similar speech practices these terms are theoretically distinct. Code-switching focuses on languages as discrete and bounded entities and advocates for the separation of languages to avoid contamination of one language by another. Conversely, translanguaging centralises the act of meaning-making and views the mixing of languages as an epistemic resource with cognitive and social advantages (Makalela, 2015; Mazak, 2017).

The term code-switching refers to a switch in language between sentences. Similarly, code-mixing refers to a switch in language within the same sentence (Brock-Utne, & Holmarsdottir, 2004) such as inserting a word from one language into another language (Phatudi, 2014). According to Phatudi (2014), code-switching can occur at the intersential level (code-switching) or the intrasential level (code-mixing). At the intersential level, there is a switch from one language to the other for a whole sentence, meaning that an entire sentence is spoken in the L1, and at the intrasential level there is a switch in language in the middle of a sentence. Phatudi (2014) argues that code-switching can be a useful pedagogic strategy in South African classrooms to facilitate learning if it is used correctly. However, Phatudi (2014) warns that excessive use of code-switching can result in delays in learning an additional language. This concern is also shared by Henning (2012), who asserts that the use of code-switching is problematic, especially for young learners who are navigating the world of abstract thinking.

Notwithstanding the concerns by Phatudi (2014) about code-switching, Macaro (2003) argues that code-switching can have several positive outcomes. First, he argues that outside the classroom context, code-switching is a naturalistic discourse between learners who share the same language or culture. Secondly, Macaro (2003) indicates that the strategy of code-switching is widespread among bilingual or multilingual communities and is in fact an effective way of engaging with global speakers who are linguistically diverse. Furthermore, Macaro (2003) argues that allowing learners to code-switch in a L2 classroom encourages greater participation. This view of Macaro's (2003) corresponds with the one advocated by Sefotho and Makalela (2017, p. 43), who posit that the use of translanguaging is "the most natural way for epistemic

access and identity affirmation for multilingual speakers, and a competence that needs space in contemporary classrooms worldwide".

According to Mazak (2017), the term translanguaging was first coined by Cen Williams in 1994 and has its roots in bilingual education, with García and Li (2014) situating it within the poststructural. Translanguaging is defined as a pedagogical strategy in which bilingual and multilingual learners engage, in both the spoken and written form, to make sense of their worlds by drawing on their full linguistic repertoire (García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). Moreover, translanguaging is a pedagogic strategy often used by teachers to assist learners with grasping the concepts that are taught in the classroom, especially in the early grades (Brock-Utne, & Holmarsdottir, 2004). It allows both the learner and the teacher to receive input in one language (reading or listening) and give output (speaking or writing) through the medium of another language with the purpose of enhancing understanding of concepts and developing the weaker L2. The use of translanguaging creates a positive experience for learners and maximises pedagogic and cognitive benefits (Makalela, 2015a; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2018).

2.7.2.1 Translanguaging in South Africa

In the South African context, studies by Madiba (2014), Makalela (2014, 2015), Ngcobo, Ndaba, Nyangiwe, Mpungose and Jamal (2016) have indicated that translanguaging has cognitive advantages in literacy and language development (Makalela 2015a). Makalela (2015a) conducted a study with second-year pre-service teachers who use translanguaging interaction strategies at the University of the Witwatersrand. The results of this study indicated significant gains in vocabulary and higher mean scores in the oral reading proficiency of the pre-service teachers. Translanguaging interaction strategies involve the use of contrastive elaboration, when learners are compelled to use other languages to compare and contrast meanings and enhance their understanding of concepts. It also involves encouraging learners to discuss and brainstorm ideas in any language of their choice (Makalela, 2015a). This study by Makalela used a pre-test and post-test design, in which 30 students were part of a control group and 30 were in the experimental group. Both groups were tested before the experiment was undertaken and after the six-month experiment. Before the experiment, both groups performed similarly, thus forming a homogenous group. The results show that the experimental group, which used translanguaging interaction strategies, scored higher in the vocabulary tests than the control group. Although the experimental group scored higher in the reading proficiency test, the scores of both groups were not statistically significant. This prompted the recommendation by Makalela (2015a) that further research should be conducted on translanguaging and reading proficiency. Although Makalela's (2015a) study applied translanguaging interaction strategies

in the context of teaching indigenous African languages, these findings are consistent with those derived from studies conducted on the teaching of English (Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Ngcobo et al., 2016; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Mavhiza, 2019).

Translanguaging not only provides academic gains, but also offers epistemological access to content that would otherwise be difficult for learners to understand (Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2018). In a study by Wildsmith-Cromarty (2018), which explored the use of translanguaging at the North West University in South Africa, it became clear that translanguaging provided epistemological access to content and made learning easier for students. Using a critical pedagogic and action research paradigm, this study allowed students and lecturers to use both English and IsiZulu in an IsiZulu course. The results of this study showed that using both IsiZulu and English in the lesson allowed for greater explanation and clarification of concepts, thus deepening understanding and heightening confidence, which allowed students to express themselves with greater ease. Students in this study also indicated that they saw no reason why they should fail the course as translanguaging allowed them to understand the content better (Wildsmith-Cromarty, 2018). Considering that students in this study conceded that translanguaging made learning easier, I argue that translanguaging is therefore a language-learning strategy that should be considered in the South African context to improve the language outcomes of L2 learners. This is derived from the observation that I made during the peer tutoring sessions, when translanguaging was a common communicative practice, with learners moving seamlessly from one language to the other in their interaction with other learners or with their tutors. Although attempts are made by the sample of NPOs to encourage the use of English during tutoring, with tutors insisting that learners respond in English during the sessions, it was clear that translanguaging was a preferred communication and learning method for most learners (see Chapters Seven and Eight).

Moreover, the use of translanguaging has also been shown to be pivotal in identity construction, meaning negotiating and harmonising cognate languages (Creese, & Blackledge, 2015; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). The results of the study by Sefotho and Makalela (2017), which they conducted with 60 Grades 4 to 6 learners, indicate that learners using cognate languages (Setswana, Sepedi and Sesotho) performed similarly in reading comprehension. The study variables that were tested in this study included listening comprehension, oral word-picture mapping, picture-word matching, reading rate and literal comprehension. These competencies were found to be comparable between Sesotho-, Sepedi- and Setswana-speaking learners despite the assessment being conducted in Sepedi. Sefotho and Makalela (2017) conclude that there is harmonisation between these

cognate languages and argue in favour of using translanguaging strategies in the classroom as this would allow learners to maximise their communicative potential and affirm the learners' multilingual identities. By using group dialogues, Nkadimeng and Makalela (2015) investigated how high school learners negotiate and perform their identities in the highly complex multilingual context of Soweto, South Africa. The results of this study show that learners consistently construct multiple identities by employing translanguaging as a resource to gain epistemic access to knowledge.

2.7.2.2 Translanguaging and the Ubuntu worldview

In linguistics, Makalela (2015b) developed an Ubuntu translanguaging framework, which combines the Ubuntu concept with multilingualism. Makalela's (2015b) Ubuntu translanguaging framework consists of four pillars, namely: complex interdependence, circular flow, confluence and 'I x we'. Complex interdependence relates to the idea that languages are constantly in a state of incompletion and thus need other languages for their completion. Makalela (2015b) argues that, given the widespread multilingualism in the contemporary world, linguistic interdependence would bring about completion in meaning expressed when learners are enabled to use all their linguistic resources. Circular flow refers to complex translingual exchanges often used by children who acquire multiple languages before turning six. The use of multiple languages allows for removal of the hierarchical ordering of languages, thus ensuring that each of the languages have equal status. Confluence relates to merged communication, where the speaker is no longer making a distinction between the various languages due to harmonisation between the various languages used. The "I x we" pillar relates to the maxim "umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu" or "motho ke motho ka batho", which translates into "I am because you are" (Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017, p. 43).

These maxims speak to the Ubuntu worldview, which relates to the dependence of one human on another for survival and being, or the idea that a person's being finds completeness only in the other (Maphalala, 2017). Makalela (2015b) expands the Ubuntu worldview and states that one language is incomplete without the other. The key concept in the Ubuntu translanguaging framework is that the use of all the languages that learners possess gives them epistemic access and affirms their identity as multilingual beings who have harmonised the various languages (Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). The Ubuntu worldview is based on the premise that humans, in this case learners, are what they are because of the social assistance they receive from others around them (Nwoye, 2017). These views are congruent with recent trends in L2 learning and specifically LLS research, which has revealed a greater appreciation for culture and the social context in which language-learning occurs (Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 403). In my view, the concept of Ubuntu has similarities with social constructivism and SCT in that social interaction

is valued and the role of the other in knowledge construction is highlighted in all these constructs (Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015).

2.7.3 Indigenous knowledge systems and language-learning

Several scholars (Seepe, 2004; Odora Hoppers, 2001; Msila, 2012) posit that the poor performance of learners in South Africa is due to the failure of the DBE to implement IKS in educational systems. Odora Hoppers (2001, 2015) argues that the poor performance of African learners on the continent is related to the pedagogic practice which subjugates learners' indigenous values and knowledge systems. This subjugation brings about pedagogic methods that are conducted mechanistically, without linking them to the learners' prior knowledges. The outcomes of such pedagogic practices lead to a dissociation between learners' lived experiences and the knowledge learnt at school, resulting in epistemological disenfranchisement and disadvantage. This decision to conceptualise IKS as an opportunity for rather than a barrier to scaffolding learning is informed by the view postulated by Odora Hoppers (2001), who posits that IKS is a national heritage and national resource that should be promoted, developed, protected and conserved. In the current study IKS is thus understood to be a resource or an opportunity that can help to scaffold learning in the L2 classroom. This sentiment is echoed by Msila (2012), that the inclusion of IKS would aid in addressing the educational injustices experienced by African learners.

Global trends in education highlight the need for the integration of IKS into existing education systems in various teaching and learning disciplines (Odora Hoppers, 2001; Mushengyezi, 2003; Seepe, 2004; Reyes-García, Kightley, Ruiz-Mallén, Fuentes-Peláez, Demps, Huanca, & Martínez-Rodríguez, 2010; Gumbo, 2012; Msila, 2012; Mkhize, & Ndimande-Hlongwa, 2014; Jacobs, 2015; Kahakalau, 2017; Manyau, Cronje, & Mokoena, 2018; Matambo, 2018; Pietikäinen, 2018; Tondi, 2018; Neto, & Rossi, 2019). Seepe (2004) contends that educational institutions need to consider the inclusion of IKS rigorously in order to make education relevant to solving African problems. This sentiment is echoed by Odora Hoppers (2015), who argues that in a world which faces the biggest challenges in human history (injustice, inequality, climate change and social exclusion), higher priority should be given to IKS. This inclusion of IKS in education systems would provide an antidote to the denigration of indigenous people's knowledges by Western knowledge systems, thereby facilitating a process of valorising these knowledge systems. This would address the problem experienced by a vast majority of learners on the continent who experience education as lacking familiarity with their context and culture (Seepe, 2004; Mkhize, & Ndimande-Hlongwa, 2014; Odora Hoppers, 2015).

Odora Hoppers (2001, p. 76) defines the term indigenous as "the root, something natural or innate" and argues that this concept is integral to culture. Defined in this manner, indigenous relates to the origins of ways of thinking and doing of a particular culture. Similarly, the term indigenous knowledge (IK) has been defined in various ways, with Shava and Manyike (2018, p. 36) defining it as "the knowledges of indigenous peoples across the globe". This suggests that IK is a global concept that is practiced and promoted in various countries (such as New Zealand, Canada, South America, China, Japan, India and Korea) by indigenous people. A further definition, provided by Seepe (2004), refers to IKS as the intricate knowledge systems which have been acquired over generations by various communities through their interaction with the environment. Odora Hoppers (2001, p. 76) opines that IKS is characterised by "its embeddedness in the cultural web and history of a people, including their civilization, and forms the backbone of the social, economic, scientific and technological identity of such a people". These knowledge systems are associated with cultural products and values embedded in the societies they emanate from as opposed to imported values and products. IKS can include technology, architecture, zoology, music, economics, philosophy, mathematics and government knowledges (Odora Hoppers, 2001; Seepe, 2004).

Owusu-Ansah and Mji (2013) contend that IKS are rooted in a relational worldview and culture. This relational worldview is observed in the various ways in which IKS can be transmitted. Shava and Manyike (2018, p. 36) note that IKS can be transmitted from one generation to the next through the oral tradition of using "narratives, stories/folklore, songs and poetry". When transmitted visually, IKS take on the form of "arts, such as bushmen paintings, writings, craft, cultural rituals and dance" (Shava, & Manyike 2018, p. 36). IKS can also be transmitted practically "through doing and the artefacts associated with practice" and, finally, IKS can be transmitted spiritually "through dreams and visions from the ancestors" (Shava, & Manyike, 2018, p. 36). All of these various ways of transmitting IKS are rooted in a relational worldview.

2.7.3.1 IKS in the South African curriculum

The NCS-CAPS contains a number of principles which were adopted to improve the quality of education in line with the precepts of the Constitution of the RSA (1996). A key principle relating to IKS states that the NCS-CAPS aims for "valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution" (DBE, 2011, p. 5). Despite this acknowledgement of the value of IKS by the DBE, the reality in South Africa is that the education system continues to privilege Western-derived education and colonial languages such as English at the expense of IKS and indigenous languages (Madiba, 2012; Msila, 2012; Mkhize, & Ndimande-Hlongwa, 2014; Jacobs, 2015; Gumbo, 2018; Shava, & Manyike, 2018). The

mention of IKS in the NCS-CAPS curriculum is superficial, with little or no clarity as to how IKS could be incorporated into the curriculum, thereby resulting in the failure to implement the integration of IKS into the curriculum. Moreover, teachers are not provided with adequate training to implement the inclusion of IKS in the curriculum (Gumbo, 2018; Manyau et al., 2018; Ned, 2019). This points to the lack of commitment to centre IKS in the formal curriculum. Notwithstanding this failure to incorporate IKS into the curriculum, several studies have indicated that there are major benefits attached to the inclusion of IKS in the classroom.

The use of IKS in the L2 classroom can have a positive effect on learners and improve academic performance in general and L2 learning specifically (Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Malebese, 2017; Mavhiza, 2019). The findings of a study by Mavhiza (2019) with Grade 11 learners in Gauteng province in South Africa indicate that the inclusion of indigenous poetry in the English L2 classroom can result in positive learning gains and create greater appreciation for prescribed classroom poetry. An important finding in this study was that the prescribed classroom poetry was experienced by L2 learners as foreign as they could not relate to the content and the contexts of the poetry. The language was also experienced as difficult and learners felt that this poetry did not resonate with their lived experiences. In contrast, indigenous poetry was experienced as therapeutic by the learners as it engaged their social realities and acknowledged their lived experiences. Furthermore, indigenous poetry allowed L2 learners to have greater appreciation for their identities. This is an important finding as language and identity are intertwined (Kajee, 2011; Griffiths, 2013; Mkhize, & Ndimande-Hlongwa, 2014; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Norton, & De Costa, 2017; Pietikäinen, 2018; Shava, & Manyike, 2018; Ned, 2019). These findings highlight the need to valorise L2 learners' identities through acknowledging the IKS that these learners bring into the classroom. Moreover, this finding calls for the need to utilise multiple indigenous modalities in the L2 classroom, namely poetry, drama, dance and song, which will allow L2 learners to use their full language repertoires. When learners can engage with language material that speaks to their identity and reality, they become innovative, engaged and motivated to make the learning process more enjoyable. Therefore, they invest in the L2 and are more willing to try out various strategies that would help them succeed in the L2 classroom (Mavhiza, 2019).

The findings by Mavhiza (2019) are similar to those obtained by Newfield and Maungedzo (2006) at a high school in Soweto, South Africa, where they also investigated the viability of poetry as a pedagogical tool in the English L2 classroom. Newfield and Maundedzo (2006) found that the use of a multimodel approach and using learners' full language repertoires assisted these learners in learning English L2. Learners in this study were given an opportunity to perform poems, write their own poems on paper as well as on a cloth that they named

Thebuwa, meaning "to speak" (Newfield, & Maundedzo, 2006, p. 78). In this study, English learning was improved through the inclusion of indigenous oral poetry, and by using multiple modalities and languages. A crucial observation by the researchers in this study is that when learners were encouraged to engage in praise poetry in their home languages, they became more interested in composing their own poems in English. Praise poetry is recited or sung in honour of important people by narrating the ancestry of the person being honoured (Kajee, 2011). By using their L1, learner identity was valorised, which prompted a change in how poetry was perceived (Newfield, & Maundedzo, 2006). This highlights the value and the need to include IKS and translanguaging practices in the L2 classroom to assist learners with making learning more meaningful and enjoyable. Furthermore, as observed by Newfield and D´Abdon (2015), it is crucial that the teaching of a L2 includes contemporary writing by younger indigenous writers to allow L2 learners to identify with the content of what is being taught. The inclusion of IKS in the learning environment necessitates the inclusion of multimodalities of learning, which foster active participation and provide an environment in which learners are more invested in their learning.

The studies reported above highlight two important practices that can be used as a resource when implementing IKS in the L2 classroom. These practices are (1) the use of indigenous languages for scaffolding the learning of the L1 and (2) the use of multimodalities in facilitating L2 learning. With regard to the first observation, Tondi (2018) argues that IKS is closely linked to indigenous languages, culture, creativity and innovation and should therefore be introduced in order to deal effectively with the challenges of the modern world. IKS shapes the identity of indigenous learners, which in turn guides and shapes how they navigate through life (Ned, 2019). Failure to include indigenous languages in educational systems is considered by Sepulveda, Pena and Merino (2015) to be an act of curricular violence that can cause alienation as learners battle with issues of identity. Thus, the inclusion of IKS in the learning environment is of key importance in reclaiming the cognitive and ontological status of indigenous knowledges, by allowing for greater cognitive construction of new knowledge.

The inclusion of IKS in education necessitates the use of multimodal approaches in the classroom in order to scaffold learning. Such approaches ensure that learners use the full range of meaning-making resources they have at their disposal in and outside the classroom and accommodate the diverse cultural and linguistic societies (Berger, Dei, & Forgette-Giroux, 2009; Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015). These resources include spoken and written language, gestures (dancing), sounds (singing), shapes and textures (Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Neto, & Rossi, 2019). In a study on a multimodal approach with English L2 learners, Malebese (2017) found that the use of a multimodal approach which incorporated learners' indigenous languages,

customs and lived experiences facilitated the transition of Grade 4 learners who were entering a learning environment with English as LoLT. The use of a multimodal approach heightened achievement and encouraged learners to draw on existing knowledge.

2.7.3.3 Barriers to the inclusion of IKS

The hegemonic infusion of Western culture and language into society has created ideologies that undermine and devalue indigenous languages and IKS, resulting in the perception that such languages and knowledge systems cannot be used for knowledge generation. These languages are often viewed as old-fashioned and reserved for the use of the elderly and have thus been relegated to the periphery of knowledge generation (Msila, 2012; Lagunas, 2019). Working with 20 young people (aged between 15 and 20) from an art and culture group residing in the urban areas of the Eastern Cape province in South Africa, Msila (2012) found varying views regarding the inclusion of IKS in education. There were those youths who regarded indigenous cultures as old-fashioned and backward. These young people maintained that the integration of IKS would hinder their progress. This finding by Msila (2012) is similar to that of Lagunas (2019), who conducted research with indigenous Mexican village youth. The young people in the Lagunas (2019) study felt that their languages were not relevant and not sophisticated enough in modern society. However, in both these studies some youths acknowledged the possible value of including IKS in the education system, with the youth in Msila's (2012) study specifically noting how indigenous games and songs could aid learning in the classroom.

2.8 Conclusion

In the current chapter, I highlighted some of the factors that influence learning in the South African context. I presented several factors that have been noted as influencing language-learning, which I have presented as barriers to learner performance. At the systemic level, I discussed challenges with regard to curriculum changes and language policies and how these are implemented. I indicated that although great strides have been made to redress the injustices of colonialism and the legacy of apartheid, more work still needs to be done to ensure quality basic education for all. I highlighted how learners are disadvantaged by the implementation of the early exit model to English as LOTL. I also presented factors at the school level, such as overcrowding, and teacher knowledge and how these act as barriers to language-learning. At the home level, factors such as early childhood education and SES were highlighted as negatively affecting language-learning.

In this chapter, I also presented opportunities that can be harnessed to scaffold L2 learning. These opportunities included peer tutoring, translanguaging and IKS, which I discussed as

mitigating the intricate learning barriers that learners have to break through in the learning environment. At the centre of these opportunities that I presented is the call for redressing the inequality created by the colonial and apartheid systems. I acknowledge that the opportunities presented in this chapter will not solve all the problems in the South African basic education system but I am of the view that they can contribute to addressing the injustices.

In the next chapter, I discuss LLSs, which I located within the individual differences (ID) and critical frameworks. I discuss the various definitions, classifications and also highlight factors that affect strategy use. These factors include motivation, learning style, identity, gender and culture.

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Chapter Three
Review of Literature on Language-learning Strategies

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter highlighted the social and contextual issues at play in the South African education system and how these issues affect L2 learning. From the review presented in the previous chapter, there is an indication that factors such as LoLT, class size and SES can affect the progress learners make in their efforts to acquire a L2. The chapter also argued for the use of peer tutoring, IKS and translanguaging in scaffolding L2 learning.

Figure 3.1 below shows the organisation of the current chapter. In my attempt not to oversimplify a complex phenomenon such as LLS, as cautioned by Griffiths and Oxford (2014), this chapter begins by situating LLS research within the broader frameworks of learner variability (individual differences, socio-dynamic and qualitative, sociocultural and critical approaches). Having located LLS within these frameworks, I am aware that attempts to locate LLS research in L2 learning within a theoretical structure have been multifarious, with many scholars in L2 learning postulating that the LLS phenomenon is a cognitive one, thereby locating it in cognitive theory (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Griffiths, 2013; Griffiths, & Oxford, 2014). However, LLS research has also been located within the SCT and activity theories, behaviourism and aspects of the complex/chaos theory (Griffiths, 2013, 2014). For this reason, Oxford (2011, p. 60), rightly argues that LLS research is founded on a "web of interlocking theories". The discussion on learner variability is followed up by identifying the characteristics of LLS through reviewing studies on the good language learner. I subsequently provide definitions, classifications, LLSs in specific language domains (reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary and speaking), and furthermore discuss LLS training. I also discuss the role of motivation, learning style, identity, culture and gender as these have all been shown to affect L2 learning in general and LLSs in particular. In discussing these factors, I drew from cognitive, sociocultural and critical theories to provide an in-depth understanding of these factors.

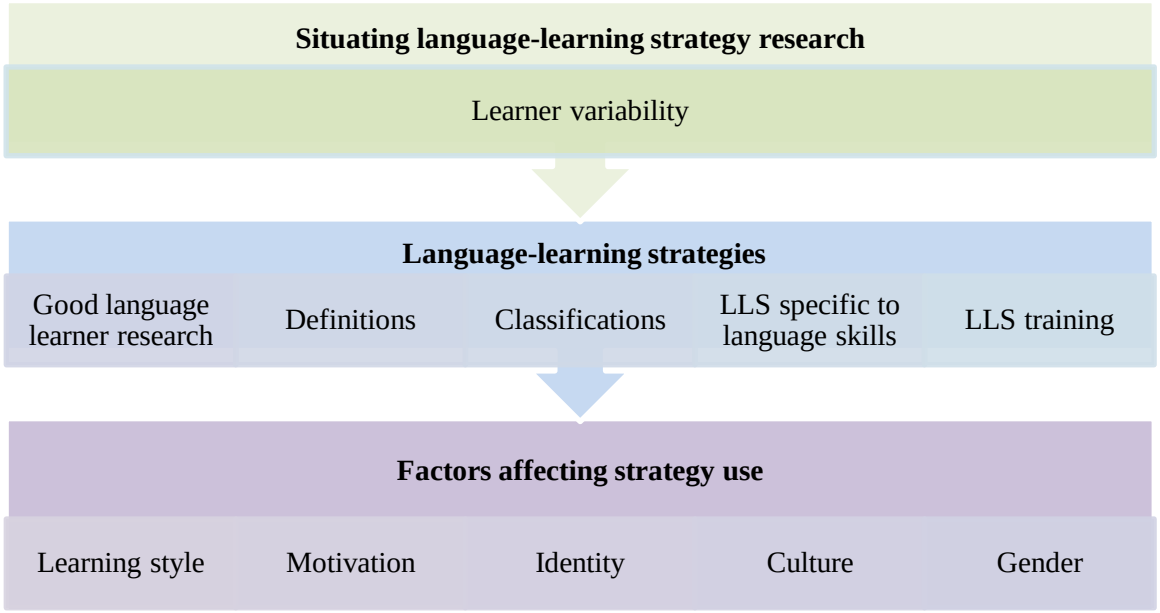

Figure 3.1: Organisation of Chapter Three

3.2 Situating Language-learning Strategy Research

3.2.1 Learner variability in second-language learning

The emergence of the communicative approach to L2 learning shifted the focus from the teacher and how the teacher teaches to the learner and how the learner learns (Griffiths, 2013; Yule, 2014). This shift in the L2 classroom has foregrounded research in the variability evident among L2 learners as it primarily focused on understanding why certain learners were more efficient in language-learning than others although they had similar backgrounds. As a result, a number of approaches have been proposed in an attempt to explain this variability.

According to Ortega (2013), three approaches that seek to explain learner variability have emerged from the field of L2 learning. The first is the individual differences (IDs) approach (Robinson, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008), which is informed by social psychological constructs and methods. In applied linguistics, the IDs framework is conceptualised as attributes that mark an individual as a unique human being with unique traits and characteristics that all interact to determine the trajectory of L2 learning. Early studies considered IDs to be stable and systematic characteristics that affected L2 learning. However, this view has evolved to include the contextual and environmental factors that may affect L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2009). The IDs research draws primarily on correlational and quantitative research and adopts the view that the interaction of multiple causal variables can help to explain the variations in L2 learning systematically. This position adopts quantitative methods of inquiry that seek to illustrate causality (Ortega, 2013).

The second approach to explaining learner variability in L2 learning is the socio-dynamic approach. This approach is largely informed by the complexity theory and the dynamic systems theory. The premise of this approach is that all L2 research is about variability and thus seeks to employ innovative quantitative methods that are neither noncausal nor systematic. According to this approach, variability is posited as an inherent property of the system under investigation (Ortega, 2013).

The third approach to explaining learner variability is the qualitative, sociocultural and critical approach. The sociocultural and critical view of variation takes already studied constructs such as motivation and aptitude and reconceptualises them by examining the interplay between what people understand about themselves and the constraints they face. These reconceptualised understandings of variability are dialectically influenced by the hopes and aspirations of individuals and the power structures of their social milieus (Ortega, 2013). This position adopts a qualitative stance in studying variability and by so doing obtains a unique understanding of variability in L2 learning. This unique understanding provides insight into how and why variability occurs.

For the purpose of the current study, I adopted both the IDs approach and the sociocultural and critical approaches to explain variability in L2 learning. This is in line with the mixed methods research approach adopted in the current study and allowed me to frame LLSs as an ID in L2 learning (Ellis, 2008) but at the same time to reconceptualise it in line with the overarching sociocultural approach that runs through this study. This is consistent with the constructivist (sociocultural) and pragmatic (combination of the traditional IDs approach and the sociocultural and critical approaches) philosophical stance that I applied in the current study.

3.3 Language-learning Strategies

3.3.1 Studies of the good language learner

Since the mid-1970s there has been an increased focus on how L2 learners consciously or subconsciously process, store, retrieve and use the L2 (Anderson, 2005; White, 2008; Kayaoğlu, 2013). This resulted in the emergence of a large body of research about the good language learner and subsequently LLS (Dörnyei, 2005; Griffiths, 2008; White, 2008; Cohen, 2014; Oxford et al., 2014). Therefore, LLS research emerged from studies that focused on the characteristics of how good language learners acquired a L2 (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Bruen, 2020). In her seminal work, Rubin (1975) anticipated that if language teachers knew what high-performing language learners do that low-performing learners do not do, they would be able to assist poor language learners to improve their approach to learning. Therefore, through

these studies, it was hoped that identifying the strategies high-performing language learners apply would help by teaching these strategies to low-performing learners (Poulisse, 1996; Griffiths et al., 2014). In the aforementioned studies, the objects of the research were individuals who were believed to be good language learners and neglected individuals who were perceived to be less successful in language-learning.

The studies conducted about good language learners mainly worked from 10 basic assumptions of what good language learners did that differed from what poor language learners did. Stern (1975) details the prevailing assumptions at the time of the research about good language learners but emphasises that these assumptions need to be empirically tested. These assumptions were therefore mere hypotheses based on known knowledge regarding good language learners at the time. Figure 3.2 below gives a summary of the features that formed the groundwork of good language learner studies and subsequent LLS research. From this summary it is evident that good language learners actively engage in their own L2 learning. They plan and experiment, monitor their progress, show a willingness to practice and to use the L2.

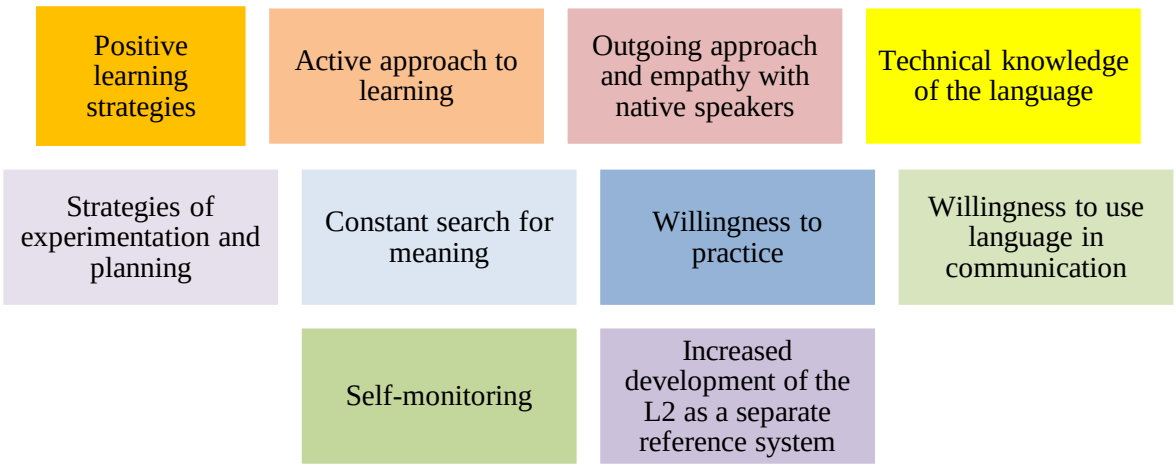

Figure 3.2: Features of good language learners (Stern, 1975)

In an attempt to test the above-mentioned attributes of good language learners empirically, Rubin (1975) conducted a study in which she used classroom observations to assess the dominant assumptions at the time. The results of her study indicated that good language learners showed a willingness to guess, which meant that these good language learners were not afraid of attempting to communicate even when they felt that they might seem foolish. These learners also attended to language forms and were able to monitor speech (their own and that of others) and paid attention to meaning in a given context (Ellis, 2008).

Instead of solely using classroom observation, as Rubin had done in her study, Naiman et al. (1978) also used interview questionnaires to obtain information about personality traits, cognitive style and the strategies employed by good language learners. The results of this study

by Naiman and his research colleagues (1978) revealed that good language learners were actively engaged in tasks and were aware of language as a system of constructing meaning and as a means of communication. Good language learners were able to monitor their L2 performance and effectively manage challenges. What is evident from these studies is that good language learners are inclined to be actively involved in the learning process and they are able to monitor their learning, thus making use of metacognitive strategies. Moreover, good language learners create opportunities to use the L2, practice the language, and make an effort to communicate even if it means looking foolish. They are also creative in the way they use the L2 such as finding ways to make errors work to their advantage and paying careful attention to forming and using language features (Nazri, Yunus, & Nazri, 2016). All of these characteristics of good language learners pointed to the various strategies they were employing to assist them in the learning process.

The greatest critique Kayaoğlu (2013) and Mutar (2018) levelled against studies on good language learners was that their sole focus was on one segment of the learner population, good language learners, only. These studies failed to consider that the strategies used by good language learners might not necessarily differ from those used by poor language learners. This criticism led to the emergence of numerous empirical studies which sought to study not only the good language learner but also the poor language learner. These studies produced a rather inconsistent picture regarding the influence of LLS on L2 learning. Some studies show that there is no difference between the type and frequency of strategies used by poor and good language learners (Huang, & Van Naerssen, 1987; Anderson, 2005), yet others show that there are indeed differences in either the frequency or type of strategy used by poor or good language learners (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Griffiths, 2008; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Nazri, 2016).

The studies which demonstrated that the strategies used by good language learners did not vary significantly from those used by poor language learners claimed that the difference was in how learners used the strategies in their strategy repertoire (Anderson, 2005). For a strategy to be useful, Ehrman et al. (2003) theorise that it must meet three conditions: (1) the strategy should relate practically with the L2 task; (2) the strategy should match the learner's learning style to some degree; and (3) the strategy should be used effectively and link with other strategies. Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) studied the proficiency of Chinese learners through the use of in-depth interviews and written questionnaires. The results of this study indicate that high- and low-proficiency English learners performed similarly in formal practice (frequent and deliberate exposure to and practice of the L2) and monitoring (self-monitoring to ensure sensitivity to the subtleties and nuances of the L2). This refutes the assumption that good language learners do better in self-monitoring and practicing the L2, as hypothesised by Stern (1975). However, the second finding in this study, by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), indicates significant

differences in the functional practice and communication with others in the L2, thinking in the L2 as well as active participation in group activities. This confirms the assumption that good language learners perform at a significantly higher level than poor language learners in respect of these elements when using the language in real-life communication contexts.

Notwithstanding the results of studies that show no difference between the LLS of poor and good language learners, a number of studies have established a positive relationship between LLS use and successful L2 learning (Anderson, 2005; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015). Various studies have indicated that successful and more proficient L2 learners have a large repertoire of strategies from which to draw when completing L2 tasks (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Griffiths, 2008; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Nazri, 2016). These learners are able to use a number of strategies in different settings in an effective manner, thus aiding the successful completion of L2 tasks. Conversely, less proficient learners tend to have a limited repertoire of strategies from which to draw when completing L2 tasks. Moreover, less proficient learners have the tendency to use strategies in an ineffective manner, which hinders the successful completion of L2 tasks (Anderson, 2005; Griffiths, 2008).

In a study conducted by Griffiths (2008) at a private school in New Zealand, which teaches English as a L2 or foreign language, it became apparent that more proficient learners used a greater variety of LLSs than their lower-level counterparts. The more proficient learners were also found to use these strategies more frequently than their lower-level counterparts. More importantly, what emerges from this study by Griffiths (2008) is that higher-level learners have a greater propensity to use LLSs for managing their own learning, expanding their vocabulary, improving their grammar, and effectively using resources, while also applying various strategies in all four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Griffiths and Cansiz (2015) state that the successful use of strategy may be related to the way that the integration of many strategies takes place, how often these strategies are used and how well these strategies are organised. Moreover, successful strategy selection also depends on learners' own individual characteristics, learning targets and learning contexts. Cohen (2008) echoes this sentiment by stating that strategies do not function in isolation but that learners tend to deploy strategy clusters in an overlapping manner.

These divergent findings highlight the difficulty of trying to identify the strategies used by the good language learners precisely. Research has consistently indicated that strategies are neither good nor bad, but that on the contrary their effectiveness is determined by how they are applied in various contexts (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003). Part of the problem with studies on the good language learner was that they were too simplistic and primarily concerned with cognitive components of language-learning and ignored crucial learner information such as learning style

and motivation as well as contextual and cultural factors that influence L2 learning (Poulisse, 1996; Griffiths et al., 2014). The aforementioned studies were mainly quantitative in nature, which observed the overall patterns in LLS usage and ultimately neglected the idiosyncratic LLS usage. If pedagogical practices were informed purely by these overall patterns a number of learners would be disadvantaged as their strategies might fall outside the norm.

In an attempt to remedy the earlier error of studying LLS without considering the individual learner and other learner factors, such as motivation and identity, researchers began to take a more holistic view of learners (Griffiths et al., 2014). This was a necessary turning point in L2 learning and one that I subscribe to as it takes cognisance of the sociocultural environment in which learning takes place. Following this route ushered in more qualitative approaches in L2 learning and there was a greater realisation that learners were not merely a quantified collective of statistics but individuals with agency and intentionality who needed to be studied in specific contexts (Roebuck, 2000).

One such study was conducted by Griffiths (2003) (in Griffiths, 2013), who used semi-structured interviews to examine the LLS usage of 26 learners in the context of a private school in New Zealand who were learning English as a L2. Adopting a mixed methods approach, Griffiths (2003) first administered Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for language-learning (SILL) before using the semi-structured interview guide to interview the learners. The results of this study by Griffiths (2003) indicate that although successful L2 learners generally use more strategies than less successful learners, a variety of factors, such as motivation and identity, influence LLS usage.

3.3.2 Definitions of language-learning strategies

Over the past 40 years there has been an increment in the body of knowledge on LLS research that has surfaced through studying good language learners, although the concept of LLSs is nevertheless replete with inconsistencies regarding definitions and conceptualisations (Griffiths, 2013; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014; Griffiths, & Oxford 2014; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015; Perea, 2019; Bruen, 2020). In spite of these inconsistencies, scholars seem to agree that LLS promotes language-learning (Rubin, 1975; Oxford, 1990; Cohen,1998; Cohen, & Macaro, 2007; Griffiths, 2008) and develops autonomy as well as self-regulation (Hsiao, & Oxford, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005; Cotterall, 2008; Oxford et al., 2014). To illustrate the progression of LLS over the years, I have arranged the various definitions in chronological order. What is important to note is how the same scholars, Rubin (1975, 1987) and Oxford (1989, 2008), both defined these strategies differently over the years. These differences perhaps illustrate the fluid nature of this

field of study. Although not all the definitions have been indicated, Table 3.1 below provides the most important definitions of LSS that are listed.

Table 3.1: Definitions of language-learning strategies

Name of scholar	Definition
Rubin (1975)	**techniques** or devices which learners may use for acquiring knowledge
Stern (1975)	**tendencies** or overall characteristics of the approach used by L2 learners
Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	**behaviours** and **thoughts** used by learners during the process of learning which influence the process of encoding
Wenden and Rubin (1987)	any sets of **operations**, **steps**, **plans**, **routines** employed by learners to aid in obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using information
Rubin (1987)	**strategies** that contribute to the development of the language system
Oxford (1989)	**behaviours** or **actions** used by learners to make L2 learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable
O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	the special **thoughts** or **behaviours** employed by learners that assist them to comprehend, learn, or retain new information
Oxford (1990)	specific **actions** used by L2 learners for making learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, self-directed, and easily transferable to new situations
Oxford (2008)	goal-orientated **actions** or **steps** taken by learners with some degree of consciousness to enhance their L2 learning
Griffiths (2008)	**activities** consciously chosen by learners for regulating their own L2 learning
White (2008)	consciously selected **operations** or **processes** employed by L2 learners
Cohen (2014)	**thoughts** and **actions** consciously chosen by L2 learners to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks
Griffiths and Cansiz (2015)	**actions** are chosen either deliberately or automatically for the purpose of learning or regulating language-learning

There are several similarities and disparities that can be found in earlier definitions of LLS. Ellis (1994) discusses five of these distinctions and states that the first problem with earlier definitions lies with the ambiguity in whether strategies should be thought of as behavioural or mental/cognitive or both. Oxford's (1989) earlier definition seems to consider LLS as behavioural while Weinstein and Mayer (1986), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Richards, Platt and Platt (1998) consider it to be both behavioural and mental/cognitive. In addressing this first problem, Ellis (2008) opines that some strategies are behavioural and can thus be directly observed while others are mental and are therefore not directly observable. This view is consistent with that held by other scholars (Griffiths, 2008; Cohen, 2014, Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). After reviewing 30 years' worth of work on LLS research, Griffiths (2008) states that strategies can be either mental (such as visualising relationships) or physical (as in

the case of note-taking). Thus, Griffiths (2008) regards strategies as both mental as well as behavioural. Cohen (2014) adds that some strategies are behavioural and observable (such as asking for clarity) and others are not observable even though they are behavioural (such as mental paraphrasing).

Ellis (2008) observes that the second problem regarding LLS definitions is the prevailing uncertainty regarding the precise characteristics of behaviours that constitute a strategy. Scholars have suggested that they are techniques (Rubin, 1975), tendencies (Stern, 1975), operations (Wenden, & Rubin, 1987; White, 2008) and attempts, activities, actions and steps (Oxford, 2008; Griffiths, 2013; Cohen, 2014; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015). In addressing the second problem, Weinstein, Husman, & Dierking (2000) offer three characteristics which they believe makes learning strategic. These researchers suggest that for learning to be regarded as strategic it must be goal-directed, intentionally invoked and effortful. Dörnyei (2005) adds that learning is deemed strategic when it is appropriate for a particular learner in respect of a given task. This would involve learners exerting effort in selecting and pursuing learning procedures that assist in increasing their learning effectiveness. Similarly, Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) argue that definitions of LLS relate to what learners do (the action and steps), be it mental or physical, to help them learn the L2. This implies that learners are active participants in the learning process and capable of regulating their own learning (Griffiths, 2013).

The third problem relating to LLS definitions is whether strategies should be conceived as conscious or subconscious (Ellis, 2008; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). According to Cohen (2014) a lack of consensus still exists about how conscious learners need to be in order for their behaviours to be regarded as (conscious) strategies as opposed to (subconscious) processes. Ellis (2008) argues that the earlier definitions are silent regarding this problem. For example, in her earlier definition of LLS, Oxford (1990) seems to be silent on learners needing to be conscious but later she highlights that learners need some degree of consciousness (Oxford, 2008). Similarly, Griffiths (2008) initially indicated that strategies were conscious actions while her later definition (Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015) suggests that strategies may be deliberate (conscious) and subconscious. Providing some clarity on this matter, Chamot (2005) asserts that in the beginning strategies are mostly conscious and once the strategy has been familiarised through constant usage it can become automated. However, even when a strategy has been automated, learners are able to recognise it as a conscious awareness of learning. This suggests that strategies may be on a continuum of consciousness ranging from being fully conscious to being automatic, when they are used without any conscious thought, as proposed by Griffiths (2008) as well as Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014).

The fourth problem with the above-mentioned definitions concerns whether strategies directly or indirectly affect language-learning (Ellis, 2008). Rubin (1987) suggests that strategies have a direct effect on learning while the other researchers, including Richards et al. (1998), Griffiths (2008) and Cohen (2014), appear to remain silent on the matter. In discussing this fourth problem, Ellis (2008) asserts that strategies can contribute indirectly to learning and they do this by providing learners with data about the L2 that they can process.

The final problem with definitions of LLS concerns what motivates LLS usage. Ellis (2008) argues that most of the definitions propose that learners are motivated by the belief that they will learn something about the L2. O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 43), for example, suggest that the special behaviours by learners can help them to "comprehend, learn, or remember new information". Similarly, White (2008) is also of the view that LLS can assist learners with learning the target language. In contrast, only Oxford (1989) adds the affective (enjoyment) component to learners' motivation to use LLSs.

For the purpose of the current study, I adopted Oxford's (2017) most recent and comprehensive definition of a LLS as this definition addresses some of the problems discussed above. This definition is adopted as it addresses the interplay between context, complexity and LLS, which are all important factors in the current study. My own assessment of this definition is that it covers LLS characteristics, the purpose, classification and application of the LLS. Accordingly, Oxford (in Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 5) describes a LLS as:

a. Characteristics: "conscious, teachable, intentional, self-chosen, and self-regulated thoughts and actions for learning the target culture and language" (Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 5);

b. Purpose: "several interlocking purposes: improving performance on immediate tasks, developing specific skills, and improving autonomy and long-term proficiency" (Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 5);

c. Classification: "support cognitive, emotional (affective), social, motivational, and meta-strategic regulation (e.g., planning, organizing, monitoring, and evaluating) of learning" (Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 5); and

d. Application: "flexibly and creatively combined into strategy clusters (strategies used simultaneously) and strategy chains (strategies used in sequence) to meet the learner's needs and fit the context and the task" (Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018, p. 5).

Oxford's (2017) definition not only considers the motivation of learners in learning the L2 but also raises awareness about the link between culture and language as it suggests that LLSs are

actions for learning the culture and language. This is a much-welcomed revision as language and culture are interconnected (Kramsch, 2013b; Larsen-Freeman, 2013; Tondi, 2018). Although I have adopted Oxford's (2017) definition of LLS, this definition does not consider issues of identity and L1 literacy. The L1 literacy dynamics present in linguistically diverse countries see learners often taking on a hybrid identity, thus identifying their L1 in hybrid language forms such as "kasi-taal" (Makalela, 2014, p. 675). Kasi-taal denotes a language that is derived from code-meshing practices often used by South African learners from townships when they combine a variety of languages. Depending on the location, one would encounter the code-meshing of Setswana, Sepedi and Sesotho, for example. This language form is not the language that learners encounter when they are tested in the formal school system, which conceives of languages as discrete entities (Makoni, 2011; Makalela, 2014; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Sibanda, 2019). Moreover, there is a large body of scholarly research that demonstrates the dialogic matrix between language and identity and how these two concepts influence each other (Norton, 2000; Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005; Makoni, & Pennycook, 2007; Makoni, 2011, Darvin, & Norton, 2015; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017). The definitions of LLS are silent on this interaction, thereby failing to keep up with current scholarly arguments on L2 learning.

Moreover, researchers often neglected to examine LLS usage in educationally deprived societies whose L2 learning is complicated by various educational barriers (Jones, 2016). The early transition to English that occurs in South African schools often results in learners' experiencing multiple difficulties, as highlighted in Chapter Two. The generally low literacy in both the home language and L2 are factors that can affect LLS usage. For this reason, it is crucial to examine LLS in the light of the structural, classroom and home-related difficulties that result in generally poor literacy in both the L1 and the L2 in South Africa. In Chapter Nine I recommend possible resolutions to these problems.

3.3.3 Distinction between language-learning and language-use strategies

Classifying LLS has remained a controversial issue, with classifications that make a distinction between language-use and LLS, while other classifications are based on taxonomies and still others are based on specific skills (Ellis, 2008; Griffiths, 2013; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). With regard to language use and language-learning, some scholars (Ellis, 1994; Cohen, 2008; Cohen, 2014) advocate that language-learning (the process of learning new material for the first time) and language use (using material that has already been learned) strategies should be theorised and treated as two separate processes. However, this distinction between language-learning and language-use strategies has been criticised by scholars such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as well as Oxford (2011) for its vagueness and inappropriateness as language is

arguably learned through usage. The latter view, which conceives of language-learning as occurring through usage, was adopted in the current study.

Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) claim that no consensus has been reached regarding language-use strategies. However, Cohen (2014) proposes the following four strategies for language use: communication strategies, retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies and coping strategies. In this regard, Cohen (2014) explains that retrieval strategies assist with recalling the learned material from storage by using various strategies such as mnemonics and rhymes. Rehearsal strategies aid in language-learning as well as language use and consist of strategies to assist learners with rehearsing the structures of the L2. According to Cohen (2014), coping strategies are composed of two subsets, namely (1) compensatory strategies that help learners to compensate for any lack in the L2, such as lexical avoidance and simplification, and (2) cover strategies that allow L2 learners to act as though they are in control of the L2 when in fact they are using a memorised phrase or elaborate circumlocution. Communication strategies are directed at conveying a message to the listener or reader in a meaningful and informative manner. Therefore, they include both written and verbal communication (Cohen, 2014).

Conversely, regarding strategies for learning, Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) assert that the following four LLSs are commonly agreed on: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies and affective strategies (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1994; Cohen, 2009). Cognitive strategies have an operative function (Rao, 2004) and they help L2 learners to understand and produce new language (Oxford, 1990). This involves the direct manipulation or transformation of incoming information through identification, retention, storage or retrieval (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990, Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). Cognitive strategies consist of the following sets of strategies: practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. A common function among the various cognitive strategies is manipulation or transformation of the target language by the L2 learner (Oxford, 1990).

Metacognitive strategies are defined as the higher-order executive skills, which may include organisational planning, advance organising, monitoring, self-management and evaluating the success of a learning activity (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990, Oxford, 1990). These strategies enable learners to control their own cognition (Oxford, 1990) by allowing them to be intentional about what they are thinking and can be used for self-monitoring during a learning task (Gascoigne, 2008). Metacognitive strategies include planning, monitoring and arranging of learning activities, evaluating, centring learning and applying selective attention (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Griffiths, 2013). These strategies are mainly concerned with "receptive or productive language tasks" (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990, p. 44).

Affective strategies are characterised by self-talk, which is used by learners to redirect negative thoughts about their ability to complete language tasks successfully (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990). These strategies help to regulate emotions, which require learners to notice their anxiety and find effective ways of dealing with it. Affective strategies also regulate attitudes and provide motivation which leads learners encouraging themselves to complete L2 tasks. They include the use of relaxation to lower levels of anxiety when communicating in the L2, positive self-talk and monitoring of emotions (Oxford, 1990, 2008). A common feature of affective strategies is their role in self-motivation, whereby learners mentally redirect their thinking to assure themselves that the learning activity will be successful (Hurd, 2008; Oxford, 2012; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014).

According to Oxford (1990, 2008), social strategies comprise asking questions, collaborating, cooperating and empathising with others. Strategies assist learners in their sociocultural context by increasing learners' L2 communication and practice (Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) note that social strategies involve peer interaction, when peers corroborate with each other to achieve learning goals. These strategies were of particular interest for the current study, which was carried out with learners participating in peer tutoring programmes.

3.3.4 Strategy taxonomies

In the section that follows I discuss four L2 learning taxonomies that have been proposed over the years, with particular focus on Oxford's (1990) classification as her SILL was used in the current study and has been commonly used in LLS research (Ellis, 2008; White, 2008).

3.3.4.1 Wong-Fillmore's taxonomy

The LLS classification developed by Wong-Fillmore (1976) emphasises the use of social strategies in learning the L2. Wong-Fillmore (1976) studied five Spanish learners who were learning English in California and, based on her findings derived from the responses of these learners, she proposed a LLS classification. This classification consists of three social strategies and five cognitive strategies (Rao, 2004).

Wong-Fillmore's (1976) social strategies are (1) joining a group and acting as if you understand what is happening in the group; (2) giving the impression that you can speak the language through the use of well-chosen words; and (3) relying on your friends for assistance. In addition, Wong-Fillmore (1976) proposed several cognitive strategies, and these were (1) making the assumption that what was being said was relevant to the context; (2) obtaining a few expressions that you understood and using these in conversation; (3) looking for recurring themes in what

was being said; (4) maximising the language you had already acquired; and (5) working on the major issues first and leaving the details for a later stage. These social strategies played a vital role in L2 English learning by the Spanish learners as they involved forming social relationships with native English speakers. Given the results of her study, Wong-Fillmore (1976) proposes that L2 learners should join L1 groups and start to assimilate with these groups. Through the use of both social and cognitive strategies L2 learners can learn how to master the L2 more efficiently through observing recurring themes and making the most of the language already acquired (Rao, 2016).

Although Wong-Fillmore's (1976) study is not framed in the SCT, it nevertheless has important implications for the current study as it identifies both the cognitive and social strategies and shows how these two strategies assist with language-learning. By placing emphasis on social interaction in the learning process, the classification by Wong-Fillmore (1976) lends itself to a sociocultural understanding of language-learning. The SCT proposes that collaborative interactions with peers and more knowledgeable others precedes and shapes language development (Lantolf et al., 2015), thus acting as a channel through which knowledge is acquired (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013). While I have an appreciation for Wong-Fillmore's (1976) classification and its emphasis on social interaction in language-learning, these interactions mainly relate to L2 learners (Spanish) interacting and assimilating with L1 learners (English). I find this problematic as exposure to native speakers is not always possible in racially and spatially segregated communities, which often leave learners with very little, if any, exposure to native English speakers. In the South African context, the residential segregation that was stipulated by the Group Areas Act (Act 41 of 1950) is still evident in the composition of communities. This Act relegated the majority of black communities to rural and township areas to enforce racial segregation. This persistent spatial segregation is therefore still evident in the composition of schools and communities (Ndimande, 2019).

3.3.4.2 Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern and Todesco's taxonomy

The classification proposed by Naiman et al. (1978) consists of five broad LLSs that were found to be present in all good language learners and several secondary strategies that were only present in some good language learners. The five broad categories in question are as follows: (1) active task approach; (2) realisation of language as a system; (3) realisation of language as a means of communication and interaction; (4) management of affective demands; and (5) monitoring L2 performance.

The secondary strategies proposed by Naiman and his research colleagues (1978) include the following: responding positively to learning opportunities, adding language-learning activities

to regular classroom activities, analysing individual problems, making comparisons between L1 and L2, analysing target language in order to make inferences, seeking communication situations with L2 speakers, finding sociocultural meanings, coping with affective demands in learning and constantly reviewing the L2 system by testing inferences as well as asking for feedback (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990).

The classification by Naiman et al. (1978) was derived from qualitative data obtained through face-to-face interviews conducted with 34 good language learners. This two-part study initially involved interviewing 34 good language learners, which resulted in the formulation of the aforementioned five broad categories along with their accompanying secondary strategies. The second part of the study by Naiman and his research colleagues (1978) involved classroom observations and teacher interviews as well interviews with less successful learners. A salient finding in the second study by Naiman et al. (1978) indicates that less successful learners used as many learning strategies as their more successful counterparts. This was a critical finding as it suggested that the number of strategies used by learners was not the predictor of performance. In addition to LLS, Naiman et al. (1978) also identified techniques for L2-learning. These techniques include sound acquisition, grammar, vocabulary, listening comprehension, learning to talk, learning to write and learning to read. The critique by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), levelled against the classification developed by Naiman and his colleagues (1978), was that it lacked theoretical grounding in cognitive and L2 theories.

3.3.4.3 O'Malley and Chamot's taxonomy

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) decry earlier typologies for their lack of grounding in L2 acquisition (SLA) cognition theories. Therefore, they endeavoured to formulate a taxonomy that would have a strong cognitive, theoretical foundation (Poulisse, 1996). Their classification of the LLS was based on a series of qualitative studies conducted with beginning and intermediate English L2 learners and studies conducted with foreign-language students. In their first study, they sampled 70 high school L2 learners and in subsequent studies they sampled 101 English L1 speakers who were learning a foreign language in high school or at college level. The 70 school-aged learners in this study were provided with 22 teachers to help them learn the L2. The learner-teacher ratio in this study was 1:3 and this study was conducted in suburban schools in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States of America (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990).

This study, conducted by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), resulted in 26 strategies that they classified into three broad categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. It is worth noting that O'Malley and Chamot (1990) grouped social and affective strategies as a single category whereas Oxford (1990) treats these as separate

categories, as discussed in section 3.3.4.4. Griffiths (2008) asserts that the separation of social/affective strategies by O'Malley et al. (1990) accentuates the key role that interactive strategies play in language-learning. This distinction came at a time when the communicative approach to language-learning, as discussed earlier, became prominent and was gaining wide acceptance (Griffiths, 2008).

3.3.4.4 Oxford's taxonomy

Oxford (1990) provides a more comprehensive classification system of LLS, one which connects individual strategies with the four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The main aim of this classification is to improve communicative competence (Oxford, 1990; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Nazri et al., 2016). The detail provided in Oxford's taxonomy makes it a classification of choice for most researchers in the field of LLS (Kayaoğlu, 2013).

Through the use of an inductive approach to classify the various strategies that were prevalent at the time (Rao, 2004), Oxford (1990) classified LLS into six categories, which are memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies, similar to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification. However, Oxford (1990) regarded the social and affective strategies as two separate categories and she also added memory and compensation strategies, which are not identified by O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

According to Oxford (1990) memory strategies relate to how learners store and retrieve new information such as creating mental associations between words and structured reviewing. These strategies help learners to store and retrieve information with ease. Cognitive strategies are associated with direct manipulation or transformation of the L2 through identification, retention, storage and retrieval (Oxford, 2012; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). Compensation strategies are direct strategies that assist learners in overcoming language limitations such as intelligent guessing of words or phrases, switching to the L1 and avoiding a topic (Oxford, 1990).

Metacognitive strategies are indirect strategies related to learners' ability to reflect on and evaluate their learning critically. It involves analysing, monitoring progress, planning, evaluating and organising a learning task (Anderson, 2008; Oxford, 2012; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). Affective strategies relate to the ability to regulate emotions, which require learners in the first instance to notice their anxiety and find effective ways of dealing with it. Affective strategies can include learners' encouraging themselves, writing down their feelings and using relaxation techniques such as music and deep breathing to calm them down (Oxford, 1990; Hurd, 2008). Social strategies relate to strategies that allow for increased communication

through practice and dealing with the sociocultural context of the L2 and learners' identities (Oxford, 2012; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014).

It is important to note that although the six strategies discussed above can be understood as individual strategy categories, these strategies rarely function in isolation. For example, Hurd (2008) notes that L2 learners often use social and affective strategies to control their anxiety about using the L2. Moreover, Macaro (2006) points out the link between affective and metacognitive strategies whereas O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Phakiti (2003) suggest an overlap between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. As suggested by Griffiths (2013), these strategies need to be understood as operating in clusters, with one strategy assisting the other in achieving a learning task.

Oxford (1990) further classified her six strategies into direct strategies (memory, cognitive and compensation) and indirect strategies (metacognitive, affective and social). Direct strategies are those strategies that involve the direct engagement of the target language and require mental processing of the target language. This mental processing can be done in various ways depending on the direct strategy that is used (Oxford, 1990). Direct strategies involve the L2 directly in that the learner must process the language mentally (Oxford, 1990). Indirect strategies provide support indirectly through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and having empathy (Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) explains that metacognitive, affective and social strategies are critical strategies in independent settings (Oxford, 2008). My view is that metacognitive and social strategies are not only crucial in independent settings but also play an important role in peer tutoring interactions. Learners in the current study have to plan actively to improve L2 learning and decide to attend the peer tutoring sessions. It is in these peer tutoring sessions that they co-construct L2 knowledge together with their peers, which requires the use of social strategies.

Like O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford's (1990) classification accentuates the role of social interaction. Oxford's classification is also similar to Rubin's classification as regards their distinction between direct and indirect strategies (Rao, 2004). It was Rubin's (1987) distinction of direct and indirect strategies that led Oxford (Hsiao, & Oxford, 2002) to make this distinction in her classification.

In attempting to clear some of the prevailing doubts regarding the different models of LLS, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) systematically investigated 15 rival models to determine how these theories compare in the hope of consolidating the various taxonomies. Through testing 534 university students on the SILL, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) provided support for the six-factor model proposed by Oxford (1990). However, even with these findings, Ellis (2008) states

that support for the SILL nevertheless does not lend clarity to the classification of learning strategies since the higher-order categories of direct and indirect strategies are not supported. This lack of consistency in classification causes difficulties when comparing different studies (Rao, 2004).

3.3.5 Language-learning strategies in specific language domains

LLSs have also been classified according to the four basic skill areas. In the skills-based classification approach strategies can be grouped into those that assist with receptive skills (listening and reading) and those that promote productive skills (speaking and writing). Strategies for vocabulary, grammar and translation cut across these four skill areas (Cohen, 2014). The following discussion focuses on listening, reading, speaking, writing, grammar and vocabulary strategies as these are the focus of the current study. In this review I discuss grammar and vocabulary separately to provide greater clarity on these two skills; however, these skills are inextricably linked (Klapper, 2008). The language skills grammar and vocabulary are similar to those tested in the NCS-CAPS curriculum for Grades 7 to 9, which includes the following: listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structures and conventions. The DBE emphasises the use of various strategies to help learners with these four skill areas (DBE, 2011).

3.3.5.1 Listening strategies

Listening strategies are defined as deliberate procedures applied by L2 learners for enhancing comprehension, learning and retention (Vandergrift, 2008; Vandergrift, & Baker, 2018). The seminal study by O'Malley, Chamot and Küpper (1989), using think-aloud protocols with secondary school Hispanic learners, highlights the value of metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension. Effective listeners were observed to use the strategy of segmenting incoming information into larger units instead of paying unnecessary attention to individual words. Moreover, effective listeners were observed to use predominantly self-monitoring (by constantly redirecting attention to the task at hand), elaboration (relating new knowledge to prior knowledge, self-questioning about material listened to) and inferencing strategies (listening for intonation and pauses as well as for phrases and sentences). Conversely, the ineffective learners focused their attention on individual words in a sentence, could not chunk information and lacked self-monitoring. These ineffective behaviours are similar to those identified by Goh (2000) in a study about the listening comprehension problems of L2 undergraduate university students in China.

In her review of listening strategy literature, Rao (2004) identified the following strategies, which are often associated with listening comprehension: the use of background knowledge,

inferring the meaning of unknown words from context, using metacognitive strategies, selective attention and self-monitoring. A study by Graham, Santos and Vanderplank (2010), which investigated the listening strategies of lower-intermediate learners studying French as a L2, highlighted the complexity of the relationship between linguistic knowledge and strategy usage. On the one hand their study shows that a minimum level of vocabulary recognition is required for strategies to be useful, yet they also found that linguistic proficiency did not automatically result in successful listening or strategy usage. Given the aforementioned findings, these researchers favour the implementation of strategy training, where learners are shown explicitly how best to use different knowledge sources: the study indicated that the best listeners used various sources of knowledge, applied strategies in clusters and adopted a holistic approach. In a recent study of 84 Grade 4 learners in a French immersion programme, Vandergrift and Baker (2018) confirm the link between vocabulary and strategy usage. They found that vocabulary knowledge was positively related to listening comprehension. Vandergrift and Baker (2018) posit that there is a threshold for L2 listening that is based on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and listening. They argue that learners may need to obtain a certain level of L2 vocabulary in order for listening comprehension to occur. This finding supports that of Graham et al. (2010), who found that a minimum vocabulary recognition is necessary for strategies to be useful.

3.3.5.2 Reading strategies

There has been an increase in the number of studies on reading strategies in recent years, with numerous studies focusing on the effect of reading strategies on reading comprehension (Brantmeier, 2002; Mokhtari, & Reichard, 2004; Zhang, 2010; Cekiso, & Madikiza, 2014; Prichard, & Atkins, 2016). Reading strategies are defined as purposive mental plans, activities, techniques, tactics and actions taken by learners while reading academic or school-related materials in order to assist them with comprehension of these texts (Mokhtari, & Sheorey, 2002; Cisco, & Padrón, 2012). An important feature of this definition is the association between reading strategies and comprehension, which is important for the current study. The need to increase the reading comprehension of South African L2 learners has been underscored by numerous scholars (Van Wyk, 2001; Pretorius, 2002b; Madikiza, 2011). These scholars indicate that the high failure rate among learners is partly due to ineffective use of reading strategies and lack of reading comprehension, which result in learners' guessing incorrectly when answering examination questions. Cekiso and Madikiza (2014) investigated the reading strategies employed by Grade 9 English L2 learners in an East London school in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. The results show that L2 learners employed very few critical reading strategies in all three stages of reading: pre-reading, during reading and post-reading. Not only do learners lack awareness of critical reading strategies, but teachers also lack the knowledge of these critical

strategies and thus cannot teach learners to use them, as shown in a study by Madikiza, Cekiso, Tshotsho and Landa (2018).

The most widely reported reading strategies are:

> ... skimming, scanning, identifying cognates or word families, guessing, reading for meaning, predicting, questioning, rereading words, sentences or entire paragraphs, activating general or background knowledge, making inferences, following references, separating main ideas from detail, and summarising (Gascoigne, 2008, pp. 72-73).

An evaluation of numerous studies on the reading strategies of L2 learners by Brantmeier (2002) concludes that successful readers typically use top-down strategies instead of bottom-up strategies, which are often associated with poor readers. In a top-down reading process, the learner is perceived as a creator of meaning, with a strong focus on what the reader brings into the reading process. This process requires learners to have general predictions before seeking input for the message (Saricoban, 2002; Gascoigne, 2008). Top-down strategies include cognitive, metacognitive and compensatory strategies. Conversely, the focus of a bottom-up reading process is the decoding of text data. Strategies often employed in this process include identifying word meaning, sentence structure, sound-letter correspondences and text detail (Gascoigne, 2008).

Reading strategy scholars also considered the sociocultural environments in which learning occurs, their findings suggesting that metacognitive awareness of strategies enhances reading competence (Mokhtari, & Reichard, 2004; Mokhtari, Dimitrov, & Reichard, 2018). In a study involving American English native speakers and Moroccan students who are highly proficient speakers of English, Mokhtari and Reichard (2004) found similar patterns of strategy awareness and reading strategy usage among these students. Although the American and Moroccan students exhibited similar strategy usage, the study also indicated that Moroccan students reported significantly higher usage of critical reading strategies, including predicting the meaning of texts, paying close attention and rereading for understanding.

Scholars have also found that proficient readers often use the L1 to help them with L2 reading comprehension, in so doing demonstrating an awareness of language and its function (Jiménez, García, & Pearson, 1996; Upton, & Lee-Thompson, 2001; Cisco, & Padrón, 2012). Jiménez et al. (1996) found that proficient Latino readers often used transfer, translation and cognate strategies to assist them with reading. Transfer relates to transferring reading skills from the L1 to the L2, translation involves the translation of words or phrases into the L1 to help with understanding the L2, and cognates relate to using words that are similar in spelling or meaning. According to Oxford (1990) both translating and transferring constitute cognitive strategies.

Moreover, learners in the aforementioned study by Jiménez et al. (1996) also made use of the following reading strategies: monitoring comprehension, connecting prior knowledge with text, making inferences and drawing conclusions.

The link between reading comprehension and vocabulary has been highlighted by several scholars, who argue that vocabulary is a major concern for L2 learners (Ahmad, & Asraf, 2004; Cisco, & Padrón, 2012). In a case study by Jiménez et al. (1995), which investigated the metacognitive strategies used by learners with varying reading ability, the findings indicate that L1 learners do not concern themselves with vocabulary while reading. However, one of the major concerns of L2 learners was vocabulary as learners indicated that a lack of vocabulary knowledge was a barrier to reading comprehension. These findings were confirmed in a larger study involving Latino learners (Jiménez et al., 1996). Use of the L1 in L2 reading is echoed in a mixed methods study by Kim (2019), who found that the strategies used by elementary school learners in the US were deeply rooted in their cultural heritage, their L1 and beliefs. These learners were all classified as English L2 learners and their nationalities included Japanese, Korean, Mexican and Swedish. The findings of the study by Kim (2019) indicate that these elementary school learners used socio-contextual strategies, whereas other strategies used by these learners included socio-affective reading strategies and connecting to self when engaging with culturally distant stories. Socio-affective strategies include lowering anxiety, rephrasing, working with peers to solve problems, questioning for clarification and mental redirection of thought to motivate oneself (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990). The findings of the studies cited in this section indicate that learners use various strategies to help them with L2 reading. Of interest to this study was the use of the L1 to enhance reading the L2 and the specific strategies that were used by L2 learners to facilitate this process. Moreover, it was clear there is a need to focus on vocabulary as this is linked to reading comprehension.

3.3.5.3 Speaking strategies

Speaking strategies are difficult to define due to the debates regarding how these strategies should be classified (Bialystok, 1990, Rao, 2004; Nakatani, 2006). Whereas O'Malley and Chamot (1990) distinguish between learning strategies and communication strategies, Oxford (1990) makes no such distinction and argues that all six of her learning strategies (cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, social and affective strategies) could influence speaking development. The communication strategies suggested by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have been further categorised into achievement strategies (the use of all available resources to reach desired language goals) and compensatory strategies (avoiding solving the communication problem by opting for silence or changing the subject) (Bialystok, 1990, Nakatani, 2006).

Notwithstanding these difficulties, a number of studies have been conducted on the communication strategies used by L2 learners in an attempt to use the L2 and overcome communication difficulties (Huang, & Van Naerssen, 1987; Bialystok, 1990; Nakatani, 2006; Cohen, 2008; Nakatani, 2010; Huang, 2015; Sun, Zhang, & Gray, 2016). A study conducted by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) investigated the oral communication of 60 Chinese students of English as a foreign language (EFL) using a strategy questionnaire. The results indicated that more fluent Chinese students used more strategies than their nonfluent counterparts. On further analysis of the low- and high-proficiency learners, Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) found that highly proficient speakers predominantly used functional strategies such as speaking English with peers, teachers and native speakers, participating in group oral communication and thinking in English. In developing the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory, Nakatani (2006) tested the oral communication of 400 Japanese university students learning English as a foreign language. Using factor analysis, the following speaking strategies emerged from the data: socio-affective strategies, fluency-orientated strategies, negotiation for meaning when speaking, nonverbal strategies when speaking, message reduction and alteration, message abandonment (associated with less proficient learners) and attempts to think in English (L2).

In a recent study Sun, Zhang and Gray (2016) investigated the speaking strategies used by Chinese L2/EFL learners. Three speaking strategies were identified in this study: expression practice strategy (reviewing, practicing newly learnt words), native-like and involvement strategy (seeking opportunities to practice, getting involved in conversations) and assistance strategy (seeking help from others, creating new words). These strategies are similar to those found by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) as they emphasise the role of social interaction in the development of speaking proficiency.

Speaking strategies have been negatively associated with anxiety, with a number of studies indicating that higher levels of anxiety resulted in lower speaking ability (Huang, 2015; El-Sakka, 2016). These specific studies identified the role of affective strategies in assisting learners with improving their oral communication. Furthermore, Huang (2015) recently investigated the speaking strategies used during L2 speaking assessments. Upon testing a sample of 268 Taiwanese EFL university students, Huang (2015) reports that affective strategies were positively related with communication strategy. Huang (2015) postulates that when learners increase positive emotions regarding speaking the L2, they are able to access more of their cognitive resources, which leads to improved communication skills.

3.3.5.4 Writing strategies

Research on writing strategies can be classified into two broad groups, with one group of studies focusing on the cognitive processes involved in L2 writing (Flower, & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1983) and another group focusing on the sociocultural context in which L2 writing occurs (Wigglesworth, & Storch, 2012; Kang, & Pyun, 2013; Simeon, 2016). The cognitive studies have primarily focused on the mental operations undertaken by L2 learners in the writing process (Flower, & Hayes, 1981; Zamel, 1983). The iterative writing model developed by Flower and Hayes (1981) presents writing as a process that involves brainstorming, pre-writing, drafting, revising and editing. Flower and Hayes (1981) suggest that a useful strategy prior to writing is to use background knowledge about the topic and audience, and writing plans. This suggestion resembles O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) elaboration strategy, which deals with the association of new information with old information. This involves the retrieval of existing knowledge from long-term memory and organising this information in the pre-writing stage (Bloom, 2008; Simeon, 2016; Hodgers, 2017). Background knowledge can also be activated through brainstorming and grouping of information, which can include classifying, and labelling and ordering information with similar attributes (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Bloom, 2008).

Other strategies supported by cognitive theories regarding L2 writing include brainstorming, planning, drafting, analysing, synthesising, revisiting and revising (Zamel, 1983; Simeon, 2016). Bloom (2008) adds that during writing and editing the following strategies apply: rereading, substitution, proofreading, resourcing and recombining. Zamel (1983) observed that the writing process of both skilled and unskilled writers did not follow the conventional stages of pre-writing, writing and revising but that their writing involved the constant interplay between thinking, writing and rewriting. However, skilled writers were observed to spend a substantial amount of time brainstorming, composing, revising and editing while unskilled writers spent very little time revising and writing. From a cognitive perspective, much of a learner's success in L2 writing depends on background knowledge (Simeon, 2016) and this might pose a problem in contexts where learners lack exposure to particular topics and the target audience, and are moreover not familiar with the culture of the L2.

The second group of studies that focused on the sociocultural context in which writing occurs also emphasised various writing strategies which L2 learners could utilise in response to the demands from their particular discourse communities (Wong, 2005; Wong et al., 2012; Kang, & Pyun, 2013; Simeon, 2016). The L2 writing strategies often associated with this second group of studies include mediation strategies (Kang, & Pyun, 2013; Simeon, 2016), scaffolded learning (Villamil, & De Guerrero, 1996; Wigglesworth, & Storch, 2012), using humour (Simeon, 2016;

Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018) and using the L1 to support L2 writing (Uzawa, 1996; Woodall, 2002, Wang, 2003, Murphy, & Roca de Larios, 2010).

According to Simeon (2016), L2 learners commonly employ their L1 to plan, compose and revise texts. Simeon (2016) conducted a case study with secondary school high-performing English L2 learners in the Seychelles to determine their writing strategies in a group writing task. The results show that high-performing English L2 learners used the following writing strategies: brainstorming, background knowledge, the L1, peer-scaffolding and humour. This study sheds some light on a number of very important constructs in L2 learning that are of interest to the current study. Simeon's (2016) study illustrated the importance of the role of the L1, background knowledge, scaffolded learning and managing affect through humour. These concepts find support in a number of studies (Uzawa, 1996; Villamil, & De Guerrero, 1996; Zimmermann, 2000; Woodall, 2002; Wang, 2003; Murphy, & Roca de Larios, 2010; Chostelidou, Griva, & Tsakiridou, 2015; Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018; Lialikhova, 2019). According to these studies the more proficient learners were able to scaffold learning for their less proficient peers through meaningful questioning, which demonstrates the role that peers can play in learning the L2.

The use of the L1 to mediate writing highlights the role that a learner's L1 plays in L2 learning and demonstrates the urgency for educational policymakers to consider the application of translanguaging practices in the curriculum and using learners' indigenous languages. Moreover, the suggestion that scaffolding and mediation are strategies for assisting with L2 writing was relevant to the current study.

3.3.5.5 Grammar strategies

Although grammar is an important skill for L2 learning, there is a paucity of studies examining this strategy (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Broady, & Dwyer, 2008; Pawlak, 2018). Broady and Dwyer (2008) postulate that this scarcity of studies on grammar strategies might be due to the multiple meanings associated with this skill, with one meaning referring to the syntactic and morphological system of the L2 based on implicit knowledge, while another meaning is based on explicit knowledge of grammar rules. In challenging the prevailing views of grammar, which focus on form, Larsen-Freeman (2011) broadens scholarship knowledge of this subject by proposing a framework for understanding grammar that includes grammatical meaning and use. The subsequent model thus included form or structure (morphosyntactic and lexical patterns as well as phonemic patterns), meaning/semantics (lexical and grammatical meaning) and use/pragmatics (social and linguistic discourse context and presuppositions about context). This

framework is pertinent to the current study as it considers learners' sociocultural environment and also the linguistic background of the learners.

Scholars seem to agree that multilingual learners possess a rich repertoire of language ability which is positively associated with grammar strategies (Kemp, 2007; Wach, 2016). Kemp (2007) studied the grammar strategies used by 144 undergraduate students in Scotland and found that the more languages students knew, the more frequently they used grammar strategies. This finding is supported in a study by Wach (2016). In recognising the rich linguistic background of learners, Wach (2016) investigated the L1 strategies used by 85 Polish university students learning L2 English and L3 Russian. Using both a questionnaire and an interview, Wach (2016) found that learners frequently used the L1 as a resource for L2 and L3 grammar. The L1 served to strengthen the form-meaning connection to understand the syntactic patterns of the L2 and L3.

In a comparative study examining grammar strategies used by Chinese and Thai high school learners, Supakorn, Feng and Limmun (2018) found that high achievers predominantly used metacognitive, memory, social and affective strategies. A comparison between the two countries revealed that Thai high achievers preferred social (reliance on teachers and peers) and affective strategies (self-encouragement and relaxation) while Chinese high achievers were characterised by their using the following strategy subcategories: revision and space reliance (memory), note-taking (cognitive) and lesson preview (metacognitive). These findings highlight the need to conduct country-specific research that not only looks at broad strategy categories but also examines the subcategories to ensure that training frameworks are designed to meet the needs of the learners concerned.

In a recent study Pawlak (2018) reviews scholarly work conducted on grammar strategies and proposes a classification system for these strategies. This classification system identifies grammar strategies as metacognitive, cognitive, affective and social strategies. Cognitive strategies are further divided into those that develop explicit knowledge (strategies for deduction and induction) and those that develop implicit knowledge (strategies for comprehension and production), thereby addressing the debate about implicit and explicit strategies.

The studies reviewed in this section highlight the role of grammar in the learning process, hence the need to develop learners' use of grammar strategies. To be effective, grammar strategies need to be understood in the context of existing linguistic discourses in various contexts while also considering using the L1 as a resource in learning an additional language.

3.3.5.6 Vocabulary strategies

Vocabulary strategies can be defined as the goal-orientated mental actions deployed by L2 learners when confronted with a new word and when they attempt to commit this new word to long-term memory (Macaro, 2017). This definition encapsulates the two categories that are used to classify vocabulary strategies, namely vocabulary comprehension strategies (VCS) (learning unknown words) and vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) (committing new words to long-term memory) (Macaro, 2017). Vocabulary is seen as the essential building blocks of language as it assists with conveying the intended meaning (Riankamol, 2008). The role of VCS in L2 learning has been highlighted in the preceding discussions, with vocabulary being associated with reading comprehension (Ahmad, & Asraf, 2004; Cisco, & Padrón, 2012), listening comprehension (Vandergrift, & Baker, 2018), speaking ability (Cohen, 2008), and the ability to use grammar correctly (Broady, & Dwyer, 2008).

A number of studies have been carried out to investigate the VLS used by L2 learners for learning vocabulary (Sanaoui, 1995; Gu, & Johnson, 1996; Klapper, 2008; Wyra, & Lawson, 2018; Goundar, 2019). Gu and Johnson (1996), in their study of 850 Chinese university students, identified several strategies that were predictors of English proficiency and vocabulary size. These included two metacognitive strategies (self-initiation and selective attention), contextual guessing, using a dictionary, note-taking, paying attention to word formation, contextual encoding and activating newly learned words.

In seeking to understand adult learners' approach to learning strategies and how they retain vocabulary, Sanaoui (1995) focused on both VLS and VCS, thus showing a link between these categories. Using a case study method, Sanaoui (1995) identified two distinctive categories of vocabulary learners in this study: those who structure their vocabulary learning and those who do not. Learners who structured their learning were observed to engage in self-created, independent study, created opportunities for learning the L2 in and outside the classroom and had an extensive vocabulary. Conversely, unstructured learners relied on the course with minimal independent study, minimally practiced the vocabulary of the L2 and subsequently had a minimal record of words in their vocabulary. Several mnemonic procedures were identified among structured learners relating to vocabulary retention: immediate repetition, spaced repetition, using the lexical item in a sentence, contextual associations (connecting words with known contexts, experiences), linguistic associations (L2 with L1), creating imagery of the word, and talking to others about the lexical item.

This review of vocabulary strategies has shown that vocabulary knowledge is of key importance in all the other language skill areas. Therefore, it is essential that learners are taught the

necessary strategies to help them learn new words and to commit them to memory. There is also a need to ensure balance when using the L1 as a strategy for vocabulary learning. The studies cited in this section suggested that the exclusive use of the L2 or the L1 might not be an effective strategy in the development of vocabulary knowledge.

3.3.6 Language-learning strategy training

The research on LLS has in part been fuelled by a desire to determine the strategies used by successful L2 learners so as to share them with less successful learners in the hope that this would help them to succeed (Rubin, 1975; Ellis, 2008; Griffiths, 2013). From a cognitive standpoint, it is believed that strategies can be taught, thus improving language-learning ability (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990). However, the idea of LLS training has not been universally accepted as studies about the effectiveness of strategy training have produced mixed results, which have raised concerns (O'Malley, 1987; Cohen, 2008; Griffiths, 2013). These concerns are further exacerbated by the unresolved debates regarding the frequency and quantity of strategy use and strategy type used (Griffiths, 2013). O'Malley (1987) found mixed results when investigating the effectiveness of strategy training on listening, speaking and vocabulary skills. In his study O'Malley (1987) divided 75 learners into three groups that comprised a control group and two experimental groups. One experimental group received training in metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies while the other experimental group only received training in cognitive and socio-affective strategies. The control group was not exposed to any training. The results indicated that the experimental groups performed higher in listening and speaking than the control group. However, in vocabulary the control group scored higher than the two experimental groups, which somewhat refutes the effectiveness of strategy training. Such findings as these have led scholars such as Rees-Miller (1993) and Dörnyei (2005) to question the idea of explicit strategy training, suggesting that time should rather be devoted to language teaching instead of teaching strategy.

Notwithstanding the concerns regarding strategy training, several scholars (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1996; Oxford, & Leaver, 1996; Macaro, 2001; Anderson, 2003; Harris, 2003; Chamot, 2004, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005; Griffiths, 2013) support the incorporation of explicit strategy training but argue that it should be done within the existing curriculum or teaching programmes instead of in separate learning strategy courses. Several studies have been designed to assist learners with various L2 tasks through strategy training. For example, Huang (2003) provided strategy training on cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies to 35 students from a university in Taiwan who had participated in a study. These learners underwent a strategy training course that was informed by Oxford's (1990) model of strategy training. The results indicate that strategy training can help L2 learners in the process of learning a L2. Not only did

learners in the experimental group improve their L2 scores, but these learners were also more motivated than those who were in the control group. More importantly, this study indicated that strategies learnt during the course were retained up to a year after the course, which is an indication of the long-term effects of strategy training.

Strategy training has also been shown to be effective in assisting learners in the various language domains, such as reading comprehension, listening, writing and vocabulary (Bornay, 2011; Zhang, Chen, & Yu, 2019). Habibian (2015) taught metacognitive strategies to an experimental group of 24 Malaysian undergraduate students over a period of 12 weeks. The findings of this study show that explicit training of metacognitive strategies helps to improve students' reading comprehension by assisting these students to employ more monitoring and assessment strategies compared to those in the control group, who did not have any training. Similarly, a quasi-experimental study of 70 students at a private university in China, carried out by Zhang et al. (2019) over 24 lessons, included raising awareness of reading and writing strategies. The findings of this study indicated that the experimental group used reading and writing more effectively after receiving strategy training. Using a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test design, Cekiso (2012) investigated the reading strategies used by 60 Grade 11 learners in a school in East London, South Africa. The experimental group was given explicit reading strategy training for a period of three months while the control group continued to receive their normal lessons in English L2. While the reading strategies of the experimental and control groups were the same before the training, the experimental group obtained significantly higher scores after training than the control group. Moreover, the studies by Chen (2007), Zarrabi (2016), and Vandergrift and Baker (2018) investigated the effects of listening strategy training on L2 learning, with Zarrabi (2016) reporting significantly higher post-test scores than the pre-test scores in a test that measured the metacognitive listening performance of Iranian L2 learners after listening strategy training. Similarly, vocabulary learning has also been shown to be enhanced by strategy training (Rahimi, & Allahyari, 2019).

The studies on strategy training discussed above focused predominantly on the individual learners and on cognition instead of the group and sociocultural factors affecting L2 learning. From a sociocultural perspective, strategy training has been explored by various scholars (Chamot, 2003; Grenfell, & Harris, 2013; Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018). Oxford and Gkonou (2016) suggest that strategy training is best integrated in authentic culture and language-learning tasks. This involves acknowledging the culture of the learners and identifying the strategies that learners from a particular culture employ. This is echoed by Chamot (2004), who notes that for strategy training to be effective, teachers first need to identify the existing LLSs used by learners in order to match these strategies with the demand of the given tasks. Chamot (2004)

furthermore adds that by understanding the strategies used by learners, teachers can assist the learners to gain greater clarity about the tasks they are set.

Grenfell and Harris (2013) explored the role of sociocultural factors in strategy training using a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test design with 120 learners between the ages of 12 and 13 years in the UK who were learning French. The experimental group was subjected to strategy training in reading and listening over a period of nine months, during which a total of twenty-five lessons were taught. This study found that pre-test scores, strategy training, bilingual status and school context significantly predicted the listening and reading performance of French L2 learners. The results indicated that learners with low pre-test scores experienced significantly higher gains in listening and reading because of the strategy training intervention compared to those who had high pre-test scores. On closer analysis, learners with low pre-test scores were from the low socio-economic (SES) schools. Low SES schools are often associated with resource shortages and learning environments that do not support effective learning (Du Plessis et al., 2007; Hungi, 2011; Smith, 2011; Mullis et al., 2016). In addition, the study by Grenfell and Harris (2013) further indicated that learners in the experimental group scored significantly higher in the post-test assessment than the control group, suggesting the effectiveness of strategy training for listening and reading performance. The results also indicated that being bilingual significantly predicted listening scores, with bilingual learners scoring markedly higher than their monolingual peers in the listening test. However, learners' bilingual status did not predict reading performance.

In my opinion, the findings of the study by Grenfell and Harris (2013) reveal great promise as regards improving strategy training and illuminating sociocultural factors that influence L2 performance. The study by Grenfell and Harris (2013) seems to suggest that strategy training may be more effective with low-performing learners from low SES schools. Given that learners from low SES schools had low pre-test scores, this confirms the link between SES and performance, as shown in several studies (Bush et al., 2009; Hungi, 2011; Smith, 2011; Blair, 2014; Kimuni, & Bhorat, 2014). The results of Grenfell and Harris's (2013) study, which show the greatest gains for learners from low SES schools after strategy training, suggest that owing to resource constraints these learners were not exposed to effective strategy training in school. However, once they had been given effective strategy training, these learners were able to perform more effectively. This is a promising finding as it suggests that providing strategy training might help to increase the performance of low-performing learners from low SES schools globally and also in South Africa.

Strategy training has also been studied in the context of peer tutoring interactions (Sato, & Ballinger, 2012). The study by Sato and Ballinger (2012) conducted among university students

in Japan and elementary school learners in Canada examined the effect of strategy training on language awareness and speaking performance. The university sample consisted of 129 students with advanced grammatical knowledge of English who were in their second year of graduate study. Students in the experimental group were allocated a peer tutoring activity and given explicit training in corrective feedback, with some group members focusing on prompts (strategy whereby the tutor withholds correct forms, allowing learners to self-correct) and others focusing on recast (tutor provides the correct form by reformulating the error). The control group had to complete the peer tutoring activity without explicit strategy training. The results indicated that the two experimental groups outperformed the control group over a 10-week period.

The sample of elementary school learners in Sato and Ballinger's (2012) study comprised Grades 3 to 4 learners in French immersion classes in Canada. Strategy training was offered over a period of seven weeks, during which researchers offered strategy training in both English and French. In this study, learners worked in pairs using a reciprocal peer tutoring model, which meant that in a given dyad learners not only received tutoring, but also became the tutors (Fantuzzo et al., 1992). In this qualitatively designed study the results indicate that peer-corrective feedback was higher in dyads with greater collaboration during tasks. Sato and Ballinger (2012) argue that this may be due to the bi-directional nature of peer tutoring, whereby learners not only learn through the feedback received from their peers but also through detecting the errors of their partners once they assumed the role of tutor. Such collaboration was mediated by trust and respect between the pair, which meant that dyads which showed mutual respect collaborated more effectively and offered more corrective feedback.

3.4 Factors Affecting Language-learning Strategies

3.4.1 Motivation

Motivation is regarded as a key factor in the learning process and this includes the learning of a L2 as motivated learners are most likely to use LLSs to ensure L2 learning (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Macaro, 2003; Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012; Singleton, 2014b; Altıner, 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). By definition, motivation is related to what drives an individual to make particular choices, to engage and persist in action (Ushioda, 2008) or the degree to which an individual strives to learn a particular language because of a desire to know the language and the satisfaction experienced in doing so (Gardner, 1985). A number of theories have emerged in an attempt to explain motivation in L2 learning, with scholars such as Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) dividing these theories into four different phases. The social psychological period (1959-1990) marks the first phase, while the cognitive-situated period (in the 1990s) marks the second phase. The third phase is the process-orientated period (turn of this century) and the final phase

is the socio-dynamic period (current). I discuss these four phases in the section below and also add an Afrocentric understanding of motivation in order to contextualise motivation.

3.4.1.1 Early models of motivation

Early models of motivation have their origins in Gardner's work on the socio-educational model of foreign-language learning (Ehrman, 1996; Dörnyei, 2005; Pezeshkian, & Kafipour, 2011; Altıner, 2018). This model was established on the tenet that learners' attitude towards a specific language group influences how successful they will be in learning that language (Gardner, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005). Motivation, as theorised by Gardner and Lambert (Gardner, 1985), is a significant cause of variability in L2 learning and its effect is independent of ability or aptitude. These researchers postulate that motivation contains both social and psychological dimensions. The psychological dimension entails acquiring the L2, whereas the social dimension deals with learners identifying with the target language community and adopting their speech styles (Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, & Dörnyei 2012).

According to Ehrman et al. (2003), Gardner's socio-educational model of language-learning distinguishes between instrumental and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation is associated with learning a language for its potential practical benefits such as finding a job, without any real intention to engage socially. Conversely, integrative motivation relates to having a positive attitude towards the foreign or L2 group and making an effort to interact as well as integrate with that community (Ehrman, 1996; Ushioda, 2008; Pezeshkian, & Kafipour, 2011; Yule, 2014).

Although Gardner's model may have shown some measure of success in L2 learning, and specifically in LLS research (Ellis, 2008), there has been criticism of this model (Ehrman et al., 2003; Ushiola, 2008; Ortega, 2018). The main critique levelled at Gardner's model is that it attaches value to a learner's inner desires and goals and does not consider the cultural aspects of L2 learning (Ortega, 2018). Moreover, the concept of integrative motivation has been challenged, especially in foreign-language settings where learners are not directly exposed to the culture of the language they are learning yet they are observed to achieve high levels of foreign-language proficiency (Ehrman et al., 2003). The concept of integrative motivation has also been criticised as it does not take into account the status of English as international lingua franca (Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012).

The discrepancies with regard to motivation and L2 learning observed in the social psychological period prompted further research into the concept of motivation. According to Dörnyei (2005), this research ushered in the cognitive-situated era of L2 motivation, with Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (SDT) being the most influential approach. The

cognitive-situated period sought to align motivation research with the dominant cognitive theories of the day. It also sought to shift the focus from the macro perspective of learners' general dispositions to a more situated analysis of motivation (Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012). The basic tenet of these cognitively orientated theories is their distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan, & Deci, 2000:55; Ehrman et al., 2003; Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2008). Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity due to the inherent satisfaction that the individual derives from the activity (Ryan, & Deci, 2000). This motivation is linked to learner autonomy, which leads to learners' taking responsibility for their own L2 learning (Singleton, 2014b). Extrinsic motivation refers to conducting an activity in order to achieve separable outcomes (Ryan, & Deci, 2000) and is linked to rewards as well as punishment (Singleton, 2014b). Although intrinsic motivation may be the ideal form of learner motivation, extrinsic motivation can also be an effective and positive tool in learning a language (Ehrman, 1996; Ushioda, 2008).

Although Ryan and Deci (2000) have made a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, these two concepts are not mutually exclusive as they can be constructive at various stages in the language-learning process (Ehrman, 1996). Ryan and Deci (2000) posit that motivation occurs on a continuum which begins with amotivation (pure lack of desire to act) to extrinsic motivation and finally to intrinsic motivation. These researchers, Ryan and Deci (2000), identified four types of extrinsic motivation, namely external regulation, introjection, identification and integration (internalising the behaviour). The integration type of motivation allows for more autonomous action and the internalisation of behaviours that lead to self-determination. In summarising Ryan and Deci's (2000) motivation theory, Ushioda (2008) maintains that the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors is not as important as whether the motivation is internalised and self-determined or imposed and regulated externally.

The process-orientated approach sought to investigate the complex nature of motivation, which meant exploring the ever-changing nature of motivation during the learning process. Proponents (Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012) of the process model distinguish between motivation to engage in the L2 and motivation during engagement in the L2. These proponents suggest that motivation to learn the L2 relates to choices, reasons, decisions and goals for learning the L2, and that motivation during the L2 engagement is related to how the learner feels, behaves and responds while engaging with the L2 (Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012). The process model is divided into three distinct phases: the pre-actional stage, the actional stage and the post-actional stage (Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012). According to this model, these three phases are affiliated with different internal and contextual motivational influences which can either enhance the learners' successful learning of the L2 or distract them from doing

so (Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012). In their critical appraisal of the process-orientated theories of motivation, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) argue that these theories assume the learning process can be clearly defined, with a definite start and end. They also claim that the process-orientated theories make the assumption that the actional process is isolated from other actional processes that the learner might be engaged in. Therefore, these theories tend to place the learning process into neatly packaged developmental boxes, thereby neglecting the intricacies and dynamic nature of the learning process. This shortcoming inspired the development of the socio-dynamic theories (Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012).

3.4.1.2 Motivation as investment and agency

The motivation researchers Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) postulate that the recent socio-dynamic theories of motivation present the view that the relationship between the individual and their context is dynamic and complex and evolves over time. These theories are shifting towards more relational and dynamic systems of motivation, thus theorising L2 motivation in a manner that recognises the broader complexities of language-learning and language use. This allows for the reframing of motivation to encapsulate theories of self and identity. To this end, Norton (2000; 2013a) draws from Bourdieu's (1991) theories of capital, language and symbolic power to develop a theory of investment in order to reframe the construct of motivation in L2 learning. Norton (2000; 2013a) does this to debunk earlier theories of motivation, which adopted the notion that motivation was an individual character trait and that learners who were not successful in learning the L2 lacked sufficient commitment to do so. Similar to Bourdieu (1991), Norton (2000; 2013a) argues that power dynamics in a given context can position learners in multiple and unequal ways, resulting in varying learning outcomes. Although having its roots in North America, research on identity and investment has also been found to be valuable in the study of L2 learning in other parts of the world such as South America (Brazil), Africa (Uganda), Asia (China) and Europe (Germany) (Darvin, & Norton, 2017).

The term investment relates to the degree to which individuals will invest their resources, such as time, attention and effort, in learning the L2 based on what they hope to gain from the experience (Griffiths, 2013; Norton, 2013a; Duff, 2014; Darvin, 2019). The concept of investment is framed within a sociological perspective and views language learners as having dynamic and complex identities that are reproduced in social interaction as learners organise and reorganise a sense of self and how they relate to the world (Norton, 2000). From this perspective, learners can relate in ways that allow them to cross boundaries and integrate into the new language community or they might resist assimilation if they deem the new language undesirable. Moreover, learners can form new identities as they navigate through the L2 (Chang, 2016). Contrary to earlier theories of motivation, Norton (2013a) found that high motivation did

not translate into successful L2 learning but noted in her studies that unequal power relations between L1 and L2 speakers was a common theme. Thus, if the context in which L2 learning occurs does not legitimise L2 learners' identity, these learners may not be invested in learning the L2. Drawing on the work of Pierce (1995) and Potowski (2004), García-Mateus and Palmer (2017) argue that when learners invest in learning a particular language, they are more likely to take risks in their use of that language and will invest resources to ensure they position and reposition themselves and the people they communicate with in any given context. Conceived in this way, investment drives individuals to assert their identity in a more potent way than motivation theories.

Coupled with investment, critical theorists have also developed the term agency to refer to an individual's ability to self-regulate and to make their own choices in pursuit of their L2 goals. This enables L2 learners to engage in certain practices deemed to be congruent with their identities and resist certain behaviours that might be deemed oppressive (Duff, 2014). Understanding motivation in the light of investment and agency adds a different dimension to traditional conceptions of motivation. It highlights the need to frame L2 learners as dynamic individuals with multiple identities, which has an impact on L2 learning (Duff, 2014).

3.4.1.3 Motivation in the African context

Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) urge researchers to reframe the concept of motivation in the context of Africa. I propose that motivation can also be considered by using an indigenous framework and suggest that framing it in this way could be useful for gaining an understanding of motivation. Therefore, I put forward the worldview that is presented by Nwoye (2017) when examining motivation in an Afrocentric context. This worldview is anchored in the sociocultural-spiritualist theories of human personhood in the African context.

According to Nwoye (2017), there are five sources of motivation which are essential in an Afrocentric worldview. Although these sources of motivation explain motivation in general, I argue that these sources are also applicable in understanding motivation in English L2 learning and LLS usage among L2 learners. In Nwoye's (2017) view the first source of motivation for the African person arises from the need to protect themselves against shame. This is done through avoiding behaviours that may tarnish one's image or standing in the community. It applies not only to an individual's image but also to the image of the family or clan. This source of motivation is deeply rooted in the African's desire to have good standing in the community and to engage in quality relationships with the members of their community.

The second source of motivation originates from the urge to overcome the limitation of background. Here Nwoye (2017) suggests that learners from underprivileged homes use this

source of motivation to propel themselves to greater opportunities in order to re-author their lives and create better destinies for themselves. Through hard work, discipline and determination these learners are able to defy their present economic circumstances and attain a more promising life.

Third, an Afrocentric source of motivation is related to the need to compete favourably with one's peers in a manner that is valorised in the individual's community (Nwoye, 2017). For the African child this entails recognising themself as a member of an age group and weighing one's achievements against those of the identified age group. This source of motivation can impel learners to strive for greater accomplishments in line with their age mates. In the fourth place, motivation for the African individual arises from an avoidance of behaviour that will result in angering the ancestors (Nwoye, 2017). This means upholding the moral code passed down through generations and living life in a responsible manner, with the understanding that every decision that is made will not only be judged by the living but also by the ancestors.

The final source of motivation for the African child is their need to belong to their own community and to avoid being ostracised by members of their community. To give effect to this desire for membership in the community, the individual may invest in social support structures within the community to secure a sense of belonging. This source of motivation is perhaps one that encapsulates the existence of a typical African who subscribes to the philosophy of "I am because we are; since we are, therefore I am" (Mbiti, 1969, p. 215). This understanding of the self in relation to others inspires the African child to follow a life of reciprocity, mutuality and co-responsibility. This entails a life that not only seeks to advance itself but also to ensure the advancement of the others' lives. It is an understanding that if one of the members of the community fails, the community fails along with the individual but when the individual succeeds, so does the community.

Maphalala (2017) argues that in the classroom context the sense of community can aid in building a sense of collective responsibility and awareness that learning occurs through interaction with others. It can also create an avenue for learners to be nurtured and developed, thereby allowing them to construct knowledge and develop skills, values and attitudes in cooperation with others and assuming responsibility for one another's success. The common theme that runs through the five sources of motivation proposed by Nwoye (2017) is that of collectivism, which has its roots in the African philosophy of Ubuntu (Mbigi, in Maphalala, 2017). This is an identity rooted in the collective good, where the individual is seen as not only responsible for their own well-being but also that of others. Stated differently, the individual recognises that their well-being is rooted in the well-being of others. This introduces the next subsection, language and identity.

3.4.2 Language and identity

The concept of identity is key to understanding language-learning as it recognises that language learners are unique in the way they learn a language and interact with their environment (Griffiths, 2013). This uniqueness should not be confused with individualism but should be understood in collectivist terms. Understanding the identity of language learners is especially critical from the SCT perspective as this theory illuminates the social dimensions of language-learning. Such a context allows learners to define, negotiate and resist relationships in a manner that foregrounds the constant struggles over meaning and legitimacy (McKinney, & Norton, 2008).

From a post-structuralist perspective language is viewed as intertwined with identity (Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005; Norton; 2010, 2013; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017) as it is through language that the individual's identity is conveyed and finds significance (Tondi, 2018). From this perspective, language not only defines institutional practices but also serves as a tool through which individuals construct a sense of themselves and their subjectivity. Norton (2013a) claims that the use of the term subjectivity in identity research is a reminder that an individual's identity should be understood in relational terms. Accordingly, this subjectivity is discursively constructed (Mckinney, & Norton, 2008) and co-constructed through the intersubjective relationships of the individual with others (García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017). This intersubjective relationship between the learner and others is similar to the concept of Ubuntu, which situates identity and meaning-making within a collectivist approach, in which the individual views themself in relation to those around them (Oviawe, 2016).

3.4.2.1 Defining identity

Traditional definitions of identity emphasise cultural identity, which is an individual's connection to a particular ethnic group, the ties formed in that group and meanings that such connections have for the individual (Norton, 2013a; Duff, 2014). Identity has also been conceived as psychological in nature and primarily existing in an individual's mind. Such a psychological conception of identity leads to the view that language is a reflection of a learner's internal mental state and disregards the role of interaction and intersubjectivity in the process of identity formation (Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005; Norton, 2013b). However, recent definitions of identity focus on social identity and have largely been informed by the post-structuralist, sociocultural and critical theories, which are interested in the power dynamics between individuals, communities and nations and the way that this power relationship enables or constrains human action (Bourdieu, 1991, Norton, 2013b; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015). The latter conceptualisation of identity is adopted in the current study as it aligns with the SCT

paradigm used to frame it. From an SCT perspective identity refers to "the social positioning of self and other" (Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005, p. 586) or "the way a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton, 2013b, p. 4). From an SCT perspective, identity is viewed as produced through intersubjectivity and emerging from the interactions between the individual and others (Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005). Therefore, defined in this way, identity becomes a dynamic and shifting link between multiple subject positions, which learners can harness in order to enhance their learning and human development (Norton, 2016).

3.4.2.2 Studies of identity and language-learning

Foregrounding language in SCT has resulted in a more sophisticated understanding of language learners and locates them in the social, historical and cultural contexts in which learning takes place. This allows for a critical exploration of how learners, through language, negotiate or resist the positions that the various learning contexts offer them at different points in time (Mckinney, & Norton, 2008). This holds various implications for pedagogical practice as different identity positions can hinder learners in speaking, writing, and reading but other identity positions can enhance these skills depending on the access they have to powerful social networks (Norton, 2013a). It is from this position that a large body of research, which theorises language as sociocultural practice and recognises the crucial role of identity in the learning process, seeks to examine identity and its possible impact on language-learning (Ibrahim, 1999; Stein, 2001; Mushengyezi, 2003; Kendrick, Jones, Mutonyi, & Norton., 2006; Mckinney, & Norton, 2008, 2013a; Duff, 2014). The studies by the aforementioned researchers attempted to create conducive discursive spaces by valorising learners' own knowledge, experience and culture, thereby creating opportunities for meaning-making.

A study by Ibrahim (1999), which investigated the interrelation of identity and learning among adolescent African immigrants in Canada, shows how these English L2 learners' linguistic style was directly linked to their constructed identity. Ibrahim (1999) found that these learners learned and appropriated an Afro-American black stylised English and invested their identities in the black hip-hop and rap genres, which symbolically give voice to the voiceless and address the silence of those who are marginalised. This led Ibrahim (1999) to propose that these rap and hip-hop genres should be included in the curriculum as legitimate knowledge sites that engaged these youngsters' identity and caused learning to occur. In this manner the knowledge of these youths would be valorised as legitimate forms of knowledge and their identity worthy of consideration. Although Ibrahim (1999) advocates legitimising the rap and hip-hop genres in the curriculum in order to close the gap between minority students' identities and the school curriculum, he cautions that these genres would need to be critically reconstructed and reframed.

This process would allow students to engage with the problematic elements of these genres such as sexism but, most importantly, it would validate the knowledge and the identity of these students.

In a similar study Kendrick et al. (2006) conducted in Uganda shows how the inclusion of drawing, photography and drama can offer innovative ways of validating learners' literacy practices, culture and experiences, thus providing support for their L2 learning. These multimodal pedagogies help learners to take greater ownership of meaning-making and allow them to situate themselves in new ways in their communities. Kendrick et al. (2006) draw from the work of Mushengyezi (2003), who advocates the incorporation of indigenous forms of communication such as storytelling, drumming and popular theatre in classroom practice in order to enhance L2 learning. Mushengyezi (2003) contends that indigenous people should seek to harness and modernise traditional forms of communication such as song, dance, drama or drums and horns as legitimate tools of communication. He furthermore argues that when a known code or symbol is used people are able to decode the message better as the messages are transmitted in a contextualised manner (Mushengyezi, 2003). By advocating the use of indigenous forms of communication, Mushengyezi (2003) is by no means suggesting that the communities who use them should trail behind in the technological era. Instead, he suggests that indigenous media should be modernised and hybridised in a way that could easily be decoded by the local community.

Similar to the studies cited in section 3.4.4.2 above, Stein (as cited in Mckinney, & Norton, 2008) explores how underresourced L2 township classrooms in South Africa can become important knowledge sites. In addition, Stein (as cited in Mckinney, & Norton, 2008) found that learners in L2 classrooms were drawing on cultural, textual and linguistic resources in their oral storytelling, thereby reappropriating and validating their legitimacy in the language classroom. This and other studies around the world demonstrate the various ways in which critical pedagogical practices can create opportunities for L2 learners to expand their identities and their understanding of the L2. Darvin and Norton (2017) propose that developments in identity should highlight the importance of intersectionality, which will assist with gaining an understanding of varying learner identities, such as gender, social class and racial identities.

A qualitative study by Griffiths (as cited in Griffiths, 2013) indicates that successful English L2 learners perceived the learning of English to be tied to their identity. This allowed these learners to invest in learning the L2. Although successful learners used more strategies than less successful ones, Griffiths (2013) established in his study that investment, motivation and identity were the most important qualities. It was evident that those individuals whose identity was linked with learning English were more successful, tended to invest more time and resources

in learning English and were highly motivated. This finding of Griffiths (2013) shows the importance of trying to achieve a holistic understanding of the L2 learner and the factors that influence their use of strategy.

3.4.3 Language and culture

Kramsch (2013b) notes that prior to the 1970s language was understood to be the sole domain of linguistics, and culture was confined to the field of anthropology as these two concepts were seen as separate entities that could only be studied in isolation. This separation of language and culture was in direct contrast to the philosophical view held by Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986), who proclaimed that language was not only a means or tool of communication but also a carrier of culture. Guided by the SCT and the need to study language in its sociocultural context, it is imperative to include culture in my discussion of LLSs. This inclusion is consistent with the current understanding in the literature that language and culture are inextricably linked (Álvarez, Beaven, & Garrido, 2008; Kramsch 2013a, p. 305; Larsen-Freeman, 2013:156; Tondi, 2018) and crucial when studying LLS (Chamot, 2004; Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018).

From a psychological perspective, Matsumoto and Juang (2008, p. 12) define culture as "a unique meaning and information system, shared by a group and transmitted across generations, that allows the group to meet basic needs of survival, pursue happiness and well-being, and derive meaning from life". Similarly, in applied linguistics culture is defined as "membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings" (Kramsch, 1998, p. 10).

Kramsch and Zhua (2016) have highlighted the development of intercultural competence as a key concept for understanding culture and language. The intercultural approach to language-learning critiques the concept of language competence as the approximation of the L1 culture by L2 speakers (Kramsch, & Zhua, 2016). Instead, it adopts the approach that learning a L2 concerns taking steps to communicate efficiently in intercultural contexts, yet not necessarily sounding like or trying to be like the native speakers. As argued by Álvarez, Beaven and Garrido (2008), such a view of language-learning allows learners to shape their language identities, which may result in a change of attitude towards individuals from different cultures who speak certain languages. Watson and Wolfel (2015) note that the intercultural approach is three-dimensional, one segment dealing with factual knowledge regarding the cultural norms and taboos in a given cultural context, whereas the other component deals with language skills that assist learners to negotiate meaning and the last segment relates to the attitude regarding the culture of the language to be learnt, such as empathy and self-efficacy.

Chamot (2004) argues that culture can influence not only the choice but also the suitability of LLS. Learners from cultures that value competition would likely prefer strategies that call for working alone whereas learners from communal cultures may opt for collaborative strategies which allow them to work with others, as Chamot (2004) notes in her study. This is similar to the communal culture which is often practiced by indigenous people in South Africa. Similarly, Oxford and Gkonou (2018) emphasise the need for teachers to provide strategy training that acknowledges the culture of the learners they are teaching. These researchers identify two broad cultural types: collectivist and individualistic. Oxford and Gkonou (2018) state that collectivist cultures value high-context communication (indirect, nonlinear, hierarchical and polite), while individualistic cultures value low-context communication (direct, linear and unconcerned with politeness). This finds support in the study by Griffiths (2013) in which she examined the LLSs of 348 students attending a private language school in New Zealand by using the SILL. The student sample included Europeans, Japanese, Taiwanese and Koreans who were all learning English. No significant differences were observed in the performance of the three Asian groups. However, significant differences were observed between European and Asian students as the European students were using significantly more strategies and using them more frequently than the Asian groups. Of the strategies mainly used by the Europeans, two related to reading and two related to interacting with others, thus suggesting that these students read more material in English and were willing to converse with others regardless of their language limitations. Furthermore, Griffiths (2013) postulates that factors such as similarity of language, culture and schooling practices may account for the differences between the European and Asian students. Drawing from the work of Usuki (2000), Griffiths (2013) further states that European students are typically taught to communicate ideas freely whereas Asian students are expected to practice polite restraint. Griffiths (2013) also suggests that there might be cultural bias in some items of the SILL that might be said to favour European students. These findings seem to suggest that there could possibly be be a mixture of factors that are involved in how learners from different cultural groups approach language-learning. In my view it is therefore necessary for teachers, curriculum designers and policymakers to consider these nuanced factors to enhance language-learning.

3.4.4 Language-learning strategies and gender

In the current study sex is understood as a biological attribute while gender represents culturally determined characteristics (Griffiths, 2013). As such, gender in this study refers to the cultural roles and responsibilities placed upon men and women as well as the expectations held about the characteristics, attitudes and behaviours of men and women (Ncube, 2018). The association of language and gender in L2 learning has gained significant interest in literature (Ehrman, & Oxford, 1988; Bacon, & Finneman, 1992), with scholars showing particular interest in the social

relationships and practices that may lead to systemic inequalities among learners (Gordon, 2004; Norton, & Pavlenko, 2004; Sunderland, 2004; Cameron, 2006; Higgins, 2010).

Although there is no consensus regarding the effect of gender on LLS usage there is some evidence that female learners use more LLSs than male learners (Ehrman, & Oxford, 1988; Oxford, & Nyikos, 1989; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Kaylani, 1996, Chamot, & Keatley, 2004; Rao, 2004; Božinović, & Sindik, 2011; Griffiths, 2013; Oxford et al., 2014; Ho, & Ng, 2016). For instance, Dreyer and Oxford (1996) found that female South African learners used significantly more social and metacognitive strategies than male learners. In partial support of this, a study conducted by Al-Mekhlafi (2018) with 78 learners in the Sultanate of Oman found that female learners used significantly more problem-solving and support-reading strategies than their male counterparts. However, no significant differences were observed between males and females with regard to global reading strategies. The study by Ho and Ng (2016) conducted with Malaysian university students also found that females used more strategies than males.

Although some studies have found differences between males and females, Liyanage and Bartlett (2012) warns that some of these differences are superficial. For instance, in a study by Griffiths (2013), which investigated the use of LLSs with 114 male and 234 female students, it emerged that although females used more strategies at a higher frequency than males, these differences were not statistically significant, suggesting that there were no differences in the performance of males and females. Similarly, Mokhtari, Dimitrov, and Reichard (2018) also found no gender differences in their study of LLSs using a sample of Hispanic, African American and Caucasian students at a community college in the USA. Instead, they found that both males and females assigned the same meanings to the different strategies. In addition, Cekiso and Madikiza's (2014) study with Grade 9 learners in an Eastern Cape school, South Africa, shows no differences between the reading strategies used by male and female learners.

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature relevant to the LLS, which was introduced by a brief discussion on L2 development, starting with the use of the grammar-translation method, followed by the audio-lingual method and concluded with the communicative method. The latter ushered in an era that focused on the learner and what the learner could do in the learning process instead of teaching and how the teacher should teach. I then proceeded to discuss the LLS concept, its definitions, classifications and implications for language-learning. What became clear during this review was that the LLS and L2 learning have predominantly been studied in relatively ideal settings (suburban schools or universities). This is, of course, the contexts in

which researchers in the LLS field find themselves but it is a context that is foreign to numerous schools in the South African context.

Therefore, considering the South African context, it is imperative that LLSs should be framed differently in order to account for the contextual issues that hinder learning in general and L2 learning in particular. I believe that the inclusion of learner motivation and identity, with a specific focus on the source of motivation from an indigenous perspective, would yield a more holistic view of L2 learners. As a pragmatic researcher, my hope is that eventually such a reconstruction would assist learners in becoming more proficient in English as this is the language used for teaching and learning. By focusing on English-language learning, I am in no way promoting English to the detriment of the mother tongue. However, I am aware of the current problematic practices, which require learners to be taught in English at schools and at higher institutions of learning, thus restricting learners' use of their full language repertoires.

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Chapter Four
Philosophical and Theoretical Underpinning of the Study of Language-Learning Strategies

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I highlight my philosophical position as researcher, thus locating this study within a broader meta-theoretical paradigm. My philosophical position combines elements of pragmatism, constructivism, more specifically cognitive and social constructivism, and Ubuntu. I also discuss Anderson's (1976) adaptive control of thought (ACT) model and Vygotsky's (1978) SCT as they inform LLS research and my theoretical framework. The final section details my conceptual framework, which encapsulates key constructs from the literature, theory and philosophy used in this study. Employing the key concepts of SCT, constructivism, Ubuntu and Anderson's (1976) ACT model, I argue through my conceptual framework that there is a need to reimagine LLSs by considering the sociocultural environment in which learning occurs and also the ontology of Ubuntu. These views are congruent with recent trends in L2 learning and specifically in LLS research, which indicate a greater appreciation of culture and the social context in which language-learning occurs (Cohen, & Griffiths, 2015; Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018). Figure 4.1 below shows the structure of the current chapter.

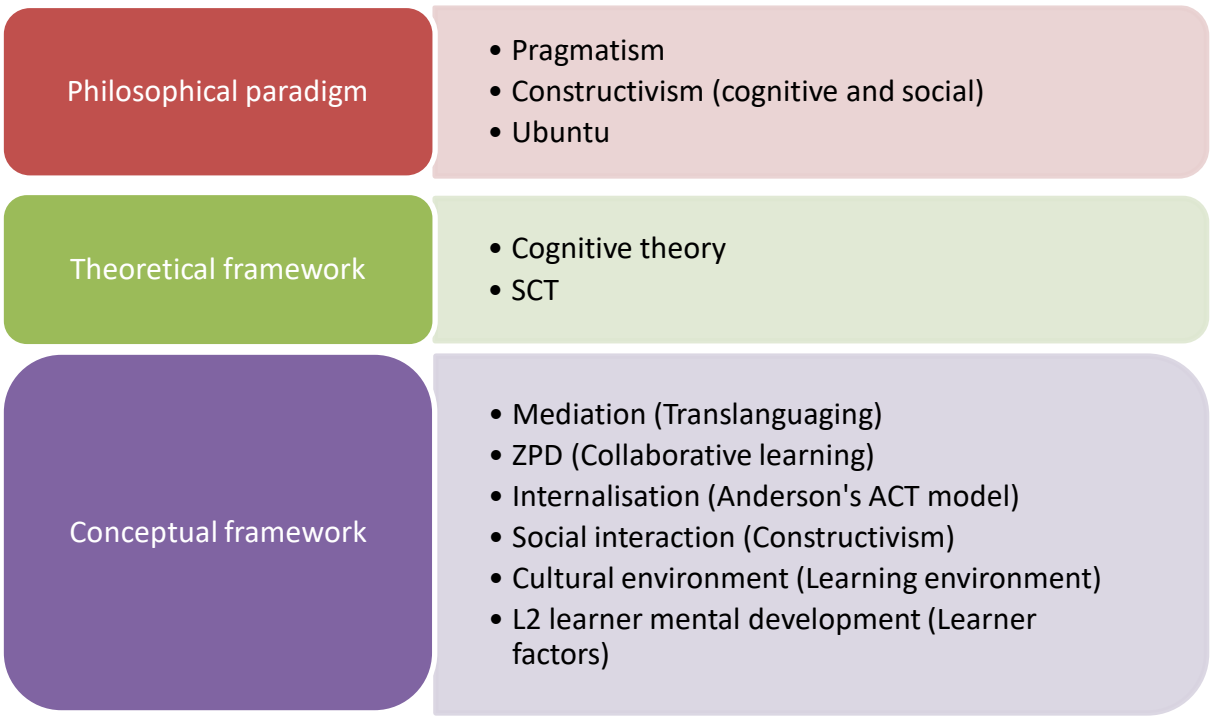

Figure 4.1: Layout of Chapter Four

4.2 The Philosophical Paradigm

4.2.1 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is rooted in the work of Charles Sanders Peirce, an American mathematician-turned-philosopher in the early twentieth century. Peirce's ideas were later expanded by William James and John Dewey, the latter having exerted a major influence on education (Gutek, 2004; Raymond-Seniuk, 2014). Pragmatism, as advanced by Dewey (1938), conceives of knowledge as a social construct and is, therefore, regarded as knowledge that is constructed in the real, social context (Biesta, 2010). Pragmatism emphasises "communication and shared meaning-making in order to create practical solutions to social problems" within these social contexts (Shannon-Baker, 2016, p. 322). This emphasis is on communication and the acknowledgement that research takes place in sociohistorical contexts, which provide a conceptual link between pragmatism, social constructivism and Ubuntu, which I discuss in the next section.

The ontological assumptions of pragmatism as a philosophical position and as applied in this study revolve around several core ideas. Firstly, pragmatism maintains that there is no single best approach to research, but that the best approach is determined by the research questions, and the purpose and requirements of the research (Denscombe, 2010, pp. 129–130; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018, p. 10). Secondly, a pragmatic researcher judges knowledge according to its usefulness in addressing practical problems and is concerned with what works in the real world. Subsequently, knowledge is not absolute throughout time as it is a product of particular contexts (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). This research is guided by a practical problem and sought to identify and explore the LLSs used by L2 learners in peer tutoring contexts in an educational context where poor academic performance is presenting a challenge. In this study, I sought to utilise the rich LLS knowledge that has been accumulated over the years internationally by employing an existing taxonomy to determine the LLSs used by South African learners. I equally sought to capitalise on the knowledge that indigenous African learners themselves possess about their own learning and context. This approach allowed me to draw on both existing, well-known and largely Western knowledge systems in addition to the existing, less well known indigenous knowledge systems.

Thirdly, pragmatism views the clear distinction and sometimes opposing views between qualitative and quantitative beliefs as unhelpful and seeks to bring about harmony between these approaches by allowing for gathering data through multiple data-collection methods (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, & Clark, 2011; Shannon-Baker, 2016). The current study necessitated the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in order best to answer the research questions.

4.2.2 Constructivism

Constructivism is a theory of knowledge which is rooted in symbolic interactionism that postulates that individuals actively construct their own knowledge and meaning based on their personal and social experiences (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999; Du Plessis et al., 2007; Firth, & Wagner, 2007; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018) and through mental processes of development (Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016). Constructivists adhere to a subjectivist epistemology, thus arguing that the expert and the novice co-create reality (Denzin, & Lincoln, 2000). In the current study, the expert would generally be regarded as the peer tutor and the tutee would be regarded as the novice. It is, however, important to note that in the current study the roles of expert and novice were not fixed owing to the nature of the peer tutoring interactions that were often at play. For example, some of the peer tutoring programmes utilise a reciprocal model, with tutors and tutees alternating roles. Thus, what was witnessed in the peer interaction was the interchangeable roles of expert and novice that appeared to enhance learning and kept learners actively engaged in their own learning.

Constructivism is rooted in both the disciplines of psychology and philosophy and is conceptualised as being on a continuum of conceptualisation, and not just one unitary theory (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999). This continuum consists of cognitive constructivism, radical constructivism and social constructivism (Firth, & Wagner, 2007; Doolittle, & Camp, 2009). Cognitive constructivism is associated with information processing and relies heavily on cognitive processes (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999; Du Plessis et al., 2007; Doolittle, 2014), as is largely derived from the work of Piaget (Liu, & Matthew, 2005). Radical constructivism posits that knowledge acquisition is an adaptive process in which the individual is actively cognisant in the acquisition of knowledge as opposed to the individual merely reflecting on external reality (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999). I adopted concepts from both the cognitive and social constructivism as these were most relevant to the current study. However, this study does favour social constructivism, which is congruent with multilingual and bilingual studies that view language, ethnicity and identity as socially constructed and executed in diverse settings (Makalela, 2014).

Social constructivism lies between the "knowable [and external] reality of the cognitive constructivists, and the construction of a personal and coherent [internal] reality of the radical constructivists" (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999, p. 8). It proposes that individuals construct knowledge through interaction with their social and physical environments as well as through reflecting on experiences (Creswell, 2014). Through this worldview, learners are regarded as central to knowledge construction and not as passive recipients of knowledge, while teachers or tutors are facilitators or guides (Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016). This view of the active role that learners play in the construction of knowledge is consistent with the field of L2 learning, which

has shifted from a teacher-centred focus to a learner-centred focus. This shift acknowledges that the role of learners is crucial in the teaching-learning equation (Nyikos, 1996).

More importantly, social constructivism acknowledges the importance of cognition as well as social interaction in the learning process. Social constructivist theories agree that learners actively construct and reconstruct knowledge through cooperation with others (Du Plessis et al., 2007; Doolittle, 2014). They recognise the role played by both cognition as well as social and cultural contexts in the process of learning and specifically language-learning (O'Reilly, & Kiyimba, 2015). This is congruent with the theoretical underpinnings of language-learning research, which emphasises cognition as well as social interaction (Griffiths, 2013).

Social constructivists believe that knowledge results from social interaction and language usage and therefore knowledge is viewed as shared experience rather than individual experience (Du Plessis et al., 2007; Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016). This shared experience always occurs within the sociocultural context, as a result making knowledge specific to a particular time and space. Social constructivism is concerned with co-construction of meaning and accentuates the construction of a shared socially constructed reality (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999; Doolittle, 2014). The use of a social constructivist philosophical paradigm is congruent with the theoretical framework used in this study as SCT is located within the social constructivist paradigm (Soleimani, Modirkhamene, & Sadeghi, 2017).

4.2.3 Ubuntu

Ubuntu has been described as both a philosophical thought and a value system that promotes the interdependence of people and communities and is shared among many indigenous groups and languages in southern Africa. Although much of the literature on Ubuntu emerged during the political transition in Zimbabwe and South Africa, Gade (2011) argues that this concept has long been reflected in the writing of African leaders such as Julius Nyerere, Kwame Nkrumah, Kenneth Kaunda and Ahmed Sékou Touré, whose ideas focused on familyhood or harmony of the extended family (Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015). At the heart of Ubuntu was the search to find the African dignity that had been eroded by colonialism, which was a pernicious and pervasive system that deprived Africans of their culture, dignity and resources (Gade, 2011). Underlying the philosophy of Ubuntu is the IsiZulu maxim "umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu", which is translated as "a person is a person through their relationship to others" (Swanson, 2010 p. 147). It highlights how the African perceives themself through the humanity of others and acts accordingly (Abdi, 2013). In itself reality to the African individual is perceived to be holistic (both-and) as opposed to a dualistic Eurocentric (either-or) view. Ubuntu thus represents an intersubjective approach to identity as neither the individual nor the community is regarded as

having ontological primacy but rather that the collective has ontological primacy (Kochalumchuvattil, 2010; Maphalala, 2017; Nwoye, 2017).

As a value system, Ubuntu continues to dominate the way of life of the African person and shapes cultural beliefs such as justice, fairness, respect for human dignity and cooperation (Swanson, 2010; Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015). Although Ubuntu has received wide acceptance, Maphalala (2017) argues that it has not been embraced sufficiently in education, as can be seen in the limited acknowledgement of indigenous knowledge systems in the classroom. Maphalala (2017) thus advocates a three-strand model of Ubuntu for the South African classroom which includes interpersonal, intrapersonal and environmental values. The interpersonal values are based on the interdependence of one learner on another and how learners should relate to each other. It includes the values of respect, cooperation, generosity, inclusivity and compassion (Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015; Maphalala, 2017). Intrapersonal values refer to a learner's ability to self-reflect and self-monitor actions, strengths and areas for development. Among other attributes, intrapersonal values consist of the values of humility, positive self-concept, self-confidence and affective awareness. The environmental values relate to taking care of the environment and ensuring its sustainability and conservation as it is believed that the environment is a source of knowledge (Chilisa, 2012). At the core of Maphalala's (2017) proposed model is the idea that learners are inextricably bound to one another as well as to their environment, which they need to care for to ensure its conservation (Chilisa, 2012, Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015; Nwoye, 2017).

4.3 Theoretical Foundations

4.3.1 Cognitive accounts of second-language learning

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue that L2 learning is a complex cognitive skill, which is supported by Griffiths (2013), who observes that the field of LLS research is fundamentally located in a cognitive theoretical paradigm. While there is consensus that cognitive theories have largely shaped the development of LLSs, various other theories have also been used in efforts to understand strategy research. These include elements from behaviourism (repetition and memory strategies), schemata theory (where learners are believed to be capable of generating rules, learning from their errors, developing an interlanguage system and establishing schemata), and the complex/chaos theory where learners are believed to have the ability to bring order to a complex and disorderly system (Lavasani, & Faryadres, 2011; Griffiths, 2013).

In the section that follows, I discuss Anderson's (1976) ACT model (cognitive theory) and Vygotsky's (1978) SCT, which are the core theories guiding the current study. The cognitive

perspective of language-learning foregrounds the idea that strategies can be learnt and that acquiring these L2 strategies can be facilitated by a teacher or a peer. Thus, from a cognitive perspective, learners not only utilise their cognition in the learning process, but are also able to learn as well as to be taught LLSs (Griffiths, 2013). Given that SCT is a theory of cognitive, psychological and social development (Vygotsky, 1978; Lialikhova, 2019), I opted to use both the cognitive and SCT theories in framing my study.

4.3.1.1 Anderson's adaptive control of thought model and language-learning strategies

The ACT model was developed by J. Anderson (1976), based on prevailing cognitive skill-based theories and it attempts to explain how information is stored in memory (Anderson, 1976; Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; Taie, 2014). I chose to include the ACT model in this study as it underpins the study of LLSs (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Macaro, 2003; Griffiths, 2013). The ACT model (Anderson, 1976; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990, Ellis, 2008) distinguishes between two types of knowledge: declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge refers to factual information which is governed by rules such as grammar rules, pronunciation and vocabulary (semantic memory) and knowledge of experiences (episodic memory) (DeKeyser, 2009). This factual information is acquired through and maintained in long-term memory as regards meaning-based concepts. These concepts are represented as multiple nodes that are connected through paired associations or links. The strength of associations between nodes is determined by prior experience, whereby stronger associations are formed if the learner has had experience of the concept that is being learned or has had sufficient practice in the specific concept (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Morgan-Short, Faretta-Stutenberg, Brill-Schuetz, Carpenter, & Wong, 2014).

Procedural knowledge refers to an automated ability to resolve problems and is associated with the learner's ability to understand and generate language. Whereas declarative knowledge might be associated with knowing what something is, procedural knowledge is associated with how to do something in practice (DeKeyser, 2009). This knowledge is represented in memory by production systems which explain how complex skills such as languages are learned and utilised. These productions are initially rule-based but, with repeated practice, they can be transformed into automatic actions. Although production systems were initially described by Anderson (1982) as linguistic rules, Chamot and O'Malley (1987) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have reconceptualised them to represent sociolinguistic discourse and strategic competence. It is this reconceptualised representation of production systems that is pertinent to the current study (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990). According to Ellis (2008), rule-bound declarative knowledge is transformed into procedural knowledge through a

three-stage, empirically derived process (cognitive, associative and autonomous), which I represented diagrammatically in Figure 4.2 below.

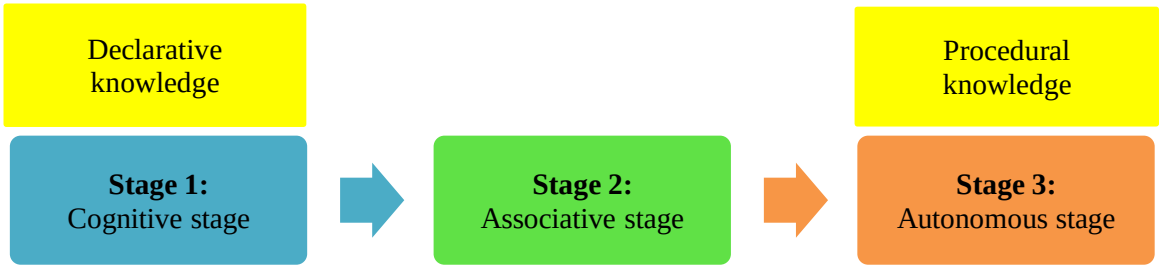

Figure 4.2: Anderson's (1976) Adaptive control of thought model

This three-stage process begins with the cognitive stage, where learning is often rule-based and deliberate, and sometimes laden with errors, but where knowledge is stored as fact. At this stage the learner is instructed how to do a particular task, which involves a conscious activity when the learner either observes an expert performing the task or attempts the task on their own. At this stage, the learner has the knowledge but may not be able to use the knowledge correctly in communication or writing contexts (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Ellis, 2008). The second stage is the associative stage, which involves the rapid execution of actions and where fewer errors are made. The associative stage occurs as the learner attempts to sort the factual information by collapsing several facts into one and through the application of general rules. At this stage, the learner is able to detect and eliminate errors and make connections between various elements of the language, thereby strengthening the skills associated with the language (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Ellis, 2008).

The autonomous stage is associated with communicative competence and fluency whereby the learner has fully attained an automated use of the language, with no or very few errors. At this stage there is less demand on the working memory, which allows the learner to use the language effortlessly. Anderson (as cited in O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990) argues that reaching this stage takes long periods of practice and requires explicit or implicit knowledge concerning language as a system. Anderson (1976) asserts that, through practice, learners are able to reach the autonomous stage. However, Anderson draws a distinction between L1 and L2 learners by contending that L1 learners almost always reach the autonomous stage through practice but states that the majority of L2 learners only reach the associative stage and never reach the autonomous stage (Ellis, 2008).

A criticism levelled against Anderson's (1976) ACT model is that, like other cognitive theories, it ignores the role of social and contextual knowledge in shaping L2 learning. According to

Hartman (1990), contextual knowledge is a dimension of metacognition, thus its omission from Anderson's (1976) theory implies an incomplete understanding of the metacognitive processes that L2 learners employ. In her criticism of cognitively based theories relating to L2 learning, especially when applied in learning English, Ortega (2018, p. 72) states that these theories treat language as "pre-existing bounded knowledge" which is "located in the brain and owned by an idealized speaker prototypical of the original community". Ortega (2018) further contends that these theories assume that the development of bounded language dimensions (such as vocabulary, grammar, pragmatic, gestural and conceptual knowledge) occurs internally, with a focus on language facts, and occurs in contexts which provide the ideal practice opportunities to allow for proceduralisation to occur. These theories also use the native speaker as a benchmark for evaluating the degree of proceduralisation that has occurred in the L2 learner. By benchmarking L2 success based on native speakers, these theories fail to acknowledge a large proportion of indigenised English varieties and entrench monolingual ideologies (Makoni, & Pennycook, 2007; García, & Li, 2014). Scholars who opposed the cognitively oriented approaches to language-learning began to explore theories that recognised the social and contextual usage of language (Larsen-Freeman, 2007). These explorations led to what has been called the social turn, when scholars such as Lantolf and Thorne (2007) began arguing that individuals cannot be separated from their social environments (Larsen-Freeman, 2011), thus highlighting the sociocultural dimensions of language-learning, which is discussed in section 4.3.2, which follows.

4.3.2 The sociocultural view of language-learning

SCT is often associated with Lev Vygotsky (born 1896), a Russian psychologist who formulated a general theory of mental development. His theory was appropriated by scholars in the study of L2 development and has been highly influential in education since the 1970s (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Ortega, 2013; Lantolf, & Poehner, 2014). Although the term SCT is used in the current study, I am cognisant of the fact that SCT is also known by various other names. In Russia, SCT is known as "cultural historical psychology", while in Finland it is known as "activity theory" and in other parts of the world it is referred to as "cultural historical activity theory" (CHAT) (Song, & Kellogg, 2011, p. 591; Lantolf et al., 2015, p. 207). The development of Vygotsky's SCT in Russia coincides with Piaget's developmental theory in Switzerland (Foley, & Thompson, 2003). In the view of both Piaget and Vygotsky, as Foley and Thompson (2003) found in their study, children are actively involved in the construction of their own knowledge, thus both these researchers subscribed to a constructivist paradigm. However, Piaget had a cognitive constructivist view of mental development and he approached learning from a very individualistic perspective whereas Vygotsky regarded knowledge construction as always

socially mediated, therefore assuming the social constructivist view of mental development (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Lantolf, & Thorne, 2006, White, & Dinos, 2010).

In synthesising Vygotsky's SCT, Lantolf et al. (2015) as well as Van Compernolle (2014) argue that SCT provides a holistic theoretical account of human development that recognises the significance of social interaction and culturally constructed artefacts. The premise of SCT is that while the human mind or cognition is necessary for higher mental processes, it is irrevocably socially embedded and therefore any investigation into the mind needs to be conducted in the contextual unfolding processes of social action (Donato, 1994; McCafferty, 1994; Ortega, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015). Moreover, SCT recognises that social milieus and cultural artefacts are essential for "transforming biologically endowed psychological capacities into uniquely human forms of mental activity" (Thorne, & Tasker, 2013, p. 487). From a Vygotskian perspective, learners are understood to employ existing and create new cultural artefacts, such as language, as a way of regulating biological and behavioural activities (Lantolf et al., 2015).

In contrast to dualistic and reductionist accounts of human mental functioning, which assume that mental processes either originate from one's environment (the nurture debate) or are biologically specified within the mind or brain of the individual (the nature debate), Vygotsky posited a dialectical (organic or unitary) relationship between the biologically endowed functions and the culturally constructed processes of the mind (Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Van Compernolle, 2014). This dialectical relationship presupposes that human consciousness emerges from the unitary, biologically specified mental abilities and the internalisation of culturally constructed mediational means (Lantolf et al., 2015). Instead of dismissing the existence of direct stimulus-response processes, Vygotsky (1978) proposes that such processes belong to lower psychological functions. He further proposes that higher forms of psychological processes are culture-based, which allow humans to control their lower (natural or biological) psychological processes. Higher mental activities include voluntary attention, intentional memory, logical thought and problem-solving. Although these activities rely on biological functions in the brain, they are arguably formed and regulated through the integration of mediating artefacts such as language, which is culturally situated (Van Compernolle, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015).

The core concepts of SCT include mediation, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and internalisation. These concepts are all connected to the SCT's premise that cognition is mediated by culturally organised symbolic tools such as language, which allow humans to control their own cognitive activity intentionally (Louis, 2009; Christmas, Kudzai, & Josiah 2013; Lantolf, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015). In section 4.3.2.1, which follows, I elaborate on these SCT concepts

and discuss how they relate to the current study. These three core concepts form the basis of my conceptual framework, which I present at the end of this chapter.

4.3.2.1 Mediation

Mediation denotes Vygotsky's (1978) assertion that higher forms of human cognition are attained through the integration of cultural tools such as language. The fundamental tenet of Vygotsky's SCT is that mental processes are mediated by these culturally constructed artefacts or tools (Van Compernolle, 2014). Although SCT acknowledges that humans possess a biological endowment and that this provides the basis for subsequent development, it does not view this as the fundamental determinant for language development (Ellis, 2008). In fact, Vygotsky (1978) suggests that the human mind consists of a low-level neurological base whereas cultural tools (such as language, logic, and categorisation) represent the high-level dimension of human consciousness, which humans utilise for voluntary control of biological dimensions. Moreover, these high-level cultural tools act as a buffer between the individual and their environment through the process of mediation (Lantolf et al., 2015). Vygotsky (1978, 1986) therefore contends that higher mental processes are functions of mediated activity.

According to Lantolf et al. (2015), an important form of mediation in the SCT literature is that of regulation. The first is object regulation, which relates to mediation through socially constructed artefacts, with language being the most important of these artefacts. The second form of regulation is "other" regulation, which is mediation that occurs through social interaction. The final form of regulation is self-regulation, which reflects mediation through private speech. These three types of mediation are discussed in the section that follows.

4.3.2.2 Regulation through objects (artefacts)

Object regulation exemplifies a developmental sequence in a learner's life through which artefacts in the environment afford cognition. At this stage the learner's mental development is directly influenced by the environment. In a L2 environment, object regulation is regarded as an artefact that makes cognition possible through the use of objects such as a dictionary to look up new words and using pen or pencil to write down information (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015). Figure 4.3 below illustrates Vygotsky's (1978) representation of mediated learning through object regulation.

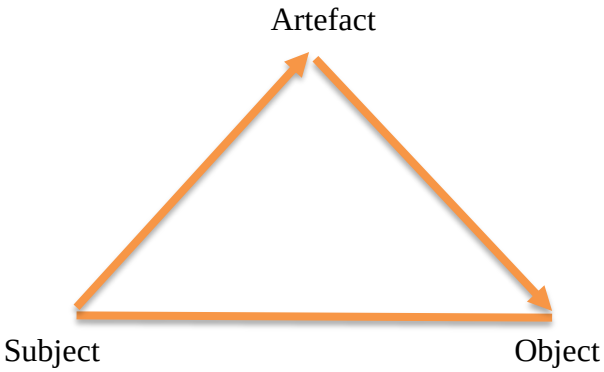

Figure 4.3: Vygotsky's model of mediated action (from Lantolf, & Thorne, 2006)

In Figure 4.3 above the subject represents the L2 learner, the object represents the L2 task that the learner has to complete and the artefact represents the tools (concrete such as a dictionary or symbolic such as language) available to the learner to mediate their action (object). Once appropriate development has occured, the learner (subject) is able to mediate their own actions in completing the activity (object). However, if appropriate development has not yet occurred, the learner (subject) may resort to an artefact (for example a dictionary) to provide assistance. This results in tool-mediated action. Moreover, an artefact can be internal (its use is planned in the mind before it is used) or external (employed without forethought) (Ellis, 2008).

Artefacts for mediating learning can include formulae, dictionaries, symbols, maps and language (Gredler, & Shields, 2004). These tools are created by society for the purpose of controlling and directing behaviour. They are so powerful that they grant humans the ability to control their neuropsychological functioning by altering the flow and structure of mental functions (Quek, & Alderson, 2002; Lantolf, 2012). These tools are shared among learners through social interaction, thus enabling them to develop a more complex and comprehensive understanding of the world (Louis, 2009). Therefore, tools are regarded as a type of mediator that mediates the learning process (Presseisen, & Kozulin, 1992). Language is believed to be the most powerful cultural artefact or tool for mediating thought and is viewed as a means of accomplishing social interaction and managing mental activity (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf et al., 2015).

Language is thus seen as a means for mediating higher mental functioning. Vygotsky (1978) considers language as having two distinct functions, namely as a communication or cultural tool and as a psychological or cognitive tool. As a cultural tool, language is used for sharing and collaboratively developing knowledge. As a cognitive tool, language is used to organise thoughts, and for reasoning, planning and reviewing actions (Foley, & Thompson, 2003). Lantolf (2012) explains that since language is a cognitive tool, it facilitates mediation of L2 learning. Once learners have mastered language as a meaning-making system, they are able to control their own cognitive activity. Ellis (2008) expounds on this by stating that for L2 learners

this means that the L2 serves as the object of attention (the task they need to master) and a tool for mediating its acquisition, which demands that L2 learners learn how to use language to mediate their L2 learning.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) criticise the SCT for not having a language theory, as it consequently provides very little insight into L2 learning. However, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) address this criticism of Mitchell and Myles (1998) by highlighting that SCT is concerned with language as a communicative activity and is therefore concerned with cognition and meaning-making. Although Lantolf and Thorne (2006) acknowledge that language forms (such as verb phrases, sentence structure and nouns) and structures (syntax, morphology, phonology and lexicon) are important, they argue that these forms and structures cannot be isolated from their meaning. They thus emphasise language context above language forms and structure as words might have different meanings in different cultural contexts.

4.3.2.3 Regulation through social interaction

Regulation through social interaction, also known as other regulation, is a central concept within SCT as external mediation is believed to be a means by which internal mediation is achieved (Ellis, 2008). This social interaction can occur between L2 learners and experts such as tutors or novices such as peers by means of guidance from an expert or peer, implicit or explicit feedback on grammatical forms and corrective feedback from writing tasks (Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015). Other regulation is a stage in which the individual is highly influenced by more experienced others and where the L2 learner carries out linguistic tasks with the assistance of capable peers or experts. This is done through dialogic speech or gestures (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013). Furthermore, other regulation enables learners to solve problems they would otherwise not be able to solve on their own (Siyepu, 2013).

Ellis (2008) states that the premise of SCT is that through focusing on various types of mediation between learners and others (peers, teachers, and tutors) the process of L2 development is understood differently from other models of second-language acquisition. This difference assumed by SCT is that development begins as a social process and gradually becomes a psychological process which differs from cognitivism, which starts from the mind and moves to the social. Initially, the learner may require explicit mediation from peers, teachers or tutors, but will gradually require implicit prompts to complete a given task. Later the learner may be able independently to complete a task for which they initially required mediation. Lantolf (2012) reasons that this shift in mediation over time indicates that development has occurred, therefore learning has moved from the intermental (social plane) to the intramental plane

(cognitive/mental plane). Consequently, when social speech has become internalised as inner speech by the L2 learner, it can then be used to regulate behaviour (Ellis, 2008; Oxford, 2008).

Social interaction is critical in advancing the L2 as it enables learners to get close to the target culture, which may result in learners investing in the L2 and adopting the L2 as part of their identity (Kramsch, 2013b). This may be demonstrated in their translanguaging practices, where they use the L2 as part of these practices. In my view, Vygotsky's (1978) concept of mediation through social interaction is closely linked to the well-known South African Nguni saying "umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu" (Nwoye, 2017, p. 42), which means "I am because you are and you are because we are" (Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017, p. 43). This expression strengthens the notion that mediation received from others can assist individuals to become better language learners. As succinctly articulated by Archbishop Emeritus Desmond Tutu (Tutu, 2004, p. 5), "None of us comes into the world fully formed. We would not know how to think, or walk, or speak, or behave as human beings unless we learned it from other human beings." This statement is a truism not only in L2 learning but also in the development of LLSs, especially in the context of South Africa, where the role of the "other" is highly esteemed in everyday life.

While expert mediation is arguably the most effective form of mediation, peer-to-peer mediation has also been shown to have a positive effect on L2 learning in general and LLS development specifically (Aljaafreh, & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, & MacCormick, 1994; King, 1997; Swain, 2001; Tocalli-Beller, & Swain, 2005; Murphy, Evans-Romaine, & Zheltoukhova, 2012; Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014). Through the use of SCT, Donato and McCormick (1994) investigated the role of mediation in the development of LLSs with L2 learners of French in a university setting. They found that mediation plays a critical role in LLS development and allows learners to self-assess, set goals and plan their own learning. Another important finding derived from this study is the important role that the classroom environment plays in the development of LLSs. A classroom environment which allows for the mediation of language-learning contributes directly to learners' success in identifying, refining and developing idiosyncratic strategies, thus making the learning process more effective.

4.3.2.4 Self-regulation

In the context of SCT, self-regulation denotes the process by which individuals are able to function autonomously once they have internalised the information they received (Oxford, 2008; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013). This is the stage when an individual has moved from object and other regulation to self-regulation (Ellis, 2008). Although interpersonal interaction has a privileged place in SCT, there is strong support for self-regulation through private speech (Ellis, 2008). Private speech is defined as "audible speech directed to the self" (Ortega, 2013, p. 174).

McCafferty (1994:118) asserts that as a mediation tool private speech mediates metacognitive functions involving planning, guiding, and monitoring the course of an activity. In other words, private speech regulates the metacognitive LLSs in L2 learners. Private speech often occurs in instances of cognitive stress when an individual is faced with solving a problem deemed to be difficult or when performing a new task (McCafferty, 1994). When this occurs, learners begin to talk to themselves throughout the activity and by so doing the process of internalisation occurs. Therefore, private speech can mediate L2 activities and promote further development of the L2 (Van Compernolle, 2014).

Private speech allows for greater vocalisation as learners do not feel constrained by the norms of the L2. This can assist with gaining an understanding of the cognitive processes that occur while learners are completing a task and can be likened to "think aloud" protocols that have generally been found to be used in LLS research (Ellis, 2008, p. 529). While conducting private speech, learners can overtly give themselves instructions to apply the skills learnt from more competent others and in doing so the learner gradually internalises these skills until this process becomes a type of self-directed mental activity (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Oxford, 2008). The outcome of this action is the learner reaching internal self-regulation, which is cognate to autonomy (Oxford, 2008). Oxford (2008) cautions that the autonomous learner should be viewed in context as autonomy may be perceived differently depending on the context.

Ellis (2008) notes that the use of private speech by L2 learners can also result in these learners resorting to using the L1 to facilitate L2 learning. However, if these L2 learners do use the L2, they may do so without employing the correct L2 rules. This may occur even when learners have internalised the correct L2 forms. In this regard it is unclear whether the learners were making errors or if they were simply employing individual forms of private speech. The key concern in SCT is whether private speech can mediate L2 learning as research conducted among adolescents and adults yielded mixed results (Appel, & Lantolf, 1994; Ushakova, 1994; Appel, & Lantolf, 2006; Centeno-Cortés, & Jiménéz-Jiménéz, 2004). A study that Ushakova (1994) conducted in tutoring and experimental settings with Russian native speakers learning a L2 suggests that these learners could not use the L2 to mediate their thinking. Ushakova (1994) argues that although these L2 learners used the L2 in social communication, they could not apply the L2 as a psychological tool for mediating their thinking through private speech. Ushakova (1994, p. 154) presents this argument included below to explain her findings:

> The second language is incorporated in the classification system already available in the first language, relies on the previously developed semantic system, and actively deploys first language phonology. This all means that the main driving force is not so much inner self-development as its use of first language development. To put it figuratively, second language is looking into the windows cut out by the first language.

However, Ushakova's (1994) findings have been disputed by several scholars, including Frawley (1985), Frawley and Lantolf (1985), Lantolf (2006), Ahmed (1994), McCafferty (1994), and Centeno-Cortés and Jiménéz-Jiménéz (2004). In a study by Appel and Lantolf (1994), the results indicated that both L1 and L2 speakers employed the same strategies in recalling and understanding written texts. Learners in this study were observed as mediating their thinking through externalising their private speech exclusively in the L2. Appel and Lantolf (1994) argue that the differences between their study and the study conducted by Ushakova (1994) may lie in the context in which the study was conducted. While Ushakova (1994) conducted her study in an immersion L2 setting, the study by Appel and Lantolf (1994) was conducted in foreign-language contexts. This argument highlights the role of context in L2 learning, which aligns with the current study.

The study by Appel and Lantolf (1994) was carried out with 28 undergraduate students at an American university. Fourteen of these participants were native English speakers while the remaining 14 were native German speakers with advanced proficiency in English as L2. These learners were given one expository and one narrative text to read and two days later were required to present an oral recall of these texts. The results of this study show that although both L1 and L2 speakers externalised their thinking when recalling the expository and narrative texts, greater externalisation occurred during their recall of expository text. Appel and Lantolf (2006) postulate that learners may have found the narrative texts much easier than the expository texts due to their familiarity with typical Western fairy tales. This suggests that private speech can sometimes be influenced by the type of text to which learners are exposed but also highlights the need to ensure the use of familiar texts to allow for greater comprehension.

A study by Centeno-Cortés and Jiménéz-Jiménéz (2004) suggests that higher proficiency in the L2 can provide an additional set of cognitive strategies during problem-solving tasks in the L2. Although Centeno-Cortés and Jiménéz-Jiménéz (2004) found that native speakers of English used private speech in both L1 and L2, this usage differed according to their proficiency in the L2. Learners with an intermediate proficiency in Spanish were often observed to employ a three-step routine in solving the problems. They were first of all observed to use meta-language, using a dictionary to look up words. This would be followed by a literal translation, when Spanish words were translated into English word for word. In the final step, these learners would transform the literal translations into something more comprehensible in English (refined translation). This three-step process meant that these learners took longer to complete the tasks due to the multiple steps they followed, which included typing the answer in Spanish, and rereading it to ensure that the language form was correct. Moreover, learners with an intermediate proficiency in the L2 mainly employed L2 private speech while "reading, and for repetitions of parts of the questions, fixed expressions, metacomments" (Centeno-Cortés, &

Jiménéz-Jiménéz, 2004, p. 31). When intermediate learners used the L2, they mainly focused on the formal features of the L2 in their thinking process. Centeno-Cortés and Jiménéz-Jiménéz (2004) argue that intermediate L2 learners are faced with a double struggle when compared to advanced L2 learners. They have to contend with the actual language and in addition struggle with the problem. This is a similar problem to the one Madiba (2012) raised with regard to the use of English as LoLT in South Africa, where learners not only have to navigate through the subject they are learning but also through the language that is used for instruction.

The literature reviewed above regarding the role of self-regulation (private and inner speech) may present important implications for the South African context, where the majority of learners are taught in their L2. Lantolf (2006) concludes that while the language of the task does not fully determine the language that L2 learners access to mediate their thinking, it certainly does influence it. Although no conclusive evidence exists to show L2 mediation of mental processes, the evidence presented above shows that L2 learners have difficulty with sustaining L2 private speech, thus making the L2 an insufficient resource for mediating cognition.

4.3.2.5 Internalisation

Another central concept incorporated within SCT is internalisation (Van Compernolle, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015). Lantolf (2006, p. 90) defines internalisation as the cognitive process through which "communities of practice" start appropriating the symbolic artefacts, such as language, used in communicative activities and convert them into psychological artefacts, thus mediating their mental activities. According to Kozulin (1990), internalisation is essential for the formation of higher mental functions. These definitions address Vygotsky's (as cited in Lantolf, 2006) assertion that psychological functions appear twice. Firstly, they appear on an interpsychological plane, where the individual interacts with others. Then they appear on an intrapsychological plane, within the individual. This implies that learners use information received on the interpsychological plane (from the environment and others) and make it their own in a meaningful way on the intrapsychological plane (Lantolf, 2006). Internalisation thus involves the process of integrating the knowledge and skills acquired from the environment into personally meaningful activities. SCT therefore gives prominence to environmental factors during the process of language development (Chen, 2016; Van Compernolle, 2014).

Internalisation occurs once learners can independently perform complex cognitive or physical motor tasks without the help of adults or peers. Thus, the learner is able to function with decreased reliance on external mediation (artefacts and others), and an increased reliance on internal mediation (Lantolf et al., 2015). This higher reliance on internal mediation indicates that self-regulation has occurred. Self-regulation is a metacognitive activity concerned with the

individual's ongoing problem-solving and is also related to constant, conscious reflection on their cognitive abilities (Frawley, & Lantolf, 1985; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013).

The concept of internalisation has been used by LLS researchers in various ways. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) suggest that certain metacognitive strategies, such as planning and monitoring one's learning, are internalised through social interaction. They furthermore state that all higher-order cognitive functions, for example analysing and synthesising, which are essentially cognitive strategies, are internalised through social interaction with competent peers or adults by means of scaffolding. This assertion that learners internalise higher-order cognitive functions is supported by Thorne and Tasker (2013), who add that LLSs such as interpretive strategies, categorisation and planning are all internalised by L2 learners and made available as cognitive resources. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) also argue that the very actions of asking peers or adults for help and collaborating with others necessitate using social strategies.

4.3.2.6 Zone of proximal development

The ZPD has drawn the attention of many psychologists and teachers. It arose from Vygotsky's finding that collaborative interactions with others in instructional settings precede and shape development (Lantolf et al., 2015). Mediation of cognitive processes is viewed as a critical element in the ZPD (Ohta, 2010). Although Vygotsky spoke of the ZPD in reference to children, this term is also extended to adults (Ohta, 2010). Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) defines the ZPD as: "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". From this definition three levels of development can be extrapolated, the actual level, the potential level (Tzuriel, & Shamir, 2007; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013) and the level that lies beyond the learner's ability (Ellis, 2008).

The actual level of development deals with development achieved or tasks that the learner can complete independently. It indicates the learner's actual mental development at a particular time and represents those mental functions that have already matured in the learner. The aforementioned assumes a retrospective view of development as the learner has already achieved this development (Ellis, 2008; Christmas, 2013; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013). The second level addresses tasks that a learner can achieve with assistance from a more knowledgeable adult or peer. This second level is arguably where most cognitive development takes place as this is the active learning zone. The ZPD is forward-looking in the sense that it addresses those tasks that the learner cannot do on their own but has the potential to perform with assistance from others (Santrock, 1997; Tzuriel, & Shamir, 2007; Siyepu, 2013; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015). The third level, which is not commonly reported on in SCT research, deals

with those tasks that the learner cannot do even with assistance from others (Ellis, 2008). This would be, for example, expecting a Grade 1 learner to solve a Grade 12-level grammatical task. No matter how much assistance the learner receives, they are unlikely to solve the task as it lies beyond their developmental level.

In contrast with cognitive theories of development, the premise of the ZPD is the understanding that development has both social and psychological dimensions (Ellis, 2008). As posited by Vygotsky (1978), the ZPD is not solely dependent on internal mental processes, but also on the quality and quantity of external forms of social/dialogic interaction that are in line with a learner's potential ability. These dialogic interactions between the novice and capable peers are perceived to be mutually beneficial in that the novice (tutee) obtains the necessary support and the capable peer (tutor) also benefits from the social interaction (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013). The tutees receive both cognitive and motivational scaffolding (Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014), which helps them to learn the L2 while the tutors benefit through the process of "learning by teaching" (Topping et al., 2003, p. 292), which reinforces their own learning as they tutor others (Marieswari, & Prema, 2016).

The concept of the ZPD has been expanded to include the help offered by nonexperts through collaborative learning (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Soleimani, Modirkhamene, & Sadeghi, 2017). A good example of this is seen in the quantitative study by Soleimani et al. (2017), who investigated the effects of peer-mediation in a writing exercise. This study was conducted with a group of 54 Iranian participants who were at an intermediate level of English L2 learning and 54 Iranians who were at an advanced level of English L2 learning. The participants in each category were assigned to one of two groups (one group used peer-mediated writing and the other group used individual writing). The results of this study indicate that the peer-mediated writing allowed learners to produce more fluent and accurate work than learners working individually (Soleimani, Modirkhamene, & Sadeghi, 2017). This finding allows for considering peer-to-peer collaborative learning, which is the subject of the current study.

Another important consideration regarding the ZPD is that the assistance offered to the learners should match their ZPD level as cognitive development only occurs when learners are confronted with tasks that lie within the ZPD (Louis, 2009). The application of the ZPD in the context of LLS in peer tutoring would consequently entail establishing the LLSs used by L2 learners and determining how and in what specific situations these strategies are used. Equipped with the knowledge of learners' LLSs, the peer tutoring environment can be designed with the intention to stimulate the development of L2 learners.

4.3.2.7 Scaffolding

Underlying the theory of the ZPD is the concept of scaffolding. Scaffolding was introduced by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) in order to operationalise Vygotsky's concept of teaching within the ZPD (Christmas, Kudzai, & Josiah, 2013; Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014). This fundamental concept of scaffolding refers to the support for learning and problem-solving that the learner receives from more capable adults or peers. This assistance may take the form of clues, encouragement, providing examples and finding innovative ways to explain problems (Bayaga, Mtose, & Quan-Baffour, 2010). This assistance (scaffolding) is often greater at first, and lessens as the learner develops the mental capability to complete the task on their own or once internalisation has taken place. In this way, cognitive development takes place as the learner completes the task within the ZPD. Once the learner has mastered the task (internalised), the task will need to be replaced by a more advanced one to ensure continuous cognitive development (Donato, 1994; Louis, 2009).

Scaffolding facilitates conceptual, procedural, strategic and metacognitive support for learners by bridging the gap between what they can do on their own (actual development) and what they can only do with help from experts or peers (potential development) (Belland, Walker, Olsen, & Leary, 2015). As suggested by Bayaga et al. (2010), scaffolding enhances learners' independence in problem-solving and cultivates an increased sense of responsibility for their own learning. The concept of peer-to-peer scaffolding is relevant to the current study, which examined LLS in the context of peer tutoring programmes in which learners are at times tutored by fellow learners.

Scaffolding occurs not only between experts and novices but also between peers who are engaged in the process of tutoring (Donato, 1994; King, 1997; Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014). As argued by Donato (1994), learners can offer guided support to their peers in ways that are analogous to expert or adult scaffolding. In his study with university students, which examined collective scaffolding in L2 learners, Donato (1994) found that collective scaffolding offered by peers who were themselves learning the L2 brought about the linguistic development of both tutors and tutees. This finding underscores the role of peers in supporting one another during L2 learning. In the context of peer tutoring, tutors not only provide motivational scaffolding to other learners but can also provide cognitive scaffolding, as was the case in a study by Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014) which they conducted at a writing centre. According to Mackiewicz and Thompson (2014), motivational scaffolding includes encouragement, praise, reinforcing learners' ownership and control, using humour and showing empathy. Cognitive scaffolding deals with skills development and includes asking questions,

prompting, hinting, demonstrating, allowing learners to choose and referring to previous examples.

4.3.2.8 Critique of sociocultural theory

Although the SCT provides a composite theory for the study of L2 and LLSs (Ellis, 2010), this theory is not without limitations. Chen (2016, p. 169) warns that the SCT's focus on social interaction could potentially "demonise" those learners who avoid social or peer interaction. Drawing from her own experience as a L2 learner and teacher, she explains that some learners may choose to engage in self-learning activities such as reading through textbooks instead of engaging in social interaction for learning purposes. To counter this criticism of social interaction, Chen (2016) proposes that teachers should ensure that they valorise all forms of social interaction instead of elevating normative forms of social interaction. In this way, reading through a textbook or maintaining silence should be legitimised as much as social interaction. In my view, SCT already accounts for this in that cultural artefacts such as books regulate development and learning. Moreover, SCT acknowledges the role of self-regulation, which takes on many forms, including inner speech (McCafferty, 1994; Ortega, 2013; Van Compernolle, 2014).

In his evaluation of SCT, Myles (2010) critiques SCT for its concern with the process of L2 acquisition but fails to explain which formal properties are acquired and why. Moreover, Myles (2010) asserts that SCT is limited in that it is interested in L2 usage only by explaining social interaction and the types of context that facilitate effective L2 learning, but does not explain language acquisition over time. Despite the criticisms levelled against SCT, I concur with Ohta (2010) that using the SCT provides a holistic view of L2 development as it integrates cognition, social interaction, interactive settings and learner histories in an all-inclusive framework. The constructs examined in the SCT, such as mediated learning, social interaction and ZPD have close links with the constructs of peer tutoring, translanguaging and indigenous knowledge systems, which were discussed in Chapter Two. This latter aspect allowed me to expand on Vygotsky's (1978) SCT to include uniquely African cultural elements in the theory. The pragmatic fusion of Western and indigenous understandings of L2 learning was undertaken in the hope of my shedding light on the current academic challenges faced by South African L2 learners and of making recommendations for the way forward to resolve them.

4.4 Conceptual Framework

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) state that research needs to be located within a theoretical orientation and/or conceptual framework. This type of framework offers a justifiable defence

for the variables relevant to the study, while the design and methodology used for the study offer a foundation for interpreting the results. Moreover, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) highlight that a conceptual framework is the thread that links all the important concepts that inform the study, such as concepts from the literature review, philosophical paradigm and the theoretical framework. As noted by Machimana (2017), the conceptual framework is not a mere collection of concepts, but a construct that is built from concepts that are interrelated within a given study. Therefore, guided by the reviewed literature, I theorised the conceptual framework in Figure 4.4 below as a guide to answering the research questions.

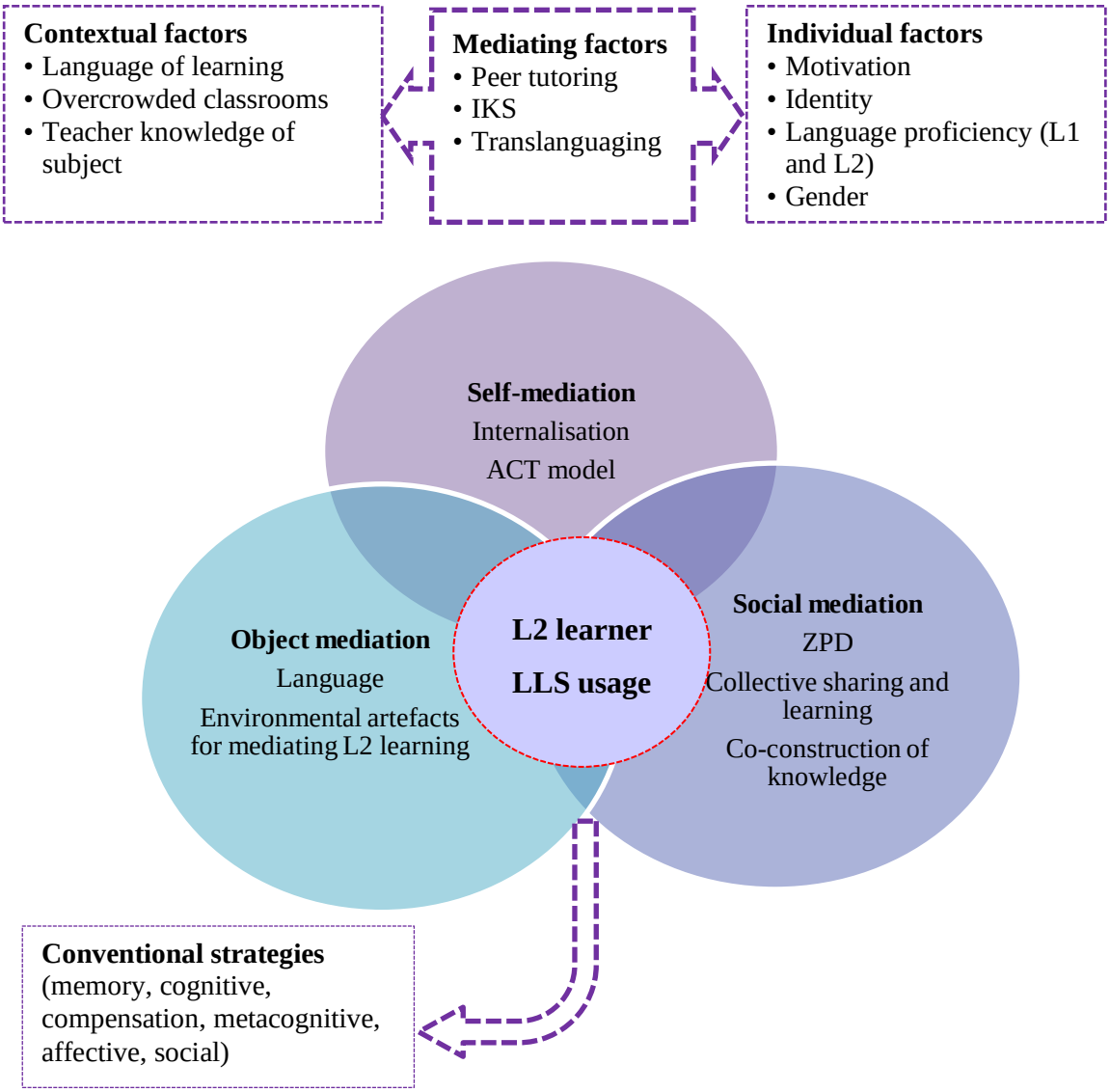

Figure 4.4: Hybridised second-language learning strategy conceptual framework

In the above-mentioned illustration, I showed the factors that could affect L2 learning. In a disabling environment both contextual and individual factors can threaten L2 learning, which include overcrowded classrooms (contextual factor), resulting in decreased motivation (individual factor). To mitigate potential threats to L2 learning, which can be caused by

debilitating contextual and individual factors, I identified three mediating factors: peer tutoring, IKS and translanguaging. Social interaction is a key concept highlighted in the conceptual framework. In the words of Vygotsky (1978, p. 90), "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with peers." Drawing from both social constructivism and the SCT, the learners envisioned in this study co-construct knowledge through social interaction with their peers or tutors (peer tutoring interaction). This allows for socially mediated learning to occur, in so doing integrating the social milieus and cultural artefacts with higher mental processes (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Lantolf, 2006; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013). I propose that peer tutoring could potentially allow learners to be taught within their ZPD, given the one-on-one or small-group interactions commonly employed in such settings (Murphy, Evans-Romaine, & Zheltoukhova, 2012).

I concur with Thorne and Tasker (2013) that learners are active participants in their own learning and use language as a tool to mediate their own L2 learning. Although studies have been inconsistent in their findings regarding the use of the L2 to mediate mental development, a common finding of these studies is that the L2 is not an efficient tool for mediating mental development as learners show a greater inclination to use the L1 to work through difficult problems. This was true even among learners who demonstrated a high proficiency in communicative competence and experienced extensive exposure to the L2 (Ushakova, 1994; Centeno-Cortés, & Jiménéz-Jiménéz, 2004; Appel, & Lantolf, 2006, Lantolf, 2014). Moreover, LSS studies (Uzawa, 1996; Villamil, & De Guerrero, 1996) have also shown that the use of the L1 is a common strategy used by L2 learners in mediating learning (Zimmermann, 2000; Woodall, 2002; Wang, 2003; Murphy, & Roca de Larios, 2010; Simeon, 2016; Wach, 2016; Kim, 2019; Lialikhova, 2019). Given the role that the L1 plays in mediating thoughts, I propose the use of translanguaging as a symbolic tool for mediating thoughts. This tool allows learners to draw on their full linguistic repertoires, thus facilitating cognitive development (García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). The use of IKS is also critical in mediating L2 learning as it helps to scaffold learning. This involves the use of multimodel approaches to L2 learning and allows learners to use the resources at their disposal in the process of L2 learning (Berger, Dei, & Forgette-Giroux, 2009; Newfield, & D´Abdon 2015).

The interconnecting cycles show the key concepts of Vygotsky's SCT (Donato, & McCormick, 1994b; Ellis, 2008, White, & Dinos, 2010; Lantolf, 2014), which forms the theoretical cornerstone of this study. These concepts include mediation (mediation through objects, social interaction and self-mediation), ZPD and internalisation that all help to scaffold L2 learning. Within the Vygotskian perspective, L2 learning can be mediated through both physical and

symbolic tools, with language considered as the most powerful symbolic tool for mediating mental development (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2014).

Drawing from both social constructivism and the SCT, the envisioned learners in this study co-construct knowledge through social interaction with their peers or tutors. This allows for socially mediated learning to occur, in so doing integrating the social milieus and cultural artefacts with higher mental processes (Foley, & Thompson, 2003; Lantolf, 2006; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013). Another key concept in the current study is the ZPD, which denotes the potential that learners possess in learning the L2. The social interaction between learners has the potential to ensure that the learner progresses from actual development (current L2 knowledge) to potential development (what the learner can achieve with assistance) through collaborative learning. I argue that socially mediated learning occurs only if learners are taught within their ZPD as co-construction of knowledge occurs within the ZPD through collaboration with their peers or tutors, which Ohta (1995, p. 97) terms "collaborative scaffolding". As learners are taught within their ZPD, they can internalise the new information and are permitted to contribute collaboratively to their own learning. Once internalisation occurs, the learner can complete complex cognitive tasks independently.

Internalisation is a cognitive process used by learners to mediate their cognitive activities. This is achieved through appropriating the symbolic artefacts (language), and converting them into psychological artefacts (Lantolf, 2006). I propose the use of Anderson's (1976) ACT model in understanding the process of internalisation as both these concepts are concerned with the process by means of which learners attain the skills required for the independent completion of tasks (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Ellis, 2008; Lantolf et al., 2015). The ACT model focuses on a very individualistic process that looks at linguistic errors and how, through extensive practice, learners can progress from the cognitive stage to the associative stage and eventually to the autonomous stage (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Ellis, 2008). However, in the current study the process through which internalisation occurred was not individualistic but social instead.

The interaction between mediation, ZPD and internalisation can inform and influence LLS use. As learners engage in peer interaction, they can collaboratively co-construct new L2 knowledge. This allows learners initially to use the LLS they are familiar with although they may progressively adopt other LLSs used by their peers. Thus, through collaborative peer interaction, learners can facilitate L2 learning through receiving and giving feedback to their peers. According to Sato and Ballinger (2012), the bi-directional nature of a peer tutoring interaction facilitates the process whereby learners receive feedback from their peers while also detecting

errors and highlighting these errors to their peers. Accordingly, this process therefore enhances LLS use and provides opportunities for greater L2 learning.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented the philosophical, theoretical and conceptual frameworks that guided this study. I presented pragmatism as an overarching philosophical paradigm that allows for the mixing of paradigms at various levels. At a philosophical level, I connected pragmatism, constructivism and Ubuntu, and at the theoretical level, I linked cognitive theory and SCT. The various concepts from these different paradigms, together with the literature on LLSs and schooling in South Africa, allowed me to formulate the conceptual framework (see Figure 4.4) which guided the current study.

This chapter offered insights into the SCT that has shaped the study of L2 learning and LLS research. The sociocultural conceptual framework for L2 learning that was developed for the current study combines the concepts of Anderson's (1976) ACT model and SCT into a composite SCT in a manner that provides a more holistic framework for understanding LLSs. This framework considers the IKS of the learner, the form of social interaction provided (co-construction of knowledge through collaboration) and how learners bring all these elements together through internalisation (declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge) of the L2.

In Chapter Five, I discuss the design and methodology I followed in my study. I explain the sampling method, data collection instruments used and detail how the quantitative and qualitative data analyses were conducted.

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Chapter Five
Research Design and Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The previous four chapters laid the foundation of the research design and methodology of the study. In the first chapter, I introduced LLS and provided a rationale for undertaking the current study. I also detailed the purpose of the study and presented the research questions. The research questions asked in this study necessitated the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. Chapter Two highlights the context in which learning takes place at South African schools by describing some of the challenges learners face, such as language policy, curriculum changes, overcrowded classrooms and low SES. This chapter furthermore describes the literature that deals with the strategies that learners used to help them overcome these difficulties. These strategies included peer tutoring, translanguaging and the use of IKS. Chapter Three explores the definitions and models of LLSs and how various strategies affect L2 performance. In Chapter Four, I presented the philosophical paradigm and theoretical framework, which drew from both the cognitive and sociocultural theories. I also presented the conceptual framework that guided the design and methodology of the current study.

In Chapter Five, I illuminate the research design and methodology that I followed in this empirical study. I provide the rationale for using the mixed methods design, specifically the convergent mixed methods design. I outline the sampling technique (snowball sampling for peer tutoring programmes and purposive sampling for learners in the peer tutoring programmes), which I used for selecting the participants for this study. I delineate the data-collection instruments used, which included questionnaires (open-ended and closed-ended), participant observations and FGDs. I also illustrate how the quality of the research for this study was attained. I do this through describing both the methodological norms and ethical considerations that informed this study. In Figure 5.1 below, I summarised the contents of this chapter.

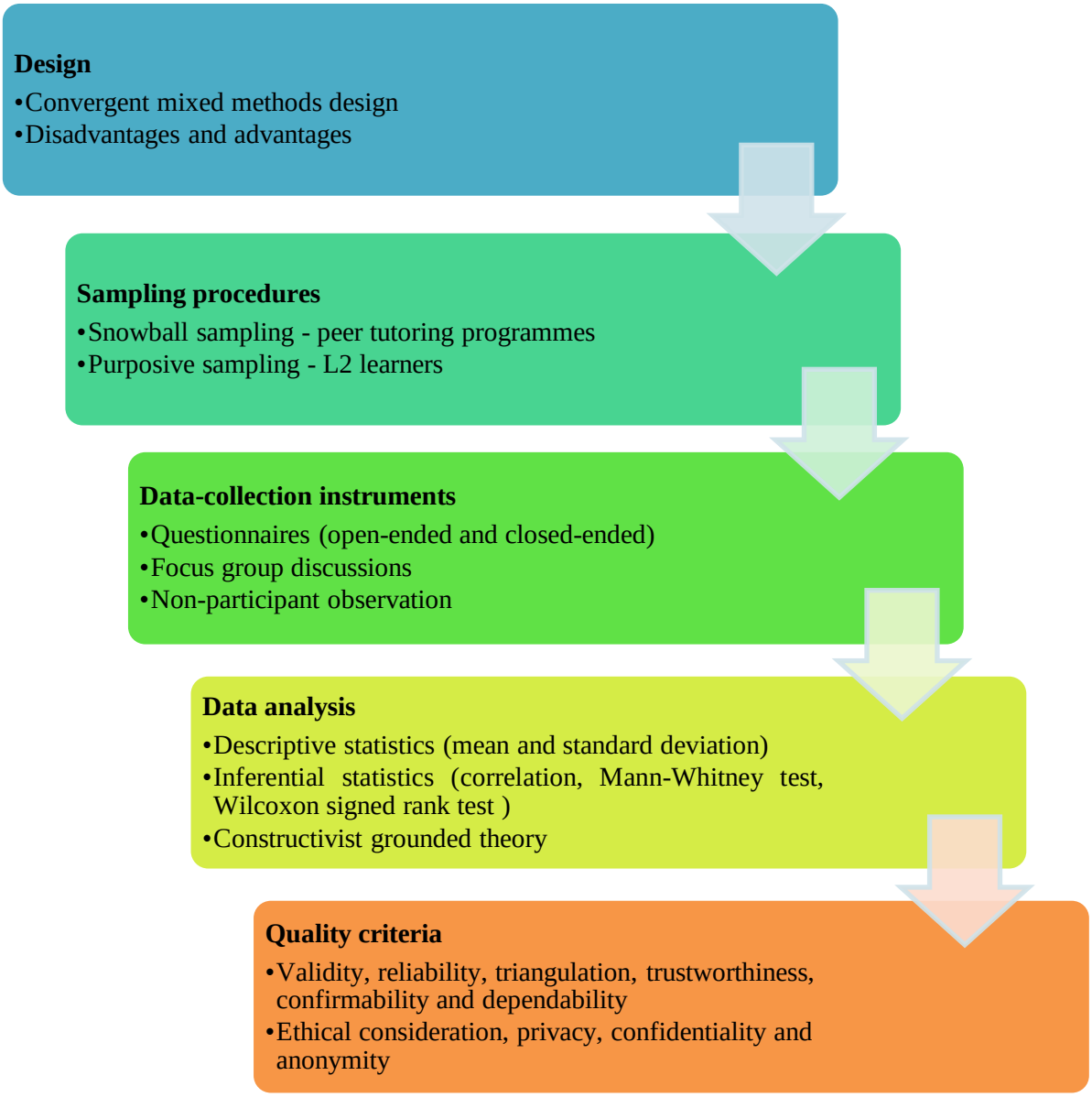

Figure 5.1: Overview of Chapter Five

5.2 Research Design

5.2.1 A convergent mixed methods research design

Guided by its pragmatic philosophical foundation, I adopted a mixed methods design for this study (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Creswell, & Clark, 2018). Although many terms have been used to refer to mixed methods design, such as blended research, multimethod, integrative research and triangulated studies (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; McMillan, & Schumacher, 2014; Creswell, & Clark, 2018; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018), the preferred term used in this study is mixed methods. I chose the term mixed methods as this is the term popularly used in current literature. Moreover, the term mixed methods includes the mixing of methods of data collection, methods of research and philosophical paradigms

(Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018), which is consistent with what was done in this study.

Mixed methods research seeks to bridge the gap between qualitative research, which emphasises multiple or relative truths, and quantitative research, with its emphasis on a singular or universal truth (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; Creswell, & Clark, 2018). The premise of mixed methods design is that a combination of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a much better understanding of research problems than either approach on its own (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006; Creswell, & Clark, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). This is reflected in the definition of mixed methods provided by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007), who state that mixed methods combines elements of both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms in the collection and analysis of data for the purpose of providing breadth, depth and corroboration. Creswell and Clark (2018) extend this definition by incorporating philosophical orientations, thus providing a rationale for the mixing of theoretical and philosophical orientations. In this study, I adopted the definition by Creswell and Clark (2018, p. 4), who propose that mixed methods involve the process whereby a researcher:

> … collects and analyzes both qualitative and quantitative data rigorously in response to research questions and hypotheses, integrates (or mixes or combines) the two forms of data and their results, organizes these procedures into specific research designs that provide the logic and procedures for conducting the study, and frames these procedures within theory and philosophy.

Choosing a mixed methods design allowed me to draw on the strengths of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches and to minimise their limitations. This in turn enabled me to obtain an in-depth understanding of the problem, as opined by Creswell and Creswell (2018), and provided insights into the educational reforms that are required in respect of marginalised learners in South Africa. The specific mixed methods design used in this study is the convergent mixed methods design, which is a single-phase design. This design assumes that qualitative and quantitative data provide different types of information, which could be integrated or combined to obtain an in-depth understanding of the problem or answer the research questions (Creswell, & Clark, 2018). The procedure I adopted for this convergent mixed methods design is outlined in Figure 5.2.

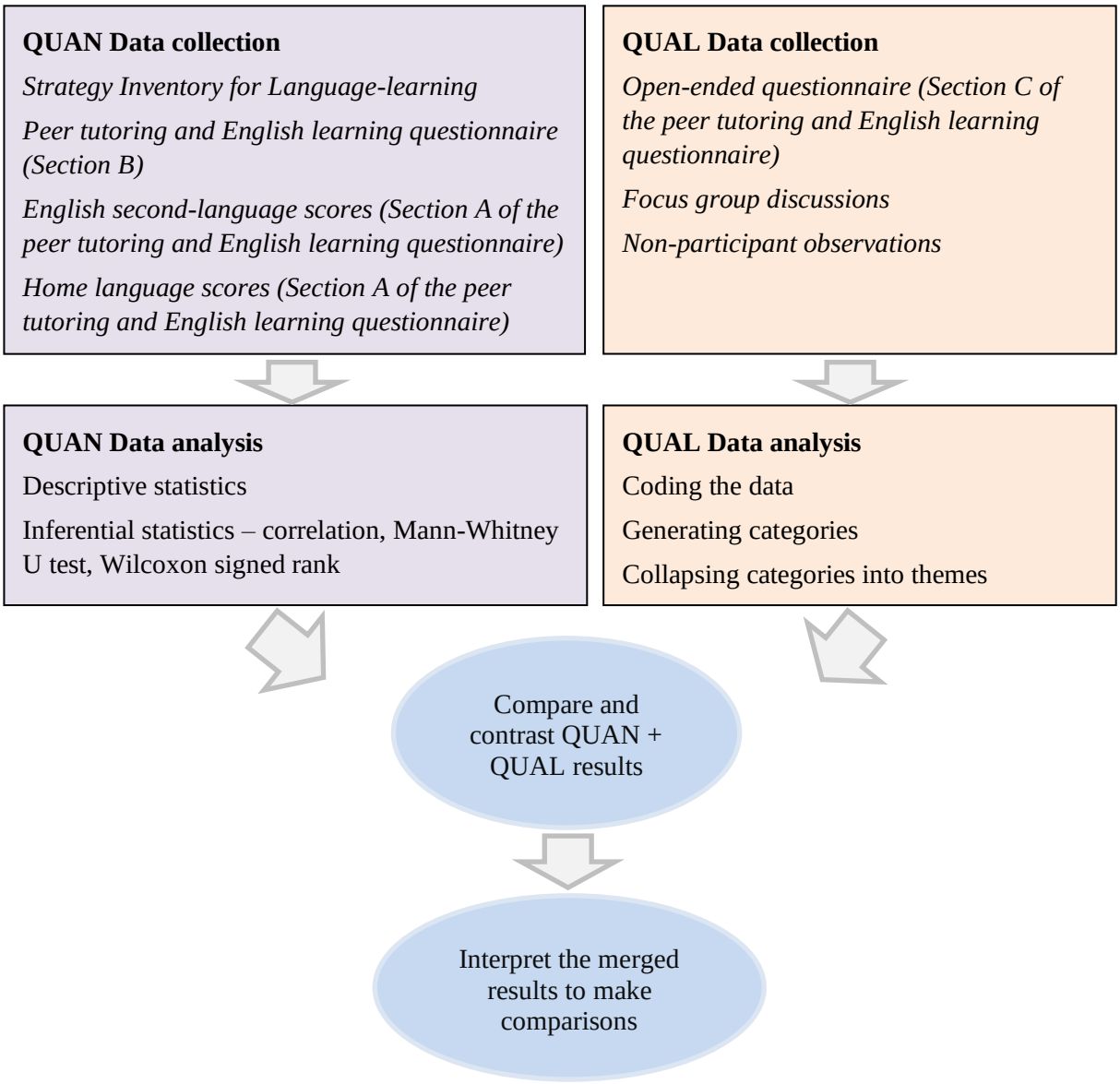

Figure 5.2: A convergent mixed methods framework (Adapted from Creswell, & Clark, 2018)

In a mixed methods design, data analysis includes the following three steps, which were applied in this study. The first stage involved the use of statistical techniques to analyse the quantitative data. The second phase was coding the qualitative data and collapsing these codes into themes. The last stage entailed the integration of the two databases, which were analysed separately and then integrated in the discussion part of the research (Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). Integration involves mixing the quantitative and qualitative data to gain a comprehensive and detailed understanding of the research question and problem (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). This integration can take many forms, such as side-by-side comparison, and merging the two data sets by transforming the qualitative codes into quantitative variables and merging the data sets in a table format that is known as joint display (Creswell, & Clark, 2018; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018).

I employed the side-by-side comparison of the two data sets. Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggest two approaches that can be applied in a side-by-side comparison. The first involves reporting the quantitative data first and then following this up with a discussion of the qualitative results. The second is to begin with the qualitative findings and then comparing them to the quantitative results. The side-by-side comparison I conducted comprised reporting the quantitative data first, followed by a discussion of the qualitative findings that confirm or contradict the statistical results. Once the results of two databases had been integrated, a comprehensive discussion was conducted in which convergent and divergent results were highlighted and discussed (see Chapter 8). No divergence was noted in this study, only silences where themes in the quantitative data were not present in the qualitative data and vice versa.

5.2.2 Advantages of mixed methods research design

There are many advantages to using the mixed methods design, such as utilising the strengths of one paradigm to eliminate the weaknesses of the other, thus uncovering the best of both paradigms (Dörnyei, 2007; DeCuir-Gunby, 2008; McMillan, & Schumacher, 2014; Creswell, & Clark, 2018). Therefore, using the mixed methods design allowed me to conduct a multi-level analysis of complex issues which would be limited if I used only a single design. It was necessary to use this design in the current study as I sought to determine not only the LLSs of learners through an established and conventional LLS inventory (quantitative data), but I also desired to locate learners' unique strategies (qualitative data) that might not be accounted for in established LLS inventories.

The strength of the convergent mixed methods design is that it allows for the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data in one phase, thus making this design highly efficient (Creswell, & Clark, 2018). This design was especially useful in my application of snowball sampling as I could continue seeking persmision from one peer tutoring programme while collecting data in another programme.

5.2.3 Limitations of mixed methods research design

Creswell and Creswell (2018) note that sample size is often cited as a disadvantage in mixed methods research due to the disproportionately large samples required for quantitative data. These researchers suggest that one way of resolving the issue of sample size is to utilise one sample for both the qualitative and quantitative components of the study. This was in part the method used in this study as the quantitative questionnaires, together with the open-ended section of the PTEL, were administered to the same sample. This ensured equal samples in respect of the quantitative and a portion of the qualitative data (open-ended questionnaire) that were collected. However, this was not the case with the FGDs and observations, with 44 learners

(female *n* = 34 and male *n* = 10) participating in the FGDs and 12 learners (female *n* = 6 and male *n* = 6) being observed. However, the same sample that participated in the quantitative part of the study also participated in the FGDs and the same learners were observed.

Another disadvantage specific to the convergent mixed methods design, as highlighted by Creswell and Clark (2018), includes the difficulty inherent to merging the quantitative and qualitative data as well as explaining divergences in the two data sets. Divergent findings were expected as the aim of the study was to study existing phenomena (LLS) and to explore novel strategies learners used in learning the L2. The use of multiple qualitative research methods (FGD, open-ended questionnaire and observation) to collect data served to resolve some of the discrepancies between the qualitative and quantitative results that emerged.

Think box 5.1: Research in practice

Data collection was initially planned for April–June 2019. However, events leading up to the national elections, which were held in May 2019, led to unrest in several areas where the peer tutoring organisations were located. This unrest resulted in schools being shut down to protect learners from potential harm. Subsequently, the peer tutoring programmes also had to close. These events delayed the data-collection process and extended this process to October 2019. Applying the convergent mixed methods design allowed me to proceed with conducting the FGDs at some of the research sites that were not affected by the unrest while waiting to collect the quantitative data in areas that were affected by unrest.

On two occasions, I travelled to the research sites to collect the quantitative data only to be told that I could not collect data that day as the organisations were having emergency parent meetings. This experience demanded a lot of flexibility on my part as I had to contend with various unknowns.

5.3 Sampling Procedures

5.3.1 Research setting

> A great deal of language teaching does not take place in well-funded institutes of education but in community programmes, places of worship, and immigrant centres, where funds are limited and time at a premium (Norton, 2013b, p. 325).

The quote above succinctly portrays the context and conditions in which peer tutoring occurrs in various organisations, as captured in the current study. These peer tutoring organisations are underfunded, yet they do all they can to assist learners in the various communities. Guided by the belief that input from parents, teachers, the wider community and peers plays a crucial role

in the development of learners' skills and abilities (Jahanshahi, 2017), these organisations undertake to provide peer tutoring services to help scaffold learning for learners in under-resourced communities. The seven peer tutoring programmes that were purposefully selected were run in five different townships in the Gauteng province of South Africa. A common feature of these seven programmes is that they endeavour to assist learners in a holistic way. Thus, they focus on learners' academic performance by offering tutoring and mentorship, exposing learners to various sociocultural communities to enrich the learning process, with some even offering sustenance. These programmes often offer meals to learners attending the tutoring sessions to ensure that they do not have to do their learning on an empty stomach. In all these programmes, learners are encouraged to speak English during the sessions and tutors mainly speak English, although translanguaging regularly occurs to aid understanding of difficult concepts. All seven programmes offer tutoring at least thrice a week, twice in the week and on a Saturday, thereby offering learners approximately eight hours of tutoring time in a week.

Table 5.1 below presents an overview of where the tutoring sessions took place and what additional services were offered by the various programmes as well as the type of tutoring that was practiced in the various programmes (pseudonyms are used to identify the peer tutoring programmes). This table shows that the Thendo programme is run from their own centre, which is surrounded by informal settlements. They mainly use young people from the community to conduct the tutoring and occasionally they use qualified teachers. In addition, well-performing learners often tutor poor-performing learners. The Thendo organisation also offers art and sporting activities to the learners who are part of their programme. The Lerato programme offers same-age and cross-age tutoring as well as sporting activities, and often takes learners to local universities to expose them to university life. The Rhandzu project offers both tutoring and art activities, and employs cross-age and reciprocal tutoring. The Mpho programme, which is run from a community centre, offers cross-age tutoring as well as life skills to L2 learners.

The Ithemba, Musa and Thabo programmes are part of a nationwide peer tutoring programme which offers not only tutoring, but also mentorship. Learners in these three programmes also engage in debating activities. The Ithemba programme is run from a church building that houses all the learners from Grade 9 to Grade 12. In the Ithemba programme, learners from various schools often tutor each other (same age/reciprocal tutoring) during the week. However, on Saturdays older youths assist with tutoring. The Musa programme is run from a local school and also uses cross-age, same-age and reciprocal peer tutoring models. The Thabo programme is run from a community centre and offers cross-age, same-age and reciprocal tutoring.

Table 5.1: Overview of tutoring programmes

Programme name	Where they operate from	Other services offered	Tutoring type
Thendo	Own centre	Sport and art, life skills and counselling	Cross-age, same-age and classwide tutoring
Lerato	School classroom	Mentorship, sport	Cross-age and same-age tutoring
Rhandzu	University lecture room	Art	Cross-age and reciprocal tutoring
Mpho	Community centre	Life skills	Cross-age tutoring
Ithemba	School classroom	Mentorship, debating	Cross-age, same age and reciprocal tutoring
Musa	Church building	Mentorship, debating	Cross-age, same-age and reciprocal tutoring
Thabo	Community centre	Mentorship, debating	Cross-age, same-age and reciprocal tutoring

5.3.2 Sampling peer tutoring programmes and participants

Two nonprobability sampling methods were used in the current study. Using nonprobability sampling is justified in cases where it would be too costly and too difficult to use probability sampling or when the research needed to be completed within a given period of time (Maree, & Pietersen, 2016), which was the case with the current study. The use of a nonprobability sampling method in this study places restrictions on the generalisability of the findings (Perry, 2011). This restriction was not regarded as a shortcoming as the aim was not to use the results to generalise, but to obtain an in-depth understanding of the LLSs used by L2 learners and how these could be harnessed to improve their L2 performance. Given that generalisation was not the goal, this sampling limitation does not apply in the current study.

For sampling peer tutoring programmes, a snowball method was used, and for sampling learners in these programmes, a purposive sampling method was used. A nonprobability snowball-type purposive snowball sampling method was adopted due to the lack of a database of all the existing peer tutoring programmes in the Gauteng province and in the greater South Africa from which I could have sampled randomly. Snowball sampling is a respondent-driven sampling technique which involves approaching a few individuals in the population and asking these persons to assist with approaching other individuals from the same population (Teddlie, & Yu, 2007; Laher, & Botha, 2012; Yin, 2016). Laher and Botha (2012, p. 92) argue that this technique is on the rise in the South African context, especially with "difficult-to-reach" populations. In the current study, the lack of a database which details the various peer tutoring programmes made

them difficult to reach and thus required of me to request the assistance of one programme with locating more programmes. Therefore, new peer tutoring programmes were selected as they were an offshoot of existing tutoring programmes. Going into the field, I was aware of four peer tutoring programmes but as I engaged with learners and programme managers, an additional three peer tutoring programmes were added that I would otherwise not have had access to if I had used other sampling methods. Although I did not request programme managers or learners to distribute the questionnaires for me, I was able to gain entry to additional programmes through the snowball effect of the initial sample of peer tutoring programmes.

Purposive sampling was used for sampling learners in the peer tutoring programmes. This comprised the selection of participants who would be able to provide in-depth information or new insights regarding the phenomenon being investigated (Collins, 2010; Creswell, & Clark, 2011; Perry, 2011). For the current study, learners in the Senior phase who were participating in a peer tutoring programme were sampled. In South Africa, the Senior phase includes Grades 7 to 9 learners (DBE, 2018); however, only one peer tutoring programme tutored Grade 7, hence the inclusion of only Grades 8 and 9 learners in this study. The rationale for sampling learners in the Senior phase is guided by the assertion made by Du Plessis (2006) that older learners have a better developed cognitive capacity for L2 learning than younger learners. As argued by numerous scholars (Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Anderson, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005; Griffiths, 2008; Oxford, 2008; White, 2008; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Cohen, 2014), LLSs often involve conscious steps undertaken to learn a second language. In this study, it was envisioned that learners in the Senior phase would be more competent in the second language and would have formed conscious perceptions of the types of strategies they used for learning the second language. However, the South African reality is that although learners entering the Senior phase should have developed interpersonal and cognitive academic skills, this is regularly not the case as these learners are often unable to communicate effectively in their L2 (DBE, 2011).

5.3.3 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Sampling in this study involved the inclusion of learners who participated in peer tutoring programmes, and who were available and willing to participate. Table 5.2 below presents the inclusion and exclusion criteria relevant to participants who were chosen for the study. There are four inclusion and exclusion criteria that were used for selection purposes.

Table 5.2: Characteristics used for selection of participants

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Includes only learners who do not have English as a home language	Excludes learners who speak English as a home language
Includes learners who participate in peer tutoring programmes that use volunteers as tutors	Excludes programmes that are conducted for remunerative reasons
Includes learners who participate in peer tutoring programmes where they do not have to pay to be part of the programme	Excludes private tutoring or programmes where learners are required to pay a fee to receive tutoring
Learner participation in a peer tutoring programme must be current	Excludes former learners who participated in the programme, who are not currently in any peer tutoring programme

There were approximately 220 Grades 8 and 9 learners who met the above-mentioned inclusion criteria but a total of 137 participated, indicating a 62.27% response rate. Moreover, an *a priori* power analysis conducted by means of G*power software to estimate the sample size (Creswell, & Creswell, 2018) indicated that a maximum of 115 participants would be adequate to detect reasonable levels of effect with the type of inferential statistics that I used. Thus, the participation of 137 learners in the current study met this criterium. Learners who did not participate either did not attend the tutoring sessions on the day of the data collection or had forgotten the consent forms at home on the day of the data collection.

5.3.4 Description of the sample

Figure 5.3 depicts the distribution of learners by grade. This figure shows that 61% (n = 84) of learners in this sample were in Grade 9, while 37% (n = 51) were in Grade 8 and 2% (n = 2) did not indicate their grade. Three of the seven peer tutoring programmes that were sampled in this study did not offer tutoring to Grade 8 learners, hence the uneven grade distribution.

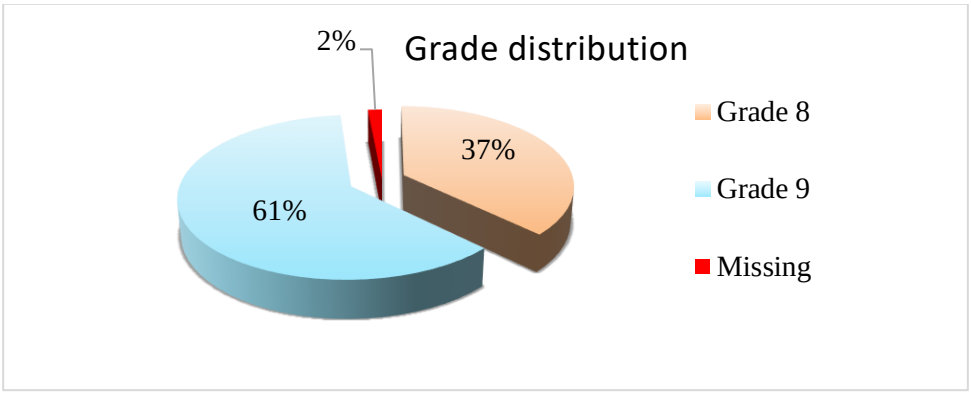

Figure 5.3: Grade distribution

The current sample, as depicted in Figure 5.4, comprised 64% (n = 89) female, 33% (n = 45) male and 1% (n = 1) bisexual learners. Two of the learners did not indicate their gender. This figure shows that the female learners were nearly twice the number of male learners, which is consistent with the current general enrolment trends in South African high schools (DBE, 2016; Makoni, 2016).

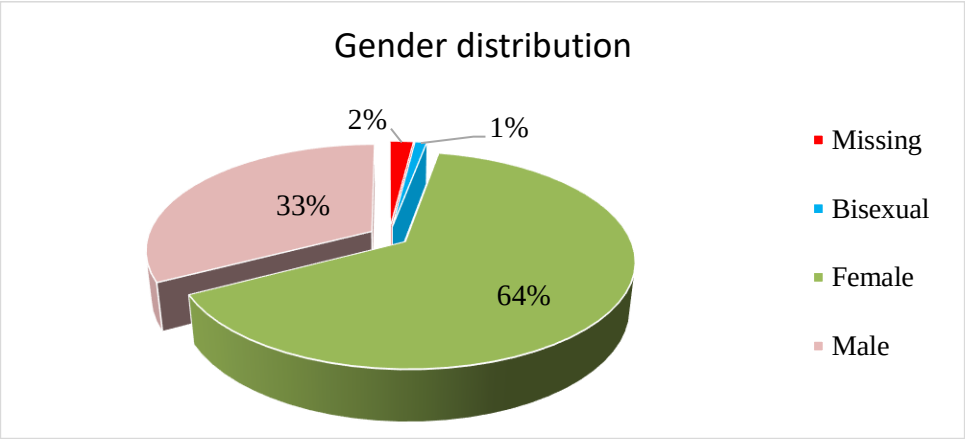

Figure 5.4: Gender distribution

Figure 5.5 below shows that the majority of learners fell within the expected age groups (13 – 15 years) for Grades 8 and 9, with 50.4% (n = 69) of learners being 14 years of age, followed by those who were 15 years old at 20.4% (n = 28) and 13 at 17.5% (n = 24). According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (2017a), South African learners typically start Grade 1 when they are approximately 7 years old, thus it was anticipated that learners would be between 13 and 15 years of age as only Grades 8 and 9 learners were considered for the sample. The results therefore show that 88.3% of learners in the current sample were progressing in line with most of their age mates. However, a total of 10 learners (7 males, 2 females and 1 bisexual person) were between the ages of 16 and 18 and two learners (1 male, 1 female) were between 11 and 12 years of age, showing a deviation from the official age of learners in the sampled grades. Three learners did not indicate their ages.

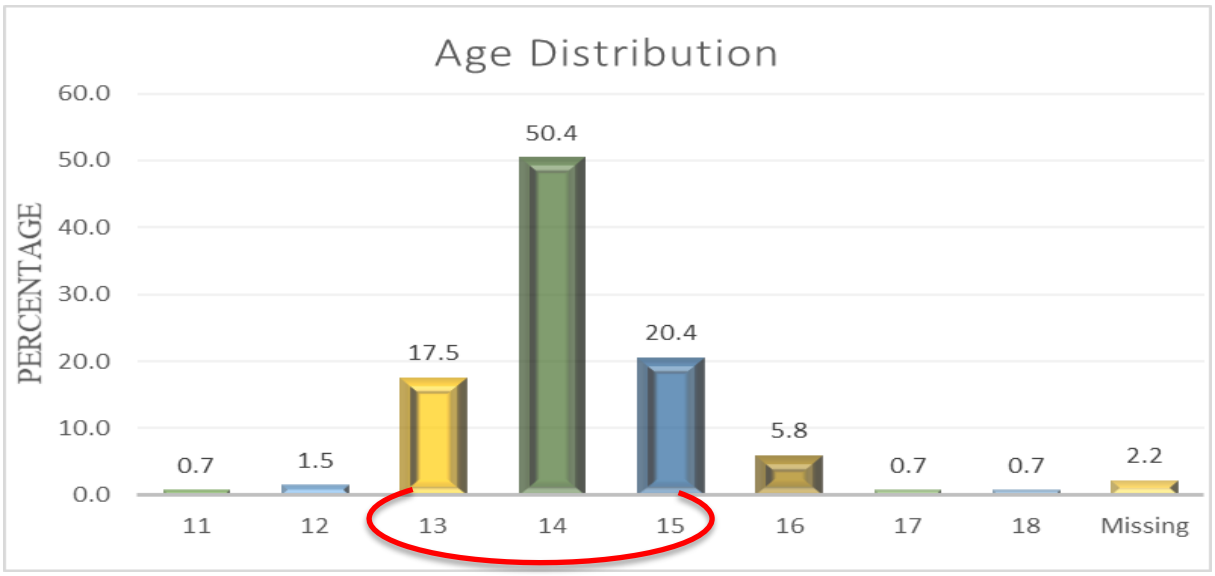

Figure 5.5: Age distribution

Figure 5.6 below gives a summary of learners' home languages (L1). The figure shows that 38% (n = 52) of the learners who participated in this study spoke one home language, with 40% (n = 55) of learners indicating that they spoke two home languages and 14% (n = 19) spoke three home languages. These findings are consistent with the rich linguistic diversity of South Africa and the translingual nature of these learners, which has also been identified in the literature (Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). A total of 11 (8%) of learners did not indicate their home language. The language breakdown is provided in Table 6.1.

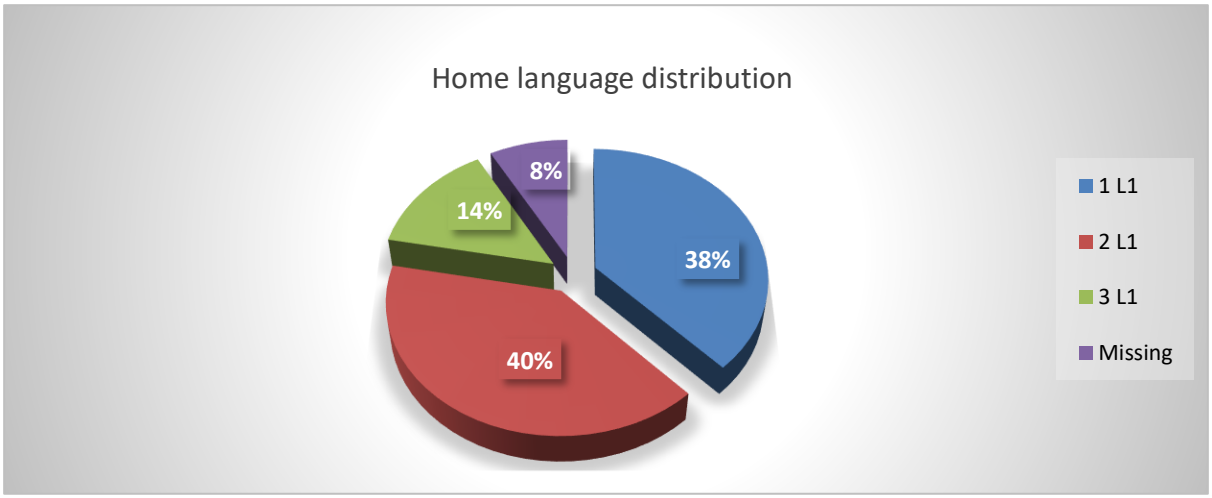

Figure 5.6: Number of languages spoken at home by learners

Table 5.3 shows the frequency distribution of learners' home language(s), with over half (54%) of the learners identifying themselves as either bilingual (40%) or multilingual (14%). All 11 official South African languages were represented, highlighting the diversity of the learners in these peer tutoring programmes. However, Sepedi (11.7%), IsiZulu (9.5%), Xitsonga (7.3%)

and IsiXhosa (5.1%) were the most frequently spoken home languages, either as the only L1 or in combination with other L1s.

In the case of those learners who identified as bilingual or multilingual, the combination of languages went beyond the broad language clusters commonly used to group the indigenous languages in South Africa. These clusters typically group indigenous languages into Nguni (IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, IsiNdebele, Siswati) and Sesotho/Setswana (Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi) language clusters, with Xitsonga and Tshivenda not having specific clusters as they are individual languages (Makoni, 2016). However, the results in Table 5.3 show the fluidity that exists between the language clusters, with some learners using language clusters in combinations such as Nguni/Sesotho or Nguni/Xitsonga or Sesotho/Tshivenda. Some learners had the combination of an indigenous language and Afrikaans or English as home languages. This linguistic diversity is common in the Gauteng province of South Africa and represents learners' multilingual identity, which Madiba (2012) and Makalela (2014) argue should be valorised.

It should be noted that even though some learners had a combination of English and other languages as a home language, none of the learners in this sample had English as a home language at school.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics of learners' home languages (L1)

Learners' home languages	Frequency	Percentage
Sepedi	16	11.7
IsiZulu	13	9.5
Xitsonga	10	7.3
IsiXhosa	7	5.1
Sesotho	3	2.2
Setswana	2	1.5
Tshivenda	1	.7
Xitsonga, Sepedi	7	5.1
IsiXhosa, IsiZulu	7	5.1
Sepedi, Setswana	5	3.6
IsiZulu, IsiXhosa	6	4.4
IsiZulu, Setswana	4	2.9
Afrikaans, Sesotho	3	2.2
Setswana, Sepedi	2	1.5
IsiZulu, English	2	1.5

Learners' home languages	Frequency	Percentage
Xitsonga, Setswana	2	1.5
Sepedi, Sesotho	2	1.5
Sepedi, Xitsonga	1	.7
Sepedi, IsiZulu	1	.7
Sesotho, Sepedi	1	.7
Sesotho, Setswana	1	.7
Setswana, Sesotho	1	.7
Siswati, IsiZulu	1	.7
IsiZulu, IsiNdebele	1	.7
Xitsonga, Tshivenda	1	.7
Xitsonga, English	1	.7
IsiZulu, Siswati	1	.7
IsiXhosa, Sesotho	1	.7
IsiXhosa, Setswana	1	.7
Naseriya, English	1	.7
Sepedi, Setswana, Sesotho	3	2.2
Xitsonga, Sepedi, Setswana	2	1.5
IsiZulu, English, Setswana	2	1.5
Sepedi, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu	1	.7
Sepedi, Xitsonga, Setswana	1	.7
Sepedi, Xitsonga, English	1	.7
Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi	1	.7
Siswati, Sepedi, English	1	.7
Sepedi, IsiNdebele, Xitsonga	1	.7
Xitsonga, Sepedi, Sesotho	1	.7
Xitsonga, IsiZulu, Sepedi	1	.7
Setswana, IsiZulu, IsiXhosa	1	.7
Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi	1	.7
IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Afrikaans	1	.7
IsiZulu, Sesotho, IsiXhosa	1	.7
IsiZulu, English, IsiXhosa	1	.7
Missing	12	8.8
Total	**137**	**100.0**

5.4 Data Collection Procedures

Consistent with the concurrent mixed methods design, the collection of quantitative and qualitative data took place in one phase (Creswell, 2014). The quantitative data were collected using the SILL (refer to Appendix G for the SILL questionnaire) and section A and B of the PTEL questionnaires as well as grade scores, which were indicated by learners in section A of the PTEL questionnaire (refer to Appendix H for the PTEL questionnaire). Qualitative data were collected using FGDs (refer to Appendix I for the FGD interview guide), participant observations and an open-ended questionnaire that formed section C of the PTEL.

The SILL and PTEL questionnaires represent Likert scale-type questionnaires. Likert-type questionnaires consist of statements to which respondents respond by indicating the extent to which any given statement applies to them. Each response option is then assigned a number, which is used to obtain a score for each item. The score of a construct can be obtained through summing or averaging the items that compose the construct (Dörnyei, 2007). This questionnaire type is a retrospective self-report as it asks learners to consider the type of strategies they used in learning a language. This provided insights into what learners know about their language-learning and highlighted self-management strategies (Wenden, 1991).

Both the SILL and the PTEL questionnaires were administered in group format. As indicated by Maree and Pietersen (2016), questionnaires can be administered in a group setting, thus providing a large data set in a short amount of time. Moreover, the use of questionnaires in this study allowed the researcher to provide immediate assistance to participants when they required help and to check the completeness of responses. Although effort was put into ensuring the completeness of responses, there were instances when learners did not complete the questionnaires during the allocated time. These learners were allowed to complete the questionnaires at home and I collected them on my next visit. Even with this provision, some learners did not complete the questionnaires entirely.

As noted by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005), an important consideration when using questionnaires is the literacy level of the participants. To counter the challenge of possibly low literacy levels, I provided thorough explanations to learners before they completed the questionnaires and attended to their questions during the completion of the questionnaires. Explanations were done in the L2 as well as in the learners' L1, where possible.

5.4.1 Strategy Inventory for Language-learning

The SILL questionnaire was developed by Oxford in 1990 and has been revised numerous times. Refer to Appendix G for the SILL questionnaire. The initial SILL questionnaire, which consisted of 80 items, was designed for English-speaking learners who were learning a new language. Conversely, version seven, which was used in the current study, was specifically designed for learners who speak other languages and are learning English as a L2. The SILL consists of 50 items and takes approximately 30 minutes to complete (Oxford, 1990). The SILL questionnaire measures learners' reported use of cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, affective, and social strategies (Oxford, 2003; Pawlak, & Kiermasz, 2018). Consistent with Likert-type questionnaires, the scale for the SILL ranged from one to five with one indicating never true and five indicating always true. The psychometric properties of the SILL are well established in the literature, with reliabilities ranging from .93 to .98 (Petrogiannis, & Gavriilidou, 2015).

According to Pawlak and Kiermasz (2018), the SILL has considerable research value as it has been found to be neutral and nonthreatening among a wide range of cultures. In a study with university students at one of the South African universities, Dreyer and Oxford (1996) found that the SILL was a reliable measure of L2 learners' LLSs with an average Cronbach Alpha of .95. In addition, strong relationships were observed to exist between the SILL and learner motivation as well as between the SILL and English second-language proficiency. Before conducting any analysis of the data obtained in the current study I conducted a reliability analysis to ascertain the reliability of the SILL for the current sample. The results show that the SILL reliably measured LLSs with $\alpha = .904$ for the overall questionnaire. The reliabilities for the subscales were as follows: memory strategies (9 items) $\alpha = .695$; cognitive strategies (14 items) $\alpha = .701$; compensation strategies (6 items) $\alpha = .616$; metacognitive strategies (9 items) $\alpha = .782$; affective strategies (6 items) $\alpha = .696$; and social strategies (6 items) $\alpha = .715$. All these alpha values suggest that the subscales of the SILL are a reliable measure of the various strategies and can be reliably used for research purposes as suggested by Foxcroft and Roodt (2009).

5.4.2 The Peer Tutoring and English-learning Questionnaire

The PTEL had three distinct sections, with section one for the biographical information, section two for learners' perceived language ability and section three consisting of open-ended questions. Refer to Appendix H for the PTEL questionnaire. The biographical section required learners to indicate their age, grade, home language (L1), gender and how long they had been attending the tutoring sessions. Learners also had to indicate their latest English marks (L2 grade

scores) and home language marks (L1 grade scores). These English scores were used as a measure of learners' English-language proficiency, with Grade 8s reporting their Grade 7 final year-end results and Grade 9s reporting the results obtained at the end of Grade 8. I used these scores to categorise learners into low scorers (scores < 50%) and high scorers (scores > 80%).

Section B of the PTEL questionnaire contains questions regarding learners' perceived ability in their L1 and L2 before and during peer tutoring (refer to Appendix H, section B for the questionnaire). In this section learners had to indicate their self-reported ability to conduct the following L1 and L2 language skills: reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary and grammar. Learners had to indicate their perceived ability on a five point scale with one being very poorly and five being very well. These language skills are similar to those that are determined by the NCS-CAPS curriculum, which includes listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, as well as language structures and conventions (DBE, 2011). To determine the reliability of the PTEL, a reliability analysis was conducted, which indicated that the Cronbach Alpha for section B of the PTEL questionnaire was $\alpha = .860$. The alpha values before and after tutoring, as regards the four learning areas, are as follows: L2 before tutoring $\alpha = .710$; L1 before tutoring $\alpha = .829$; L2 during tutoring $\alpha = .797$; L1 during tutoring $\alpha = .778$.

5.4.3 Open-ended Questionnaire: Section C of the Peer Tutoring and English-learning Questionnaire

Section C of the PTEL questionnaire included open-ended questions (refer to Appendix H, section C for the questionnaire). This section of the questionnaire sought to obtain in-depth information on the strategies used by learners as well as information related to how the peer tutoring interactions assisted learners in learning English L2. According to Jackson (2012) and Mentz (2012), open-ended questionnaires allow respondents to formulate their own responses. Thus, giving learners an open-ended questionnaire allowed them the opportunity to state the strategies that worked for them in L2 learning. The use of the open-ended questionnaire in the current study was appropriate as it provided learners with an opportunity to provide details of the strategies they used in their own words. This open-ended questionnaire was pilot-tested together with all the other data-gathering instruments used in the current study. The pilot test took place in one of the peer tutoring programmes with nine learner (four Grade 8 and five Grade 9 learners). The learners were between the ages of 14 and 15 years. The managers of the various peer tutoring organisations were also given the questionnaires and FGD questions for their comments. No changes were made after the pilot session as learners did not experience any difficulty with the language used in the questionnaires and FGD.

5.4.4 Advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires

Questionnaires are versatile and economical as they can be administered to a variety of individuals in different settings, thereby allowing for the collection of a large amount of data in a short time. Questionnaires are commonly used in LLS research (Benson, & Gao, 2008; Cohen, 2014), thus using questionnaires in the current study is in keeping with the conventions of LLS research. Questionnaires also offer a great degree of anonymity as participants do not have to indicate their personal information, thus making them attractive to a large audience (Dörnyei, 2007). The highly structured questionnaires allow for ease in the scoring and capturing of the data, therefore lending themselves to statistical analysis (Perry, 2011; Cohen, 2014).

A key disadvantage of using structured questionnaires in LLS research is that they often invite learners to describe the strategies they use in a general sense and lack detailed information regarding learners' reflections on tasks (Oxford, 1996). Moreover, they do not allow learners the opportunity to explain when and why and in what specific contexts they used various strategies (Benson, & Gao, 2008; Cohen, 2014). This problem was mitigated using the open-ended questionnaire and the FGDs, which afforded learners the opportunity to identify their own strategies and to explain how and when they used various strategies.

One of the advantages of using an open-ended questionnaire in the current study was that it allowed for greater and more in-depth exploration of the strategies used by L2 learners (Mentz, 2012). Learners could use their own words to describe the strategies that they find effective in learning English without the limitation of being forced to choose from a list of predetermined answers. In addition, the open-ended questionnaire allowed learners to reveal their thinking processes (Mentz, 2012). Mentz (2012) highlights several disadvantages regarding the use of open-ended questionnaires, which were observed during the research. These included learners providing irrelevant answers, answers that lacked detail, and their taking too long to complete the questionnaire. However, these disadvantages were in the minority, thus they did not adversely affect the findings as most learners provided relevant and detailed responses to questions.

5.4.5 Focus group discussion

According to Chilisa (2012) FGDs represent a type of qualitative interviewing. Krueger (1994) defines FGDs as discussions that are carefully planned and designed with the intention to obtain participants' perceptions of a defined area of interest in a permissive and nonthreatening environment. FGDs produce rich data that would otherwise not be possible to obtain through other research methods (Morgan, 2008; Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). This is partly due to FGDs' allowing group interaction, hence enabling the production of a wide range of

responses. Moreover, FGDs activate forgotten details of experience as participants share their own experiences (Dörnyei, 2007; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). FGDs are different from group interviews in that engaging in debate and raising conflicting views are encouraged as they generate rich data. To ensure richness in the FGD, group dynamics were managed through encouraging the participation of quieter participants, as Yin (2011) suggests.

Before the actual FGDs took place, a pilot FGD was conducted with a group of nine L2 learners. This was done in order to determine if the questions were at the appropriate language level for the participants. Refer to Appendix I for the FGD interview guide. Moreover, this pilot FGD was done to ascertain the appropriateness of the group's size and the optimal composition of the focus groups. The pilot FGD took approximately one hour to complete. No changes were made to the FGD questions after the pilot as questions appeared to be at an appropriate language level and the small group allowed for rich interaction. To avoid the risk of bias and manipulation, I was the sole facilitator of all the FGDs. The FGDs were semi-structured, therefore, I was able to generate more probing questions as the research progressed, as proposed by Perry (2011). During all the FGDs, I used flipchart paper to summarise what learners were saying and this information was verified by the learners at the end of the FGD. These summaries provided a means of verifying the transcriptions that were conducted in respect of each FGD.

The FGD is an effective and efficient data-collection tool in mixed methods research and dialectical pragmatism (Romm, Nel, & Tlale, 2013; Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015). In the current study, a total of six FGDs consisting between six and twelve participants each were conducted. The FGDs were conducted at the following sites: Ithemba, Musa, Lerato, Thendo, Thabo and Rhandzu. The number and size of the FGDs are supported by Onwuegbuzie and Frels (2015), who recommend that a dialectical, pluralistic FGD should consist of between six and twelve participants and that three to six FGDs should be sufficient to achieve saturation. Onwuegbuzie and Frels (2015) explain that saturation is attained when new data yield no additional value to the study as a result of the repetition of information. In the current study, the FGDs were systematically arranged to allow for the transcription and initial coding of one to be completed before the next FGD was held. I would write analytical memos after each transcription, thereby ensuring that I reflected on the data collected and determine if more data needed to be collected (Charmaz, 2006). Saturation was reached by the sixth FGD as this discussion yielded no new information.

Learners with varied L1s participated in the FGDs, but all the learners were taking English as L2 in school. Figure 5.7 below indicates the size of each FGD (number = red bar) that was included in the study and the languages (L1= blue bar) that were represented in these groups.

For example FGD 1, which was the largest group, consisted of 12 participants and 5 different L1s were represented in this group of participants, while FGD 2 had 6 participants with 4 indigenous language groups that were represented.

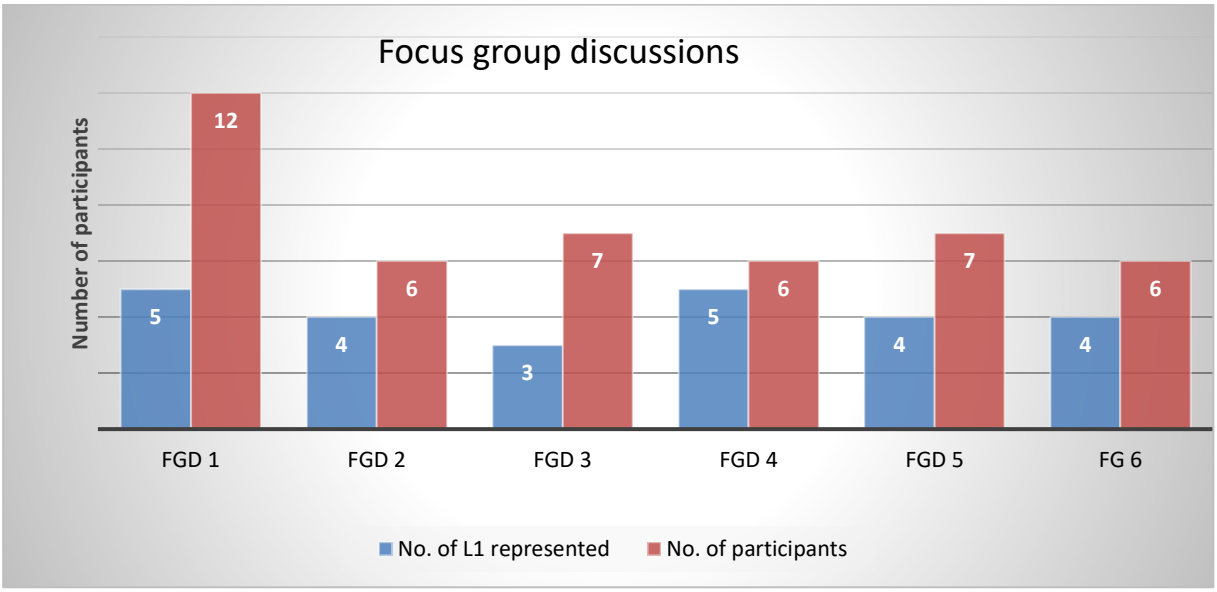

Figure 5.7: Focus group discussions

5.4.6 Advantages and disadvantages of using focus group discussions

Using the FGD in mixed methods and language research has witnessed an increase in the past 25 years due to its widely proclaimed advantages (Cohen, & Scott, 1996; Dörnyei, 2007; Cohen, 2014; Nel, Romm, & Tlale, 2015; Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015; Kruger, Rodgers, Long, & Lowy, 2019). Some of the advantages of an FGD include the following: (1) The FGD is a more efficient and cost-effective way of collecting data than one-on-one interviews (Cohen, & Scott, 1996; Cohen, 2014; Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015; Kruger Rodgers, Long, & Lowy, 2019). This method of data collection therefore assisted me with gathering a large amount of data in a short time without compromising the depth and quality of the data. (2) The socially orientated nature of the FGD allowed the data to be collected in the participants' social context (Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015). This advantage is critical in this study and aligns with the SCT and social constructivism. (3) The collection of data in the learners' social context provided learners with a more natural environment in which to express ideas and attitudes than in one-on-one interviews (Dörnyei, 2007; Chilisa, 2012). (4) The FGD also created a safe environment for participants to express ideas in the presence of their peers, who shared similar characteristics, such as ethnic grouping (Madriz, 2000; Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015). (5) FGDs provide an environment which is not only conducive to assisting participants with reconstructing their challenges (in this case language difficulties), but also with finding common solutions (Onwuegbuzie, & Frels, 2015). In other words, the FGD facilitates the process of co-

construction of knowledge as learners engage in the discussions. Another advantage I observed was that the FGD allowed learners to display their LLSs, such as cooperative strategies, during the discussions. This provided me with rich data that might not have been possible to obtain in one-on-one interviews.

Although FGDs have the potential to yield very rich data there are several disadvantages to using this method of data collection. One main disadvantage with FGDs is that they lend themselves to social desirability as some participants may be fearful of giving socially undesirable responses in the presence of their peers. Furthermore, some participants may avoid voicing their opinions in a group setting, which can result in biased data that favour the more vocal participants (Cohen, & Scott, 1996; Dörnyei, 2007). To counter these two limitations, I indicated to participants the idiosyncratic nature of language-learning and how strategies deemed effective by one learner may not necessarily be effective for another learner. This allowed learners to voice their views openly, and at times to disagree with the views of others. Another limitation often cited in respect of FGDs is that they are difficult to transcribe due to the number of people who are in constant discussion. Dörnyei (2007) recommends that FGDs should be video-recorded for more accurate transcription. Although I agree with the assertion by Dörnyei (2007) regarding the value of video-recording FGDs for providing accurate transcriptions, in my study I had to consider the learners and the context in which the research was conducted. According to O'Reilly, Parker, and Hutchby (2011), video-recordings can induce anxiety in participants and can also fuel fears regarding data protection and revelation of identity. For this reason, I opted to rely on voice-recordings and field notes instead of video-recordings. I also transcribed the FGDs soon after the sessions, while the interactions were still fresh in my mind.

5.4.7 Participant observation and field notes

A total of 12 observations were conducted for this study and each lasted approximately 45 minutes, a time frame which was informed by the length of the session of each programme. Observations were not conducted in one of the peer tutoring organisations (Mpho) as the organisation had to discontinue its tutoring programme temporarily for organisational restructuring. Observation data were collected using nonparticipatory observation notes that were taken during the peer tutoring sessions. The use of nonparticipatory observation notes allowed me to understand and capture learners' verbal and nonverbal responses and actions in a naturalistic setting (Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). In addition, this gave me first-hand experience of the peer tutoring phenomenon in as unobtrusive a manner as possible (Angrosino, & Rosenberg, 2011; Yin, 2011; Kawulich, 2012; Nieuwenhuis, 2016).

The use of nonparticipant observation in this study is justified in that observation has been used as a data-collection method in LLS research (Tajeddin, 2013; Huang, 2018). These observations were conducted to help me understand the learning context in which peer tutoring occurs, how the interaction between tutors and learners proceeds and the strategies used by learners in their various interactions. Following the recommendation by Kawulich (2012a), I wrote a complete description of the setting, including the venue, the conditions at the venue, the size of the group, the type of tutoring, the ratio of tutors to tutees and the nature of the interaction between tutors and tutees. All this was done through field notes, which were verbatim as far as possible in order to capture the verbal and nonverbal exchanges between learners and tutors fully (Angrosino, 2007; McMillan, & Schumacher, 2014). These field notes included both nonverbal participant expressions (body language, consulting a dictionary, and gestures) and verbal interactions (correcting words and sentences as well as using quotes for emphasising an idea) as well as pausing, which were all observed during the sessions (Wenden, 1991; McMillan, & Schumacher, 2014).

5.4.8 Advantages and disadvantages of observations

Cohen and Scott (1996) and Cohen (2014) note that the advantage of utilising observational data in LLS research is that it provides an objective perspective of respondents' self-reported strategies. The researcher not only relies on the reported strategies but also observes these strategies in real time. These scholars moreover assert that observational data also allow for the collection of the observable behavioural strategies, such as note-taking and asking for clarity, that are used by participants instead of merely relying on their self-reported data. Using observational data in the current study allowed for a triangulated perspective (Kawulich, 2012) of participants' reported use of LLSs and what I observed during the peer tutoring sessions. Observational data also enabled me to provide rich and detailed descriptions of the peer tutoring setting. This information helped me to refine the interpretation of the data obtained from the FGDs and to have a better understanding of the quantitative results.

Perry (2011) states that one disadvantage of observational data-collection procedures is that they are time-consuming when compared to instrumental procedures and they could therefore be more costly. I found this to be true as I could only observe a maximum of two participants per programme due to the cost implications (time and finances). However, spending a large amount of time with participants allowed me to collect rich data that would not have been possible with other data-collection procedures. Denscombe (2010) cautions that with observational research participants may become embarrassed, threatened or flattered by the attention they are getting and subsequently cease to act normally. He suggests that researchers should acknowledge the potentially disruptive effects of their presence and be proactive in reducing these effects

(Denscombe, 2010). He adds that some of the ways of reducing these potentially disruptive effects are to spend time onsite, blend in as far as possible and present oneself in a nonthreatening manner. This is supported by Ehrman (1996), who encourages observers to have an ongoing relationship with participants as the participants often revert to their usual behaviour once they have grown accustomed to the observer. To assist learners with becoming accustomed to me, I sat with them for at least one session during their tutoring sessions without conducting any formal observation. This allowed me to introduce myself to the learners and tutors and inform them about the study. It was during these sessions that I built rapport with the learners before observing the sessions. I assisted with some of the logistical arrangements, such as setting up the venues, rearranging desks and chairs and I also interacted informally with participants and tutors.

In the field of LLSs, it is crucial to note that while observations as a data-collection technique can identify observable learning strategies, it can restrict the observation of internal mental processes used by learners (Cohen, & Scott, 1996; Oxford, & Leaver, 1996; Ellis, 2008; Griffiths, 2008; Tajeddin, 2013; Cohen, 2014). Therefore, as an observer, I could only observe behavioural strategies. In their study with English L2 learners, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) reported that observations identified fewer LLSs than interviews. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found that observation yielded 3.7 strategies per hour of observation as opposed to the 33.6 strategies produced in hour-long student interviews. These findings by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) were consistent with earlier studies Rubin (1975) conducted on LLSs. In her study, Rubin (1975) found that classroom observation yielded the least amount of information about strategies. The above-mentioned limitations inherent in observations as a data-collection procedure were mitigated in this study through triangulation.

5.5 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Consistent with a convergent mixed methods design, analysis of data in the quantitative and qualitative data sets was conducted separately and independently. The data-analysis procedure followed six distinct steps, as noted by Creswell and Clark (2018). These steps, which were applied in respect of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, are: (1) preparing data for analysis; (2) exploring the data; (3) analysing the data; (4) representing the data analysis; (5) interpreting the results; and (6) validating the results (Creswell and Clark, 2018).

5.5.1 Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25. Once data had been captured in SPSS, descriptive and inferential statistics analyses

were conducted, which were presented in tables and figures. Descriptive statistics are those statistics that organise, summarise and describe data to enhance understanding (Onwuegbuzie, & Combs, 2010; Creswell, & Clark, 2011; Mentz, & Botha, 2012a). Descriptive statistics consist of single-quantity-based statistics and exploratory-based statistics (Onwuegbuzie, & Combs, 2010). Single-quantity-based statistics include measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode); measures of dispersion or variability (variance, range and standard deviation); and measures indicating the shape of the distribution (skewness and kurtosis) (Field, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, & Combs, 2010). The specific single-quantity-based descriptive statistics calculated in this study were mean and median scores (measure of central tendency) and standard deviations (measure of dispersion).

The mean score or average is a statistical model of the data and represents a hypothetical value which does not necessarily exist in the data (Field, 2009; Mentz, & Botha, 2012a). It is derived from adding all the scores and dividing them by the number of scores, e.g. five learners and their scores on a question from the SILL: (3+3+2+4+5)/5 = 3.5. The value of 3.5 does not exist in the SILL, hence this score represents a hypothetical value which is used as a model for summarising the data. Field (2009) argues that although the mean score is easily influenced by outliers, it has the advantage of providing stable scores across different samples. Outliers are scores that are extremely high or extremely low relative to the other scores in the data, such as a score of 11 when most scores are between 2 and 5 (Mentz, & Botha, 2012a).

The standard deviation measures the fit of the mean, that is, how well the mean represents the data. A large standard deviation indicates that the scores are far from the mean, thus the mean is not representative of the data, while a small standard deviation indicates that the scores are close to the mean scores, thus there is not a major variability in the scores. A small standard deviation therefore indicates that the mean score fits the data well (Field, 2009; Mentz, & Botha, 2012a). Oxford (1990) provides a key for understanding the mean scores derived from the SILL questionnaire. Table 5.4 below depicts the various scores used to categorise strategy usage, which were used to interpret the findings in the current study.

Table 5.4: Categorising strategy scores

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

I also analysed the data, according to what Griffiths (2013) proposes, with categorisation of the LLSs into base strategies, core strategies and plus strategies. Base strategies are those strategies that are more frequently used by low-scoring L2 learners than by high-scoring L2 learners. Core strategies are those strategies that are used frequently by both the low- and high-scoring L2 learners. Plus strategies are those strategies that are more frequently used by high-scoring L2 learners than by low-scoring L2 learners. I also applied the three categories proposed by Griffiths (2013) with males and females as well as high performers and low performers. Learners' English grade scores were used to classify learners as high performers (learners who scored 80% and above) and low performers (learners who scored less than 50%). Table 5.5 below shows how the DBE classifies various grade scores. Using Griffiths' (2013) categorisation of strategies allowed me to locate the specific strategies most used by the various groupings. Using the grade scores to classify learners into categories of high-performing and poor-performing L2 learners was important as it allowed me to locate the specific strategies used by those who did well and those who did not do well.

Table 5.5: Meaning of L1 and L2 level scores

Level	Percentage	Meaning
1	1–29	Not achieved
2	30–39	Elemetary achievement
3	40–49	Adequate achievement
4	50–59	Moderate achievement
5	60–67	Substantial achievement
6	70–79	Meritorious achievement
7	80–100	Outstanding achievement

In addition to using descriptive statistics in analysing the quantitative data, I also used inferential statistics. Inferential statistics seek to make associations between variables and produce parameters that help with making predictions or statistical generalisations (Onwuegbuzie, & Combs, 2010; Creswell, & Clark, 2011; Mentz, & Botha, 2012b). The use of Likert scales in my study produced ordinal data (measurement level that classifies and rank-orders data), thus necessitating the use of nonparametric tests (Mentz, & Botha, 2012c; Griffiths, & Oxford, 2014). Owing to the level of measurement for Likert scale questionnaires, nonparametric tests were used througout this analysis. The use of nonparametric tests in this study is supported in the literature as Likert scale questionnaires produce ordinal data and are therefore best analysed by using nonparametric tests (Wu, & Leung, 2017).

Although nonparametric statistics are less restrictive than parametric statistics, Field (2009) argues that they can yield equally robust results as parametric statistics. The nonparametric Spearman's rho coefficient correlation (r_s) was used for determining bivariate associations between variables (e.g. LLSs and grade scores) (Field, 2009). The correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines provided by Field (2009), which indicate that correlation values of $\pm$ .1 represent a small effect, $\pm$ .3 represent a medium effect and $\pm$ .5 represent large effects. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated to determine the amount of variance accounted for by each of the independent variables. To do this, the correlation coefficient was squared and thereafter converted to a percentage.

The Mann-Whitney U (two groups) test was used for testing whether significant differences existed between learners in different groupings (Field, 2009). To do this the SILL and PTEL were used as dependent variables while gender, duration of tutoring (more than three months, less than three months), number of L1s used by learners (one L1 and more than one L1) and scores in the L1 and L2 (categorised into high and low scorers) were used as independent variables. The following formula was used to calculate the effect size: $r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{N}}$ with *z* representing the *z* scores provided in the SPSS output and the *N* representing the total from each observation (number of learners in each group).

For testing the effect of peer tutoring on language learning, the Wilcoxon signed rank test was used. Learners retrospective self-rating of their language ability before tutoring was compared to their self-rated language ability during tutoring. The effect size (*r*) was calculated for all significant effects by dividing the positive Z (the test statistic) by the square root of N (number of observations measured) as shown in the following formula $r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{Nx+Ny}}$ (Rodriguez, 2007; Field, 2009). The effect sizes for both the Mann-Whitney U test and the Wilcoxon signed rank test were interpreted using Cohen's (1988) proposed guidelines for effect sizes (.1 = small effect, .3 = medium effect and .5 = large effect) (Field, 2009).

5.5.2 Qualitative data analysis procedure

The analysis of the qualitative data in the current study followed the constructivist grounded theory (CGT) approach, which is attributed to Charmaz (2006). Based on the philosophy of symbolic interactionism, in which learners create and adapt meanings as they interact with one another, and constructivism, this approach assumes an interpretivist orientation to data analysis and recognises the subjectivities of the researcher in the data analysis process. It involves the iterative process of moving between the data, initial codes, concepts and categories until

ultimately arriving at a theory (Charmaz, 2006; Gehrels, 2013; Schreiber, & Martin, 2014; Crossetti, Goes, & De Brum, 2016).

The preparation of data for the qualitative analysis meant transferring the handwritten field notes from the observations to a computer and double-checking afterwards for accuracy. These observational notes were weaved into the qualitative results and also used throughout the paper as think boxes to provide context in the current study. Data preparation also involved capturing the data from the open-ended questionnaires and transcribing the audio-recordings of the FGDs soon after data collection. This data were then audited for accuracy and initial codes were developed before going back to the field to collect more data. This process of concomitant data collection and analysis is a key assumption of CGT and allows the researcher to reach theoretical saturation, which occurs when no new information emerges from the data (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin, & Strauss, 2015; Crossetti, Goes, & De Brum, 2016). Theoretical saturation was reached after the fifth FGD as no new information emerged in the sixth FGD, as previously stated.

The interreliability of the transcribed data was obtained through comparison of transcriptions with the summaries that were compiled after each FGD. At the conclusion of each FGD, I would go through the summaries to ensure that I have captured the essence of what was discussed in each FGD. This became part of member-checking and allowing participants to provide their interpretations of their discussions, thus partially co-analysing the data. This is congruous with CGT, whereby the researcher is perceived to be a co-constructor of meaning together with the participants (Charmaz, 2006; Mills, Bonner &Francis, 2006). The qualitative data derived from the FGDs and open-ended questionnaire were then analysed using the CGT approach.

The grounded theory approach to data analysis involves three coding stages: open/initial coding, focused coding and theoretical coding (Strauss, & Corbin, 1990; Charmaz, 2006; Kawulich, & Holland, 2012). Saldaña (2016) defines coding as a construct that a researcher generates for symbolising or translating data into a meaningful pattern or category for theory-building. Therefore, coding provides labels or words that are assigned to summarise the descriptive or inferential data obtained from the study. These codes assist with condensing a large amount of data into meaningful and analysable units (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). According to Charmaz (2006), coding involves giving a short and precise label to a line or a sentence or a paragraph, resulting in the formation of a concept. For the purpose of the current study, coding was initially done line by line and as codes became repetitive, a paragraph by paragraph coding was used.

The first step in the coding process involved the use of initial coding, which entailed an iterative process of reading and labelling large portions of data into codes, as suggested by Kawulich and

Holland (2012) and Yin (2016). In line with a CGT approach, initial coding began soon after the first data-collection session. I captured the data soon after collection and began doing the initial coding immediately afterwards. This process assisted me with determining the exact number of FGDs to conduct as I only stopped collecting data once saturation had been reached. Verbal data were coded through a line-by-line coding process to determine the strategies used by L2 learners in their peer tutoring interactions (Charmaz, 2006; Saldaña, 2016). In coding the data I applied the recommendation by Charmaz (2006) to use gerund verbs (describing verbs which end with *ing* such as reading or writing) and *in vivo* coding (using a learner's own words), which aided in identifying various dimensions of the data and provided richness in the analysis. In the process of coding I not only looked for patterns such as similarities, differences, frequency and sequence but also focused on incoherencies, paradoxes and ambiguities, as recommended by Alvesson and Kärreman (2011). In keeping with the iterative nature of CGT analysis, I was constantly drawing comparisons between actual responses and the concepts formulated from these responses. Writing memos throughout the coding process assisted me with reflecting on the process, thus ensuring that I allowed the data to fit the codes, as suggested by Charmaz (2006), instead of forcing codes onto the data.

The initial coding process was followed by focused coding, resulting in the development of categories through thematic or conceptual similarities (Saldaña, 2016). During this process the large data from the initial coding process is synthesised, integrated and organised into categories and subcategories (Charmaz, 2006; Saldaña, 2016; Yin, 2016). In the current study the transition from coded data to a more conceptual level of analysis (categories) involved adding the verbs "is" and "means", as recommended by Saldaña (2016, p. 231). By applying these verbs I was able to expand the one-word codes (e.g. reading) and short phrases (e.g. asking questions) into more evocative categories with greater analytical utility than the broad codes. These categories were constantly refined throughout the process as new data were collected and analysed as new categories emerged (Charmaz, 2006).

The third level of data analysis involved grouping all the similar categories into a core category or theme, through a process known as theoretical coding (Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) explains that a theme is an extended phrase or sentence which identifies the meaning of a unit of data. Themes can be used to offer descriptions and summarise large data, and to explain and offer suggestions why things happen the way they do. In the current study, the core strategies/themes were categorised into clusters, which provided theoretical explanations (theoretical constructs) of the LLSs used by L2 learners. The theoretical constructs serve to integrate and synthesise the codes and categories in an effort to generate theory. Saldaña (2016) argues that theory generation need not be original theory development but should answer the "how" and the "why" questions (Saldaña, 2016). The preferred term used in this study is themes

instead of core categories. For the sake of clarity, the term theme will therefore be used to denote the core category.

The qualitative data are presented in the analysis chapter as categories and, where necessary, this was done through visual models or figures. Figure 5.8 below illustrates the model indicating the use of the qualitative data that I implemented in the current study. This model is adapted from Saldaña (2016) and represents the following steps: from open coding (initial/real/particular), to focused coding and finally to theory generation (core category/themes). This model illustrates how real data obtained from the field are meaningfully linked to a theory or generate theory, thus moving from the real to the abstract (Gehrels, 2013). Responses or recoded data were initially given codes and sometimes subcodes were generated. Similar codes were grouped together to form categories and these categories were grouped together to generate themes. These themes were then linked to theory, which in this case was done to enrich existing theory.

An important component of the CGT method adopted for the analysis of qualitative data is memo writing (Charmaz, 2006). Memo writing was carried out throughout the data-collection and analysis phase. Data were captured and transcribed soon after collection to facilitate initial coding. This allowed for constant comparison of codes and categories. This iterative process of memo writing, and constant comparison was key to achieving theoretical coding (Strauss, & Corbin, 1990; Charmaz, 2006).

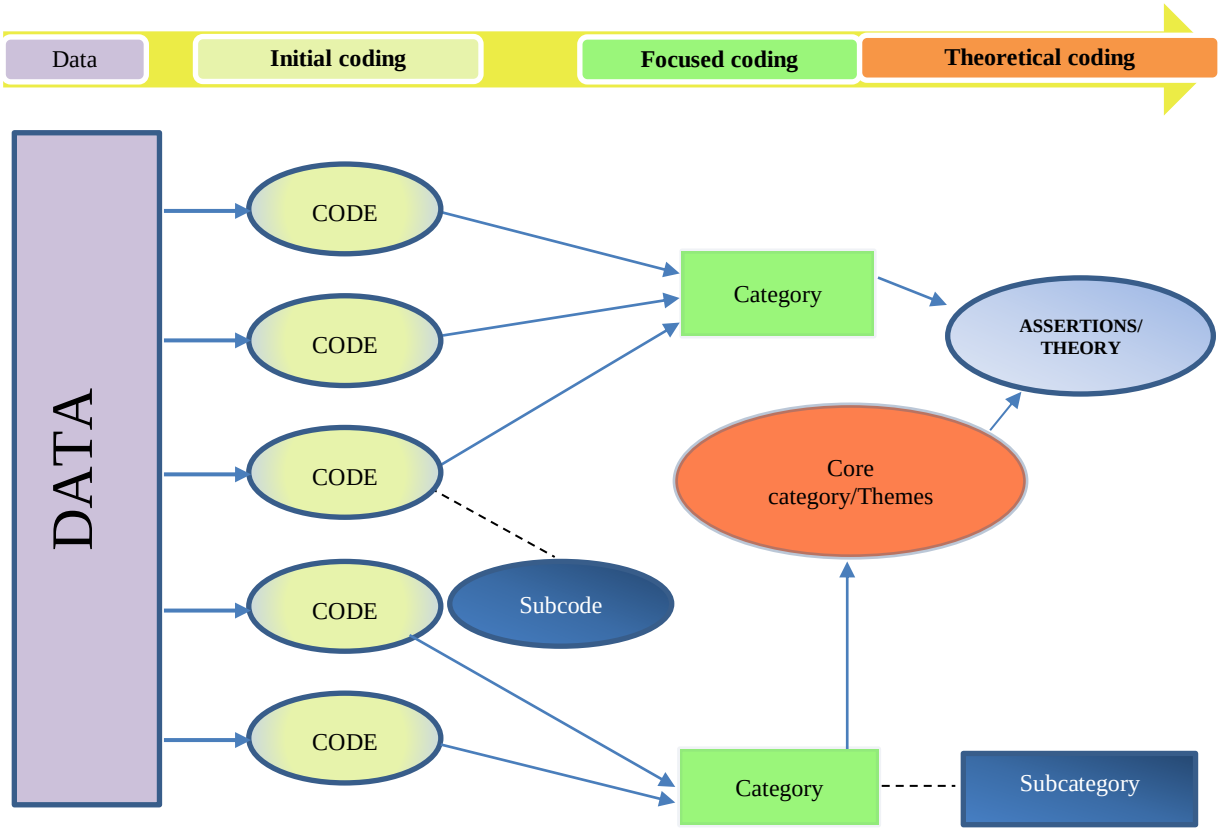

Figure 5.8: Model for qualitative data analysis (Adapted from Saldaña, 2016)

5.6 Quality Criteria and Ethical Considerations

To ensure the validity of the results of my study a number of quality criteria were applied which were enhanced by triangulation. In quantitative studies, the commonly applied quality criteria includes reliability and validity. In qualitative studies, the quality of results is commonly ensured through trustworthiness, which includes credibility, confirmability, transferability and dependability (Kawulich, & Holland, 2012). This mixed methods study thus necessitated that I observe and comply with the aforementioned quality criteria to ensure the validity of the results obtained.

5.6.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is associated with the validity of the data collected and concerned with the accuracy and precision of the data. Triangulation pertains to whether the researcher can produce converging evidence using different data sources (Denscombe, 2010; Yin, 2011; Thomas, 2013; Yin, 2016). Yin (2016) highlights several ways in which triangulation occurs, of which three were applicable to the current study: (1) The triangulation of data by using different data sources. In this study, data source triangulation was achieved using both qualitative and quantitative questionnaires, FGDs and observations. Findings derived from one source were verified by the

findings of the other sources of data, thereby achieving triangulation. (2) Triangulation of theory implies using different theories to interpret results. This was achieved using both cognitive and sociocultural theories to interpret the findings. (3) Triangulation of methods in the current study was achieved using different research methods (quantitative and qualitative research design).

5.6.2 Reliability and validity

Reliability relates to the consistency of data-collection methods and techniques and ensures that these do not vary according to different settings, groupings or the researchers conducting the study (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009; Denscombe, 2010; Perry, 2011). Both the SILL and the PTEL questionnaires were shown to be reliable instruments in measuring the LLSs and English L2 learning respectively, as demonstrated in sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2 of this chapter.

The element of validity is important in both qualitative (transferability, trustworthiness, confirmability, dependability) and quantitative research (DeCuir-Gunby, 2008). In qualitative research, the transferability criterion is comparable to external validity, and in quantitative research to generalisability (Anney, 2014). External validity is associated with the degree to which findings can be generalised or transferred from one population or situation to another. In qualitative research, internal validity is known as credibility (Perry, 2011).

Procedures for establishing validity are informed by the type of design that has been chosen, namely qualitative or quantitative. According to Denscombe (2010), validity is concerned with the precision of the questions asked, the data collected, and the explanations presented. In its broadest definition, validity deals with ensuring the quality of the data and the results (Creswell, & Clark, 2007). Accordingly, validity relates to the data collected and the analysis conducted during the research. In quantitative studies validity is established based on the construct(s) being measured, whereas in qualitative research it is based on triangulation (Creswell, 2014). There are various types of validity that can be assessed, such as content description, construct identification and criterion prediction (Foxcroft, & Roodt, 2009). In a convergent mixed methods design, validity is based on establishing the validity of the construct in the quantitative component of the study as well as establishing triangulation in the qualitative component (Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). In the current study, I focused on ensuring the content validity of the measures by pilot-testing them. As regards the qualitative data, triangulation was made possible due to the mixed methods design of the study. The collection of data through FGDs, an open-ended questionnaire (section C of the PTEL) and observations enhanced the validity of the study.

5.6.3 Trustworthiness

According to Nieuwenhuis (2016), trustworthiness is a crucial quality criterion in qualitative research. There are four ways of establishing trustworthiness in a qualitative study, namely: credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability (Guba, as cited in Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Denzin, & Lincoln, 2011). To ensure the trustworthiness of the current study these four elements were observed. Credibility deals with the question of congruency in the findings. In this study, credibility was enhanced through verifying the data gathered from the participants in the FGDs as well as providing thick descriptions of the phenomenon of LLS used during peer tutoring and how these strategies assisted with English L2 learning. Transferability is the process whereby connections are made between elements of one study and elements of another study (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). For transferability to occur, the researcher needs to provide sufficient information regarding the data collected, such as the characteristics of the sample and the context in which the data were collected (Denscombe, 2010). Accordingly, I described the specific context (peer tutoring) in which data were collected and supplied detailed information of the sample from which the data were obtained.

5.6.4 Confirmability and dependability

Confirmability is the degree of neutrality of the findings or the extent to which the results are shaped by the participants and not influenced by researcher bias (Lincoln, & Guba, as cited in Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Denzin, & Lincoln, 2011). Researcher bias was mitigated through triangulation as well as through admission of personal predispositions that could have influenced the current study. Triangulation in this study was enhanced through the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data. In doing so, I was able to corroborate the findings of one data set with those of the other, namely the quantitative with the qualitative.

Dependability, like reliability in quantitative research, relates to the degree to which the findings of a study will yield the same results if the study is replicated (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; De Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delport, 2011; Yin, 2016). Although complete replication is not possible in qualitative research due to the dynamic nature of human behaviour it is necessary for researchers to show rigour in the methods and techniques used (Merriam, 2002; Toma, 2006). I enhanced the dependability of this study through providing detailed descriptions of the procedures and techniques I used, as Bryman (2012) suggests. In addition, there is a traceable audit trail of all the data collected, which would allow an auditor to examine the documents (Bryman, 2012; Carvalho-Malekane, 2015; Machimana, 2017).

5.6.5 Ethical considerations

There are numerous ethical guidelines that researchers need to follow when conducting research with human participants in order to safeguard the interests of participants (Perry, 2011). According to Gravetter and Forzano (2012), one of the ethical responsibilities that researchers need to abide by is to ensure the dignity and welfare of the individuals participating in their research studies. As an initial step in fulfilling Gravetter and Forzano's (2012) ethical responsibility towards participants, I ensured that no data were collected before the study had been approved by the Ethics and Research Committee of the Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria. Once permission had been granted I proceeded to seek voluntary informed consent from all the study's prospective participants as this is a vital part of ensuring respect for participants while conducting research, as argued by Ogletree and Kawulich (2012). I obtained written informed consent from the managers of the participating peer tutoring programmes, the tutors, the parents or guardians of the learners, and assent from the learners who participated in various peer tutoring programmes.

I followed the guidelines outlined by Gray, Williamson, Karp and Dalphin (2007) and Ogletree and Kawulich (2012) in obtaining informed consent. The sequence that I followed included seeking permission from the managers of the different NPOs running current peer tutoring programmes. Once permission had been granted by the peer tutoring programme managers, Grade 8 and Grade 9 learners were given an information sheet and consent/assent forms, which were completed by the parents or guardians (consent) as well as by the learners (assent) (see Appendices A–F). The information sheet clearly stated the aim of the research and indicated the duration of the study. Learners were informed of their right not to participate in the study and their right to withdraw at any time during the study. At no point were learners coerced into participating and learners who participated in the study did not receive any remuneration. I explained that participation was completely voluntary and also elucidated the potential benefits and risks attached to participating.

Information sent to the parents included the researcher's and supervisor's contact numbers and email addresses for any questions or queries prior, during or after the research. Once consent had been granted by the parents, assent was sought from the learners. A learner was only eligible to participate in the study if they had obtained parental consent and they themselves had also given their assent. Furthermore, for the observation component of the study both the learners and tutors submitted signed consent or assent forms before being observed.

5.6.6 Privacy and confidentiality

Once data were collected, I had to ensure the protection of participating learners through guarding their privacy and confidentiality. Privacy concerns hiding participants' identification and their locality whereas confidentiality means the researcher knows the identity of participants but does not reveal their identities (Ogletree, & Kawulich, 2012; Creswell, 2013). To ensure privacy and confidentiality, participating peer tutoring programmes and participants were provided with pseudonyms in order to protect their identities. At no point during the study were participants required to give any personal information that might identify them. Although biographical information was obtained, this did not link the participants directly to the consent forms. Introductions prior to the FGDs were not recorded (Gray et al., 2007; Ogletree, & Kawulich, 2012).

At no point during the dissemination phase of the study (thesis, publication of articles and presentations) will identifying information be revealed. No video-recordings were made, only audio-recordings. These audio-recordings will not be used in any presentation to protect the participants from being identified. Only transcripts of the audio-recordings will be used when disseminating the findings. The findings and recommendations of the study will be discussed with the different peer tutor programme managers, learners and tutors. However, this will only take place once the thesis had been assessed by external examiners. Once the thesis had been made available in the UPSpace, I will send the link for this thesis to the various programme managers. Upon completion of the study, all the data will be securely stored by the University of Pretoria's (UP's) Department of Humanities in the Faculty of Education for a minimum of 15 years to ensure that the university protects the intellectual property.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the methodological processes which I followed in exploring the LLSs of L2 learners. I provided a rationale for using a convergent mixed methods design and elaborated on the data-collection procedures I employed. I noted the challenges inherent in my methodological choices and how these were addressed. I concluded the chapter by highlighting the quality criteria that were applied to ensure the rigour of this study and discussed the ethical considerations.

In Chapter Six, I present the quantitative results, which will be followed by a presentation of the qualitative findings (Chapter Seven). These results are intergrated in Chapter Eight, where they will be discussed against the background of current literature.

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Chapter Six
Quantitative Data Analysis

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I outlined the procedures I had adopted for analysing the data presented in this chapter and indicated that I used mixed methods design to address the research questions posed in the current study. In keeping with the analysis procedure outlined in Chapter Five, this chapter presents the quantitative results for the SILL and the PTEL, which included a biographical questionnaire.

I begin this chapter by describing and summarising the information obtained through the demographical questionnaire using descriptive statistics as well as providing descriptive statistics for both the SILL and the PTEL. The key demographic characteristics that were described were learners' scores on both the L1 and L2. These factors provided a rich perspective of the sample and allowed for greater understanding of possible extraneous variables that might potentially have had an impact on the results of the current study. The remainder of the chapter, which includes both descriptive and inferential statistics, is organised according to the research questions raised in Chapter One, which are:

1. What are the conventional language-learning strategies used by English L2 learners engaged in peer tutoring initiatives?
2. How does the frequency, quantity and type of conventional strategy use affect L2 learning?
    a. Using strategy clusters, explore frequency and quantity of LLS use in association with L2 learning (see section 6.3 and section 6.4).
3. What are the sociocultural factors (such as gender and L1 competence) that could be associated with L2 learning and how do these factors affect language-learning strategy use? (Section 6.5)
    a. Explore the effect of gender, grade, age, LLS use (see section 6.5.1).
    b. Explore the effect of home language on LSS use (see section 6.5.2).
4. What role does peer tutoring play in language-learning and LLS usage?
    a. Determine if there are differences in the performance of learners in the four L2 skills before and during peer tutoring (see section 6.6).

6.2 Descriptive Statistics

6.2.1 Description of the scores

Figure 6.1 below indicates the distribution of L1 scores, as reported by learners in the biographical questionnaire, which represents their performance in the L1. Learners identified their performance in the L1 using either raw scores, percentages or levels. To facilitate interpretation all the raw scores were converted into percentages and then into levels. The levels indicated in Figure 6.1 shows that over two-thirds (73%) of the sample scored 50% and above in the L1, with 15 learners obtaining level 5; 31 obtained level 6 and 20 obtained level 7 (see Table 5.5. in section 5.5.1 for the key to the various levels). A total of 20 learners did not report their L1 scores.

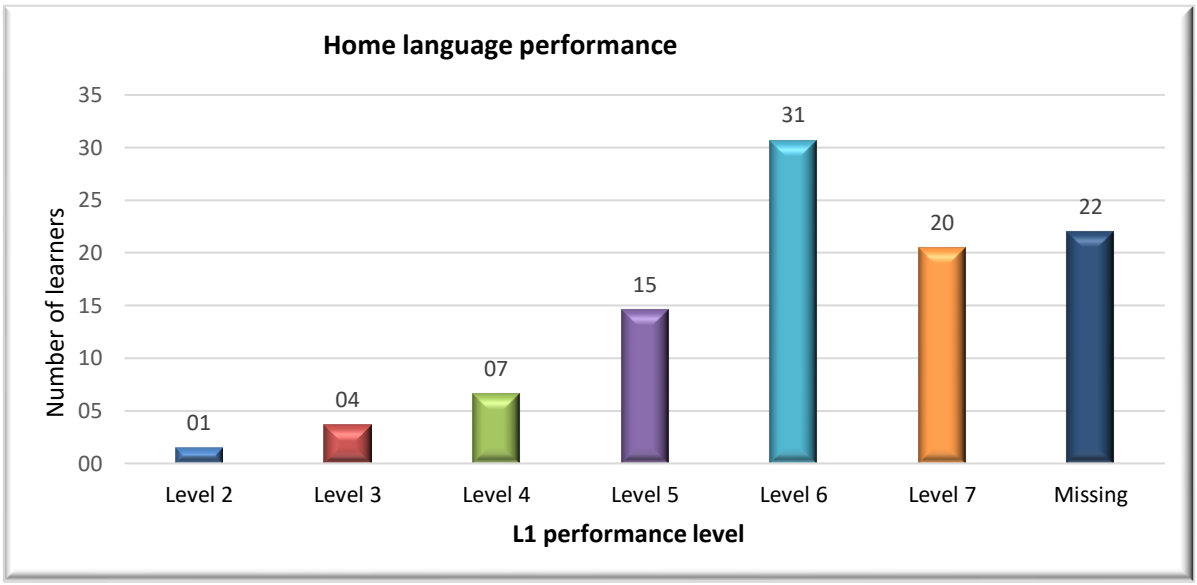

Figure 6.1: Distribution of L1 scores

Similarly to the scores obtained in the L1, just over two thirds (69%) of learners in this sample obtained 50% and above in the L2, as depicted in Figure 6.2 below. Only 11 learners obtained level 3 and below. Although the scores for the L1 and L2 were verified during data collection, they seemed to be inconsistent with standardised results such as those of the Annual National Assessments (ANA), which show that the majority of South African learners scored below 50% in both home and second languages (DBE, 2014). However, these results seem to confirm the reports of the various peer tutoring programmes, which indicated that the learners who participated in their programmes performed above the national average in their Grade 12 examinations.

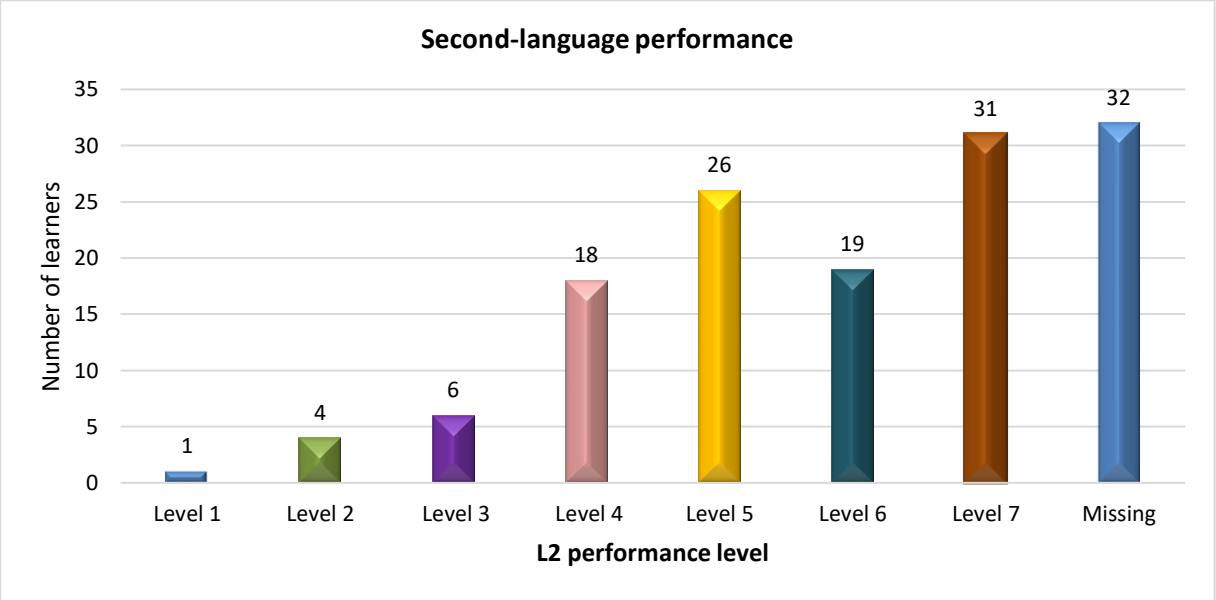

Figure 6.2: Distribution of L2 scores

The descriptive Table 6.1 below shows the distribution of scores in the SILL, PTEL, L1 and L2 scores. Table 6.1 also displays the distribution of the overall SILL, including the six categories, and the PTEL, while the four language skills are indicated in respect of both the L1 and the L2. The median and mean scores for the SILL were very similar and the standard deviation was small, suggesting small deviations in most of the scores. Table 6.1 shows that the overall strategy use, as measured by the SILL, was 3.61, with a standard deviation of 1.3, thus representing high-frequency use of strategies. High-frequency strategy use was also observed in four of the six SILL categories (cognitive (M = 3.61), metacognitive (M = 4.06), affective (M = 3.56) and social (M = 3.73). This suggests that learners participating in this study frequently used all three of the indirect strategies (metacognitive, social and affective) and only one of the direct strategies (cognitive) classified by Oxford (1990). The high use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies is consistent with what was observed by other researchers (Lutz, 2015; Makoni, 2016).

A further analysis of the specific strategies used in each strategy category shows that the frequently used metacognitive strategies included having clear goals for learning English, finding out how to be a better English learner, noticing mistakes and paying attention when someone is speaking. The frequently used social strategies included asking other people to slow down, asking for correction when speaking, asking for help and asking questions in English. The cognitive strategies that were used at a high frequency included watching English-language television shows, writing notes and messages in English, skimming over a passage, reading for pleasure and practising the sounds of English words. The affective strategies frequently used by learners include the following: encouraging self to speak English, rewarding self and relaxing when feeling stressed about using English.

Although memory and compensation strategies were used at a medium frequency, a number of items under these strategies were reported to be used at a high frequency. For memory strategies, the following were used at a high frequency: using English words in a sentence, using location to remember English words, reviewing English lessons often, and thinking of relationships. Only one compensation strategy was used at a high frequency: using words that have the same meaning.

The mean of 5.33 and a standard deviation of 1.47 for the English score as well as the mean of 5.69 and standard deviation of 1.20 for home language suggests that the majority of learners obtained high marks for English L2 (level 5) and their home language (level 6). These scores are somewhat problematic in that the examinations are not standardised across all schools as schools set their own exams and there is no guarantee that the level of difficulty is the same at all schools. However, these scores do provide some indication of how learners performed in the L2 and the L1. The scores for the L1 and L2 were supported by learners' self-rated competency in the four language skills, which was also high, as is clearly indicated in Table 6.1. The home language score posed an additional problem as it represented the different languages that learners took as home language subject at school. Although the home languages were different, the DBE (2011) states that home languages are presented at the same level, thus these scores were used with the understanding that the same level was measured regardless of the actual language that learners took as subject.

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics for the SILL, English score and English skills

Name	Category	M	Mdn	SD
SILL	SILL (Overall)	3.61	3.62	0.52
	Memory	3.39	3.44	0.68
	Cognitive	3.61	3.64	0.57
	Compensation	3.25	3.33	0.78
	Metacognitive	4.06	4.11	0.66
	Affective	3.56	3.67	0.86
	Social	3.73	3.83	0.81
L2 and L1 performance	L2 performance	5.33	5.00	1.47
	L1 performance	5.69	6.00	1.20
PTEL	L2 Read	3.81	4.00	1.04
	L2 Vocabulary, & Grammar	3.72	3.75	0.90
	L2 Write	4.14	4.50	0.90
	L2 Speak	4.01	4.00	0.88

Name	Category	M	Mdn	SD
	L1 Read	4.10	4.25	0.91
	L1 Vocabulary, & Grammar	4.10	4.50	0.97
	L1 Write	4.09	4.50	1.07
	L1 Speak	4.40	5.00	0.88

6.3 Language-learning Strategies and Second-language Learning

To investigate the relationship between strategy use and L2 learning, Spearman rho correlations were conducted between frequency of LLSs used (overall, categories and individual items) and L1 scores. Moreover, correlations were also conducted between LLSs (overall, categories and individual items) and learners' self-assessment of the four language skills (writing, reading, grammar, and vocabulary and speaking). The results of statistically significant correlations are displayed in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Correlations between L2 scores, language skills and SILL frequency

SILL category	SILL items	L2 scores	L2 read	L2 vocab, & gram	L2 write	L2 speak
Memory 1	Think of relationships		.229**			
Memory 2	Use new English words in sentence		.303**	.177*	.281**	.205*
Memory 4	Making mental pictures		.207*			
Memory 7	Physically acting out new English words		.252**	.178*		
Cognitive 11	Speak like native English speakers		.364**		.252**	.236**
Cognitive 12	Practicing the sounds of English words		.221**			.208*
Cognitive 13	Using English words I know in different ways		.176*	.276**	.303**	.247**
Cognitive 14	Starting conversations in English		.306**	.186*	.408**	.310**
Cognitive 15	Watching English-language TV shows				.182*	
Cognitive 16	Reading for pleasure in English	.211*	.181*	.176*	.264**	

SILL category	SILL items	L2 scores	L2 read	L2 vocab, & gram	L2 write	L2 speak
Cognitive 17	Writing notes, messages in English		.344**		.221**	.225**
Cognitive 18	Skim over an English passage	.207*		.182*		
Cognitive 19	Words that are similar to own language		.186*			
Cognitive 21	Dividing English words into parts		.259**		.204*	.271**
Cognitive 23	Summarise information		.300**		.205*	
Compensation 27	Read without looking up every new word				.232**	.247**
Compensation 29	Using a word that means the same thing		.301**		.226**	.312**
Metacognitive 30	Find as many ways as I can to use English		.322**	.304**	.281**	.184*
Metacognitive 31	Noticing English mistakes	.264**	.342**		.339**	.293**
Metacognitive 32	Paying attention when someone is speaking			.218*	.242**	.220**
Metacognitive 35	Look for people to talk to in English		.389**	.194*		.187*
Metacognitive 36	Look for opportunities to read in English		.242**		.235**	.208*
Metacognitive 37	Having clear goals for improving English skills	.251**	.204*			
Metacognitive 38	Thinking about progress in learning English		.318**	.229**	.234**	.193*
Affective 39	Relax whenever I feel afraid of using English		.204*			.175*
Affective 40	Encourage self to speak English			.195*	.278**	.201*
Affective 41	Reward self		.172*			
Affective 42	Noticing if I am tense or nervous		.169*			
Affective 43	Writing down my feelings		.240**		.201*	

SILL category	SILL items	L2 scores	L2 read	L2 vocab, & gram	L2 write	L2 speak
Social 45	Asking the other person to slow down		.274**		.221**	.309**
Social 46	Asking for correction when speaking				.224**	.249**
Social 47	Practicing English with other learners		.185*			.195*
Social 48	Asking for help from English speakers		.265**		.377**	.279**
Social 49	Asking questions in English		.429**	.250**	.275**	.325**
Overall Memory			.302**		.229**	.203*
Overall Cognitive		.227*	.411**	.194*	.385**	.336**
Overall Compensation			.225**		.231**	.248**
Overall Metacognitive			.419**	.237**	.338**	.280**
Overall Affective			.260**		.229**	.173*
Overall Social			.332**	.195*	.311**	.295**
Overall SILL			.452**	.199*	.380**	.332**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Key: Vocab – vocabulary; Gram – grammar

Table 6.2 above shows statistically significant results linking L2 scores and overall cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .227$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 5.2\%$ (.227 x .227 = .0515) as well as two cognitive strategy items and two metacognitive strategy items, as follows:

Cognitive: Reading for pleasure in English $r_s(105) = .211, p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.5\%$

Cognitive: Skim over an English passage $r_s(105) = .207, p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.3\%$

Metacognitive: Noticing English mistakes $r_s(105) = .264, p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.0\%$

Metacognitive: Having clear goals for improving English skills $r_s(105) = .251, p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.3\%$.

These results reveal that learners' English score is related to their overall ability to manipulate or transform the L2 through getting the idea quickly (skim through passage) and using resources (reading for pleasure) for receiving the L2 (Oxford; 1990; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). This

finding suggests that L2 scores were related to reading, as revealed by the two cognitive items indicated above (reading for pleasure, skimming through an English passage). Moreover, significant correlations were observed between a learner's English score and their ability to use higher-order functions to plan and organise (having clear goals), and between evaluating and self-monitoring (noticing English mistakes) (Oxford, 1990; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). Although the above-mentioned relationships between L2 scores and LLS usage were all small, these relationships were identified as significantly affecting L2 performance.

6.3.1 Second-language reading ability

Further analysis of the results in Table 6.2 above indicates that L2 skills related significantly to numerous LLSs. The results show that L2 reading correlated significantly with overall SILL $r_s(105) = .452$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 20\%$, which suggests that 20% of the variance in reading ability can be accounted for by the use of strategies. Furthermore, reading was found to relate significantly to all six strategy categories, with memory strategies accounting for 9.12% of the variance in L2 reading ability, $r_s(105) = .302$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 9.1\%$. The specific memory strategies, which also significantly explain the variance in reading scores, relate to making mental links and employing action:

Think of relationships: $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.2\%$.
Making mental pictures: $r_s(105) = .207$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.3\%$.
Use new English words in sentence: $r_s(105) = .303$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.2\%$.
Physically acting out new English words: $r_s(105) = .252$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 1.6\%$.

The results further show that cognitive strategies accounted for 16.9% of L2 reading, $r_s(105) = .411$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 16.9\%$. The specific strategies that significantly relate to L2 reading are practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning and creating structure for input and output (Oxford, 1990). These are all shown below, as follows:

Speak like native English speakers: $r_s(105) = .364$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 13.3\%$.
Practicing the sounds of English words: $r_s(105) = .221$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.9\%$.
Using English words I know in different ways: $r_s(105) = .176$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.1\%$.
Starting conversations in English: $r_s(105) = .306$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.4\%$.
Reading for pleasure in English: $r_s(105) = .181$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.3\%$.
Writing notes, messages in English: $r_s(105) = .344$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.1\%$.
Words that are similar to own language: $r_s(105) = .186$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.3\%$.
Dividing English words into parts: $r_s(105) = .259$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.7\%$.
Summarise information: $r_s(105) = .300$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9\%$.

Although compensation strategies were the least used strategies, this category accounted for 5.1% of the variance in L2 reading $r_s(105) = .225$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.1\%$. The specific strategy that showed a positive affect on L2 reading was using a word that had the same meaning, which accounted for 9.1% of the variance in L2 reading $r_s(105) = .301$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.1\%$. This suggests that L2 reading is related to the use of synonyms.

In contrast to compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies accounted for a large proportion of the variance in L2 reading, $r_s(105) = .419$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 17.6\%$. Correlations between L2 reading and metacognitive strategies ranged from small to medium, suggesting that metacognitive strategies play a significant role in L2 reading. The metacognitive strategies that are positively related to L2 reading include planning and arranging L2 reading and self-evaluation, as suggested by the following correlations:
Find as many ways as I can to use English: $r_s(105) = .322$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 10.4\%$.
Noticing English mistakes: $r_s(105) = .342$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11.7\%$.
Look for people to talk to in English: $r_s(105) = .389$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 15.1\%$.
Look for opportunities to read in English: $r_s(105) = .242$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.9\%$.
Having clear goals for improving English skills: $r_s(105) = .204$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.2\%$.
Thinking about progress in learning English: $r_s(105) = .318$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 10.1\%$.

The results also indicate that affective strategies accounted for 6.8% of the variance in L2 reading, $r_s(105) = .260$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.8\%$. The specific affective strategies that positively affect learners' L2 reading relate to lowering their anxiety, rewarding themselves and recording emotions, as shown below:
Relax whenever I feel afraid of using English: $r_s(105) = .204$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.2\%$.
Reward self: $r_s(105) = .172$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.0\%$.
Noticing if I am tense or nervous: $r_s(105) = .169$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 2.6\%$.
Writing down my feelings: $r_s(105) = .240$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.8\%$.

The use of social strategies by L2 learners in the current study accounted for 11.0% of their reading ability, $r_s(105) = .332$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11.0\%$. Learners commonly use the strategy of asking questions, be it for verification, explanation, help or for the speaker to slow down as well as cooperating with peers (Oxford, 1990). Such strategies significantly explain L2 reading, as is shown as follows:
Asking the other person to slow down: $r_s(105) = .274$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.5\%$
Practicing English with other learners: $r_s(105) = .185$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.4\%$
Asking for help from English speakers: $r_s(105) = .265$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.0\%$
Asking questions in English: $r_s(105) = .429$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 18.4\%$

6.3.2 Second-language vocabulary and grammar ability

Table 6.2 above also shows that the item L2 vocabulary and grammar skills has a small positive correlation to the overall SILL, $r_s(105) = .199$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.0\%$. The same was true for cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .194$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.8\%$. The precise cognitive skills that positively correlated with grammar and vocabulary were as follows:
Using English words I know in different ways: $r_s(105) = .276$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 7.6\%$.
Starting conversations in English: $r_s(105) = .186$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.5\%$.
Reading for pleasure in English: $r_s(105) = .176$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.1\%$.
Skim over an English passage: $r_s(105) = .276$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 7.6\%$.

The results of the current study also indicate that vocabulary and grammar had a small correlation with metacognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .237$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.6\%$. However, medium to small correlations were found between vocabulary and grammar and some of the metacognitive strategy items:
Find as many ways as I can to use English: $r_s(105) = .304$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.2\%$.
Paying attention when someone is speaking: $r_s(105) = .218$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.8\%$.
Look for people to talk to in English: $r_s(105) = .194$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.8\%$.
Thinking about progress in learning English: $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.2\%$.

The results further indicate that frequent use of social strategies, $r_s(105) = .195$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 3.8\%$, was related to higher-level vocabulary and grammar. More specifically, learners' vocabulary and grammar ability was positively related to frequently asking questions in English, $r_s(105) = .250$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.3\%$. The ability to self-motivate to speak English (affective strategy) $r_s(105) = .195$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.8\%$, acting out new English words (memory strategy), $r_s(105) = .178$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.2\%$ and using English words in a sentence (memory strategy) $r_s(105) = .177$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.1\%$ were also found to affect vocabulary and grammar skills positively.

6.3.3 Second-language writing ability

The results of this study show that the frequent use of overall strategies was generally related to higher L2 writing ability, as shown by the medium correlation $r_s(105) = .380$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 14.5\%$. Memory strategies had a small but significant correlation with L2 writing $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.2\%$. The results moreover indicate that the frequent use of new English words in a sentence accounted for 7.9% of the variance in L2 writing ability $r_s(105) = .281$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.9\%$.

In addition, the results show that cognitive strategies had a medium but significant relationship with L2 writing, $r_s(105) = .385$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 14.8\%$. Moreover, the following cognitive strategies had small to medium correlations with L2 writing:
Speak like native English speakers: $r_s(105) = .252$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.4\%$.
Using English words I know in different ways: $r_s(105) = .303$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.2\%$.
Starting conversations in English: $r_s(105) = .408$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 16.6\%$.
Watching English-language TV shows: $r_s(105) = .182$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.3\%$.
Reading for pleasure in English: $r_s(105) = .264$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.0\%$.
Writing notes, messages in English: $r_s(105) = .221$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.9\%$.
Dividing English words into parts: $r_s(105) = .204$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.2\%$.
Summarise information: $r_s(105) = .205$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.2\%$.

A small but significant correlation was observed between compensation strategies and L2 writing $r_s(105) = .231$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.3\%$. Reading without looking up every new word accounted for 5.4% of the variance in L2 writing $r_s(105) = .232$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.4\%$, while using a word that has the same meaning $r_s(105) = .226$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.1\%$ accounted for 5.1% of the variance in L2 writing. This suggests that learners in this study either used synonyms or circumlocution and approximated the message in overcoming L2 writing difficulties (Oxford, 1990).

The results derived from the study also indicate that metacognitive strategies accounted for 11.4% of the variance in L2 writing, $r_s(105) = .338$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11.4\%$. The following metacognitive strategies were also significantly related to L2 writing:
Find as many ways as I can to use English: $r_s(105) = .281$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.9\%$.
Noticing English mistakes: $r_s(105) = .339$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11.5\%$.
Paying attention when someone is speaking: $r_s(105) = .242$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.9\%$.
Look for opportunities to read in English: $r_s(105) = .235$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.5\%$.
Thinking about progress in learning English: $r_s(105) = .234$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.5\%$.

Moreover, the results show that managing affect has a small but significant relationship with L2 writing, $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.2\%$. The ability to encourage self to speak English, $r_s(105) = .278$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.7\%$ and writing down feelings, $r_s(105) = .201$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.0\%$ were also positively related to L2 writing.

Social strategies also emerged as positively affecting L2 writing, $rs(105) = .311$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.7\%$. The social strategies that positively correlated with L2 writing were all related to asking, as shown below:
Asking the other person to slow down: $r_s(105) = .221$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.9\%$.

Asking for correction when speaking: $r_s(105) = .224$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.0\%$.
Asking for help from English speakers: $r_s(105) = .377$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 14.2\%$.
Asking questions in English: $r_s(105) = .275$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.6\%$.

6.3.4 Second-language speaking ability

The frequent use of overall strategies has a medium positive association with L2 speaking ability, $r_s(105) = .332$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11\%$. This suggests that the frequent use of various strategies results in higher L2 speaking ability. The results show that the use of memory strategies accounts for 4.1% of L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .203$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.1\%$ with the use of new English words in a sentence accounting for 4.2% of the variance in L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .205$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.2\%$.

A medium correlation was observed between cognitive strategies and L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .336$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11.3\%$. These strategies accounted for most of the variance in L2 speaking among all the strategy categories. The unique cognitive strategies that were associated with higher L2 speaking were the following:
Speak like native English speakers: $r_s(105) = .236$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.6\%$.
Practicing the sounds of English words: $r_s(105) = .208$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.3\%$.
Using English words I know in different ways: $r_s(105) = .247$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.1\%$.
Starting conversations in English: $r_s(105) = .310$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.6\%$.
Writing notes, messages in English: $r_s(105) = .225$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 5.1\%$.
Dividing English words into parts: $r_s(105) = .271$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.3\%$.

A small positive correlation was observed between compensation strategies and L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .248$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.2\%$. Reading without looking up every new word $r_s(105) = .247$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.1\%$ accounted for 6.1% of the variance in L2 speaking. while using a word with the same meaning as the L2 word, $r_s(105) = .312$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.7\%$ accounted for 9.7% of the variance in L2 speaking.

A further finding shows that metacognitive strategies had small but significant correlations with L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .280$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.8\%$. The particular metacognitive strategies associated with higher L2 speaking included the following:
Find as many ways as I can to use English: $r_s(105) = .184$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.4\%$.
Noticing English mistakes: $r_s(105) = .293$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 8.6\%$.
Paying attention when someone is speaking: $r_s(105) = .220$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.8\%$.
Look for people to talk to in English: $r_s(105) = .187$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 2.9\%$.
Look for opportunities to read in English: $r_s(105) = .208$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.3\%$.
Thinking about progress in learning English: $r_s(105) = .193$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.7\%$.

A small but significant relationship was also observed between affective strategies and L2 learning, $r_s(105) = .173$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.0\%$. More precisely, learners' use of relaxing techniques when they feel afraid of using English $r_s(105) = .175$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 3.1\%$ and self-encouragement to speak English $r_s(105) = .201$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 4.0\%$ was related to higher L2 speaking.

The frequent use of social strategies was also positively associated with L2 speaking, $r_s(105) = .295$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 6.3\%$. The peculiar social strategies associated with L2 speaking involved asking and practicing with peers, as shown below:
Asking the other person to slow down: $r_s(105) = .309$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 9.5\%$.
Asking for correction when speaking: $r_s(105) = .249$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 6.2\%$.
Practicing English with other learners: $r_s(105) = .195$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 2.3\%$.
Asking for help from English speakers: $r_s(105) = .279$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 7.8\%$.
Asking questions in English: $r_s(105) = .325$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 10.6\%$.

6.4 Frequency of Strategy use and Strategy Types

6.4.1 Frequency of strategy use

To gain a greater in-depth understanding of the LLSs used by learners in the current study, I explored the frequency of use by low- and high-performing learners. Learners were therefore categorised into high- and low-performing learners based on their English scores. Learners were classified as low performers if their English score was at level 3 and below, and they were classified as high performers if they obtained level 7 in English. Using this classification, Table 6.3 below illustrates the frequency of all items in the whole sample as well as frequency of low- and high-performing learners. The results indicate that high-performing learners frequently ($M > 3.4$) used 39 of the strategies in the SILL, while low performers frequently used 33 strategies. To test the statistical significance of these differences I used a Mann-Whitney U test. The results indicate that although high-performing learners used slightly more strategies (n = 39) than their low-performing counterparts (n = 33), these differences were not statistically signifcant, U ($N_{low} = 12$, $N_{high} = 31$) = 134.50, $z = -1.40$, $p = .165$. This suggests that frequency of use is similar for both high- and low-performing learners, as posited by some researchers (Huang, & Van Naerssen, 1987; Anderson, 2005). These researchers (Huang, & Van Naerssen, 1987; Anderson, 2005) critiqued the idea that high-performing learners should be the standard by which to study LLSs but nevertheless encouraged the study of both the good and the poor language learner to gain a comprehensive view of strategy use. The section that follows explores the actual strategies used by both high- and low-performing learners in order to gain a holistic picture of strategy use by the sample of learners in the current study.

Table 6.3: Frequency of SILL use

SILL category	SILL item	Low (n=11)	High (n=31)	All (n=137)
Memory 1	Think of relationships	3.8	3.5	3.6
Memory 2	Use new English words in sentence	3.9	4.2	3.9
Memory 3	Connect sounds of new English words	3.6	3.5	3.4
Memory 4	Making mental pictures	3.1	3.5	3.3
Memory 5	Using rhymes	3.0	3.6	3.3
Memory 6	Using flashcards	2.2	2.3	2.4
Memory 7	Physically acting out new English words	3.5	3.3	3.1
Memory 8	Review English lessons often	4.3	3.8	3.7
Memory 9	Using location to remember English words	4.1	4.1	3.8
Cognitive 10	Say or write new English words several times	3.5	3.8	3.5
Cognitive 11	Speak like native English speakers	3.8	4.1	3.7
Cognitive 12	Practicing the sounds of English words	3.3	4.1	3.8
Cognitive 13	Using English words I know in different ways	3.9	3.5	3.6
Cognitive 14	Starting conversations in English	3.5	3.5	3.5
Cognitive 15	Watching English-language TV shows	3.5	4.5	4.1
Cognitive 16	Reading for pleasure in English	3.9	4.3	3.8
Cognitive 17	Writing notes, messages in English	3.7	4.3	4.1
Cognitive 18	Skim over an English passage	4.0	4.3	3.9
Cognitive 19	Words that are similar to own language	3.1	3.9	3.6
Cognitive 20	Find patterns in English	2.4	3.2	2.8
Cognitive 21	Dividing English words into parts	3.3	3.5	3.4
Cognitive 22	Translating word-for-word	3.5	2.8	3.1
Cognitive 23	Summarise information	3.7	3.6	3.6
Compensation 24	Making guesses	3.3	3.2	3.1
Compensation 25	Using gestures	2.9	3.5	3.2
Compensation 26	Making up new words	3.3	3.3	3.3
Compensation 27	Read without looking up every new word	3.4	2.5	3.0
Compensation 28	Guess what the other person will say	3.5	3.1	3.1
Compensation 29	Using a word that means the same thing	3.8	3.8	3.9
Metacognitive 30	Find as many ways as I can to use English	4.4	4.2	4.1
Metacognitive 31	Noticing English mistakes	3.9	4.5	4.2
Metacognitive 32	Paying attention when someone is speaking	4.4	4.1	4.2
Metacognitive 33	Finding out how to be a better English learner	4.3	4.4	4.3
Metacognitive 34	Have a schedule	3.3	3.6	3.6
Metacognitive 35	Look for people to talk to in English	3.6	3.7	3.8
Metacognitive 36	Look for opportunities to read in English	3.3	4.2	3.9
Metacognitive 37	Having clear goals for improving English skills	3.9	4.6	4.2
Metacognitive 38	Thinking about progress in learning English	4.4	4.6	4.3

SILL category	SILL item	Low (n=11)	High (n=31)	All (n=137)
Affective 39	Relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	3.3	3.7	3.7
Affective 40	Encourage self to speak English	4.2	4.3	4.1
Affective 41	Reward self	3.5	3.8	3.8
Affective 42	Noticing if I am tense or nervous	3.2	2.9	3.4
Affective 43	Writing down my feelings	3.0	3.6	3.3
Affective 44	Talking to someone else about my feelings	3.4	3.1	3.1
Social 45	Asking the other person to slow down	4.4	4.3	4.3
Social 46	Asking for correction when speaking	4.0	3.7	3.7
Social 47	Practicing English with other learners	4.0	3.7	3.6
Social 48	Asking for help from English speakers	4.1	3.5	3.7
Social 49	Asking questions in English	3.7	3.6	3.7
Social 50	Learn about the culture of English speakers	3.8	3.3	3.3
Average		3.6	3.7	3.6
Number of strategies reported frequently		33	39	33

Griffiths (2013) argues that the overall frequency of strategy use and strategy categories may not fully explain the LLSs used by high-performing learners. This is also seen in the results listed in Table 6.3, where no significant differences were observed between low- and high-performing learners as regards frequency of strategy use. Griffiths (2013) argues that there is a need to explore strategy clusters (base, core and plus strategies) to contribute to understanding the exact nature of the strategies used by successful learners. Base strategies are those strategies that are favoured more by low-performing learners than by high-performing learners. Core strategies are those strategies that all students ($M > 3.4$) use frequently. Plus strategies are those strategies favoured more by high-performing learners than by low-performing learners. It is important to note that for the base and plus strategy clusters, the mean values do not have to be 3.5 and above to be regarded as an important strategy for a cluster. Thus a strategy with a mean of 2.3 can be considered as part of a cluster depending on whether it was favoured more by low-performing learners (base strategies) or by high-performing learners (plus strategies).

6.4.2 Strategy type: Base strategies

Table 6.4 in the section that follows shows that 20 of the strategies in the SILL were base strategies as they were used more by low-performing learners than by high-performing learners. Low-performing learners favoured all six SILL categories, of which 30% were social strategies, 20% were memory strategies, 15% were cognitive strategies, 15% were compensation strategies, 10% were metacognitive strategies, and 10% were affective strategies. Therefore, low-performing L2 learners tended to favour social strategies more than any of the other

strategies as they indicated using five of the six social strategies (83%) in the SILL. Low performers appear to rely heavily on interactional strategies such as asking for correction, asking for help and practising the L2 with other learners.

Moreover, low-performing learners tended to use 44% of the total memory strategies, thus relying on memorisation for learning the L2. These learners indicated that they often reviewed English lessons (memory 8), thought of relationships between words (memory 1) and made sound connections between new English words (memory 3). These learners used an equal number of cognitive (15%) and compensation strategies (15%). The combination of the type of cognitive and compensation strategies used by low-performing learners appeared to show their high tolerance for ambiguity (Griffiths, 2014). The results indicate that these learners frequently translated word-for-word (cognitive 22) but when they didn't know a word, they showed a tendency to guess (compensations 24 and 28) rather than look up every word (compensation 27). On the contrary, a study by Griffiths (2014), this tolerance for ambiguity was found to be prevalent in high-performing learners and was thus grouped under the plus strategy cluster.

The low use of metacognitive strategies (10%) by low-performing learners suggested that these learners did not plan, manage, evaluate and regulate their learning sufficiently, as attested to by numerous scholars (Oxford, 1990; Cohen, & Macaro 2007; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). These learners used less than a third (22%) of all the metacognitive strategies, as measured by the SILL. Similarly, low-performing learners showed a tendency to use affective strategies inadequately as they employed only a third of all the affective strategies. Although these learners noticed that they were tense or nervous (affective 42), they would rather speak to someone else about how they felt (affective 44) instead of using the more self-regulating activities of calming and encouraging themselves. These results may indicate the need to raise awareness about strategy use and how the various strategies aid L2 learning.

Table 6.4: Base strategies – strategies often used by low-performing learners

SILL category	SILL item	Low (n=11)	High (n=31)
Memory 1	Think of relationships	3.8	3.5
Memory 3	Connect sounds of new English words	3.6	3.5
Memory 7	Physically acting out new English words	3.5	3.3
Memory 8	Review English lessons often	4.3	3.8
Cognitive 13	Using English words I know in different ways	3.9	3.5
Cognitive 22	Translating word-for-word	3.5	2.8
Cognitive 23	Summarise information	3.7	3.6
Compensation 24	Making guesses	3.3	3.2

SILL category	SILL item	Low (n=11)	High (n=31)
Compensation 27	Read without looking up every new word	3.4	2.5
Compensation 28	Guess what the other person will say	3.5	3.1
Metacognitive 30	Find as many ways as I can to use English	4.4	4.2
Metacognitive 32	Paying attention when someone is speaking	4.4	4.1
Affective 42	Noticing if I am tense or nervous	3.2	2.9
Affective 44	Talking to someone else about my feelings	3.4	3.1
Social 45	Asking the other person to slow down	4.4	4.3
Social 46	Asking for correction when speaking	4.0	3.7
Social 47	Practicing English with other learners	4.0	3.7
Social 48	Asking for help from English speakers	4.1	3.5
Social 49	Asking questions in English	3.7	3.6
Social 50	Learn about the culture of English speakers	3.8	3.3
	Number of base strategies		20

6.4.3 Strategy type: core strategies

Table 6.5, which follows, shows 33 core strategies that were frequently used by all learners. A closer analysis of the strategies in Table 6.6 shows that cognitive strategies (33.3%) formed the core group of strategies used by all learners in the current study and these strategies are related to the various language skills that are summarised below:

Cognitive strategies related to vocabulary include:

a. I try to talk like native English speakers (cognitive 11)
b. I practice the sounds of English (cognitive 12)
c. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English (cognitive 19)

Cognitive strategies related to writing include:

a. I say or write new L2 words several times (cognitive 10)
b. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English (cognitive 17)

Cognitive strategies related to speaking include:

a. I start conversations in English (cognitive 14)

Cognitive strategies related to reading include:

a. I read for pleasure in English (cognitive 16)

A point of interest that emerged from the analysis of the core cognitive strategies was that they related to the use of resources such as television for watching English shows (cognitive 15),

books (cognitive 16), and writing material (cognitive 17), which are resources to which learners do not always have access. One resource that learners have control over is the use of the home language (cognitive 19) and should thus be highlighted as a key resource in L2 learning.

The results further show that core strategies comprised 27.2% metacognitive strategies. These strategies related to planning and monitoring of L2 progress, such as having a schedule (metacognitive 34), finding out how to be a better L2 learner (metacognitive 33), having clear L2 goals (metacognitive 37) and monitoring progress in learning the L2 (metacognitive 38). These strategies were also related to some of the language skills, such as listening (paying attention when another person is speaking), reading (looking for opportunities to read in English) and speaking (looking for people to talk to in the L2).

Social strategies made up 15.2% of the core strategies, with strategies mainly related to asking questions, be they asking the other person to slow down (social 45), asking for correction (social 46), asking for help (social 48) or asking questions in the L2 (social 49). Not only did these learners ask questions but they also practiced the L2 with others (social 47). These strategies seemed to highlight the importance of social interaction in learning the L2 and pointed to learners being co-constructors of knowledge rather than mere recipients of knowledge (Firth, & Wagner, 2007; Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018).

Core strategies in turn consisted of 12.1% memory strategies, which included thinking of relationships between what learners already knew and new things they learnt in the L2 (memory 1), using new L2 words in a sentence (memory 2), and reviewing L2 lessons (memory 8). In addition, included in the core strategies were three affective strategies, which related to managing feelings (affective 39), self-motivation (affective 40), and rewarding self (affective 41). These affective strategies furthermore highlighted the active engagement of learners in the learning process. Compensation strategies were the least represented strategies, with only one forming part of the core strategies. This strategy related to the use of synonyms in learning the L2.

Table 6.5: Core strategies – strategies frequently used by all learners

SILL category	SILL item	All (n=137)
Memory 1	Think of relationships	3.6
Memory 2	Use new English words in sentence	3.9
Memory 8	Review English lessons often	3.7
Memory 9	Using location to remember English words	3.8
Cognitive 10	Say or write new English words several times	3.5

SILL category	SILL item	All (n=137)
Cognitive 11	Speak like native English speakers	3.7
Cognitive 12	Practicing the sounds of English words	3.8
Cognitive 13	Using English words I know in different ways	3.6
Cognitive 14	Starting conversations in English	3.5
Cognitive 15	Watching English language TV shows	4.1
Cognitive 16	Reading for pleasure in English	3.8
Cognitive 17	Writing notes, messages in English	4.1
Cognitive 18	Skim over an English passage	3.9
Cognitive 19	Words that are similar to own language	3.6
Cognitive 23	Summarise information	3.6
Compensation 29	Using a word that means the same thing	3.9
Metacognitive 30	Find as many ways as I can to use English	4.1
Metacognitive 31	Noticing English mistakes	4.2
Metacognitive 32	Paying attention when someone is speaking	4.2
Metacognitive 33	Finding out how to be a better English learner	4.3
Metacognitive 34	Have a schedule	3.6
Metacognitive 35	Look for people to talk to in English	3.8
Metacognitive 36	Look for opportunities to read in English	3.9
Metacognitive 37	Having clear goals for improving English skills	4.2
Metacognitive 38	Thinking about progress in learning English	4.3
Affective 39	Relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	3.7
Affective 40	Encourage self to speak English	4.1
Affective 41	Reward self	3.8
Social 45	Asking the other person to slow down	4.3
Social 46	Asking for correction when speaking	3.7
Social 47	Practicing English with other learners	3.6
Social 48	Asking for help from English speakers	3.7
Social 49	Asking questions in English	3.7
	Number of core strategies	33

6.4.4 Strategy type: plus strategies

Table 6.6 in turn shows that 26 of the strategies in the SILL were favoured more by high-performing learners than by low-performing learners. Of the 26 strategies used mostly by high-performing learners, 39% were cognitive strategies, 27% were metacognitive strategies, 15% were affective strategies, 15% were memory strategies, 4% were compensation strategies and no social strategies. The lack of social strategies among the plus strategies is an important result

to note, especially given that social strategies accounted for the majority of strategies used by low-performing learners.

Table 6.6: Plus strategies – strategies used more often by high-performing learners

SILL category	SILL item	Low (n=11)	High (n=31)
Memory 2	Use new English words in sentence	3.9	4.2
Memory 4	Making mental pictures	3.1	3.5
Memory 5	Using rhymes	3.0	3.6
Memory 6	Using flashcards	2.2	2.3
Cognitive 10	Say or write new English words several times	3.5	3.8
Cognitive 11	Speak like native English speakers	3.8	4.1
Cognitive 12	Practicing the sounds of English words	3.3	4.1
Cognitive 15	Watching English-language TV shows	3.5	4.5
Cognitive 16	Reading for pleasure in English	3.9	4.3
Cognitive 17	Writing notes, messages in English	3.7	4.3
Cognitive 18	Skim over an English passage	4.0	4.3
Cognitive 19	Words that are similar to own language	3.1	3.9
Cognitive 20	Find patterns in English	2.4	3.2
Cognitive 21	Dividing English words into parts	3.3	3.5
Compensation 25	Using gestures	2.9	3.5
Metacognitive 31	Noticing English mistakes	3.9	4.5
Metacognitive 33	Finding out how to be a better English learner	4.3	4.4
Metacognitive 34	Have a schedule	3.3	3.6
Metacognitive 35	Look for people to talk to in English	3.6	3.7
Metacognitive 36	Look for opportunities to read in English	3.3	4.2
Metacognitive 37	Having clear goals for improving English skills	3.9	4.6
Metacognitive 38	Thinking about progress in learning English	4.4	4.6
Affective 39	Relax whenever I feel afraid of using English	3.3	3.7
Affective 40	Encourage self to speak English	4.2	4.3
Affective 41	Reward self	3.5	3.8
Affective 43	Writing down my feelings	3.0	3.6
	Number of plus strategies	26	

Several findings are worth noting in understanding the activities of high-performing learners, as indicated in the table of plus strategies above (see Table 6.6). The results indicate that the types of strategy used by high-performing learners differed from those used by low-performing learners.

The findings show that high-performing learners in the current study put effort into learning the L2 by practising the language (cognitive 12). They did this by using new words in a sentence (memory 2), saying or writing new English words several times (cognitive 10), and writing notes and messages in English (cognitive 17). These learners were also able to condense the L2 into meaningful parts by trying to understand the L2 using L1 knowledge (cognitive 19), using rhymes (cognitive 20), dividing the L2 into meaningful parts (cognitive 21) and finding patterns of meaning (cognitive 21). Moreover, these learners immersed themselves in the L2 through watching English television shows (cognitive 15) and reading English material (cognitive 16) while also trying to speak like native English speakers (cognitive 11).

The results indicate that these learners can plan and organise their learning effectively, as indicated by their high use of metacognitive strategies. These learners have a learning schedule (metacognitive 24) and clear language goals (metacognitive 27). In addition to thinking about their progress (metacognitive 38) and enquiring about how they could be better L2 learners (metacognitive 33), they often looked for opportunities to use English (metacognitive 36), looked for people to talk to in English (metacognitive 35) and noticed their English mistakes (metacognitive 31).

High performers used four of the six affective strategies proactively to manage and regulate their feelings. They accomplished this through writing down their feelings, calming themselves down whenever they felt nervous, encouraging themselves and rewarding themselves when they achieved their language goals (affective 39, 40, 41 and 43 respectively). To aid effective recall of L2 information already learnt, high-performing learners made use of 44% of all SILL memory strategies. These specific strategies included the use of new words in a sentence (memory 2), making mental pictures (memory 4), using rhymes (memory 5) and flashcards (memory 6). High-performing learners used only one compensation strategy to compensate for missing L2 knowledge, which was the use of gestures (compensation 25). None of the social strategies were favoured more by high-performing learners than low-performing learners.

The foregoing results related to strategy clusters highlight the importance of not only studying the strategies used by high-performing learners but also considering the full spectrum of strategy practices among various learner groupings. If the current study explored only the strategies used by high-performing learners, a core component of L2 learning related to social interaction would have been omitted. It is thus imperative for various subgroupings to be explored to ensure achieving a holistic understanding of LLSs in L2 learning.

6.5 Factors Affecting Frequency of Strategy use by Second-language Learners

6.5.1 Effect of biographical information on strategy use

The section that follows explored whether any biographical factors affected the use of LLSs, with specific focus on the six categories specified in the SILL. Gender, grade, age and number of home languages spoken by learners were explored using the Mann-Whitney U test. The Mann-Whitney U test identified the null hypothesis so that there were no differences in the use of strategy categories (dependent variable) by the independent variables: gender (male and female), grade (8 and 9), age (12–14 and 15–18) and number of home languages (one and multiple). The alternative hypothesis was that there were differences in how the independent variables used strategy categories. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 6.7, and effect sizes were calculated where there were statistically significant results.

Table 6.7: Gender differences in SILL use

SILL category	Males (n=45)	Females (n=89)		
	Mdn	*Mdn*	*Z*	Effect size
Memory	3.1	3.6	-2.119*	-.18
Cognitive	3.3	3.8	-4.047**	-.35
Compensation	3.0	3.5	-2.671**	-.23
Metacognitive	3.9	4.3	-2.926**	-.25
Affective	3.3	3.8	-2.809**	-.24
Social	3.7	4.0	-1.643	Ns
Overall SILL	3.4	3.7	-3.708**	-.32
L2 score	5.0	6.0	-2.794**	-.27

Note. * p<.05, **p<.01, Ns = not significant

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test in Table 6.7 above indicates that significant differences were found between males and females in their reported use of LLSs, $U = 1215.5$, $z = -3.708$, $p < .01$, $r = .32$. Female learners also made significantly greater use of memory strategies, such as flashcards, than their male counterparts, $U = 1553.5$, $z = -2.12$, $p < .05$, $r = -.18$; cognitive strategies, $U = 1144.5$, $z = -4.05$, $p < .01$, $r = -.35$ and compensation strategies, $U = 1437.0$, $z = -2.67$, $p < .01$, $r = .25$.

The results further show that female learners used more metacognitive strategies, $U = 1382.5$, $z = -2.93$, $p < .01$, $r = .25$; affective strategies and $U = 1407.5$, $z = -2.81$, $p < .01$, $r = .24$ than male learners. Moreover, female learners scored significantly higher in the L2 than their male counterparts, $U = 797.5$, $z = -2.79$, $p < .01$, $r = .27$. This suggests that the high use of LLSs by

females may be linked to their higher performance in the L2. Therefore, these results imply that higher strategy use is related to higher L2 performance. Notably, males and females did not differ in their use of social strategies.

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test also indicated that learners who speak one L1 used more metacognitive strategies than those who speak two or more home languages, $U = 1476.0$, $z = -2.22$, $p < .05$, $r = .20$. No further differences were observed in the frequency of strategy use between learners with one or those with multiple L1s or between Grade 8 and Grade 9 learners, therefore learners of different age groups.

Given the differences observed in the performance of males and females in the various strategy categories, further analysis was conducted to locate these differences at individual item level, as shown in Table 6.8 below.

Table 6.8: The effect of gender on individual item use

SILL category	SILL item	*M* Females	*M* Males	*Sig*
Memory 6	Using flashcards	2.53	2.00	.029
Cognitive 10	Say or write new English words several times	3.73	3.00	.004
Cognitive 17	Writing notes, messages in English	4.37	3.51	.001
Cognitive 18	Skim over an English passage	4.09	3.64	.023
Cognitive 23	Summarise information	3.91	2.96	.000
Compensation 25	Using gestures	3.56	2.49	.000
Metacognitive 31	Noticing English mistakes	4.38	3.78	.005
Metacognitive 33	Finding out how to be a better English learner	4.40	4.07	.018
Metacognitive 35	Look for people to talk to in English	3.99	3.27	.002
Affective 43	Writing down my feelings	3.63	2.64	.000
Social 49	Asking questions in English	3.87	3.31	.017

Table 6.8 shows that at an individual item level, females reported to be using 11 strategies at a significantly higher frequency than their male counterparts. It is evident from Table 6.8 above that most of the strategies used significantly more by females were from the cognitive strategy category (saying or writing English words several times, writing notes in English, skimming over an English passage and summarising information) as well as from the metacognitive strategy category (noticing English mistakes, finding out about how to become a better English learner, looking for people to speak English with). This is consistent with the effect sizes noted

in Table 6.8 above, suggesting that the greatest difference between males and females may be located in how they use cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

6.5.2 Effect of home language on second-language learning and strategy use

The effect of L1 on L2 learning was explored by using learners' L1 and L2 scores as well as their self-rating on the four language skills. The results show that higher L1 scores were related to higher L2 scores, r_s (102) = .480, $p < .001$, R^2 = 23%. According to the guidelines provided by Field (2009), which state that correlation values of ± .1 represent a small effect, ± .3 represent a medium effect and ± .5 represent large effects, the current result represents a medium effect. This suggests that learners' L1 had a medium effect on L2 performance and that just under a quarter, 23%, of performance on the L2, was related to performance in the L1, as indicated by the coefficient of determination (R^2). This suggests that 23% of the variance in L2 performance can be accounted for by L1 performance. As argued by Griffiths (2013), this is a significant finding given the numerous factors that affect L2 learning such as motivation, gender, socio-economic status, identity and culture.

I also conducted the Mann-Whitney U test to dermine the likelihood that LLSs might be affected by learners' L1 language skills (reading, vocabulary and grammar, writing and speaking). For this part of the analysis, the mean values were used, thus averaging learners' ability before and during peer tutoring. Learners with mean scores between 3.5 – 5.0 were classified as having high language ability and learners with scores between 1.0 – 3.4 were classified as having poor language ability. The use of these parameters was informed by the parameters employed by Oxford (1990) in the interpretation of SILL scores, as previously discussed.

Table 6.9: The effect of home language skills on frequency of strategy use

SILL category	L1 reading	L1 vocab, & grammar	L1 writing	L1 speaking
	Z	*Z*	*Z*	*Z*
Overall SILL	-2.649**	-2.393*	-3.467**	-2.728**
Memory	-2.286*	-1.104	-2.452*	-1.094
Cognitive	-3.263**	-2.927**	-3.974**	-3.218**
Compensation	-1.316	-1.083	-1.255	-1.021
Metacognitive	-1.557	-1.835	-2.493*	-3.130**
Affective	-2.244*	-2.123*	-2.117*	-1.733
Social	-1.189	-1.231	-3.014**	-2.061*

Note. * p<.05, **p<.01

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test indicate that learners with a high L1 reading ability (*Mdn* = 3.7) used significantly more overall strategies than those with low L1 reading ability (*Mdn* = 3.4), $U(N_{high} = 107, N_{low} = 29) = 1053.0$, $z = -2.649$, $p < .01$, $r = .23$. The specific strategy categories where these differences were observed include memory, $U = 1122.0$, $z = -2.286$, $p < .5$, $r = .20$; cognitive, $U = 938.0$, $z = -3.263$, $p < .1$, $r = .28$ and affective, $U = 1130.0$, $z = -2.244$, $p < .5$, $r = .19$. Similarly, learners with high L1 vocabulary and grammar (*Mdn* = 3.7) used significantly more overall strategies than those with lower L1 vocabulary and grammar (*Mdn* = 3.5), $U(N_{high} = 100, N_{low} = 30) = 1067.0$, $z = -2.393$, $p < .05$, $r = .21$. More specifically, learners who reported high vocabulary and grammar used significantly more cognitive, $U = 971.0$, $z = -2.927$, $p < .1$, $r = .10$ and affective strategies, $U = 1116.5$, $z = -2.123$, $p < .5$, $r = .19$.

Learners with high L1 writing ability (*Mdn* = 3.7) used significantly more strategies than those with lower L1 writing ability (*Mdn* = 3.3), $U(N_{high} = 104, N_{low} = 26) = 756.5$, $z = -3.467$, $p < .01$, $r = .30$. Learners with higher L1 writing ability were also using more memory $U = 931.5$, $z = -2.452$, $p < .05$, $r = .22$, cognitive $U = 670.0$, $z = -3.974$, $p < .01$, $r = .35$, metacognitive $U = 924.5$, $z = -2.493$, $p < .05$, $r = .22$, affective $U = 989.0$, $z = -2.117$, $p < .05$, $r = .19$ and social $U = 836.0$, $z = -3.014$, $p < .05$, $r = .26$ strategies than learners with lower L1 writing ability. Learners with high L1 speaking ability (*Mdn* = 3.7) significantly used more strategies than learners with low L1 speaking ability (*Mdn* = 3.3), $U(N_{high} = 109, N_{low} = 19) = 628.5$, $z = -2.728$, $p < .05$, $r = .24$. This was also true for cognitive $U = 556.0$, $z = -3.218$, $p < .01$, $r = .28$, metacognitive $U = 569.5$, $z = -3.130$, $p < .01$, $r = .28$ and social strategies $U = 729.0$, $z = -2.061$, $p < .05$, $r = .18$.

The results reported above suggest that learners who report high L1 ability in the four language skills use more strategies than those who report low L1 ability. This suggests that L1 ability may be related to strategy use.

6.6 Peer Tutoring and Second-language Learning

6.6.1 Peer tutoring and language skills

The results that follow addressed the third research question of the current study, which explored the role of peer tutoring in L2 learning. Figure 6.3 below shows that most learners (64%) indicated that peer tutoring had improved their L2 learning while 5% said it had not and 1% was uncertain. This reported improvement was further supported by the results of a paired Wilcoxon signed rank test that compared learners' self-rated language ability before and during peer tutoring.

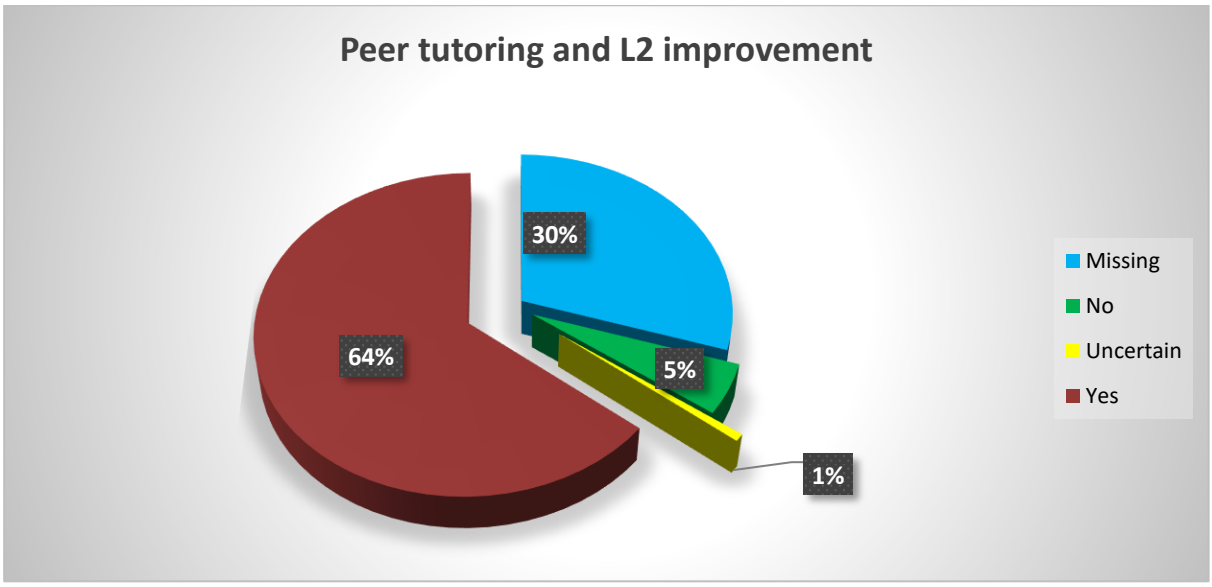

Figure 6.3: Learners' self-rated improvement of L2 due to peer tutoring

Figure 6.4 illustrates that learners rated their ability of the four language skills as higher during peer tutoring than before peer tutoring, suggesting that peer tutoring had a positive effect on learners' L2 learning. These results are consistent with those derived from other studies conducted with L2 learners, which also indicated academic gains in the case of learners participating in peer tutoring (Bowman-Perrott et al., 2016; Marieswari, & Prema, 2016; Jones et al., 2017).

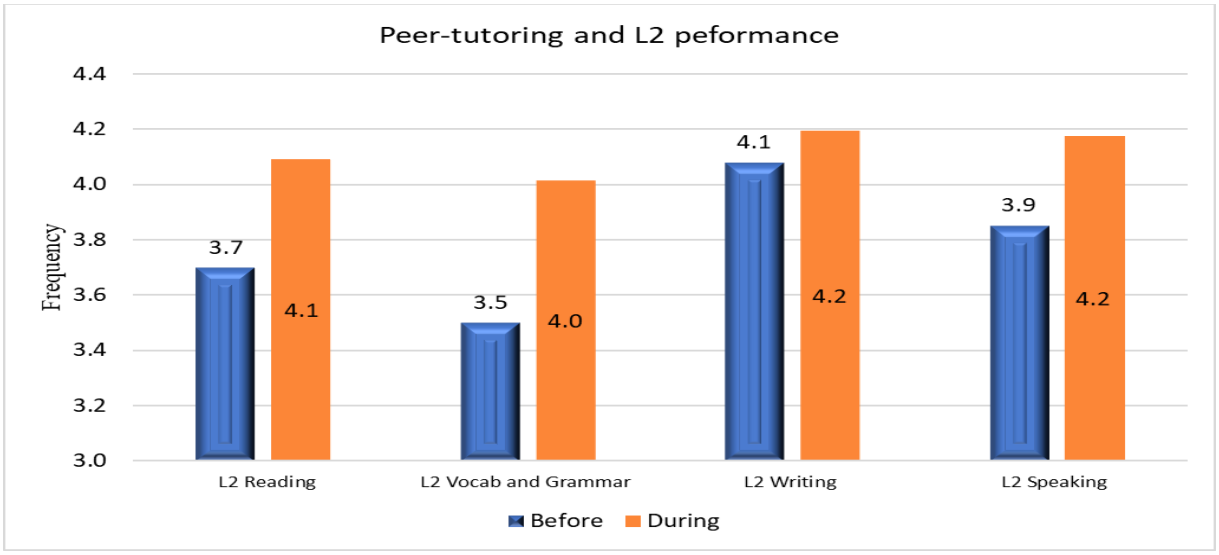

Figure 6.4: Self-rated performance before and during peer tutoring

A Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed to explore if the improvement during peer tutoring, as seen in Figure 6.4 above, was statistically significant or could be ascribed to chance. Table 6.10 below shows that learners' L2 reading ability was significantly higher during tutoring than before tutoring, $z = -4.84$, $p < .001$, $r = -0.42$. This was also true for L2 vocabulary and grammar,

z = -6.14, p < .001, r = -0.54 and L2 speaking, z = -4.01, p < .001, r = -0.35. The effect sizes for reading and speaking were medium, while high for vocabulary and grammar. However, no significant improvement was observed in L2 writing before (M = 4.1) and during tutoring (M = 4.2), z = -1.23, p > .05.

Table 6.10: Testing the effect of L2 learning before and during peer tutoring

L2 skills	Before		During			Wilcoxon signed rank test: sig
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	
L2 reading	3.65	1.09	4.09	1.04	-4.84	.000
L2 vocab and grammar	3.45	1.02	4.02	1.00	-6.14	.000
L2 writing	4.08	1.05	4.19	0.99	-1.23	.221
L2 speaking	3.85	1.02	4.18	0.91	-4.01	.000

Key: Vocab = Vocabulary

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter focused on analysing the quantitative data, thereby partially achieving the aims of the current mixed methods study. The results indicated that although metacognitive strategies were the most preferred strategy category among L2 learners in this study, cognitive strategies appeared to be the most effective for L2 learning. Results indicated that frequent use of cognitive strategies resulted in higher performance in English, as measured by the English scores and two of the four language skills (writing and speaking). Metacognitive strategies were found to affect L2 reading and vocabulary and grammar ability significantly. These results suggest that learners' ability to practice, receive and send messages, analyse, reason and create structure (cognitive strategies) as well their ability to plan, evaluate and centre their learning (metacognitive strategies) contributed to higher L2 performance. The results further indicate differences in the type of strategy used by high- and low-performing learners. While high-performing learners favoured cognitive, metacognitive, and affective strategies, low-performing learners preferred social, memory and compensation strategies. The strategies favoured by high-performing learners appeared to be geared towards greater self-regulation, while the strategies used by low-performing learners related significantly to social interaction, which is also essential for language-learning. These findings highlight the need to explore the full strategy repertoires of all learners by using the core strategies to assist with identifying the strategies that are most crucial for a given sample of learners.

In this chapter I further explored the use of the L1 in strategy usage, with the findings suggesting that the L1 affected L2 performance and strategy use. Higher L1 ability was generally associated with higher performance in the L2 and more frequent strategy usage. The last part of the analysis

explored the role of peer tutoring in L2 learning and the results indicated that peer tutoring was associated with higher L2 performance in the four language skills, with the majority of learners reporting that peer tutoring helped them to improve their L2. Peer tutoring improved L2 reading, vocabulary and grammar as well as speaking although it did not improve L2 writing.

The results of this chapter are salient in answering the questions posed in this study but achieves this only partially. The next chapter, which gives an exposition of the qualitative results, illuminates some of the findings in the current chapter, thus providing a more in-depth understanding of LLSs and L2 learning by learners participating in peer tutoring in the South African context. In keeping with the mixed methods analysis outlined in Chapter Five, the results of the current and the subsequent chapters were integrated during the discussion in Chapter Eight.

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Chapter Seven
Qualitative Data Analysis

7.1 Introduction

Chapter Seven inductively explores the qualitative data derived from the open-ended questionnaires, FGDs and nonparticipant observations using a CGT approach to data analysis, as described by Charmaz (2006). I used this approach for the development of codes and categories to establish the patterns in LLS usage and the factors that influenced their use. The outcome of an examination of the data derived from the FGDs and open-ended questionnaires, while taking into consideration the data from the observational notes, supports the results of the quantitative analysis presented in Chapter Six. The learners in the current study reported high and frequent use of LLSs, similar to those measured by the SILL.

Of key importance to this study were the strategies that emerged which are unique to the current sample of learners. Not only did the qualitative findings show frequent and varied LLS usage, but also indicated various strategies that had not been included in current strategy inventories. Chapter Seven follows a pattern that resembles the previous chapter as themes that emerged from the data were discussed in the same way as the questions that guided this study. The questions which guided this study were:

1. What are the conventional and indigenous language-learning strategies used by English L2 learners engaged in peer tutoring initiatives?
2. What are the sociocultural factors (such as motivation, identity and L1 competence) that could be associated with L2 learning and how do these factors affect language-learning strategy use?
3. What role does peer tutoring play in language-learning and LLS usage?

7.2 Results

A total of 118 learners completed the open-ended questions while a total of 44 learners participated in the FGDs. Figure 7.1 below indicates the themes that emerged from the data, which guide the presentation of the results. Data that emerged from the open-ended questionnaires, FGDs and nonparticipant observations were utilised for the formulation of the themes that follow. To show a distinction between the three data sets, data from the open-ended questionnaires are given the suffix OEQ (brown font) and data emerging from the FGDs are reported as FGD (purple font). Data from the nonparticipant observations are reported as (Obs)

using a blue font or in a think box. In this chapter only the results are presented, with the literature control being conducted in Chapter Eight. It is important to note that some of the learners, especially those in cross-age tutoring programmes, refer to their tutors as teachers. Thus, any reference to a teacher when citing peer tutoring interactions or programmes should be understood as referring to a tutor.

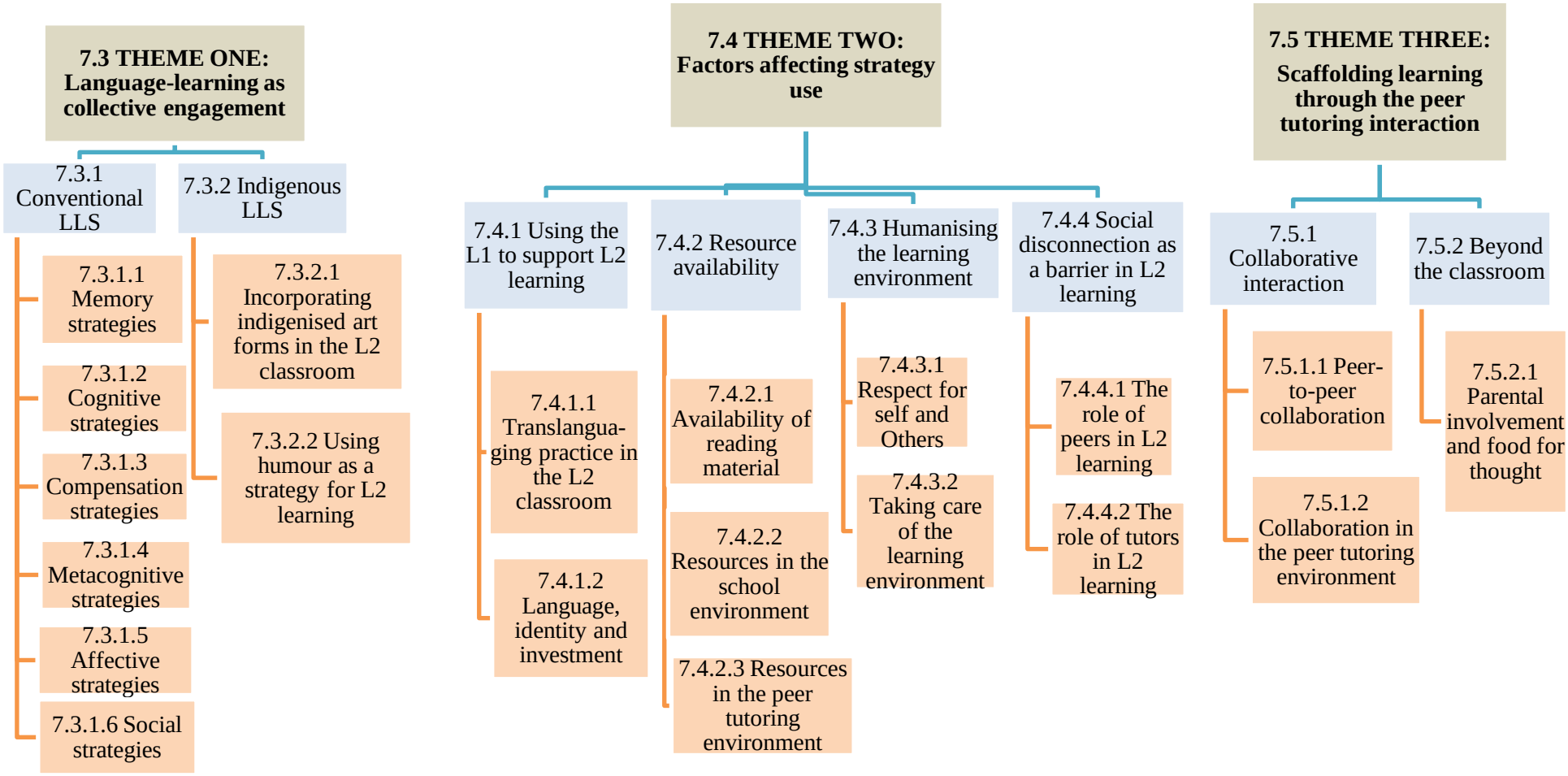

Figure 7.1: Themes emerging from the qualitative data

7.3 Theme One: Language-learning Strategies as Collective Engagement

The first theme identified in the data focused on the collective engagement that occurs as learners utilised a plethora of LLSs. This theme is supported by two categories, namely conventional strategies and indigenous strategies. As indicated in Chapter One, conventional strategies refer to those strategies that are identified in the SILL, which I conceptualised as strategies originating from the Global North as they are based on the Western understanding of L2 learning. Indigenous strategies refer to those strategies that learners report to be using yet are not conventionally recognised as strategies for L2 learning in the Global North. The subcategories that support the conventional strategies include memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. The strategies that support the indigenous strategies include art (dance, music and drama) and humour.

7.3.1 Category 1: Conventional language-learning strategies through social engagement

Learners in this study reported using a combination of strategies. Although learners seem to be able to apply various strategies on their own, there is an indication that most learners tend to apply strategies through collective engagement with other learners and/or those around them. To support category one, six subcategories which correspond with Oxford's (1990) strategies relating to the SILL were identified in the data. This confirms what was found in the quantitative data analysis, namely that learners in this study frequently used all the strategies in the SILL. The qualitative data thus expand the quantitative results by suggesting that the use of the various strategies occurs within the context of social engagement.

7.3.1.1 Subcategory 1a: Memory strategies

Learners in this study indicated the use of a number of memory strategies for learning the L2. The use of new English words in a sentence and physically acting out these new words was found to be a common memory strategy among the learners. Although learners indicated that they "use words to make sentences so that the word, you can understand it easily" (OEQ) they also indicated that they would like assistance in this area: "I wish I had assistance that will help me know new words and know how to use them most of the time" (OEQ). Not only do learners find physically acting out new English words to be beneficial for them in learning English, they also expect their teachers to do the same to ensure understanding: "she [referring to teacher] must make actions or examples so that we can understand" (OEQ).

Another strategy that emerged from the data was the use of flash cards: "We also use flash cards because flash cards are interesting, we can learn more, many things, using these cards" (FGD). In using these flash cards, learners indicated that they came together in small groups and used these cards to learn new English words. These are not formal peer tutoring groups, and could therefore refer to a group of friends or classmates at school. Learners also indicated that reviewing English lessons is also a helpful memory strategy for them: "We must repeat what we have learnt in school" (OEQ). The constant use of "we" suggests that learners understand these strategies to operate through engagement with those around them.

7.3.1.2 Subcategory 1b: Cognitive strategies

Learners in this study reported frequent use of cognitive strategies in learning English. A common cognitive strategy used by learners was practicing the sound of English words, "... practice English every day when we speak" (OEQ) and repetition of new L2 words. It appears that learners would repeatedly practice the sounds of English words on their own first and if they encountered difficulty, they turned to others for assistance, as indicated in this extract: "I like learning new things by myself, so I sit alone for a while just practising but whenever, or wherever I don't understand, I ask my English teacher" (OEQ). Learners also seem to value practicing the sound of new English words in a group, as relayed in the following extract: "I practice with my group so they can help me do better. I don't mostly like talking in classroom most of the times" (OEQ). Although this learner indicated that she disliked talking in class, she seemed to appreciate the value of practicing the sounds of English words with other learners. Not only do learners practice, but they do so in a group, which suggests the added value they may be attaching to practicing within the group context.

Reading for pleasure was another cognitive strategy that was commonly reported by learners in this study. The reading for pleasure is encapsulated in the following verbatim extract: "I always try to learn new words and read books for pleasure" (OEQ). Although reading was at times done for pleasure, as in the aforementioned extract, learners often reported the association between reading and vocabulary, as is reflected in the following extract: "… have extra time for reading so that you can improve your English words or vocabulary" (OEQ). Reading was either done alone or with others in small groups, as indicated when one learner stated: "I read with my friends" (OEQ). In the peer tutoring environment specifically learners indicated the following: "We do reading sessions on Saturday; they arrange us in groups, then we read" (OEQ). In my observation of these reading sessions during peer tutoring I noted that learners were required to read aloud to the group and each learner took a turn to read a section of the material they had been given. If a learner struggled with pronouncing a word, the other learners in the group assisted. Learners would often stop and ask questions regarding terms or phrases

they did not understand, and the group would offer explanations. The use of reading as a cognitive strategy appeared to be enhanced by group reading and by the group discussions that regularly ensued after the group reading. This is moreover evident from the following verbatim extract: "Me and my friends, we often go to the library and take novels and we read. We discuss the novels" (FGD). Group reading also seems to assist learners in writing, as indicated in the following extract: "Me and my friends at school, they give us the small book reader and there are definition of words and those words are new, so we read those words and understand it. We use them in writing essays" (FGD). Moreover, learners reported the following: "... because we as peers, we communicate in English by reading and asking one another questions" (OEQ). These extracts suggest that learners not only appreciated reading on their own but that they also valued collective reading and asking each other questions as they read. Doing so subsequently helped them with their essay writing.

Watching English-language television programmes and movies was also reported as a strategy for learning English, as shown in this extract: "When you are watching English movies, that can help you to learn" (OEQ). An important finding in this study was that English learning was not only linked to watching English television programmes, but also to watching shows in the learners' home language or any other language, provided the subtitles are in English, as revealed in the following extract: "... watching TV shows; they speak with home language and they write the English words. We read the subtitles" (FGD). In both instances, it would appear that learning a L2 cannot be divorced from the learners' home language as there seems to be a constant link between the L1 and the L2.

Writing in English was also reported as a strategy commonly used by learners in learning the L2. Learners reported that they "write notes to understand what is happening" (OEQ). While learners indicated using writing in English as a strategy, they also indicated that they had difficulty with writing in English. This is illustrated by learners saying " ... writing essays and spellings. I can't write essays so I am desperate for getting help for that" (OEQ). Learners seemed to believe that receiving assistance with writing might improve their English learning: "I get extra classes of reading and writing and more of my vocabulary so that I can even improve more in English" (OEQ).

Other cognitive strategies reported by learners include dividing new or difficult L2 words into syllables: "If I don't know how to read or pronounce a word like institution, I break it down into insti-tu-tion" (FGD). Moreover, learners expressed the use of multiple strategies within a single linguistic encounter: "I break it down into three letters and then I pronounce it and I guess its meaning and then I go back to it" (FGD). This implies that learners in this study could apply their strategy repertoires in such a manner that it allowed them to reach their language goals by

breaking down the word (cognitive strategy), and making guesses (compensation strategy). This may highlight the value of having a variety of strategies which learners can exploit to ensure maximum understanding of and engagement in the L2.

Learners also expressed that they played "with words to make funny sentences" (OEQ), suggesting the use of L2 in different ways to gain greater understanding. Instead of learners' trying to talk like native English speakers, as suggested in the SILL, learners expressed that they tried to imitate the accents of other countries to help them with communication, "... speaking English with an accent like people in America and other countries" (OEQ). Interestingly, it was the non-native English accents, such as African-American and Nigerian accents, that learners attempted to use in their communication during peer tutoring. This was observed in the peer tutoring sessions with a learner indicating that they learn "Snagerian" (FGD) at school as they are taught English by a Nigerian teacher, and have thus learnt to pronounce words with a Nigerian accent and have also picked up Nigerian words.

7.3.1.3 Subcategory 1c: Compensation strategies

Learners in this study reported the use of various compensation strategies related to speaking. Learners reported making up words or using gestures when they did not know the correct English words. Highlighting my observation about using gestures, a learner stated they "use action to say what you want to say" (OEQ).

A number of the compensation strategies used by learners when they encountered speaking difficulties seemed to suggest an avoidance approach to L2 learning, such as: "I say let's drop it" (FGD). "I just stop talking and think because I can't just put any word. I want the word that I want so I'll wait until it comes to my mind. Because most often people, they will use words that they didn't want to use. Like someone will say 'like' and then it breaks the whole thing" (FGD). If they are completely avoiding the difficult L2 word or phrase, learners indicated that they "change the topic" (FGD).

However, in dealing with difficulties relating to reading, learners indicated a more active approach to L2 learning such as "continue to read the way I understand it" (FGD). Learners also indicated that they "write the words down" (OEQ). These two extracts indicate that learners did not look up every new word they encountered while reading, which suggests that learners might be guessing as they read. A combination of making guesses and not looking up every word relates to learners' high tolerance for ambiguity (Griffiths, 2013).

7.3.1.4 Subcategory 1d: Metacognitive strategies

The most frequent metacognitive strategies used by learners relate to creating as many opportunities as possible to use the L2. Learners expressed that they created opportunities to use the L2 by "talking English in a group" (OEQ) and "I try to take part and debate with other learners on something we disagree on and try to make everyone welcome by competing on what we are debating on" (OEQ). By engaging in these self-created debating opportunities learners were able to use the L2, and at the same time get to listen to their peers using the L2. This active engagement seems to be a resource that learners use for L2 learning and for obtaining feedback, as encapsulated in the following excerpt: "... to challenge the teacher during teaching and to debate with the teacher. In order to make her/him to correct you if you are wrong" (OEQ). This suggests that learners do not engage in debates mindlessly, merely for the sake of arguing, but that this engagement facilitates opportunities for further L2 learning.

Learners also expressed that they created opportunities for reading by saying: "I go to the library and take a book and read" (OEQ) and "Reading books helps me to learn English much more" (FGD). Learners expressed that they often read with their friends or in groups. There was resounding support for the above-mentioned statements by a learner, who said: "I sit with friends in a group of six and read some stories for each other. And we help each other to pronounce words correctly" (OEQ). This suggests that even in creating reading opportunities, learners preferred collective reading rather than individual reading. In creating opportunities for more reading, learners endeavoured to obtain "more interesting book[s] and sometimes read funny books" (OEQ). This suggests that the type of reading material available to learners may or may not aid in creating more reading opportunities. Reading material that is deemed interesting or funny might help learners to create more reading opportunities.

Learners also ensured that they focused when someone was speaking by listening to the speaker attentively. The following verbatim quotation from an OEQ illustrates this point: "I make sure that I pay attention of what is being said by the teacher" (OEQ). Paying attention was not only reserved for the teacher, but also applied to tutors and peers: "I listen carefully to the teacher and learners during the English period" (OEQ). By paying attention, learners are able to learn new words and new ways of using the L2. The following excerpt confirms this point: "When we speak English in a group and they speak [a] new word and I don't understand it I'll ask and they will explain it to me" (FDG). Paying attention was closely linked to listening, which may be further associated with the oral tradition prevalent mostly in indigenous communities (Kincheloe, & Steinberg, 2014). Learners in this study indicated that they used listening as a strategy for L2 learning, as illustrated in the following excerpts: "I listen carefully to the teacher and learners during the English period" (OEQ), "You listen to people who can speak English"

(FGD), "I like to listen(ing) to people all the time" (OEQ) and "... because when you hear someone speak English fluently, you also want to speak English like them (FGD). This suggests that teachers, tutors and peers who speak English act as a resource for learners in learning the L2. As learners engaged in active listening, they learnt how to pronounce words and learnt new words through this strategy. Although learners indicated the use of listening as a strategy for L2 learning, there was also an indication that they needed help with this strategy, "I wish I get help with my listening skills so I can enjoy listening to someone when he's talking English" (OEQ).

The results of this study also indicate that learners had very clear goals for improving their L2 skills. "I believe in myself with English by setting goals because when I set goals I live up to them; I do whatever I do according to what I have set in my goals" (OEQ). Moreover, these goals go beyond just improving their English skills as they are related to the goals they had set for themselves beyond the classroom, such as going for job interviews one day. The following statement by another learner further emphasised this point: "When I speak English it can help me achieve my goals. When there is an interview, I need a job, I speak English" (FGD). Learners' goal setting for L2 learning may be linked to agency and how this motivated learners to reach their linguistic goals.

7.3.1.5 Subcategory 1e: Affective strategies

The affective strategies reported by learners in the current study appear to be less about the individual, and more about the collective. Instead of learners' reporting how they encouraged themselves as individuals, they indicated the following: "Me and my friends, we encourage each other to speak English every time" (OEQ).

Although there is an indication that learners in this study experienced nervousness or fear in using the L2, no affective strategies were indicated as to how they resolved these feelings. The results suggest that feelings of nervousness, being tense or being afraid are associated with a sense of shame. This is illustrated in the following extract: "Our tutors always encourage us to speak English in front of everyone so that you can be able to speak English without being ashamed" (OEQ). These feelings of shame appear to be a hindrance in learning the L2, as a learner stated that: "When some people laugh at you, you feel ashamed and you never answer in the classroom" (OEQ). The limited affective strategies used by learners might suggest a lack of awareness of such strategies or might indicate that they used alternative approaches to manage their feelings.

7.3.1.6 Subcategory 1f: Social strategies

Learners reported using almost all the social strategies reported in the SILL. However, unlike the social strategies reported in the SILL, learners in this study did not rely on English speakers for help and correction. Instead learners in this study depended on each other for assistance and correction. Learners reported that they obtained help by "asking other learners if I don't understand" (OEQ). Help sought from other learners was done in the L2, "By asking anything in English. That's what helps to learn English better" (OEQ). Not only did learners ask questions and ask for help in English but they also responded in English. From the learners' perspective: "By asking [for] help (to) [from] the tutors in English and then answer back in English" (OEQ).

The results of this study suggest that the correction of mistakes seems to be a collective activity, with learners giving and receiving correction from peers. Learners solicited correction from their peers, "I ask them [friends] to correct my mistakes" (OEQ) and also offered their peers correction, "... they, ok, we speak English together. And they correct you if you say a mistake" (FGD), "If someone said something wrong, we do not laugh, we correct him/her" (OEQ), and "... correct people's mistakes and encourage them to do better next time" (OEQ). Correction of mistakes seemed to be valued by learners, as one stated: "I enjoy being corrected because I see that all the people who are correcting me (they) are concerned about me and my education" (OEQ). Moreover, learners seemed to learn through this process of giving and receiving correction: "... when we help each other – making a mistake and having someone to help you" (FDG).

Another strategy often reported by learners is asking the speaker to slow down so they could understand what was being said: "I ask the teacher to take it slow when he talks" (OEQ). Learners also practiced with their peers: "I practice with my group so they can help me do better" (OEQ) and "... by reading our books in groups and practice it every day" (OEQ). Although learners did not report learning about the English culture, they indicated that they would like to learn about it: "... knowing more about English culture" (OEQ).

Think box 7.1: Learners co-constructing knowledge through collective engagement

One observation I conducted took place during a reading comprehension exercise. Learners were given reading material and had to answer questions regarding the story given. What I noticed was that learners preferred to read in groups instead of reading on their own even though they all had the reading material. One of the learners would read aloud (loud enough for the learners around their table to hear but soft enough not to disturb the other learners around them) to the other learners. The other learners would follow in their reading material. When a learner struggled to pronounce a word, the other learners would jump in to assist and the self-appointed reader would repeat the word and continue to read.

The synergy observed among learners was impressive given that there were no rules established prior to the reading task as to how they would handle difficulties regarding the task. In answering the questions, learners debated the answers and commonly sought to reach consensus in deciding on an answer. In instances where there were varying views as to the answer, they would consult other learners from other tables. If they were still not convinced of the answer given by the other learners, they would then turn to the tutor to ask for clarity.

7.3.2 Category 2: Indigenous language-learning strategies

The results of this study suggest that learners utilised conventional strategies, as assessed through the SILL, and in addition used strategies which are uniquely indigenous. These strategies were observed in some of the peer tutoring programmes and included dance, music and drama. In this study, dance, music, poetry and drama are classified as indigenous strategies because they were expressed in a uniquely African style. The dances that were observed incorporated hip-pop, gum-boot dancing, ukugiya (a Zulu dance), setapa (a Tswana dance) and xibelani (a Tsonga dance), which are uniquely African. Drama included unique African storytelling narratives and praise poetry. The indigenous LLSs are supported by two subcategories, namely incorporating indigenised art forms in the L2 classroom and using humour as a strategy for language-learning. According to Kincheloe and Steinberg (2014), humour is a nuanced art form commonly used by indigenous people as a strategy for coping with oppressive systems.

In this study, humour was found to be an effective indigenous strategy for L2 learning in the current study. It assisted learners with approaching the L2 learning environment with a degree of humour. Humour was classified as an indigenous strategy as it plays a vital role in African literature and has been used by Africa's leading literary scholars such as Chinua Achebe, Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o, Wole Soyinka, Ayi Kwei Armah and Ola Rotimi (Adjei, 2015). According to Adjei (2015), these African writers often use humour to downplay the gravity of the issues they write about, such as politics and misfortune. This is further affirmed by Kincheloe and Steinberg

(2014), who contend that humour is a form of art used for managing oppressive systems. Humour therefore cannot be divorced from the fabric of African life, hence the classification as an indigenous strategy.

7.3.2.1 Subcategory 2a: Incorporating indigenised art forms in the second-language classroom

Learners in this study expressed the use of various art forms such as poetry, music and dance to aid them with L2 learning. Learners indicated that the incorporation of multimodal methods in the L2 classroom helped them to enjoy learning the L2: "... by doing monologue, speeches, poems, dramas, (and) etc. Because it keeps [helps] us to enjoy more" (OEQ). Learners not only performed poetry as a strategy for language-learning, as suggested by the aforementioned extract, but they also read and wrote poetry. This is indicated in these extracts: "... by reading books, poems, short stories, novels and dialogues" (OEQ) and "I communicate in English with everyone around me and write poems" (OEQ). The data also suggested that the use of poetry as a strategy for language-learning was not done in an individualistic manner, but was perceived as a collective activity, as identified by the following extract: "We do debate, poems and unprepared speech and if someone said something wrong, we do not laugh, we correct him/her" (OEQ). When asked what assistance they received during peer tutoring to help them with L2 learning, learners indicated that they received help with poems and that that helped them to understand English better, as indicated by: "I get assistance in the poems and speech that helps me to learn English better [in] lessons and gain more language towards the lessons" (OEQ).

Music is another art form that emerged as a language strategy commonly used by learners. Music was used as a strategy for L2 learning and was also perceived to motivate L2 learning. When asked what motivated learners to learning the L2 one learner indicated "when I listen to English music" (FGD). In the current study there is also an indication that learners collectively use music as a L2 learning strategy: "My friends help me make English easy because every time we sing, we sing English songs" (FGD). This relates to the interactional nature of L2 learning. Music was shown to assist learners with writing tasks in the L2 classroom: "Our teacher make[s] it fun by playing music while writing" (OEQ). This may be related to the calming effect that the music might have had on learners.

Learners in this study also expressed the use of drama and word games as an effective strategy for L2 learning. Drama as a strategy was closely linked to the learners' ability to express themselves using gestures or "actions and examples" (OEQ). This ability helped to compensate for any shortcomings experienced while communicating in the L2. As learners played word games collectively they were able to improve their vocabulary as well as their writing, as

expressed in the following excerpt: "When your classmates ... for example, someone will say, like personification, we do words using that personification and we do words using that sentence. We play games; sometimes the teacher will say: 'Nomhle,[3] come spell this word' and then he would call someone to write it, for example, I'll say information. 'Someone come and write that information'" (FGD). The results also indicate that learners use a variety of word games to help them with L2 learning, "... make more twisters and memes, make tongue twisters, make more puzzles or games, play spelling bees" (OEQ). This showed initiative on the part of those learners and demonstrated that they used specifically indigenised strategies to plan and manage their L2 learning.

Another finding in this study relates to the use of the spelling bee, which is an initiative of the DBE (2011) but has its origins in the United States of America. In this programme Grades 4 to 6 learners compete in the National Spelling Bee championships, which require them to spell words orally. The learners in the current study might have participated or were exposed to this language game in prior grades. Learners expressed how they had collectively incorporated this strategy in the learning environment as follows: "We write spellings and then we match our marks, to see a queen or king of spelling for the week" (OEQ). These spelling bees seemed to be of great help to learners, with a number of them suggesting that they should be incorporated into their peer tutoring programmes: "I wish they tell(s) us to do debate, speech and spelling test too" (OEQ), "... spelling bee, to help me understand English/spelling words more easily" (OEQ) and "... spelling bee often inspires me but it's unfortunate we don't do spelling bees here" (FGD). Learners in the focus group discussions expressed that the spelling bees motivated them to learn English as they forced them to look up words and their meanings, by doing so expanding their vocabulary and use of the L2.

Think box 7.2: Striking a balance between the L1 and L2

One of the observations I conducted occurred during a spelling test. The tutor would dictate a word for learners to spell and they would in turn write down the word in their workbooks. What I found interesting was that when a learner asked the tutor to repeat a word, other learners would jump in and dictate the word back to the learner who requested this repetition. The learner repeating the word would offer various colloquial pronunciations and provide the L1 equivalent of the word if the learner who was asking appeared to be struggling. This prompted the tutor to include colloquial pronunciations and L1 equivalents when dictating the rest of the words. This strategy served to scaffold spelling as fewer learners requested a repetition of words. This highlights how a universal strategy for language learning can be appropriated into a local context.

[3] Not the person's real name.

Storytelling also emerged as a strategy used by learners in learning the L2. In this study learners indicated that they used it to advance their L2 skills. Storytelling in this study was limited to shows that learners had watched and books they had read, which they then discussed with others, "... storytelling, maybe you are watching a show, then you tell other people" (FGD). The use of storytelling as a strategy for L2 learning did not appear to be used frequently by learners in the current study. This might suggest that storytelling as a type of indigenous medium, which has been used in most African communities to transmit folktales, myths and history (Mushengyezi, 2003), may be waning or that learners may not be aware of the value of storytelling in L2 learning.

7.3.2.2 Subcategory 2b: Using humour as a strategy for language-learning

The findings from the current study suggest that learners used humour as a strategy for learning the L2. Learners expressed that that they often "make jokes when learning English and ask unnecessary questions regarding English which makes our English teacher smile and laugh" (OEQ) and "I play around with words and try to think of funny way I could pronounce them, that way I [am] able to remember the words easily and can improve my vocabulary, somehow. Most of the time I write speeches (for pleasure) using the words" (OEQ). These excerpts illustrate how learners used humour to create a warm environment that maximised L2 learning. It is clear from these excerpts that the use of humour has the potential to enrich learners' vocabulary as well as their writing and communication skills.

Humour not only directly affected L2 learning by allowing learners to engage in the language humorously, it also assisted learners to overcome their L2 difficulties. The findings of the current study suggest that the use of humour allowed learners to incorporate English into their existing linguistic repertoires without the stigma associated with English correctness. Some of their self-explanations are authenticated by the following extracts: "I make jokes in English and try to speak broken English just for fun" (OEQ) and "by making little jokes so that I can easily understand my SL [second language]" (OEQ). As learners humorously engaged in what they termed "broken English" they created a safe space for themselves to develop their L2 skills without subjecting themselves to trying to achieve purist standards of English. The use of humour may build learners' confidence in using the L2, and thus address the affective feelings that may hinder L2 learning.

Not only did learners utilise humour as a strategy for L2 learning but they expected teachers and tutors also to use humour to maximise L2 learning. "Your teacher must not be teaching while siting; she must make actions or examples so that we can understand and she must make some jokes so that we can enjoy" (OEQ). This illustrates that learners see the value of humour

and how it can help them improve their L2 learning. As one learner laments: "I wish they could manage to come up with fun activities which accommodate learning at the same time" (OEQ). These excerpts show that learners recognised that fun and learning are intertwined.

7.4 Theme Two: Factors Affecting Second-language Learning and Strategy Use

The second theme that emerged from the data centred on the various factors that affect L2 learning and strategy usage. This theme is supported by four categories, namely using the home language to support L2 learning; resource availability; humanising the learning environment; and overcoming social disconnection as a barrier to L2 learning.

7.4.1 Category 1: Using the home language to support second language-learning

The use of a home language to support L2 learning is supported by two subcategories. The first subcategory relates to the pedagogical strategy of translanguaging, which allows learners to use their complete linguistic repertoires in L2 learning. The second subcategory concerns the relationship between language, identity and investment.

7.4.1.1 Subcategory 3a: Translanguaging practice in the L2 classroom

The findings of this study indicate that learners consistently utilise indigenous languages in their interaction with their peers, tutors and teachers. The practice of translanguaging was normalised by learners, as captured in the following excerpt: "We mix our home language and English" (OEQ). This use of translanguaging contravenes the provisions that the various peer tutoring programmes have put in place, which encourage that all interactions should be conducted in English. Learners indicated that if they encountered difficulty in speaking English, they resorted to their home language: "You speak in your own language" (FGD) and "When I run out of words, let's say I am speaking English, I speak [in the] vernacular" (FGD). This strategy of resorting to the L1 ensures that communication does not stop and may be reflective of learners' translingual identity, which allows them to use all their linguistic resources seamlessly within a single linguistic encounter.

Learners furthermore indicated that they not only benefitted from translanguaging, but that they also gained when the teacher or tutor explained concepts using the learners' L1. Evidence in support of this statement is shown in the following verbatim extracts: "Because if you don't understand at school, the teacher is trying to express her/himself in your home language" (OEQ) and "The tutors, they are able to explain our ... they are able to explain words from our home language to English" (FGD). From these excerpts, it seems clear that learning the L2 would be

an arduous task for these learners without the use of the L1. Understanding of concepts was made possible through explanations conducted in the learners' L1, thus allowing these learners to draw from their rich L1 knowledge to construct meaning in the L2. This argument is further supported by the following observational notes:

Observational notes 24 July 2019
Tutor encourages learners to communicate in English. If learners use the vernacular, they are chased out of the class. A learner is asked to stand in front of the class and answer why they are speaking in the vernacular. The learner doesn't answer. Learners are given an exercise to complete. Tutor is explaining the exercise in English and it is evident that learners do not understand what the tutor is saying. The tutor then explains in the vernacular [a mixture of Setswana. Sesotho and IsiZulu] and learners seem to understand what they need to do. They start taking down notes and engaging with each other. Learners are chatting among themselves and complaining that they are being forced to speak English. Some say that they are Tswanas and should be allowed to speak their home language. (Obs).

The use of the L1 for meaning construction in the L2 not only takes place during social interaction but occurs as learners process information. There is evidence to suggest that the learners in this study used the L1 for communication and for higher mental thoughts: "I stop and then think and think in my home language" (FGD) and "... sometimes translate with my home language" (OEQ). The use of the L1 for processing thought suggests the need to strengthen learners' L1 so that it can be utilised effectively for L2 learning.

7.4.1.2 Subcategory 3b: Language and identity

In the context of South Africa, where English is used as LoLT in most schools, learners are compelled to learn English in order to function effectively in the school system. As such a bi/multilingual approach in the classroom is a given, especially with the sample group used in this study. As learners indicated, "We speak English when it's English period and speak IsiZulu when in home language period" (OEQ) and "... when I speak English all the time, except of [for] when it's home language; when it's home language, [then] I speak my language and when it's English, I speak English" (FGD).

Although learners generally saw translanguaging as a valuable pedagogic strategy for learning the L2, the data also suggest that this practice was not appreciated by all learners. One learner commented: "I wish we should not talk in our home language during tutoring sessions" (OEQ). This sentiment was expressed even towards teachers and tutors, with learners stating the

following: "... that when they teach us any subjects, they should speak in English except for my home language [lessons]" (OEQ).

On further analysis, it appears that learners' adversarial stance against translanguaging was not based on the actual practice, but rather on their understanding of the languages used. This is expressed in the following excerpt: "It [the classroom] has a lot of people who tend to speak different languages and therefore there are people who can't hear or understand what the person is saying, so the better language to speak is English" (OEQ). Moreover, in the excerpt below the learner described the use of IsiZulu in the classroom as a barrier to understanding as she was not fluent in the language: "When a teacher, usually in our school teachers often explain using their home languages, so I find it difficult to understand what they are saying. Or the IsiZulu one, because it's common, and sometimes they use deep words and though we understand the home language, we need English so that we can write something. Sometimes they translate it to us; sometimes they use other languages besides Xitsonga" (FGD).

Further probing what learners did when they encountered situations where the language of the classroom or tutoring was not the language in which they were proficient, they expressed the following: "We ask them to explain again, and ask another teacher that understand[s] better or ask the IsiZulu-speaking people what she was saying" (FGD). This accentuates the role of the collective in meaning-making, with peers perceived to be a resource for L2 learning. This quotation also emphasises the need to ensure that learners are not incapacitated by the diverse linguistic practices in the cultural environment (classroom and peer tutoring).

The apparent resistance to translingual practices also appeared to have its roots in learners' desire to see their languages elevated to equal status as that of English. There is a sense of possible resentment among these learners about using English. Learners expressed their indignation at the status afforded the English language and went even further, suggesting the unfairness of having to write exams in a language that was not their own. This is succinctly expressed in the discussion between learners during a FGD:

> "Like English, the outsiders, when they come this side, the language they speak is English. There is no other language they can speak" (FGD).
>
> "They must learn Sesotho, not English only! English is for white people. English is ... er, er ... is their mother tongue. They must learn other people's languages. Is like we are forced to learn English. Yes, that is why they pass tests. They set exam papers in their own home language" (FGD).

> "A ke tlo boa ka English if we are both black [I will not speak in English if we are both black] (FGD). Maybe o kona o bowa English; a ke tlo bowa ka English because it is not our mother tongue [Maybe you can speak English; I will not speak to you in English because it is not our mother tongue"] (FGD).
>
> "If we are both black, you cannot speak to me in English" (FGD).

In the extract above learners appear to disown the English language by making a distinction between "their mother tongue" (FGD) and "not our mother tongue" (FGD). Although repudiating the English language, learners still used English and their L1 in expressing themselves. This was despite the provision at the beginning of the FGD that they could express their views in the language they felt most comfortable with. This anomaly might suggest identity conflict, whereby learners accepted their translingual identities yet refused to have someone else impose a language identity on them. This might be an indication of their need to be perceived as translingual in an environment which seemed to advocate a monolingual identity. This also relates to the idea of investment, whereby learners' investment in a L2 is contingent on power relations. Linguistic positions that typecast learners as inadequate and incapable cause resistance to L2 learning, resulting in learners' being unwilling to invest in such practices.

Investment in L2 learning seemed to be driven by the learners' need to claim a legitimate position as translingual speakers. This is substantiated by the following extract: "When I improve my English it gives me power to change the saying of people that says people from [a] government school cannot speak English fluently. They are all told it's fine, whatever, so when I speak English, I'll be proud 'kuthi ja' [to say yes]" (FGD). In this extract the learner predominantly used English but also included the IsiZulu word "kuthi", which means "to say" and the Afrikaans word "ja" which means "yes". The use of the word "power" in the above-mentioned extract might be symbolic of the learners' awareness of the power relations which positioned L2 learners in government or public schools as incapable of achieving fluency in English. By investing in the L2, this learner wanted to change those power dynamics and reposition themselves and their peers as legitimate translingual learners. Thus, learners are of the view that becoming fluent in the L2 will increase their social power and cultural capital, allowing them to address the power dynamics.

Learners also reported that they invested in the L2 because it would allow them to widen their access to a range of resources, which in turn would help them to increase their social power and cultural capital. This is substantiated in the following extract: "The challenges for learning English is that if you don't know English, at school if you are reading or writing something and make a mistake, they will laugh at you. So it is better for you to learn English and your language.

It is better to learn English than your home language, 'cos English is all over" (FGD). In this extract, the learner expressed several reasons for learning the L2. One related to the power relations in the school environment, concomitant with the apparent mocking of those who made mistakes when reading or writing the L2. The other reason involved the perceived universal utility of the L2.

Learners also reported that learning the L2 presented greater prospects for vocational opportunities than the L1: "When I speak English it can help me achieve my goals. When there is an interview, I need a job, I speak English" (FGD), "When I go for interviews and meet white people, so that I can be able to respond" (FGD) and "When you go and look for a job because there are places, if you do not know how to speak English, they cannot give you work, because let me say if you want to work with a computer and you don't know how the letters will work so that you can get the English words right" (FGD). These extracts indicate some of the reasons that drove learners to learn the L2 with the hope that they would gain social power and cultural capital. These reasons seem less about wanting to be like native English speakers than to relate to the L2 as a resource for achieving goals, for instance responding during an interview and increasing job prospects. This is substantiated by the following extract, "... is when I hear black people speaking so fluent in English, so I get motivated to say, and myself, I can also speak like them" (FGD). From these extracts, learners seemed to be acutely aware of the power dynamics at play in the society they live in, which demands that they use the L2 in school and in the marketplace. They invest in the L2, not because they want to identify with native English speakers, but because they believe the L2 will help them negotiate the power dynamics in their lived contexts. The following excerpts further substantiate learners' reasons for investing in the L2:

"... want to speak English better so I can participate in class" (FGD).

"I believe that English helps you with your education. I believe that when I speak English, I will be able to cooperate with my teachers when it's English period, when he/she ask something" (FGD).

"If you know English, it's not that you are having (a) pride 'cos it is good to know English because most people, most people know English; maybe it can open that door… and help [if] you know English" (FGD).

"So that as I'm growing I can know how to speak English with white people when it comes to trips and something; obviously there will be white people there so that I can be able to

> speak to them. When the time is going and I go and look for a job, you don't know how it will work, so you can get the English words right" (FGD).

These excerpts suggest that learners' investment in L2 learning is related to their desire to participate in class and thereby make a meaningful contribution to the learning process. This moreover suggests that these L2 learners may value class interaction and cooperative learning and would therefore invest themselves and their resources in learning the L2. The extracts above also suggest that learners invested in the L2 for its utility in the world of work. Thus, learners' investment in L2 learning appears to have a present and future orientation.

> Observational notes 18 July 2019
>
> In my own observation, peer tutoring was generally conducted in English, with learners reminding each other to communicate in English whenever they switched to the L1. However, when learners encountered difficulty in communication, they switched to their L1. Tutors would also switch to learners' L1 upon noticing that learners were struggling with concepts. Due to the multitude of languages represented in each peer tutoring group, tutors often had to use more than one indigenous language to explain the concept to ensure that learners were offered an explanation in the language they were most comfortable with. In some instances, tutors would ask learners for explanations if they were not fluent in a learner's L1. This generated great excitement for learners as they, together with the tutor, co-created knowledge (Obs).

The above observation further highlights the role of the L1 in L2 learning. The use of the L1 in the peer tutoring context appeared to be a valuable resource for L2 learning. It allowed learners to grasp fully what they were required to do. By providing explanations to their tutors these learners were provided with an opportunity to view themselves as creators of knowledge and not mere consumers of knowledge created by others. This also changed the power dynamics within the peer tutoring interaction, thus allowing the learner to be the tutor or the more knowledgeable other.

7.4.2 Category 2: Resource availability

Resource availability can shape learners' investment in L2 learning (Darvin, 2019). Accordingly, it becomes crucial to examine the type of resources available to learners and how these resources shape L2 learning and strategy use. The category resource availability is supported by three subcategories, namely availability of reading material, resources in the school environment and resources in the peer tutoring environment.

7.4.2.1 Subcategory 4a: Availability of reading material

Several learners reported they used reading materials as a strategy for learning the L2. For instance, learners indicated that: "I mostly use English books to help me do better" (OEQ), "Er, reading books helps me to learn English much more" (FGD). Through reading learners believed that they could improve their L2 ability and that it could be seen in the improvement in their English marks: "At school, if they have given us work to do and you have got one wrong, they reduce your marks, that's what motivates us to read English, read(ing) books" (FGD). Learners specifically indicated that through reading they could improve their vocabulary. A learner further elaborated, "... read more English books, more interesting book[s] and sometimes read funny books. It is good to have extra time for reading so that you can improve your English words or vocabulary" (OEQ).

On further analysis of the data, it became evident that learners' use of a variety of reading resources helped to scaffold L2 learning. Learners mostly utilised dictionaries, novels, magazines, comic books and English literature, showing their wide range of reading interests. Although learners seemed to enjoy a variety of reading material and relied on that material to develop their L2 skills, there was an indication that such resources were not always available to these learners. Learners lamented the lack of resources, as they reported: "I wish I had a dictionary/English book which helps me to learn the language easier and very [much] better" (OEQ) and "I wish there would be English reading books for us to choose and read and answer [a] few questions based on the story" (OEQ).

Furthermore, learners reported that they had to share textbooks and that having to do so constrained their L2 learning. This is substantiated by the following extract: "In my class we are 61. We are sharing one textbook and we find it difficult to learn English because of the situation" (OEQ). This lack of access to resources appears to determine the type of strategies that learners can adopt in L2 learning, as presented below.

> "Underline or write the words down and 'masekufika isikhathi seskole' [when it is time for school], you talk to your teachers" (FGD).
>
> "When I read I underline the word that I don't know, then I look for the meanings" (OEQ).

The aforementioned extracts suggest that strategy use may be linked to the resources that are at the learners' disposal. Although in both instances the learners used compensation strategies relating to not looking up every new word and to making guesses, the manifestation of this strategy appeared to have been determined by resource availability. The learner with exposure

to a dictionary or any other device for looking up the meaning of words may be able to read an entire passage and then later look up the new or difficult words. However, the learners without access to a dictionary may have to wait until they are with someone who is able to help them with the meaning of the new words. While they wait, they may have to continue guessing as they keep reading the material until they meet someone with a dictionary who can assist them.

This lack of resources was further compounded by the lack of human resources to assist learners in the home environment. As lamented by one learner: "Another reason that makes English learning so difficult when you are from a family whereby they don't know English or they don't try to use it so you can't speak English to them while they [are] speaking [the] home language, you have to adjust (FGD). This extract offers some indication of the complex intersection between various factors that affect L2 learning. Learning without the necessary material and social resources can be a barrier to L2 learning and can lead to limited use of strategies. For example, using the metacognitive strategy of guessing can be very effective when used in conjunction with other strategies such as asking the speaker to explain words or looking up words in a dictionary. However, used on its own, it can potentially hinder L2 learning when the individual is perpetually obliged to guess what they are reading.

7.4.2.2 Subcategory 4b: Resources in the school environment

When participants were asked to describe their classroom environment, several factors emerged that may influence L2 learning. The findings show that there are vast resource inequalities at various schools in Gauteng. Some participants expressed concern about the shortage of what Vygotsky (1978) would call "material tools" available in their classrooms: "In class we are 54 and we sit 3 in one desk" (OEQ). From my observation at the peer tutoring venues, these desks are designed to seat a maximum of two learners and having three at a desk would cause difficulty with writing down notes (Obs). Participants also expressed the following: "…when it [is] cold, we can't learn on [in] them [classrooms] because windows and doors unable to be closed" (OEQ), "… our windows are broken, we don't have lights and [a] door, and we do not have more chairs to sit on; even our chalkboard is broken" (OEQ) and "… there is no board/chalkboard to write to [on] when teachers are teaching …" (OEQ). By implication, these extracts suggest that a lack of resources may impede learning as participants indicated that they could not concentrate due to the cold. The shortage of desks for learners and the lack of chalkboards for teachers to write on may negatively affect learners' note-taking behaviour.

In contrast to the above classrooms, some participants reported to be learning in highly resourced classrooms: "My classroom is clean and it has all [the] materials that we can use during an English period" (OEQ); "We are 42 in our classroom; there are many desks and no

broken windows; the light or bulb are working clear" (OEQ) and "…the classroom has ground heaters for warmth and air conditioners. My classroom is filled with joy and love, also with a lot of posters about caring for others" (OEQ). These environments appeared to aid learning as they allowed participants a great degree of comfort (warmth) and provided the material tools (desks) for faciliating learning. Although these well-resourced classrooms may aid learning, this is not always guaranteed, as expressed in the following extract: "My classroom environment is very high designed [smartboard, chalkboard, blinds too], very packed up together [not much space], very dirty, poor education development" (OEQ). This reveals that the availability of resources does not guarantee successful L2 learning.

One of the concerns that participants raised concerned the number of learners in a classroom. One participant explained that "it is overcrowded, noisy, sometimes not clean and it's just bad" and "we are 67 or above 75. There are more girls than boys; anyway boys are very few and simple[r] to (be) count(ed) than girls" (OEQ). Several participants raised concerns regarding overcrowding in the classroom: "When the teachers teach us, we usually don't hear him/her because we can't concentrate because the classroom is full" (OEQ), and "When we are in the class, do not concentrate well, because they are always talking and if your teacher is talking and some learners are talking, you can't even hear them. You become distracted and you can't even hear the word[s] properly, you might get things wrong" (FGD). From these extracts, there is clear indication that overcrowded classrooms may impede L2 learning.

Another concern that was raised by the participants was that they did not receive adequate L2 instruction in the classroom, either due to the time allocated for learning the L2 or owing to teachers' pedagogic practices. Participants reported the following requirement, "... that we could have longer periods with our teachers because sometimes the periods end early and you did not understand a word the teacher said to you" (OEQ) and "The school that am in, it doesn't give enough lessons for us, so the language that we speak is our home language" (OEQ). These exctracts indicate that participants might require additional input in the L2 as the classroom input appeared to be limited because of the allocation of time to the L2.

Participants also expressed that some teachers applied a certain pedagogic practice, which meant that they taught English in their mother tongue, thus depriving learners of L2 exposure. Participants expressed the following concerns: "English is taught in IsiZulu and [Isi]Xhosa" (FGD) and "In my class we usually speak Xitsonga all the time. We only get a chance to speak English when the English teacher is teaching us" (OEQ). This limited exposure arising from either contact time or teachers' pedagogic practices seemed to deprive participants of a human resource they could have used for learning the L2. That in turn limited L2 development, as

indicated by: "In my classroom we mostly communicate in [Isi]Xhosa because we are all Xhosa, so some of us cannot speak English very well" (OEQ).

Although the classroom environment was perceived by most leraners as not conducive to learning, they indicated that their teachers did their best to assist them with L2 learning. These participants also indicated that teachers allowed them to read: "Teachers give(s) us each chances to read in the class" (OEQ) while others indicated "my teachers also are good at their jobs" (OEQ). Other learners also reported that teachers did their best with assisting them: "The classroom environment is a good place for us learners to learn and fix our mistakes and we are given the best attention when we need help, and they never give up on you until you understand" (OEQ) and "I like to make speeches in the classroom. I know English is not my mother tongue but the teachers I know will help me along the(ir) way" (OEQ). These extracts show that although teachers in the context of this study often find themselves in a rather compromising classroom environment, lacking resources, they nevertheless try to assist learners.

7.4.2.3 Subcategory 4c: Resources in the peer tutoring environment

The majority of participants described the tutoring environment as clean, peaceful and conducive to learning. These views are clearly articulated in the verbatim extracts below: "The classes that we are learning [in], inside them they show that the class is well taken care [of]" (OEQ) and "My peer tutoring environment is very nice and welcoming, very (and highly) clean and neat; furniture and resources needed are always present" (OEQ). These extracts show that the participants' tutoring environment was clean and neat, but that it had the necessary resources to aid learning. My observation during the peer tutoring sessions was that the tutoring venues were generally clean, except for two programmes that conducted tutoring on the schools' premises. Owing to the small peer tutoring groups, participants could push together several desks for ease of writing, which is not possible in a large classroom (Obs).

Observational notes 13 April 2019
Learners sit in groups ...six learners per table ... doing different homework exercises, some doing Mathematics, Accounting and Physical Science homework. Learners are seen to be sharing a dictionary while they complete the homework. Learners are asking each other for help about the meaning of various words (Obs).

In five of the peer tutoring programmes participants had access to printers, copiers, books and Wi-Fi for the completion of school projects. In cases where these resources were not available on-site, tutors would bring resources such as books and articles for participants to use. Participants furthermore indicated that: "The peer tutoring environment is fine and suitable for

reading" (OEQ) and "It has an open space and it doesn't have a lot [of] learners. I can understand the teacher while teaching" (OEQ). This is in stark contrast to how these same participants described their classroom environment, which was marked by a lack of resources and overcrowding. In contrast, the peer tutoring environment was reported as having the necessary material resources to facilitate learning.

Moreover, the peer tutoring environment was also described as having the necessary human resources for L2 learning. Participants reported being "always surrounded by English speakers; that makes me happy" (OEQ) and "I feel like our after-school programme offers a convenient help because we are required to speak English at all times" (OEQ). The English speakers mentioned here do not refer to native English speakers but rather to tutors or peers who speak English, in keeping with the requirements of the various peer tutoring organisations. In such an environment, participants are given greater exposure to the L2, thus allowing them to develop in their use of the language. Viewed in this way, peers and tutors act as a valuable resource for scaffolding L2 learning by increasing exposure to the language. Furthermore, participants were encouraged to use the L2 during peer tutoring sessions and they themselves also enforced this by means of their own ground rules. This is illustrated in the photograph below, which was taken at one of the peer tutoring sites.

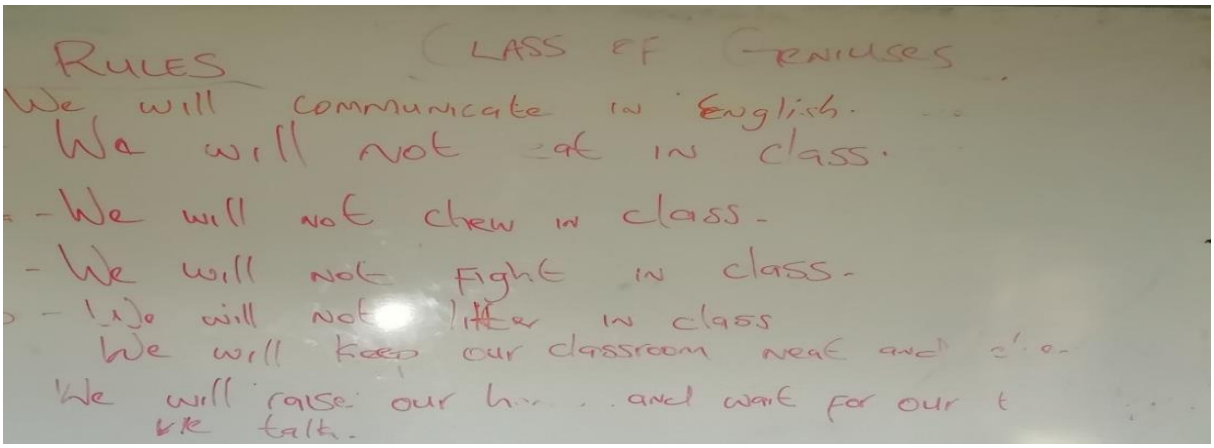

Figure 7.2: Photograph of ground rules at one of the peer tutoring venues

7.4.3 Category 3: Humanising the learning environment

This category relating to humanising the learning environment is supported by two subcategories, which are: respect for self and others, and taking care of the peer tutoring learning environment. This category relates to the values of Ubuntu, which are central to the African understanding of what it means to be a human being (Maphalala, 2017). These categories were obtained from the open-ended questionnaire, which asked learners to describe both the peer tutoring and classroom learning environments. These responses from the open-

ended questionnaires are complemented throughout by my own observations of how learners engaged with one another and the learning environment.

7.4.3.1 Subcategory 5a: Respect for self and others

Respect for self and others emerged as a key value to learners in this study. Respect was associated with being loving, generous, offering help, caring, being considerate and appreciating the richness of various languages. In this study, learners clearly showed respect for each other, as reported in the following extracts: "I love to learn and I love to respect" (OEQ), "We respect each other" (OEQ). Learners indicated having respect for their teachers and tutors: "I respect all the people who will give us the knowledge" (OEQ), "… learners respecting teachers …" (OEQ) and "... respect for the tutors" (OEQ).

Respect was also expressed through learners' thoughtfulness towards each other: "We are a lot(s) but respectful; we do not bother each other and make nose [noise]" (OEQ) and "My environment is so cool; we respect each other and sometimes we mix our home language and English" (OEQ). These two extracts highlight two key issues relating to respect. First, respect seems to supersede the challenges experienced in the classroom such as overcrowding. The words "we are a lot" suggest that even though the classroom was crowded, learners continued to show respect. Secondly, respect appeared to supersede learners' language differences and allowed them to engage in translanguaging. This may be indicative of learners' acknowledgement and appreciation of the differences between them.

Learners therefore clearly showed respect, but also expressed the need to be respected. Learners summed up the discussion of respect for humanity by stating that: "I wish the tutors should respect us because we also respect them" (OEQ) and "I need to make sure they respect me and also me respect, and always to make a place to be clean and ourselves and love each other" (OEQ). In these extracts, learners indicated their need to be respected by their tutors as well as their peers. This need for respect seems to arise from a desire to relate to others and alludes to the appreciation of humanity for self and the other. In the absence of respect for self and the other, learners seemed to suggest that bullying might take root: "There are [is] a lot of bullying and some of the children are very disrespectful" (OEQ). This extract seems to imply that bullying might be related to corrosion of the value of respect for self and the other. Bullying was noted in the classroom environment and not in the peer tutoring environment (Obs).

7.4.3.2 Subcategory 5b: Taking care of the learning environment

Learners not only valued respect for self and others, but they also indicated that they valued the learning environment and showed this through taking care of it. Learners' references to taking

care of the environment specifically related to the classroom environment. However, this was also observed in the peer tutoring environment, where learners would tidy up after each session and help to rearrange desks and chairs (Obs). Learners reported the following: "We clean our classroom every day" (OEQ), "... always clean because we always clean it. Our class is very clean and I love my class. The environment is very clean" (OEQ), "We make sure that our class is so clean ..." (OEQ) and "... classroom environment is good and clean because we take care of everything" (OEQ). What emerges from these extracts is the collective ownership of the learning environment, with the learners' placing emphasis on the communal care of their environment. This might reflect learners' understanding that taking care of the learning environment is not just the task of an individual but that it is the responsibility of all those who benefit from such an environment. Furthermore, this relates to the African way of life, where responsibility for the care of the community is placed on the shoulders of all the members of a given community (Chilisa, 2012).

Moreover, taking ownership and assuming collective responsibility is not only evident when learners are taking care of their learning environment but also when there is neglect of this environment. In describing the learning environment one learner noted the following: "... very poor because we don't take care of our classroom" (OEQ). This acknowledgement suggests that learners were aware of the responsibility to look after their learning environment. Moreover, the sentiment illustrates the factor of collective responsibility-taking common to African communities.

In this study a clean environment was generally associated with a safe environment that facilitated effective learning. This is corroborated in the following extracts, "... clean environment and a safe one" (OEQ), "... clean sometimes. It is safe and peaceful" (OEQ), "My classroom is very neat and clean, very well, and it is clean, I can learn" (OEQ) "... environment is healthy and safe to do some work in" (OEQ) "... clean environment and a safe place for learning" (OEQ) and "... it is clean, where everyone can stay without be [getting] sick; it is even safe [so] that learn[ers] can stay [behind] when they need help" (OEQ). The association between safety, health and learning is an important one and indicates how learners viewed their learning experience. It is perhaps this association that drove these learners to take collective care of the learning environment, be it in the classroom or peer tutoring environment. These findings suggest that learning is maximised in a clean environment (school and peer tutoring), which offers safety and ensures health.

7.4.4 Category 4: Social disconnection as a barrier to L2 learning

This category is supported by two subcategories that present the adverse role that peers and tutors can play in L2 learning. Social disconnection as a barrier to L2 learning devotes attention to both the role played by peers in general and in the tutoring environment in particular. I also focus specifically on the adverse role that tutors can play in learners' experience of L2 learning, specifically in the peer tutoring environment.

7.4.4.1 Subcategory 6a: The role of peers in L2 learning

When asked what role peers played in L2 learning, learners had conflicting opinions. Although the majority of the learners indicated the positive role that peers played in L2 learning, there were those who viewed peers as a barrier to L2 learning. Although many learners indicated the benefits of the peer-to-peer interaction, there were also learners who perceived this interaction as a barrier to language-learning. Peers as a barrier to L2 learning seems to have been restricted to the school environment and is not applicable to the peer tutoring environment and the home. Learners expressed that some of their peers made fun of them when they made an effort to learn the L2, as reflected in the following verbatim extract: "My peers at school, like, I have two friends at school; when I tell them to speak English, they don't want to, they say I have a pride, what what what. But at home I have one friend, who ... I always speak English with him" (FGD). From my observation it appeared that learners in the various peer tutoring programmes were supportive of each other's efforts to learn the L2. When a learner struggled with a word, term or phrase, they volunteered help even before it was solicited.

However, some peers seemed to have a distorted view of the L2 and thus discouraged others from learning it: "My peers say that learning English is just a waste of time because you learn English and you do not understand it at all … they say that English is not made for black people. They say English is not our mother tongue" (FGD). Given that English is the medium of instruction in most schools in South Africa, holding the view that English should not be learnt as it is not the L1 appears to be counterproductive and can cause delays in educational attainment.

Learners also reported to being labelled as snobbish when they tried to speak to their peers in the L2. These ideas are encapsulated in the following verbatim extracts: "Sometimes they say you are snobbish, they judge you, laugh at you if you make a mistake; they say you are acting big in a small town" (FGD). This jeering behaviour by peers has been described as contributing negatively to L2 learning, with learners reporting "when some people laugh at you, you feel ashamed and you never answer in the classroom" (FGD) and "the other thing is that you become a topic for the whole week" (FGD). This suggests that peers could hinder another's participation

in the L2 classroom, thus depriving each other of an opportunity to learn through social interaction.

Although some learners indicated that they were adversely affected by the negative treatment they received from their peers, several of them suggested that such negativity did not affect them. In managing the opposition to learning the L2, learners displayed great resilience. Although the experience of negative remarks did hinder some learners in engaging in the L2, most of the learners seemed to be unfazed by such distractions. Some reported that they generally ignored their peers or walked away, as suggested in the extracts below:

> "I ignore them because I don't go to school for other people but for myself" (FGD).
>
> "Whatever people say about me, I won't listen to them because I know that when I talk English, I will be someone else. No matter what people say about me, I will continue speaking English" (FGD).
>
> "I believe I have the ability to learn English because I don't need anyone or my peers to tell me that I can learn English better or not" (FGD).

These excerpts demonstrate learners' resilience and their determination to learn the L2 in spite of the opposition from their peers. It would appear that L2 learning to these learners is motivated by their belief that they can learn the language: "I believe I have the ability to learn English …" (FGD) and achieve personal goals: "I don't go to school for other people but for myself" (FGD). Thus, even in the face of social disconnection due to being ridiculed, the learners in this study appeared to be resilient by not allowing peers who mocked them to deter them from their L2 learning.

Another possible barrier to L2 learning in the peer tutoring environment relates to learners' using each other's homework books to complete their homework exercises, as reflected in the observational notes below:

> Observational notes 20 April 2019
>
> Learners are using other learners' workbooks to complete the homework without any sign that they are reading through the questions. When the tutor asks why they were doing this, they indicate that they have not had time to read through the work. They also indicate that they will try to understand the work when the teacher gives them the answers in class the following day (Obs).

Learners using each other's books was done without the approval of the tutors but when they did notice it they did not stop the learners from doing so. Although the practice of copying

homework from peers may ensure that all the homework exercises for a given day are completed, such a strategy is detrimental to learning. This course of action does not allow learners to apply their minds to the homework exercises and there was no critical engagement with the homework material.

7.4.4.2 Subcategory 6b: The role of tutors in the peer tutoring environment

Although there was general consensus that peer tutoring offered a safe environment for learners in which to to learn, some learners expressed the need for tutors in the peer tutoring milieu to be more considerate when learners made mistakes: "I wish my English tutor would not laugh at me when I do mistakes. I wish he/she would take ... and tell me alone [so] that I may learn" (OEQ). It appears that learners are not opposed to the correction of mistakes but to how the correction is done. The verbatim extract below provides evidence of this: "I ask a tutor if make mistake when I talk English and I also ask question when I don't understand a word. I ask where I don't understand in English; not to forget to speak English every day, then they will correct me if I spoke error English" (OEQ). From this extract it is evident that learners welcome the correction of mistakes by tutors; however, they are opposed to public mockery. By publicly laughing at and correcting their mistakes, tutors can create an unpleasant environment for learners. This is especially true if learners already experience their peers as inconsiderate and disrespectful. Learners expressed "… some children are too scared to ask" (FGD) and "You must feel free, not scared, and you must pay attention to what your peer tutor say so you could understand him/her" (OEQ). Thus, being publicly corrected and mocked or laughed at by the tutor can result in learners not being able to pay attention and therefore maximise the tutoring interaction.

Another concern raised by learners was the inconsistency displayed by tutors in applying the language of communication, which was encouraged by the various peer tutoring programmes, namely English. Learners felt they were being forced to speak English during the tutoring sessions, yet the very same tutors who forced them to do so did not always speak English. In the words of one learner, "when you try to speak your home language with them, they ... like ... 'no, don't speak your home language, we can't hear you', even if they hear you" (FGD). Contrary to what they said, tutors fail to lead by example and used their home language during the tutoring sessions: "They say you must speak English, but they do not speak English. They must cooperate. They must be the example" (FGD). This suggests that tutors are not always setting a good example for the learners to follow. From my observations during the tutoring sessions this inconsistency creates great animosity between tutors and learners, with learners actively disrupting the session to ensure that the tutor communicated in English, as they are

expected to. This is evident in one of my observational notes taken during one of the tutoring programmes, as shown in the dialogue box below.

Observational notes 08 August 2019
The learner who was using another learner's book to copy homework is seen drawing in his book while the other learners are busy with their work. He is chased out of the room and told to return once he has made up his mind about being there. Learners correcting the tutor when she speaks in the vernacular, saying "shame on you" in unison. Noise erupts and the tutor must re-establish calm in the session (Obs).

From the extract above it is evident that tutors may not be fully equipped to manage ill-disciplined learners. Moreover, it appeared that some tutors did not lead by example with regard to using the L1. They shame learners for using the L1, yet they continue to use the L1.

7.5 Theme three: Scaffolding Second-language Learning Through the Peer Tutoring Interaction

This third theme relates specifically to the peer tutoring environment and how this environment scaffolds L2 learning. The theme relating to scaffolding is supported by two categories, namely collaborative interaction and collaboration beyond the classroom.

7.5.1 Category 1: Collaborative interaction

This category is supported by three subcategories, namely interdependence and collaborative interaction during peer tutoring. These subcategories relate to how peers interact with each other, their tutors and the role that the peer tutoring environment plays in L2 learning.

7.5.1.1 Subcategory 7a: Peer-to-peer collaboration

This subcategory relates to the role that learners play in one another's learning. The majority of learners in this study expressed the invaluable contribution of peers to L2 learning and revealed how they worked together with their peers to co-construct their human subjectivities. Learners expressed, "having a study session, where we talk and learn from our peers, because sometimes teachers can explain to a learner over and over, yet the learner still leaves class totally confused" (OEQ). Learners also reported: "We as peers, we help one another with English because we are not perfect, 'cause it's not our mother tongue, so we help each other; if you made an error, we help you" (OEQ). These excerpts denote the significance of the peer-to-peer interaction and the contribution of such interactions to language-learning. Not only is the peer-to-peer interaction valuable in a formalised peer tutoring environment but it has also been shown to be an asset in

the classroom: "Learning English is quite enjoyable when you have classmates as ambitious as you and want to be better in reading and writing English" (OEQ). These excerpts give an indication of peers serving as a catalyst for each other's learning and provide a scaffold for L2 learning.

A common theme that emerged from the data identified that peers provided motivational scaffolding for each other through showing support and reinforcing one another's control of the learning experience. Learners expressed the following regarding their peers: "They support you" (FGD), "They do not laugh at you when you make mistake" (FGD) and "They build your self-confidence if are going to do a speech in front of whole class. They encourage you to do the research" (FGD). Not only do peers ensure that they create a psychologically safe environment for each other, but they also ensure that they correct each other and motivate each other to achieve excellence. Learners reported that their peers "correct you when you are wrong" (FGD), that they say: "Hey, ok, we speak English together, and they correct you if you say a mistake" (FGD) and "... write homework with them, like when your friend encourages you to go with them to write homework; we help each other" (FGD). Learners also indicated that they as peers were motivated through engaging in competitive work, competing in spelling bees or pronouncing words or reading novels and seeing how many novels each member of the group had read.

The peer-to-peer interaction also grants learners the opportunity to take ownership of their learning experiences and provides a safe space where they can express themselves. This is expressed in the following excerpt: "They play a big role, my classmates, because when they speak to me in their home language, I teach them how to speak [English] to me, like, how to address me if they want something from me or if they want to speak to me, I'll tell them you should speak like this to me; if you don't want to speak like that, I will speak my home language and they will hear nothing. So they do [speak English]" (FGD).

Learners further reported that peers provided cognitive support mainly through asking questions and giving each other work that they marked themselves. These thought patterns are demonstrated by the following verbatim extracts: "We as peers, we communicate in English by reading and asking one another questions" (OEQ) and "... by giving each other (a) work to write; after that we mark for each other" (OEQ). The peer interaction also appears to be marked with cognitively challenging discussions, for example:"We often maybe argue about that word, about the meaning; someone else will say it's that and that, the pronunciation, until we get the correct spelling" (FGD) and "I ask my friends and then maybe they know it and we discuss it together like this" (FGD). These discussions offer learners the opportunity to co-construct meaning and mediate cognitive processes through social interaction.

Learners also expressed that peer tutoring epitomised interdependence and ensured that maximum learning occured. This is corroborated in the following extract: "The peer tutoring environment is the best place to be. They [tutors] give you their attention whenever you need help; they won't give up on you until you understand. Even us peers can help each other whenever we do not understand" (OEQ). In this extract it is indicated that learners received assistance from tutors and assisted each other. Learners were patiently assisted until they gained complete understanding of the concepts they might be struggling with. My observations during the sessions also confirm this as tutors would spend a significant amount of time trying to assist those learners who seemed to be struggling to understand concepts (Obs). Tutors would allow learners to explain difficult concepts to each other before they explained the concepts themselves (Obs). This course of action allowed learners to construct knowledge collectively. This is further corroborated by the following extract: "It's a place where you get help when you don't understand something and it's a place you can learn from others as well" (OEQ).

7.5.1.2 Subcategory 7b: Collaboration in the peer tutoring environment

Learners reported that the peer tutoring environment offered abundant opportunity for L2 learning, which was often lacking in the L2 classroom. The results of this study reveal that the interaction between learners and tutors positively affected L2 learning through scaffolded support. Learners expressed that this interaction provided greater assistance than the assistance they received from their teachers: "The tutors, they do explain more of the words you don't understand, and they explain them better than our teachers do" (FGD). This is elaborated in the following extract: "It's nice, it's helping a lot. Maybe I wouldn't be who I am without it" (OEQ). This excerpt offers insight into the value that learners attach to the peer tutoring sessions. There is a sense that these sessions not only assist with academic tasks but that they might be assisting with who learners are becoming. This might therefore be related to identity construction and recognising the humanity of the other.

Learners expressed their appreciation because of the way tutors scaffolded learning and encouraged them during the sessions. Learners reported that: "If I don't understand, my tutor helps me make(s) examples and make sure that I understand. Then she/he gives me an activity to do and also encourages me to practice when am at home" (OEQ). Learners also appreciated the humour that tutors brought into the learning environment: "We talk to each other in English with the tutors and they often make jokes" (OEQ).

The peer tutoring environment also offers learners the opportunity to "engage with others" (OEQ) through "group work" (FGD) and for utilising the L2. Moreover, learners are encouraged to use the L2 to allow for greater practice opportunity and to develop confidence in

its use. This is substantiated by the following extracts: "My tutors really helped me improve my English because they told me that I must use English whenever I communicate with other learners at this programme" and "In the peer tutoring we speak English every time, so speaking English, especially with a lot of people, helps me a lot. I'm able to cope and improve my English in speaking" (OEQ). These excerpts suggest that the peer tutoring environment enables learners to cope with the demands of the L2 through encouraging greater usage of the L2. Although the emphasis by tutors on using English was resisted by some learners, there was great appreciation for this practice among most learners. The following is a verbatim account of a learner's evaluation of the use of English during tutoring: "It makes me feel happy because I learn English. I know how to speak English with other people, it makes me feel happy. But other people feel that you may be pushing them to speak English because you can speak better or 'ja' [yes]" (FGD). Therefore, the peer tutoring environment is conducive to learning English as it offers a safe space for practicing the language.

Moreover, learners reported that the peer tutoring environment offered them opportunities for reading which they are not afforded at school as: "They [tutors] do give us books, reading books on Saturday so that we can learn English better than we do at school 'cos we don't have time to read books. Yes, [we] don't have time to read books at school" (FGD). This opportunity is especially crucial given the shortage of resources at schools that learners reported in Theme two discussed above. Through the provision of reading material by the peer tutoring programmes, learners are able to improve their L2, "... novels, books help(s) me to learn English better" (OEQ). By providing books and reading materials for learners to work through, the peer tutoring environment seems to be filling the resource shortages reported in this study.

7.5.2 Category 2: Beyond the classroom

This category is supported by one subcategory, namely parental involvement and food for thought.

7.6.2.1 Subcategory 8a: Parental involvement and food provision

This subcategory emerged from my observation notes. Moreover, this subtheme emerged during my interactions with the various peer tutoring programmes. The involvement of parents in these programmes seems to play a crucial role in the success of the learners participating in these programmes. A common theme that runs through the three instances where I witnessed direct parental involvement was the idea of social connectedness. From this perspective, learning is not a matter of educating the individual learner but involves the social connectedness that this learner has with their wider community. This notion of connectedness is seen

throughout learners' interaction with their peers, tutors, parents and the community at large, as is confirmed in the observational notes below.

Observational notes

2 February 2019. In three of the programmes I was privileged to witness direct parental involvement in the lives of their children and their children's education. The first instance involved the annual opening of one of the programmes to which parents, learners and alumni are invited. This occasion celebrates those who have passed their matric in the previous year and welcomes those joining the tutoring programme for the first time. Parents and learners get to share their stories of how the peer tutoring programme has assisted them the previous year (Obs).

24 June 2019. The second instance, not so pleasant but with a positive outcome, involved parents coming into the school due to learners being ill disciplined. The assistant manager had asked all the Grade 9 learners the previous day to bring their parents in so they could discuss the issue of discipline. Some of the parents came into the classroom to speak to learners after their meeting with the assistant manager. When the programme manager spoke to the learners, she referred to them as her children and also spoke of the assistant manager as her child, so was everyone who was involved in the peer tutoring programme. These were her verbatim words; "I may not know you and may not know your parents but all of you are our children. These young people are also our children …". Her premise was that regardless of who the children were, or where they come from, there was a common connection (Obs).

29 September 2019. The third instance of parental involvement I witnessed was during a graduation ceremony which took place in one of the peer tutoring programmes. Parents, community members and learners all gathered to celebrate those community members who had successfully completed their computer course. Learners and parents were involved in the setting up and performing during this auspicious occasion. In the heart of an informal settlement, a first-class graduation ceremony was held with all the learners taking part and celebrating with all concerned (Obs).

These observations indicate that parents play a crucial role in the learning context by providing guidance and support. In this context, it appears that parents are an additional resource that serves to support the tutors as well as the learners.

An important finding in this study relates to the holistic approach that is often adopted by the various peer tutoring programmes. Some of the programmes expose learners to various communities (universities, interacting with other learners from different communities). Creating opportunities for learners to engage with others outside their own learning environment and community relates well to the value African people attach to connectedness. This value foregrounds human relationships and illustrates the various connections that each learner has with broader society. Such connectedness appears to be beneficial for L2 learning, as collaborated in the following extracts: "We get help for everything. And [we] get to travel" (OEQ) and "There is another day we went to an organisation, tutors and learners, for

organisation strategic planning...When we get there everyone was speaking English; they were able to create conversation with other people in English, communicate and even make jokes in English" (FGD). These trips appear to heighten learners' investment in the L2 as learners realise the value of the L2 beyond the classroom and their community.

In addition to exposing learners to various communities, the majority of the peer tutoring programmes in this study provided food and sustenance for learners. This was partly because learners would come straight from school to the peer tutoring programme. The programme directors hence deemed it necessary to ensure that learners should not be taught when they were hungry. Programme directors also noted that for some learners the food they provided might be the last meal that those learners would get that day, indicating the learner's home socio-economic status. The provision of food to aid maximum learning also relates to the universally accepted concept of viewing the human as a holistic being, with each part of the human being connected to all the other parts. If the body is malnourished and hungry, the brain, thus cognitive development, is less likely to occur optimally.

Observational notes 15 April 2019

So today I was at Lerato peer-turning programme to introduce myself, the study and to distribute the consent and assent forms for learners to take home for parents and learners to sign. I also needed to speak to the tutors (these were university students) about the study and gave them the consent forms. I waited outside the classroom with some of the tutors who would be tutoring the second half the session. On that day, the first session focused on English and the second session focused on Mathematics. I was told that each session focused on different subjects to ensure a wider coverage of subjects that learners had difficulty with. Some time into the first session I found myself helping the tutors to butter bread for the learners in attendance. That day they were given peanut butter sandwiches. I was told, and witnessed, that this was standard practice for this programme.
As I interacted with other tutoring programmes, I realised that providing a snack or a meal was standard practice at these programmes. Although these programmes are not very highly resourced, they provide nourishment for learners to ensure that maximum learning and development takes place. These programmes do not merely offer another slice of bread or fruit or a meal but were also giving food for thought. At one of these programmes (Thendo), learners are not only offered a meal during the tutoring sessions, but sandwiches are prepared each school day and learners collect these on their way to school in the morning (Obs).

The above observations illustrate the great lengths the various peer tutoring programmes go to in order to ensure that maximum learning occurs. It also highlights the holistic approach to learning adopted by these peer tutoring programmes.

7.6 Conclusion

In Chapter Seven, I reported the results of the three themes that emerged from the qualitative data. This chapter contributed to obtaining an in-depth understanding of the LLSs used by L2 learners. The results suggest that although L2 learners in this study used a variety of the strategies in the SILL, usage of these strategies seemed to take place collectively. This highlights the need to apply a collectivist pedagogic model in the L2 classroom to allow leaners to have more enriching learning experiences. The emergence of indigenous strategies necessitates the interrogation of current pedagogical practices to ensure that they are aligned with the everyday sociocultural practices of L2 learners.

Consistent with the sociocultural understanding of language, the results of this study show that L2 learning is affected by various factors such as translanguaging, learner identity and investment. Guided by a constructivist paradigm, the results further illuminate the value of social interaction in L2 learning. As learners interact with their peers, tutors and teachers, they not only gain confidence in utilising the L2, but they also construct a sense of identity that allows them to set their own language goals. This builds on their sense of investment, which is intertwined with both identity and language.

This chapter also highlighted some of the barriers that hinder L2 learning. Through acknowledging these barriers, I have come to appreciate the role of the cultural context in which L2 learning occurs. It is for this reason that any analysis of learner performance should be supported by contextual variables to achieve a holistic description of various factors that can influence L2 learning and LLS usage. In the next chapter, I integrated and discussed the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative analyses, thereby providing a richer understanding of the LLSs used by L2 learners in the current study.

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Chapter Eight
Integrated Discussion of Results

8.1 Introduction

The findings in Chapters Six and Seven indicate that L2 learners utilise the various conventional strategies (cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, social and affective) through engagement with others. This suggests that these learners show a high regard for social interaction in L2 learning and thus utilise various strategies in collaboration with others. This was evident even with the use of strategies that are typically individual in nature such as the memory and cognitive strategies. The role of social interaction was highlighted by learners' constant reference to the use of strategies with friends, peers and groups, which proposes a collectivist understanding of strategy usage and L2 learning. These findings are consistent with a social constructivist and collectivist paradigm of knowledge construction, as posited in Vygotsky's (1978) SCT, social constructivism and IKS. This finding concurs with the concept of regulation through social interaction put forward by Vygotsky (1978) as well as the indigenous understanding of the role of the other in the learning context (Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015, Nwoye, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017).

This current chapter is divided into two sections, as illustrated in Figure 8.1 below.

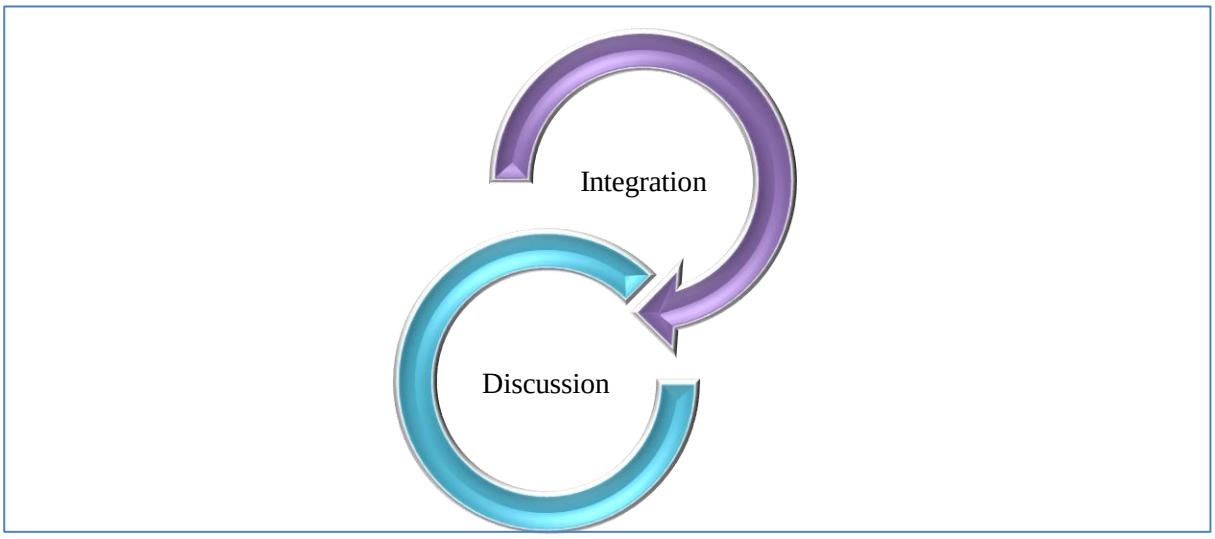

Figure 8.1: Layout of Chapter Eight

In the first section (8.2), I integrated the quantitative and qualitative results. This integration sought to highlight the results that were similar (confirmations) as well as those results where there were silences, whereby findings were only observed in the one data set and not in the other. The silences are significant as they highlight the contribution of the current study to the

existing knowledge. The new insight that I contributed is discussed in detail in Chapter Nine, where the conceptual framework is reviewed. The aforementioned silences were treated as opportunities for further research. The quantitative findings address the "what" question, and the qualitative results address the "how" question in this study.

In the second section (8.3), I drew from the integrated results to discuss the key findings of the current study. This discussion is guided by the research questions and by my conceptual and theoretical framework, which was presented in section 4.3 of Chapter Four. This framework draws on Vygotsky's (1978) SCT, Anderson's (1976) ACT (cognitive), IKS, translanguaging and constructivism.

8.2 Integration of the Quantitative and Qualitative Results

Table 8.1: The integrated results of the quantitative and qualitative data

	Key Findings	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Confirmation	Language-learning strategy use	Learners participating in the peer tutoring frequently use the following LLSs in learning the L2: Metacognitive Cognitive Social Affective Memory Compensation	Learners indicated the use of conventional strategies in learning the L2: Metacognitive Cognitive Social Affective Memory Compensation collective use of conventional strategies
	Home language and L2 learning	The majority of learners indicated more than one home language. High L1 performance was positively associated with high L2 performance. Learners' with high L1 ability in writing, reading, speaking, vocabulary and grammar were found to use significantly more LLSs than those with lower ability in these language skills.	Learners used both the L1 and L2 in their communication. L1 was used to facilitate understanding of difficult L2 concepts. Although the various peer tutoring programmes encourage the use of English throughout the sessions, the translanguaging practice was often observed between learners and less often between learners and tutors. Learners identified themselves as translingual learners and indicated the desire to have their languages given the same status as the L2.
	Peer tutoring and L2 learning	Learners indicated that the peer tutoring interaction helped them to improve L2 learning. The results indicated significant improvement in learners' reading, vocabulary and grammar usage as well as speaking skills during and at least three months into the peer tutoring programme.	The qualitative findings show that learners valued the peer tutoring sessions. They noted that these sessions provided them with an opportunity to practice the L2 and created a safe environment for learning. Fellow peers and tutors were found to scaffold L2 learning.

	Key Findings	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
Silences	Alternative LLSs	These were not explored in the quantitative component of the study as I wanted to understand the strategies that these learners used inductively.	The use of indigenous strategies in the form of indigenous art such as dance; drama; music/song; word games, spelling bees; poetry; humour. Multimodal art forms and humour are not typically regarded as LLSs but were identified as such by the learners in my study.
	L2 motivation	This theme was not directly explored in the quantitative data but is connected to affective learner characteristics and discussed as that.	Investment and agency were highlighted as motivational factors in L2 learning.
	Gender differences	More females than males attended peer tutoring sessions. The results show that female learners used significantly more strategies than male learners.	More females than males volunteered to participate in the focus group discussions (FGDs). No further investigations were conducted regarding gender in the qualitative data.
	Resource availability	This theme was not explored in the quantitative data.	Scarcity of resources in the classroom and home environment was noted. The peer tutoring environment provided the necessary resources for L2 learning.

8.2.1 Confirmation of correlation between quantitative and qualitative data

8.2.1.1 Metacognitive strategies and second-language learning

The results of this study revealed that learners frequently used metacognitive strategies for L2 learning (M = 4.06). The high mean score shows that the use of these strategies falls within the high range (mean > 3.4) of strategy usage. The correlational analysis also indicated that compensation strategies had a small but significant relationship with L2 reading (r_s = .419), L2 vocabulary and grammar (r_s = .237), L2 writing (r_s = .338) and L2 speaking (r_s = .280). In this study, metacognitive strategies were frequently used by all learners and were also the most used strategy category among high-performing learners. The use of metacognitive strategies by high-performing learners included the use of speaking skills (looking for people to speak English to – metacognitive 35) and reading skills (looking for opportunities to read English material – metacognitive 36). High-performing learners also reported the ability to centre their learning through noticing their L2 mistakes (metacognitive 31), planning their learning by having a schedule (metacognitive 34), and enquiring how they could be better L2 learners (metacognitive 33). These learners also reported frequently using evaluation strategies such as thinking about L2 progress (metacognitive 36) and setting goals (metacognitive 37). These quantitative results were confirmed by the qualitative results.

In the qualitative results learners reported using reading as one of the metacognitive strategies for L2 learning: "I go to the library and take a book and read" (OEQ) and "Reading books helps me to learn English much more" (FGD). Learners also indicated that they set goals for L2 learning: "I set goals, live up to them; I do whatever I do according to what I have set in my goals" (OEQ). This comment relates to the metacognitive strategy of having clear goals for improving English skills (metacognitive 37). The use of metacognitive strategies appeared to be informed by learners' collectivist understanding of knowledge construction as these strategies were often carried out in groups: "I sit with friends in a group of six and read some stories for each other. And we help each other to pronounce words correctly" (OEQ) and "... when we speak English in a group and they speak a new word and I don't understand it, I'll ask and they will explain it to me" (FDG). These extracts suggest that the use of metacognitive strategies were not only carried out by individuals on their own, but with peers or in groups. This alludes to learners' preference for social interaction in spite of their ability to manage, plan and evaluate their own learning (Oxford, 1990).

8.2.1.2 Social strategies and second-language learning

The findings of the quantitative analysis show frequent usage of social strategies in the current study (M = 3.73). The most commonly used social strategies were asking the speaker to slow

down (social 45), asking for correction (social 46), asking for help (social 48) and asking questions in English (social 49). The correlational analysis indicated that social strategies had a small although significant relationship with L2 reading (r_s = .332), L2 vocabulary and grammar (r_s = .195), L2 writing (r_s = .311) and L2 speaking (r_s = .295). This suggests that the use of social strategies was associated with higher performance in the above-mentioned language skills. On further analysis of the quantitative data it became evident that the use of social strategies were more frequent among low-performing learners than high-performing learners. The finding relating to the frequent use of social strategies by low-performing learners differed from the findings of Griffiths (2013), whose study indicated that low-performing L2 learners frequently used memorisation as a basic L2 learning strategy. This difference may be due to the context of learning. The peer tutoring environment capitalises on social interaction as a strategy for learning, thus learners in the current study might have been more prone to using social strategies for L2 learning.

The quantitative findings were supported by the qualitative results, which illustrated how the various social strategies were used. Learners reported that they often asked for help, "... asking other learners if I don't understand" (OEQ) or asked the speaker to slow down: "I ask the teacher to take it slow[ly] when he talks" (OEQ). The qualitative results highlighted that learners often practiced using English with their peers and valued being corrected by their peers when they made mistakes, "... they [peers], ok, we speak English together. And they correct you if you say a mistake" (FGD).

8.2.1.3 Cognitive strategies and second-language learning

The quantitative results show that learners in the current study frequently used cognitive strategies (M = 3.61). These cognitive strategies were found to have small to medium associations with L2 learning (English scores (r_s =.227), writing (r_s = .411), vocabulary and grammar (r_s = .194), reading (r_s = .385) and speaking (r_s =.336). The results of this study further show that high-performing learners frequently used cognitive strategies. The cognitive strategies frequently used by high-performing learners indicate their ability to effectively make associations between prior knowledge and new concepts being learnt. This included the ability to find patterns in the L2 (memory 20) and dividing words into manageable parts (memory 21). Key to this finding was that these associations were connected to prior L1 knowledge (memory 19), which suggests that these high-performing L2 learners were drawing from their full linguistic repertoires to learn new L2 concepts. These quantitative findings were confirmed and enriched by the qualitative results.

The qualitative results indicate that learners frequently practiced using the L2, "... practice English every day when we speak" (OEQ). This practice the learners did on their own: "I like learning new things by myself, so I sit alone for a while, just practicing" (OEQ) as well as in small groups: "I practice with my group so they can help me do better" (OEQ). The results also show that learners used reading as a cognitive strategy for L2 learning. Reading was also conducted alone: "I always try to learn new words and read books for pleasure" (OEQ) or with friends in small groups: "I read with my friends" (OEQ), "We do reading … in groups, then we read" (OEQ). Learners further reported drawing on L1 knowledge to learn the L2. This included using the L1 in communication, "when I run out of words, let's say I am speaking English, I speak [in the] vernacular" (FGD) and watching shows where the L1 is used along with providing English subtitles: "... watching TV shows; they speak with home language and they write the English words. We read the subtitles" (FGD). A key theme that emerged with regard to cognitive strategies was the collective manner in which various strategies were used. Although it was evident that learners could use these strategies on their own, there appeared to be a preference for the collective use of strategies. Strategies such as practicing to speak and read were commonly reported to be done in groups.

8.2.1.4 Affective strategies and second-language learning

The quantitative findings of the current study indicate that L2 learners frequently used affective strategies in L2 learning (M = 3.56). The results further show that high-performing learners frequently used 66% of all available affective strategies in the SILL. These high-performing learners appear to regulate their emotions effectively by relaxing whenever they are afraid of using the L2 (affective 39), by means of private speech as they encourage themselves to use the L2 (affective 40) and rewarding themselves (affective 41) after using the L2. They also keep track of their emotions through writing down their feelings about L2 use (affective 43). The correlational analysis also indicates that affective strategies have a small but significant relationship with L2 reading (r_s = .260), L2 writing (r_s = .229) and L2 speaking (r_s = .173).

A key affective strategy that the qualitative results highlighted was that instead of encouraging themselves, as stated in the SILL, these learners encouraged one another to use the L2: "Me and my friends, we encourage each other to speak English every time" (OEQ), "... correct people's mistakes and encourage them to do better next time" (OEQ) and "Our tutors always encourage us to speak English in front of everyone so that you can be able to speak English without being ashamed" (OEQ). This is contrary to the individualistic paradigm of the SILL; however, it bears the marks of the collectivist paradigm in which these learners are socialised.

8.2.1.5 Memory strategies and second-language learning

Memory strategies were used at a medium frequency (M = 3.39) in the current study. The quantitative results show that the commonly used memory strategies included the use of new English words in a sentence (memory 2), using location to remember words (memory 9), frequent reviewing of English lessons (memory 8) and thinking of relationships (memory 1). The correlational analysis in addition indicated that compensation strategies had a small but significant relationship with L2 reading (r_s = .302), L2 writing (r_s = .229) and L2 speaking (r_s = .203).

These quantitative results find confirmation in the qualitative results. Learners reported frequent use of new words in a sentence, "... use words to make sentences so that the word, you can understand it easily" (OEQ), reviewing English lessons: "We must repeat what we have learnt in school" (OEQ) and the use of flash cards: "We also use flashcards because flash cards are interesting; we can learn more, many things using these cards" (FGD). Thinking of relationships and regular review of English lessons were frequently reported by low-performing learners while the use of new English words in a sentence and using flash cards were frequently used by high-performing learners.

8.2.1.6 Compensation strategies and second-language learning

The quantitative results demonstrate that compensation strategies were the least used of Oxford's (1990) six strategy categories by L2 learners in this study. These strategies were used at a medium frequency (M = 3.25), with the most-used compensation strategy being the use of synonyms (compensation 29), followed by making up new words (compensation 26). Learners also reported guessing (compensation 24) and gestures (compensation 25) as compensation strategies for L2 learning. The correlational analysis also indicated that compensation strategies had a small but significant relationship with L2 reading (r_s = .225), L2 writing (r_s = .231) and L2 speaking (r_s = .248).

The use of compensation strategies was confirmed by the qualitative results, which indicate that learners often used guessing strategies, "... continue to read the way I understand it" (FGD) and "I break it down into three letters and then I pronounce it and I guess its meaning and then I go back to it" (FGD). These learners also indicated that they used gestures to express meaning, but did not have sufficient L2 vocabulary to do so, therefore they "use action to say what you want to say" (OEQ). In the quantitative results, guessing strategies were commonly reported by low-performing learners while gestures were typically used by high-performing learners. Learners further reported using avoidance-type compensation strategies such as changing the topic and

abandoning the conversation when they encountered difficulty in using the L2, "I say let's drop it" (FGD), "I just stop talking…" (FGD) and "... change the topic" (FGD).

8.2.1.7 Home language and second-language learning

The findings of both the qualitative and quantitative data reveal that using the L1 is a crucial resource for L2 learning. The quantitative results indicate that higher scores in the L1 were positively related to higher scores in the L2. The correlational analysis shows a medium correlation (r_s = .480) between L2 learners' performance in the home language and their performance in the second language. This finding illustrates that 23% of L2 performance could be explained by performance in the L1. Furthermore, the results of the Mann-Whitney U tests in the current study reveal that learners with a high L1 ability used significantly more strategies than those with a low L1 ability. Thus, the current study indicates that learners who performed at a higher level in the L1 used a greater range of strategies than those at the lower L1 performance level.

The results further indicate that L2 learners who reported high L1 language skills (reading, grammar and vocabulary, writing and speaking) used significantly more LLSs than those who reported low scores in these language skills. The use of cognitive strategies was expressed as common to all four linguistic skills. Metacognitive strategies had a positive effect on L1 writing and L1 speaking skills, affective strategies had a positive effect on L1 writing, L1 reading and L1 vocabulary and grammar. Social strategies also emerged as positively affecting L1 writing and L1 speaking skills. The use of home languages to support L2 learning was supported by the qualitative results.

Therefore, the qualitative results show that L2 learners used translanguaging as a pedagogic strategy for L2 learning. Learners reported the following with regard to their translanguaging practice: "We mix our home language and English" (OEQ) and "The tutors, they are able to explain our, they are able to explain words from our home language to [in] English" (FGD). It was evident from the findings of the qualitative data that learners did not use the home language (L1) only to resolve linguistic challenges faced in using the L2 but that they used the L1 to regulate higher mental processes. This implies that learners used the L1 to solve linguistic challenges and to regulate their thoughts: "I stop and then think and think in my home language" (FGD). The qualitative findings further reveal that learners could navigate easily between the L1 and L2: "We speak English when it's English period and (speak) IsiZulu when in home language period" (OEQ). My own observations highlight how the inclusion of the L1 during the peer tutoring sessions assisted learners with understanding the tasks allocated to them: "Tutor is explaining the exercise in English and it is evident that learners do not understand

what the tutor is saying. The tutor then explains in the vernacular, [a mixture of Setswana. Sesotho and IsiZulu] and learners seem to understand what they need to do. They start taking down notes and engaging with each other" (Obs). The translanguaging practice observed in the peer tutoring sessions appeared also to empower learners and provided them with an opportunity to educate their peers as well as their tutors about language. This is summed up in the following extracts: "They [peers] play a big role, my classmates, because when they speak to me in their home language, I teach them how to speak to me; like how to address me if they want something from me or if they want to speak to me, I'll tell them you should speak like this to me. If you don't want to speak like that [in English] I will speak my home language, and they will hear nothing. So they do [speak English]" (FGD).

8.2.1.8 Peer tutoring and second-language learning

Learners seem to benefit from their peers and cross-age tutors, and there is evidence to suggest that creating opportunities for them to interact with each other enhanced L2 learning. The quantitative results show that 64% of learners in this study agreed that peer tutoring helped to improve L2 learning. The quantitative results further show significant increases in learners' reading, vocabulary and grammar and speaking ability during the peer tutoring programme when compared to their ability prior to exposure to the peer tutoring programme. The results further show that these increases were observed despite the type of tutoring model adopted by the various tutoring programmes. Thus, peer tutoring programmes can adopt either same-age, cross-age, reciprocal or classwide approaches in assisting learners with their L2 learning. This suggests that peer tutoring, regardless of the approach used, is an effective way of scaffolding L2 learning.

The qualitative results confirm the benefits of peer tutoring as the following extracts indicate: "It's a place where you get help when you don't understand something and it [is] a place you can learn from others as well" (OEQ), and "We often maybe argue about that word, about the meaning. Someone else will say it's that and that, the pronunciation, until we get the correct spelling" (FGD). By encouraging learners to use the L2, the peer tutoring environment creates an environment for these learners that is conducive to using the L2. Learners further indicated that the peer tutoring environment was ideal for L2 learning as it offered support and created a safe environment for the correction of mistakes: "They support you" (FGD), "They do not laugh at you when you make mistake" (FGD) and "They build your self-confidence if are going to do a speech in front of whole class. They encourage you to do the research" (FGD).

8.2.2 Silences between quantitative and qualitative data

In the current study, silences between quantitative and qualitative data are not perceived as barriers to the study, but rather as opportunities for further study. The quantitative data are silent on the issue of indigenous strategies, motivation and learner identity. It was necessary for me in this study to inductively investigate if there were any indigenous strategies that learners used for L2 learning. Therefore, these strategies were not measured quantitatively as, to the best of my knowledge, no study has been done yet that identifies indigenous strategies. The information obtained from the qualitative data can be used for the construction of a quantitative questionnaire, thereby providing scope for the wider exploration of these themes.

8.2.2.1 Translingual identity, investment and agency

The quantitative results reveal that 54% of learners in this study identified having two (40%) or more than two (14%) home languages. The qualitative results show that these bilingual and multilingual learners used translanguaging interaction strategies, which included code-mixing and code-switching strategies, as illustrated in the following extract: "We mix our home language and English" (OEQ) and "A ke tlo boa ka English if we are both black" [I will not speak in English if we are both black] (FGD). The use of translanguaging was common during the peer tutoring sessions as tutors at times needed to revert to the L1 to ensure learners understood instructions.

It also emerged from the qualitative data that learners have very strong views regarding their L1 identity: "When it's home language, I speak my language and when it's English I speak English" (FGD) and "Maybe o kona o bowa English, a ke tlo bowa ka English because it is not our mother tongue [Maybe you can speak English, I will not speak to you in English because it is not our mother tongue]" (FGD). Learners appear to have a strong sense of who they are as bi/multilingual learners and voiced their frustration at the elevation of English. They strongly identified with the L1 and some learners stated vehemently that they would not speak to their peers in English but would use the L1 to communicate. It would seem that some learners resisted assimilation into the L2 community as they perceived this community to be benefitting unfairly from having the L2 as their L1 "… is like we are forced to learn English. Yes, that is why they pass tests. They set exam papers in their own home language" (FGD).

8.2.2.2 Investment and agency

The qualitative data show various reasons for learners to invest in learning the L2 in the current study. Learners in this study indicated that they invested in L2 learning to challenge stereotypes regarding what indigenous people can and cannot do: "When I improve my English it gives me

power to change the saying of people that says people from government school cannot speak English fluently. They are all told it's fine, whatever, so when I speak English, I'll be proud kuthi 'ja' [to say yes]" (FGD). Learners also invest in L2 learning because of the educational benefits connected to doing so. This is substantiated in the following extract: "The challenges for learning English is that if you don't know English, at school if you are reading or writing something and make a mistake, they will laugh at you. So it is better for you to learn English and your language. It is better to learn English than your home language, 'cos English is all over" (FGD). Learners also invest in the L2 because of vocational prospects, "... when I go for interviews and meet white people, so that I can be able to respond" (FGD). From these extracts it is evident that L2 learners in the current study have a strong desire to learn English and this desire does not concern identifying with the culture of the English community. Instead, they invest in the L2 for its utility and the prospects of opportunities that being fluent in the L2 present as suggested by a number of scholars (Griffiths, 2013; Norton, 2013a; Duff, 2014; Darvin, 2019).

8.2.2.3 The use of indigenous strategies for L2 learning

The findings of the qualitative data suggest that L2 learning and LLSs used did not occur outside the sociocultural environment. Learners' use of various strategies is evidently influenced and affected by the sociocultural environment in which they find themselves. Over and above the use of conventional strategies, the findings of the current study illustrate that learners also use music, dance, poetry, drama, word games and storytelling as strategies for L2 learning, "... by doing monologue, speeches, poems, dramas, (and) etc. Because it keeps [helps] us to enjoy more" (OEQ), "My friends help me make English easy because every time we sing, we sing English songs" (FGD) and "... make more twisters and memes, make tongue twisters, make more puzzles or games, play spelling bees" (OEQ). In the current study, these art forms have been termed indigenous strategies as they are essential pillars of African indigenous ways of knowing (Kaya, & Seleti, 2013). Several scholars have shown that the use of these indigenous art forms can improve L2 learning due to their multimodal qualities as well as the oral and performance character of indigenous storytelling and poetry, as discussed in section 8.3.1.5 below (Newfield, & Maundedzo, 2006; Ajibade, & Ndububa, 2008; Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Malebese, 2017; Jansen van Vuuren, 2018; Samuelson, Park, & Munyaneza, 2018; Mavhiza, 2019).

The results of the qualitative data also indicate that learners use humour to learn the L2 through making jokes or inventing humorous ways of pronouncing words and learning L2 concepts in this way to allow for greater L2 retention and memory: "I make jokes in English and try to speak broken English just for fun" (OEQ) and "I play around with words and try to think of

funny way I could pronounce them; that way I [am] able to remember the words easily and can improve my vocabulary, somehow. Most of the time I write speeches (for pleasure) using the words" (OEQ). By using what one learner termed "broken English" learners appear to be intentionally stretching the limits of language and creating a hybridised form of English, which allows them to retain knowledge with ease and to access this knowledge when required. The use of humour as a strategy for L2 learning has been supported by other scholars who also argue that the use of humour helps to improve critical thinking and retention of L2 information (Bell, 2009; Al-Duleimi, & Aziz, 2016; Miller, Wilson, Miller, & Enomoto, 2017; Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018; Cho, & Kim, 2018). Bell (2009) argues that the use of humour in L2 learning presents opportunities for rich linguistic usage and that humour should not be perceived as frivolous fun. Bell (2009) further contends that by embracing learners' interests in playing with the L2, the teacher or tutor can tap into learners' complex cognitive functioning that might not be accessible by other means.

8.2.2.4 Resource availability

The findings of the current study revealed two contrasting learning environments that both affected L2 learning. Learners reported that the peer tutoring environment was conducive to learning. This environment offers opportunities for learners to use the L2 and provides them with the required resources to learn the L2: "I feel like our after-school programme offers a convenient help because we are required to speak English at all times" (OEQ) and "They [tutors] do give us books, reading books on Saturday so that we can learn English better than we do at school 'cos we don't have time to read books [at school] Yes, don't have time to read books at school" (FGD) and "... novels, books help(s) me to learn English better" (OEQ). The resources available to learners in the peer tutoring environment mitigate the resource shortages that the learners often encounter in the home or the classroom environment.

Contrary to the peer tutoring environment, which was reported as having the necessary resources for aiding L2 learning, the classroom environment was marked by the unavailability of resources. Learners reported using reading as a key resource for L2 learning: "I mostly use English books to help me do better" (OEQ) and "Er, reading books helps me to learn English much more" (FGD). However, learners reported that books are not always accessible to them in the classroom "In my class we are 61. We are sharing one textbook and we find it difficult to learn English because of the situation" (OEQ) and "I wish there would be English reading books for us to choose and read and [to] answer [a] few questions based on the story" (OEQ). Learners also reported a lack of resources to help them with L2 learning in the home environment. This includes not having people at home who understand English and also not having the material resources such as dictionaries, as reported in the following extracts:

"Another reason that makes English learning so difficult when you are from a family whereby they don't know English or they don't try to use it so you can't speak English to them while they speak(ing) [the] home language, you have to adjust" (FGD) and "Underline or write the words down and masekufika isikhathi seskole [when it is time for school], you talk to your teachers" (FGD). These extracts provide evidence that suggests the use of certain strategies is often delayed or suppressed due to a lack of resources. A learner with the desire to read a book, use a dictionary or speak the L2 with someone might be constrained by the material conditions in which they find themselves. If there is no dictionary a learner may have to keep guessing the meaning of words until they are able to look up a word or find someone to explain the word to them. This suggests that the sociocultural environment in which learning occurs determines the types of strategy that a learner can use.

8.2.2.5 Gender differences

The quantitative results of the current study indicate that females used significantly more overall strategies than male learners. Moreover, females were observed to use significantly more memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and affective strategies than their male counterparts. These differences were not explored in the qualitative data. The high use of these strategies was nevertheless associated with significantly higher L2 performance, which confirms the assertion by other researchers that high strategy use is linked to higher L2 performance (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, Griffiths, 2013). However, no differences were observed in the current study as regards the use of social strategies by males and females. This suggests that both males and females were managing their interaction with others in a similar manner. However, what was evident was that male learners were less likely to volunteer to form part of the FGDs. From my observations of the peer tutoring sessions, there were no marked differences in the way that males and females participated. Both males and females participated effectively in the FGDs.

8.2.2.6 Parental support and support beyond the classroom

The qualitative findings also indicate that the success of the peer tutoring programmes may be a result of parental involvement. Parents are an integral part of the peer tutoring programmes. They provide support, encouragement and discipline when required. As indicated in the findings, on three different occasions at various peer tutoring programmes, I observed the integral role of parents in learning in general and L2 learning in particular. These parents are often present during parent meetings and they ensure that they are informed regarding the activities their children are involved in. Despite their own shortcomings due to their socio-economic status, these parents are actively involved in their children's education. Parents came

in their numbers to the opening of one of the peer tutoring programmes and they did not hesitate to discipline learners in one programme where misbehaviour was flagged. The results also show that learners valued the additional support offered by the peer tutoring programmes such as offering food and taking learners on educational trips.

8.3 Discussion of Results

In this section I discuss the integrated findings derived from section 8.2 above. This discussion illuminates the key concepts in my conceptual and theoretical framework and assists in grounding the findings of this study in the academic literature. As noted by Maphalala (2017), both Western and African paradigms can complement one another in improving education. This discussion thus elucidates concepts from both the Western and indigenous understandings of L2 learning to provide comprehensive understanding of the LLSs used by learners participating in peer tutoring. This argument lends support to the assertion by African scholars (as cited in Nwoye, 2017) that any study of the African needs to be undertaken from their worldview. This is echoed by Jones (2016), who suggests the LLSs should include the strategies used by learners on the periphery, those learners whose voices have not been heard in LLS research. Although research on LLS has been conducted in South Africa, this research (Jones, 2016) merely assumed that the LLSs in established instruments were applicable to the South African context. Thus, no attempt was made to giving the South African learners a voice and allowing them to report on the strategies they used.

8.3.1 Strategy use and successful second-language learning

8.3.1.1 Second-language learning frequency and quantity of strategy used

The results of the current study indicate that L2 learners used metacognitive strategies more frequently (M = 4.06) than any of the other strategies. This was followed by social strategies (M = 3.73), cognitive strategies (M = 3.61) and affective strategies (M = 3.56), which were all used at a high frequency (M > 3.4), with memory (M = 3.39) and compensation strategies (M = 3.25) used at a medium frequency. A striking feature of the strategies that were used by learners at a high frequency in the current study is that most of them indirectly affected learning (Oxford 1990). Although indirect strategies underpin the learning process, the sole use of such strategies may not be effective if there is an inadequate sound language base (Kamper et al., 2010).

The strategy rankings identified in this study are supported by scholars who found that L2 learners frequently used metacognitive strategies (Salahshour, Sharifi, & Salahshour, 2013; Lutz, 2015; Makoni 2016). In the quantitative study conducted by Salahshour et al. (2013), it emerged that although metacognitive strategies were frequently used, cognitive strategies were

the least used. However, in the studies conducted with South African learners by Lutz (2015) and Makoni (2016), the results indicated that these learners used the same strategies as the learners in the current study, albeit with less frequency. The results of the current study, which show that L2 learners frequently used metacognitive, social and cognitive strategies, also contradict the findings by other scholars with regard to the ranking of these strategies (Bedell, & Oxford, 1996; Rao, 2004; Božinović, & Sindik, 2011, Yusri, Rahimi, Shah, & Wah, 2013). For example, Božinović and Sindik, (2011) found that memory strategies were the most frequently used strategy type among German, Spanish, French and Italian adult learners, while cognitive strategies were the least frequently used. Rao (2004) established that Chinese students learning English frequently used affective strategies more than the other strategies, followed by compensation strategies. In their study with Malaysian L2 learners learning Arabic, Yusri et al. (2013) observed that these learners frequently used memory strategies and were less likely to use metacognitive or cognitive strategies.

Further analysis of the data, as regards the quantity of strategies used, shows that high-performing learners used more strategies (n = 39) at a higher frequency than low-performing learners (n = 33). However, these results were not statistically significant, suggesting that there is more to successful L2 learning than the quantity of strategies used and the frequency of strategy usage. These results contradict the research by the scholars who revealed that frequency and quantity of strategy use related positively to successful L2 learning (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Green, & Oxford; 1995; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Griffiths, 2013). In a study by Green and Oxford (1995) with 374 Puerto Rican university students, they found that successful learners used significantly more overall strategies than those who were less successful. These results were similar to those of Dreyer and Oxford (1996) in a quantitative study which investigated LLSs and other predictors of L2 performance among 305 South African university students. Moreover, the study by Griffiths (2013) with 348 learners in a private school in Auckland, New Zealand, found that high-performing learners used significantly more overall strategies than less successful learners. Notwithstanding the contradictions between the current study and those of other scholars, the results of the current study are supported by researchers such as Huang and Van Naerssen (1987), Ehrman et al. (2003) and Anderson (2005), who argue that frequency and quantity of strategy use are not an effective indicator of L2 performance but instead indicate how learners synergised the use of various strategies in their strategy repertoires. Ehrman et al. (2003) argued that for strategies to be effective they needed to meet the following conditions as they should: (1) relate to the L2 task, (2) match the learners' learning style and (3) be used effectively in conjunction with other strategies. Thus, the results of the current study confirm that the quantity of strategies used may not be a reliable indicator of L2

performance. This is furthermore confirmed by the results that show differences in the types of strategy that high- and low-performing learners used in the current study.

8.3.1.2 Second-language learning and type of strategy used

The results of the current study show differences in the types of strategy used by high- and low-performing learners. While high-performing learners reported the frequent use of metacognitive strategies, followed by cognitive strategies, low-performing learners frequently used social strategies, followed by memory strategies. The link between the use of metacognitive strategies and higher L2 performance lend support to the findings of other scholars (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Kaylani, 1996; Griffiths, 2013; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Makoni, 2016).

The frequent use of metacognitive strategies by L2 learners in the current study suggests that these learners can effectively plan, manage, organise and evaluate their own learning, which is generally linked with higher L2 performance (Oxford, 1990; Giffiths, 2013; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). The frequent use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies in the current study has been supported internationally (Köksal, & Dündar, 2017; Balci, & Üğüten, 2018) and locally, in South Africa (Lutz, 2015; Makoni, 2016). The ranking of strategies in the current study resembles that of the results of a study Makoni (2016) conducted with 107 South African high school learners between Grades 8 and 12. Makoni (2016) found that these learners frequently used metacognitive strategies, followed by cognitive strategies, with memory and compensation strategies being the least used. This exact pattern was also observed in the study of Lutz (2015) at a Johannesburg school in South Africa with a group of 128 learners between the ages of 11 and 14. From these studies it is evident that there is a similar pattern of strategy use among learners in the Gauteng region of South Africa, and this study confirms the pattern.

A small but significant correlation was observed between L2 performance and cognitive strategies, suggesting that the use of cognitive strategies is related to L2 learning. The frequent use of cognitive strategies by high-performing learners is consistent with the findings of other scholars who found that high-performing learners frequently used cognitive strategies in learning the L2 (Griffiths, 2013). On further examination, the results suggest that high-performing learners in this study frequently used 10 of the 11 cognitive strategies, such as practicing the sounds of English words, reading for pleasure, writing notes and messages in English, finding patterns in English and dividing English words into parts. Cognitive strategies that were investigated in the current study related to practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning as well as creating structures for input and output (Oxford, 1990). This frequent use of cognitive strategies resulted in higher performance in the various language skills, such as reading, speaking, writing and learning vocabulary.

The results of the current study, which indicate the association between frequent use of cognitive strategies and high L2 performance, are consistent with Anderson's (1976) ACT model. This model postulates that L2 knowledge begins as declarative knowledge and proceeds to be procedural knowledge. The key to transforming declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge is practice and repeated exposure to the concepts being learnt (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1987; Morgan-Short et al., 2014). Anderson's (1976) model is thus confirmed in the current study as learners who constantly practiced and had repeated exposure to L2 concepts were frequently using cognitive strategies associated with practice and exposure to the L2 were among the high performers. Therefore, the use of repetition and drawing from prior L1 knowledge appear to be essential for achieving higher L2 scores. This finding is further confirmed by Vygotsky's SCT, which indicates that learners employ existing artefacts such as language to create new artefacts (Lantolf et al., 2015). In the current study, this would mean the use of current L1 knowledge to create new knowledge in the L2.

On average, learners in the current study used social strategies at a high frequency. The findings further show that low-performing L2 learners reported using all six social strategies more frequently than their high-performing counterparts. This suggests that low-performing learners tend to rely on social interaction as a strategy for L2 learning. The reliance of low-performing L2 learners on social strategies for L2 learning can be explained applying Vygotsky's (1978) constructivist SCT, particularly by the role of mediation in the construction of knowledge, the ZPD and internalisation of this constructed knowledge (Presseisen, & Kozulin, 1992; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Ortega, 2013; Van Compernolle, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015). Informed by a social constructivist paradigm, Vygotsky (1978) argues that higher forms of human cognition are a function of mediated activity and that this mediation can occur through objects, social interaction and self-regulation. Therefore, it is possible that the frequent use of social strategies by low-performing learners may be a sign of their reliance on social interaction for knowledge construction. These learners may not yet have reached the point where they can self-regulate their learning and thus lean on social interaction for the mediation of L2 learning.

The use of affective strategies also differed significantly between high- and low-performing learners in this study. High-performing L2 learners proactively regulated their emotions by calming, encouraging and rewarding themselves when they felt nervous. Conversely, low-performing learners seemed to have elevated feelings of nervousness regarding the use of the L2. These learners frequently noticed when they were nervous, but instead of calming or encouraging themselves, they opted to speak to other people about their emotions. This action confirmed their need for regulation through social interaction for guidance, as was revealed by their high preference for social strategies (Donato, & MacCormick, 1994b; Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2012; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013).

From the SCT perspective, the affective strategies used by high-performing learners relate to self-mediation, private speech and internalisation, key concepts in SCT. Self-mediation denotes learners' ability to regulate their learning autonomously and occurs once learners had internalised the information given (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013). Private speech can involve learners' speaking loudly to themselves as they processed information but as learners advanced cognitively, this speech becomes inner speech, when the learners speak to themselves without vocalising their thoughts (Ozfidan, Machtmes, & Demir, 2014) This confirms Vygotsky's (1978) concept of internalisation. In the current study it appears that, through the process of internalisation, high-performing learners appropriated the L2 and converted it into psychological artefacts which allowed them to regulate their activities mentally. Thus, these learners had moved from operating at an interpsychological level – social interaction – to operating at an intrapsychological level – independently performing complex cognitive tasks – as demonstrated by their frequent use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies (Kozulin, 1990; Lantolf, 2006; Van Compernolle, 2014; Lantolf et al., 2015; Chen, 2016).

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that for strategies to promote successful learning significantly, the use of these strategies needs to be carefully orchestrated, as several scholars suggested (Norton, & Toohey, 2001; Ehrman et al., 2003; Anderson, 2005; Cohen, 2008; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015). Ehrman et al. (2003) argue that for a strategy to be effective for language-learning, it needs to be related to the learning task, match the learners' learning style and be linked with other strategies. This is echoed by Cohen (2008), who suggests that strategies do not function in isolation as learners tend to deploy various strategies in clusters to achieve a learning goal. Similarly, Griffiths and Cansiz (2015) argue that successful learning depends on how different strategies are integrated, the frequency of use and how well each of the strategies is organised.

From a sociocultural perspective, several researchers (Poulisse, 1996; Norton &Toohey, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2014) have argued that successful language-learning is dependent on the sociocultural environment in which learning occurs. This finds support in the research by Norton and Toohey (2001), who maintain that the learner's ability to maximise learning in a particular community and what that community has to offer can either facilitate or constrain learning. This also relates to the idea of regulation, as postulated in SCT (Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015), where learning is often regulated by the use of objects in the learner's environment (object-regulation) and by others in the learning environment (regulation through social interaction). In the quantitative results of the current study learners reported frequently using the cognitive strategy of reading for pleasure. However, in the qualitative results, it was evident that reading resources were limited, thus preventing learners from utilising this crucial learning strategy. The quantitative results also show that

learners in this study looked for people to speak to in English as a metacognitive strategy for L2 learning. This metacognitive strategy seemed to be constrained in the learners' home environment as they reported that people in the home environment did not help them owing to their own limitations in English ability. Conversely, in the peer tutoring environment, learners are provided with an environment that facilitates L2 learning. Thus, the learning environment can determine the type and the frequency of strategies that learners can use. An enabling environment is therefore one marked by the availability of sufficient resources and provides for social interaction that allows learners to learn as they engage with others. This type of environment allows learners to move from the intermental plane, which is regulated through social interaction and objects, to the intramental plane, which is self-regulated. This move occurs through the process of internalisation, which is crucial for L2 cognitive development (Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2012). Given the role that the sociocultural environment plays in the use of strategies and L2 learning, it is of pivotal importance to reduce the significant resource inequalities prevalent in South Africa. In section 8.3.1.5., I argue for the integration of indigenous learning strategies into L2 learning to mitigate some of the limitations faced by learners in the South African learning environment.

8.3.1.3 Compensation and memory strategies

The moderate use of memory strategies by L2 learners is not unique to the current study as other scholars have also observed similar trends (Kamper et al., 2010; Salahshour et al., 2013; Lutz, 2015; Makoni, 2016). In the study by Lutz (2015), which was conducted with Grade 9 learners in a South African township school in Gauteng, memory strategies were less favoured by the learners. However, Lutz (2015) indicates that although memory strategies were less favoured, they did significantly predict L2 performance. This is contrary to the results of the current study as memory was a strategy shown to be favoured by low-performing learners. Salahshour et al. (2013) suggest that the low use of memory strategies by Iranian high-school learners is contrary to the Iranian school culture, which advocates rote learning.

In the current study, the low use of memory strategies may be linked to learners' preference for a more constructivist view of L2 learning, when learners opt for co-creating knowledge rather than being mere recipients of knowledge. From a constructivist paradigm, learners construct L2 knowledge based on personal and social experiences rather than memorisation of information (Du Plessis et al., 2007; Firth, & Wagner, 2007; Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016; Creswell, & Creswell, 2018). As is evident in the findings of the current study, learners frequently use social interaction for constructing L2 knowledge. I argue that such learners may find more value in a learning environment that advocates cooperative practices rather than an environment that requires individual memorisation of information. This is consistent with a constructivist view

of L2 learning, when the co-construction of meaning is viewed as a shared socially constructed reality (Doolittle, & Camp, 1999; Soleimani, Modirkhamene, & Sadeghi, 2017).

8.3.1.4 Collective use of conventional strategies

From the aforementioned discussion, it is evident that the learners frequently used a wide range of strategies and that high- and low-performing learners favoured different strategies. A common theme observed in the qualitative data, which cuts across all six strategies, was social connectedness. Social connectedness emphasises communal forms of learning, thus stressing the I/We relationship, which underlies the philosophy of Ubuntu (see section 4.2.3 in Chapter Four), instead of the Western I/You relationship, which is predominantly individual (Chilisa, 2012). This I/We relationship was often reported in the current study with regard to using the various strategies. For example: "We also use flash cards because flash cards are interesting, we can learn more, many things, using these cards" (FGD), "... because we as peers, we communicate in English by reading and asking one another questions" (OEQ), "... by reading our books in groups and practice it every day", "Me and my friends, we often go to the library and take novels and we read. We discuss the novels" (FGD) and "... when we help each other – making a mistake and having someone to help you" (FDG).

This communal application of strategies, as illustrated in the above extracts, highlights the need to understand the LLS from an indigenous perspective in this study, a perspective that is based on relational realities (Chilisa, 2012). As noted by Wilson (2008), the concept of social connectedness is not unique to African people, thus an understanding of strategies from this perspective can be expanded beyond indigenous African learners. In the field of LLS, the concept of social connectedness has been partially acknowledged through the recognition of the role of the "other" or the role of peers and groups in the learning process. For example, the LLS taxonomies by Oxford (1990) and Wong-Fillmore (1976) acknowledge the role of social strategies in L2 learning.

One of the striking features of LLS classifications is the increasing awareness of and appreciation for the role of the sociocultural context in L2 learning. Although Oxford's initial classification included social strategies, it was her strategic self-regulation model (Oxford, 2012) that elevated the role of these strategies in L2 learning. She has since reduced her original six categories to four strategies comprising metastrategies (meta-cognitive, meta-affective and meta-sociocultural-interactive strategies), cognitive, affective and sociocultural-interactive strategies (Bruen, 2020). This reclassification reduces the role of cognitive-based strategies such as memory and instead highlight the role that the social context plays in L2 learning. I consider this shift to be essential as the process of learning is not only limited to cognitive

processes but involves the whole person. This shift from a predominantly cognitive view of L2 learning to a more sociocultural understanding allows for a composite study of L2 learning. In a recent article, Oxford and Gkonou (2018) state that a holistic view of L2 learning is one that is interwoven into a tapestry which includes culture, language and LLSs.

It is evident from this study that social connectedness is key to L2 learning as it creates an environment which allows learners to co-create L2 knowledge. Social connectedness goes deeper than social interaction and involves a sense of belonging, recognition and a sense that one belongs to the educational context in which learning occurs. This social connectedness connects the learner to the cultural environment (the classroom and peer tutoring environments) and helps to aid mental development (Chilisa, 2012, Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015; Nwoye, 2017). Without such connectedness learners become alienated and this alienation is detrimental to learning in general and L2 learning specifically. Kincheloe and Steinberg (2014) argue that IKS can facilitate social connectedness due to its focus on how human beings relate to each other and to their ecosystem. They further argue that indigenous ways of knowing assist learners with coping with their sociological environments. In this regard, I propose the inclusion of both Western and African paradigms in understanding language-learning, as informed by the learners' input. As regards LLSs, in particular in the African context, I believe there is a need to include indigenous strategies as part of the available LLS repertoires.

8.3.1.5 Culturally relevant indigenous language-learning strategies

In the qualitative results of the current study, learners identified music, dance, drama, storytelling, poetry and humour as strategies for L2 learning. The use of these various art forms has long been supported in L2 literature, albeit not as learning strategies but as forms of literacy (Kendrick et al., 2006; Rafiee, Kassain, & Dastjerdi, 2010; Şevik, 2012; Brouillette, Childress-Evan, Hinga, & Farkas, 2014; Samuelson, Park, & Munyaneza, 2018). According to Brouillette et al. (2014), dance and drama are important resources in developing learners' oral language skills as they afford learners an opportunity to become actively engaged in the learning process, initially by copying movements and later by being able to use the language effectively. This is supported in a study by Samuelson, Park and Munyaneza (2018), who provided evidence that the use of cultural resources from the learner's home, such as storytelling, dance and drama, provided effective opportunities for teaching English as a L2. The use of cultural resources in L2 learning valorises these knowledge systems and creates an environment where learners are able to experience education in a familiar context and culture (Seepe, 2004; Odora Hoppers, 2015). This inclusion of IKS may allow learners to reclaim the cognitive and ontological status of indigenous knowledges, thus allowing for greater cognitive construction of knowledge (Tondi, 2018; Ned, 2019). A key characteristic in indigenous resources such as dance and drama

is their multimodal nature, which allows learners to use all their senses in the learning environment. This is crucial as research has found that when learners engage with language material that speaks to their identity and reality, they become more innovative, engaged and motivated to learn (Mavhiza, 2019).

The results of the current study further indicate that learners use music as a strategy for learning the L2. In this study, learners reported using music in general; however, evidence derived from the observational data shows that indigenous music was used to facilitate L2 learning. The use of music for language-learning has been investigated widely, with several studies indicating the benefits of music in L2 learning. Scholars have argued that music helps to improve both verbal and auditory memory, both of which are essential for L2 learning (Ajibade, & Ndububa, 2008; Mobbs, & Cuyul, 2018; Werner, 2018). Music has also been associated with a range of language skills such as listening comprehension (Rafiee, Kassain, & Dastjerdi, 2010; Şevik, 2012), grammar (Saricoban, & Metin, 2000; Roslim, Azizul, & Zain, 2011), writing (Lytle, 2011), vocabulary (Coyle, & Gracia, 2014), and pronunciation (Farmand, & Pourgharib, 2013).

The use of dance, drama and music has been found to help learners to regulate their emotions by providing a platform for learners to label, manage and communicate their emotions (Ajibade, & Ndububa, 2008; Brouillette et al., 2014). This suggests that dance and drama can help learners effectively to manage affective strategies, which have been shown to be a crucial strategy for L2 learning. Moreover, these art forms have been found to create a positive classroom experience for L2 learners by providing a nonthreatening environment for learners, thus providing a useful resource for language-learning (Ajibade, & Ndububa, 2008; Mobbs and Cuyul, 2018). These art forms further help learners to understand and be sympathetic towards the feelings of others around them. Brouillette et al. (2014) argue that these skills are essential in developing learners' capacity for complex social interaction in order to participate effectively in various types of relationship. The ability to navigate the complexities of social interaction successfully has been found to be effective for academic success as it allows learners to co-construct knowledge as they interact with others (Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf et al., 2015; Ganga, & Maphalala, 2016).

8.3.1.6 The use of indigenous word games

The learners in the current study indicated the use of word games as a strategy for L2 learning, such as tongue twisters, competitions and spelling bees. The use of word games for L2 learning is supported by the literature (Ajibade, & Ndububa, 2008). Word games have been found to be an effective strategy for practicing and internalising vocabulary, grammar and language structures. Ajibade and Ndububa (2008) furthermore contend that the element of competition

provided by games enhances motivation for learning the L2, consequently promoting a joyful and enthusiastic classroom environment. In this study, learners indicated that they enjoyed playing word games, creating their own rules and competing against one another for the best position in L2 learning. However, the nature of competition advocated by Ajibade and Ndububa (2008) is vastly different from what is seen in cultures that value individualism, where learners work as individuals to achieve an individual goal (Chamot, 2004; Oxford, & Gkonou, 2018). Competition in a South African context is collaborative and involves working in small groups to achieve a collective purpose. This is synonymous with the values of Ubuntu and the way of life of indigenous learners, where the focus is on interdependence, respect and inclusivity (Schreiber, & Tomm-Bonde, 2015; Maphalala, 2017).

According to Hamilton-Ekeke and Dorgu (2015), the inclusion of indigenous methods in the curriculum promises great benefits for the development of a curriculum that is focused on critical problem-solving and contains the prospect of promoting life-long learning. This view is further supported by Ajibade and Ndububa (2008), who highlight that word games, songs and stories provide an invaluable resource in the L2 classroom, a resource that learners are familiar with and can easily access. This opens up great possibilities for L2 learners as it provides an environment in which learning can occur within the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). This implies that learners would be taught within the zone in which maximum learning can occur. In the current study, the indigenous knowledge that learners bring into the L2 classroom, such as knowledge of their L1, represents the actual development as it relates to the skills that learners have already attained. With assistance from tutors and teachers, learners can move from their current actual development level to a potentially higher development level (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf et al., 2015).

8.3.1.7 Use of humour as a strategy for second-language learning

In the current study, humour has been used in various ways by L2 learners. The results of the current study show that learners use humour to downplay their L2 mistakes and to create a safe space in which to use the L2 without being stifled by the linguistic rules that govern the L2. The use of humour has been found to be an effective resource for managing learners' emotions, thereby scaffolding L2 learning (Mackiewicz, & Thompson, 2014; Simeon, 2016). The use of humour to downplay L2 mistakes is consistent with how humour is used by African literary scholars in downplaying the gravity of the topics they often discuss, for example politics and injustice (Adjei, 2015). Kincheloe and Steinberg (2014) argue that humour cannot be divorced from the fabric of African life as it is an art form used for managing oppressive systems. When it is used for downplaying mistakes, humour allows the learner to diffuse any embarrassing situation they may encounter in using the L2. Accordingly, humour can also regulate affect

(emotion) by lowering anxiety and tension (Holmes, & Hay, 1997; Rafiee et al., 2010; Samson, & Gross, 2012; Adjei, 2015; Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018). Used in this way, humour can be regarded as a strategy for regulating emotion and for protecting the L2 learner from any embarrassment they might face when they make linguistic mistakes. Subsequently, this allows L2 learners to cope with the complexities of L2 learning.

Polimeni and Reiss (2006) define humour as a complex cognitive function which leads to laughter. Bilokcuoglu and Bebreli (2018) argue that the use of humour can encourage critical thinking as learners experiment with the use of L2 words and phrases in various ways and in multiple contexts. Moreover, Bilokcuoglu and Bebreli (2018) posit that humour can be used for teaching complex linguistic elements at lexical, phonological, syntactic and pragmatic levels. Humour has also been found to be an effective strategy in L2 writing (Murphy, & Roca de Larios, 2010; Simeon, 2016; Lialikhova, 2019). Incorporating humour in teaching complex linguistic elements allows learning to become more contextualised, and raises the level of learner interest, engagement and enjoyment in the L2 classroom. Humour heightens learner involvement in the L2 classroom as learners begin to take ownership of their L2 learning. Cho and Kim (2018) assert that the use of humour creates an environment that allows learners to stumble and fall yet are encouraged to continue exploring the L2. This strengthens the argument that humour creates a safe space for L2 learners to explore without raising anxiety about making mistakes. The incorporation of humour as a strategy for L2 learning may support and further enhance the use of affective strategies.

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that for education to be relevant, stimulating and functional, it needs to valorise the indigenous practices of indigenous learners. This is one of the aims of the South African curriculum (DBE, 2011, p. 5), which states: “valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution”. IKS is noted as a precious commodity which encourages using culturally relevant pedagogy that may enhance the strategies already in use to ensure that maximum learning occurs. This is not advocating the erasure of traditional strategies, as highlighted in the SILL; however, it is an expansion of these strategies to meet the needs of indigenous learners. However, the use of humour, as suggested by Oxford (1990), appears to be aimed at how individuals regulate their own anxiety. Conversely, the use of humour, as I argued in this study, highlights creating a safe environment that allows learners to use the L2 without the threat of embarrassment when they make mistakes. This connects to the indigenous cosmology of togetherness and a sense of belonging (Ned, 2019). The use of humour as a strategy for L2 learning provides a unique addition to the study of L2 learning in the South African context and the SILL studies that are conducted worldwide.

It highlights the need to consider the unique set of resources that learners already possess and using them in L2 learning.

8.3.1.8 Hybridisation of indigenous and conventional language-learning strategies

Scholars have noted that the sociocultural environment plays a role in language-learning and strategy usage (Norton, & Toohey, 2001; Griffiths, & Cansiz, 2015). Therefore, it is crucial to reimagine LLS to include both the conventional and indigenous learning strategies in the learning environment. This is in line with recommendations by scholars across the globe who contend that IKS should be incorporated into education systems to make education relevant (Mushengyezi, 2003; Seepe, 2004; Reyes-García et al., 2010; Odora Hoppers, 2013; Gumbo, 2012; Msila, 2012; Mkhize, & Ndimande-Hlongwa, 2014; Jones, 2016; Matambo, 2018; Pietikäinen, 2018; Neto, & Rossi, 2019). Reimagining LLS would aid in contextualising L2 learning and provide for the inclusion of multimodal forms of communication. Brouillette et al. (2014) argue that the use of multimodal forms of communication provides a means by which L2 learners can be included in the curriculum through providing multiple ways to showcase what they already know. The various art forms discussed in this section provide a means for the semiotic enrichment of language by allowing learners to use all their senses and different modes of expression to engage with the L2. In addition Brouillette at al. (2014) contend that it is misguided for curriculum designers to remove the arts from the curriculum to make room for improving academic performance as the very inclusion of drama and dance in the curriculum helps to increase academic performance. This argument suggests that usingthese art forms may provide a vehicle for inclusive education that allows the L2 learners to use all the knowledge gained from their community in the classroom environment. This is supported by Kendrick et al. (2006) and Mushengyezi (2003), who argue that the inclusion of various art forms such as drama in the school curriculum offers an innovative way for the inclusion of indigenous forms of communication, which allow learners to situate themselves within their society and learning spaces.

Reimagining LLS may include the hybridisation of both conventional and indigenous LLSs. For example, the language skill of reading was widely reported in the current study and includes reading for pleasure (cognitive strategy), skimming over an English passage (cognitive strategy), reading without looking up every new word (compensation) and looking for opportunities to read English material (metacognitive) (Oxford, 1990). However, learners also indicated that the shortage of reading material, including curriculum-mandated textbooks, often constrained the use of these strategies. Reimagining conventional strategies using indigenous strategies such as drama may partially mitigate the effects of resource shortages by providing a platform for learners to draw from written texts in a way that does not require being in

possession of written texts (Rafiee, Kassain, & Dastjerdi, 2010; Şevik, 2012; Brouillette, Childress-Evan, Hinga, & Farkas, 2014; Samuelson, Park, & Munyaneza, 2018). Dramatisation of a curriculum-set textbook such as William Shakespeare's *Macbeth* can allow learners to benefit from learning the required content knowledge despite not being able to read the whole book. By using drama as a L2 learning strategy, learners will tap into a contextually appealing mode of learning. This may include strategies such as the memory strategy in physically acting out new English words, making mental pictures (memory), practicing the sounds of English words (cognitive), using gestures (compensation), encouraging the self to speak English (affective) and practicing English with other learners (social) (Oxford, 1990). Therefore, the integration of indigenous strategies may provide a conduit for an expanded understanding of L2 learning, one which allows learners to situate themselves within the learning environment in ways that engage all their senses. thus facilitating greater construction of new knowledge.

Another way of reimagining LLS is to use humour in the learning environment, as was reported by learners in the current study. The results of the current study have shown that while high-performing L2 learners tend to use self-regulation for managing their emotions, low-performing L2 learners regulate their emotions through social interaction. The findings show that low-performing learners would notice that they were tense or nervous but instead of calming or encouraging themselves they would talk to other people about their feelings. In Vygotskian (1978) terms, these learners are operating at an interpsychological plane, where learning is regulated through social interaction (Donato, & MacCormick, 1994a; Lantolf, 2006; Ellis, 2008; Lantolf, 2012; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013). Although social interaction is essential in transforming lower psychological processes into higher psychological processes, I propose that the use of humour as indigenous language-learning strategy may also facilitate this transformation. Using humour in the L2 classroom may act as a catalyst that moves learners from operating at an interpsychological level to an intrapsychological level, thereby allowing them to solve complex linguistic problems independently. The use of humour has also been recommended by Oxford (1990), who suggests that L2 learners can use laughter for lowering anxiety levels.

8.3.2 Factors affecting language-learning strategy use

8.3.2.1 Motivation for second-language learning

Several scholars have highlighted the effect of motivation on learning, with many arguing that motivation affects L2 learning significantly (Guilloteaux, & Dörnyei, 2008; Carreira, Ozaki, & Maeda, 2013; Mahdavy, 2013; Yusri et al., 2013) and influences the frequency of learning strategy usage (Oxford, & Shearin, 1994; Roa, 2004; Makoni, 2016). In L2 learning, motivation

is inextricably linked to affective learner characteristics (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Dörnyei, 2009), that is, how learners manage their emotions, as measured by the affective strategies included in the SILL. For example, Rao (2004) postulates that the frequent use of affective strategies by Chinese students learning English may be linked to intrinsic motivation, which is based on the collectivist nature of the Chinese culture. However, motivation is not always linked to affective strategies, as argued by Yusri et al. (2013). In a quantitative study with Malaysian learners learning Arabic, Yusri et al. (2013) attribute their motivation to their high use of memory strategies. Yusri et al. (2013) posit that the learners in their study may be motivated by extrinsic motivation to obtain good grades and not for communicative purposes, thus their frequent use of memorisation. It is evident from these studies that the context in which learning occurs may influence the type of motivation for L2 learning and consequently the context influences the type of strategies that learners use (Ushioda, & Dörnyei, 2012).

In the current study, learner motivation is linked to their frequent use of metacognitive and affective strategies. The motivation illustrated by learners in this study appears to go beyond Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model, which stresses instrumental and integrative motivation, or Ryan and Deci's (1985, 2000) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which relates to Dörnyei's (2005) self-system model, which focuses on indiviual, intrinsic motivation. As argued by Ushioda (2009), L2 learner motivation is inextricably linked to the context in which learning occurs, thus necessitating a broader understanding of contextual issues that relate to the language to be learnt.

From a sociocultural-spiritual perspective, learners' drive to succeed in L2 learning in this study appears to be linked to the perceived gains that investing in L2-learning will yield, such as protecting oneself against shame, overcoming the limitations of one's background and the desire to challenge the power dynamics that position learners in unequal ways (Bourdieu, 1991; Norton, 2000; 2013; Nwoye, 2017). In this regard, learners in my study indicated that their desire to learn English is to avoid the shame which comes as a result of making mistakes when speaking English. Therefore, these learners are driven to learning English to avoid tarnishing their image and that of their community (Nwoye, 2017). This is illustrated in the following extract: "When I improve my English, it gives me power to change the saying of people that says people from government schools cannot speak English fluently. They are all told it's fine, whatever, so when I speak English, I'll be proud kuthi ja [to say yes]" (FGD). In this extract, the learner takes upon themself the responsibility to change the narrative concerning public schools. This indicates that, for these learners, motivation is not solely about the individual and what they can achieve but what this achievement can do for the wider community. This moreover relates to the intersubjective approach advocated in the philosophy of Ubuntu, where

ontological primacy lies not in the individual nor in the community but in the collective (Kochalumchuvattil, 2010; Maphalala, 2017; Nwoye, 2017).

Motivation for L2 learning also relates to the degree that learners invest their resources, time, attention and effort in learning the L2 (Griffiths, 2013; Norton, 2013a; Duff, 2014). In the current study, this is demonstrated by learners' investing their time in applying various metacognitive strategies, such as having a schedule, paying attention in class, noticing their mistakes, looking for opportunities and people with whom they can speak the L2. These strategies all allude to their drive or commitment to learning the L2 (Norton, 2000; Griffiths, 2013; Norton, 2013a; Duff, 2014). In this study it is evident that learners are highly invested in L2 learning, as seen in their voluntary participation in the peer tutoring sessions. These sessions occur after school and over weekends and require learners to relinquish all other activities so they can invest their time in their learning. From a sociocultural-spiritual perspective, the learners' investment of their time and resources in peer tutoring may relate to their need to overcome the limitations of their backgrounds (Nwoye, 2013). Learners reported that they were motivated to learn English to be able to interact in class, to be able to respond during job interviews and to be able to use English effectively once they were in the job market.

8.3.2.2 Strengthening the use of indigenous African languages for scaffolding second-language-learning

The quantitative results of the present study showed a medium, but positive correlation (r_s =. 48) between the L1 and the L2, which accounted for 23% of the variance in English performance. Given the myriad factors that affect language performance, finding a factor that accounts for almost a third of performance is significant (Griffiths, 2013). The results further indicate that learners with higher L1 skills (reading, writing, speaking and vocabulary and grammar) frequently used five of the six SILL strategies (memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies). The use of the L1 to scaffold L2 learning was further corroborated by the qualitative data as learners reported using translanguaging to aid L2 understanding. The use of translanguaging to scaffold L2 learning is consistent with the findings of other scholars in the field of L2 learning (Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Carstens, 2016; Ngcobo et al., 2016; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; García, & Kleifgen, 2019; Pun, & Macaro, 2019; Spencer, Petersen, Restrepo, Thompson, & Arvizu, 2019).

Learners in the current study decried the elevation of English and contended that their home language should be given the same status as English. This was particularly related to test situations, when learners noted the unfairness of being tested in their L2. In this study, it was

evident that some learners did not fully grasp the L2 and needed some explanations in their L1. Learners would also translanguage when interacting with one another and their peers. These findings lend support to the arguments by scholars such as García and Kleifgen, (2019), Canagarajah (2002), and Makalela (2015b). They are all very critical of the monolingual approach to language use and advocated the use of translanguaging as this approach has been shown to result in positive cognitive gains for L2 learners. Furthermore, it develops a greater understanding of various language concepts (Madiba, 2012; Carstens, 2016, Ngcobo et al., 2016). The inclusion of the L1 allows learners to use already known L1 knowledge for meaning-making in the L2. These findings confirm previous research in South Africa and around the world, further providing evidence that the L1 is positively related to higher L2 performance (Canagarajah, 2002; Gumbo 2012; Heugh, 2013; Plüddemann, 2015).

There is strong support in the literature for the argument that the L1 aids cognitive development and that denying learners the use of their L1 through the implementation of an early exit model destabilises academic language development (Uzawa, 1996; Woodall, 2002, Haenen et al., 2003; Wang, 2003, Murphy, & De Larios, 2010; Madiba, 2012). In South Africa, the implementation of an early exit model has meant that learners learn in the L1 for the first three years of schooling but then transition to English as LoLT in Grade 4. Such a model provides high support for the L1 in the first three years but little to no support of the L1 from Grade 4 onwards (Howie, Venter, & Van Staden, 2008; Walter, 2008; Casale, & Posel, 2011; Madiba, 2012; Heugh, 2013; Plüddemann, 2015). According to Oxford (1990), the strategy of analysing and reasoning involves contrastive comparison of the L2 to the L1 as well as translating the L2 into the L1 and vice versa. This also involves the transfer of information, which relates to the direct application of knowledge of words, phrases and concepts from the L1 to the L2. These strategies, which were frequently used by learners in this study, indicate that these particular learners used the L1 for L2 learning.

From a sociocultural perspective, the use of the L1 to support the L2 can be linked to Vygotsky's theory regarding the ZPD (Haenen et al., 2003; Ellis, 2008; Ohta, 2010; Lantolf et al., 2015). The L1 could be theorised as what the learner already knows (everyday concepts) and the L2 can be regarded as the learner's potential level of development (what the learner can achieve with assistance from others). For optimal cognitive development to occur, the quality and quantity of external forms of dialogic interaction needs to be in line with a learner's potential ability. If the L1 is completely ignored, the dialogic interaction may be beyond what the learner can achieve, thus no cognitive development would be possible. However, the maintenance of the L1 ensures the optimal benefit of dialogic interaction between learners and their peers or their tutors, thus fostering cognitive development. The interplay between everyday concepts and academic concepts in the language classroom calls for the maintenance

of the L1 (what the learner already knows) for L2 development (potential development). Conceptualised in this manner, it is evident that there is a need for revising language policies and for ensuring that learners can use all their linguistic resources in the learning process.

From a sociocultural perspective, denying learners the use of their home language is to deny them their identity as learning not only involves the construction of knowledge, but also requires the construction of identity (Lave, & Wenger, 1991). Such denial alienates learners from the learning environment, in so doing resulting in cultural alienation (Mckinney, & Norton, 2008). For example, learners in this study reported that they at times disengaged during a dialogue or they changed the topic when they could not think of the correct English phrase to use. However, if the learning conditions were disrupted and learners could use all their linguistic resources, these learners might have been able to continue with a conversation using their L1. It is therefore crucial that the curriculum should consider including the full linguistic and LLS repertoires of L2 learners and affirm the identity of the learners. Learners in this study seemed to embrace their translingual identity. These learners reported how they moved seamlessly from the one language to the other and showed appreciation for the multilingual context in which they find themselves. Where there was resistance to L2 learning, it appeared to have been driven by learners' disapproval of having English elevated above their languages. This is an important finding as it suggests that devaluing learners' L1 may result in resistance to L2-learning. This is confirmed in the literature, with various scholars highlighting the dialogic matrix between language and identity (Norton, 2000; Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005; Newfield, & Maundedzo, 2006; Makoni, & Pennycook, 2007; Makoni, 2011; Darvin, & Norton, 2015; Makalela, 2015; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Ned, 2019). For example, Makalela (2015a) argues that allowing learners to use all their languages reaffirms their identity. Mavhiza, (2019) asserts that affirming learners' identity ensures greater engagement by learners and heightens their motivation, resulting in greater exploration of various learning strategies that would allow them to succeed in the L2 classroom. These findings highlight the need to valorise learners' translingual identity through affording them a voice in the L2 classroom.

8.3.2.3 Gender and language-learning strategy use

The findings relating to the effect of gender on strategy use are inconsistent, with some studies finding no differences in the frequency of strategy use by males and females (Khamkhien, 2010; Cekiso, & Madikizela, 2014; Balci, & Üğüten, 2018; Mutar, 2018), while others noting differences (Oxford, & Nyikos, 1989; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Kaylani, 1996; Phakiti, 2003; Rao, 2004; Božinović, & Sindik, 2011; Griffiths, 2013; Salahshour et al., 2013; Oxford et al., 2014). The findings of the current study show that gender has a significant effect on LLS use, with female learners using LLSs more frequently than male learners. Female learners used five

(memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and affective) of the six SILL strategies, significantly more than male learners, who used social strategies at the same frequency as females. In addition, female learners achieved higher performance in the L2 than male learners, suggesting that the higher usage of strategies by females was related to higher performance in the L2. This is consistent with the results of other researchers who also found that frequent strategy use is related to higher L2 performance (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, Griffiths, 2013).

A possible explanation for the differences in LLS use between males and females may be related to motivation, as found by several scholars (Mori, & Gobel 2006; Mahdavy, 2013). While these studies have shown that females report higher motivation than males, these findings have not been consistent. For example, Mahdavy (2013) found that male Iranian high school learners were significantly more motivated to learn English than their female counterparts. This differential motivation between males and females was attributed to the pressure in Iranian society that encourages males to learn the language to create greater opportunities to be breadwinners. Using Gardner's socio-educational model of motivation for Japanese learners learning English as a foreign language, Mori and Gobel (2006) found that female learners reported higher integrative motivation than their male counterparts. This suggests that these female learners had a greater interest than male learners in associating with native English speakers, hoping to integrate themselves in this community when travelling (Ehrman 1996; Ushioda, 2008; Pezeshkian, & Kafipour, 2011; Yule, 2014). Given the role of motivation in L2 learning, it is possible that female learners may be more motivated to learn the L2 than male learners. However, this would require further exploration in future studies.

In contrast to the studies which found that females used social interaction strategies more than males (Oxford, & Nyikos, 1986; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Kaylani, 1996; Salahshour et al., 2013), the results of the current study show no differences between the use of social strategies by male and female learners. These results find some support in a study by Božinović and Sindik (2011). Although Balci and Üğüten (2018) combine the social and affective strategies to form socio-affective strategies, no significant differences between males and females on their use of these socio-affective strategies were reported. The constructivist nature of the peer tutoring environment provides a unique sociocultural environment that allows learners to co-construct knowledge with their peers or tutors through social interaction and collaborative learning, as suggested by Vygotsky (1986). Therefore, the interactional nature of the peer tutoring environment may provide an explanation for the similarities observed in male and female application of social strategies. The constructivist nature of peer tutoring has been reported to facilitate active engagement between learners and tutors (Bude et al., 2009; Hsia et al., 2016; Tsuei, 2017). In my study, robust engagement was observed during peer tutoring and

learners also reported that the peer tutoring environment allowed them to learn from each other. Consequently, the high level of interaction during peer tutoring may account for the results of the current study as regards social strategies.

The findings of my study suggest continuous debating regarding the effects of gender on LLS usage. One suggestion for the ambiguous results with regard to gender differences is that the cultural environment and opportunities both males and females were provided may account for the difference in choice of strategy use by the two genders.

8.3.3 Peer tutoring and language-learning strategy use

8.3.3.1 Scaffolding second-language learning in the peer tutoring environment

The peer tutoring environment has been credited as a resource for L2 learners in Vygotskian theory (Angelova, Gunawardena, & Volk, 2006). The results of the current study reveal that peer interactions serve as a resource for L2 learning, with learners drawing on their translingual knowledge to co-construct the L2. Learners in this study reported that the peer tutoring environment helped them to improve their L2 learning. These results support other research in the Vygotskian tradition, which emphasises the crucial role of social interaction in human development (Ozfidan et al., 2014; Lialikhova, 2019). Drawing from a Vygotskian (1978) understanding of the ZPD, the findings of the current study suggest that the ZPD was created as learners interacted and collaborated with one another during the tutoring sessions. It is in the process of these interactions that learners learn, and this highlights the need for the incorporation of small-group work in the classroom environment.

Learners in this study further reported that peer tutoring helped them significantly to improve their reading, vocabulary, and grammar and speaking ability. These improvements were observed regardless of the type of peer tutoring interaction that was used in the various programmes. This suggests that improvement in L2 was not reliant on whether learners were tutored by experts (tutors) or novices (fellow learners). No significant improvement was reported in respect of L2 writing, suggesting an area for improvement in the peer tutoring programmes.

The improvements learners reported in this study can be linked to feedback that learners received from one another and from their tutors. In the current study learners reported that they often corrected each other during the peer tutoring sessions. Corrective feedback from peers was received and interpreted positively by learners, who saw this as a sign of being cared for and supported in their L2 learning. The majority of learners in this study also welcomed corrective feedback from tutors but highlighted the negative consequences if this feedback is

not done correctly. If tutors laugh and ridicule the learners in front of their peers, which was sometimes the case during peer tutoring, L2 learners may be negatively affected as learners tended to retreat from collaborative interaction. This is confirmed in a case study by Ozfidan et al. (2014) conducted with 20 students from different nationalities (Iran, China, Japan, Azerbaijan, Egypt and Turkey). In this study by Ozfidan et al. (2014), students reported that direct feedback from teachers hindered their language-learning and made students scared to engage in class for fear of making mistakes, while the feedback obtained from peers was received as constructive and helpful. This highlights the role of peer interaction and feedback in L2 learning, which are key constructs in Vygostky's (1978) SCT.

Given the findings of this study, it is crucial that cooperative learning strategies need to be given as much prominence in LLS research as cognitive or metacognitive strategies as they form a major part of the African reality. Cooperative learning refers to group learning activities that are designed to enhance learning through socially structured exchanges (Oxford, 2007). Maphalala (2017) contends that cooperative learning strategies create an opportunity for learners to learn from one another. This kind of opportunity allows learners to practice skills such as communication and articulation of ideas and it fosters respect for others who might have opposing views. Cooperative learning strategies demand the use of various teaching methods such as role plays, group discussions, pair work, debates and case studies, which compel learners to cooperate with one another during the learning process. Maphalala (2017) argues that such cooperation results in respect for one another, inclusivity and shared responsibility-taking in the classroom. Cooperative learning strategies also foster harmony, collective responsibility, teamwork and encourages individuals to be accountable to the group and vice versa (Oxford, 1997; Maphalala, 2017).

Closely linked to cooperative learning is the concept of collaborative learning, which is usually highly unstructured. Collaborative learning occurs when learners engage with more knowledgeable others or peers and these individuals then assist or guide the learner. Collaborative learning tends to promote gaining knowledge in an unorthodox manner but ensures that the learner is taught within their ZPD (Oxford, 1997) and is often associated with building high-order knowledge (Oxford, 1997). In a collaborative peer tutoring environment, learners are given more freedom to complete tasks without constant teacher supervision, thus allowing learners to co-construct knowledge (Lialikhova, 2019). In her study with low- and high-performing learners, Lialikhova (2019) found that high-performing learners preferred collaborative learning, whereas low-performing learners had a preference for cooperative learning. In the current study the peer tutoring programmes allowed for both collaborative and cooperative learning. This might explain why there were no differences between the performance of learners attending different types of peer tutoring programmes, as indicated in

the quantitative results. This suggests that peer tutoring programmes with an equal mix of collaborative and cooperative learning may be an effective resource for L2 learning. This moreover suggests that the type of peer tutoring (same-age, cross-age, classwide) may not be as important as the type of learning interaction that is allowed in these peer tutoring programmes.

8.5 Conclusion

The foregoing discussion of the results displayed how different theories and paradigms can complement each other in addressing research problems. Using a pragmatic philosophical paradigm, I was able to draw on concepts from IKS, cognitive theory and constructivism to address the research questions in the current study. It is evident from this discussion that the use of various theories and paradigms can facilitate in-depth understanding of education-related problems.

A key theme throughout the discussion was that L2 learners frequently used a variety of strategies in learning the L2. Usage of these strategies appears to be collectivist in nature, reflecting an indigenous value, when learners often draw on social interaction with those around them to construct knowledge. In order to encourage learners to apply social interaction for learning, I argue that it is necessary to include indigenous strategies in L2 learning. These indigenous strategies, although social in nature, allow learners to internalise the L2 and therefore provides them with the intrapsychological means to use effectively for solving complex linguistic problems. This highlights the need to give both conventional and indigenous ways of gaining knowledge equal status. In so doing, learners are empowered to use their existing knowledge systems while at the same time embracing new knowledge systems.

Moreover, there is a need to decolonise the learning of English L2 by allowing greater use of the L1, using multimodal methods and creating opportunities for communal learning. Although learners in this study frequently expressed a desire to practice English, there is also evidence indicating that they benefitted from using their home language in L2 learning. Learners need to use the full repertoires of languages they use daily to reinforce their translingual identities. Learning should also be multimodal, including indigenous forms of art such as praise poetry, artwork and songs. The inclusion of indigenous modalities in the learning of the L2 may help to valorise the learner's identity and contribute to creating a relaxed and enjoyable environment that is conducive to learning. The role of collective social interaction foregrounds learners' L2 learning and should consequently be essentialised in the learning environment.

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Chapter Nine
Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

In Chapter Six I presented the results of the quantitative data and in Chapter Seven I presented the qualitative results of the current study. The integration and discussion of both the qualitative and quantitative results in Chapter Eight followed thereafter. In this Chapter I consolidate all the findings of the current study by providing the following summaries:

1. Summary of the results (9.2)
    a. Address the research questions that provide evidence in support of answering these questions (9.2.1)
    b. New insights into LLS that illuminate the possible contributions achieved by this study (9.2.2)
2. Reflections on the conceptual framework (9.3)
3. Methodological reflections which will highlight the limitations of this study (9.4)
4. Recommendations emanating from the current study (9.5)
    a. Recommendations for policy and practice (9.5.1)
    b. Recommendations for future research (9.5.2)
5. Presentation of the final conclusions (9.6)

9.2. Summary of Results

9.2.1 Addressing the research questions

This convergent mixed methods study aimed to explore the LLSs used by L2 learners participating in peer tutoring. The main research question that guided this study was: What LLSs do English L2 learners in a peer tutoring environment use and how does this environment, which includes sociocultural factors, affect LLS usage? In order to answer the main research question, four subquestions were formulated, namely:

1. What are the conventional and indigenous language-learning strategies used by English L2 learners engaged in peer tutoring initiatives?
2. How does the frequency, quantity and type of conventional strategy use affect L2 learning?

3. What are the sociocultural factors (such as gender, motivation, identity and L1 competence) that could be associated with L2 learning and how do these factors affect language-learning strategy use?

4. What role does peer tutoring play in language-learning and LLS usage?

The section that follows elaborates on the study's attempt to provide answers to the aforementioned questions.

9.2.1.1 Subquestion no 1

What are the conventional and indigenous language-learning strategies used by English second-language learners engaged in peer tutoring initiatives?

It is evident from the findings of the current study that second-language learners participating in peer tutoring use LLSs at a high frequency (SILL *M* = 3.61). The specific strategy categories used at a high frequently were metacognitive (*M* = 4.06), social (*M* = 3.73), cognitive (*M* = 3.61) and affective strategies (*M* = 3.56). With the exclusion of cognitive strategies, these strategy categories that were used at a high frequency by learners in this study had an indirect effect on L2 learning (Oxford 1990; Kamper et al., 2010). Memory (*M* = 3.39) and compensation strategies (*M* = 3.25) are both direct strategies and were used at a medium frequency. According to Oxford's (1990) categorisation of these strategy categories, these results imply that L2 learners in this study had a higher preference for language strategies that have an indirect effect on L2 learning (metacognitive, social, cognitive and affective) than those strategies which have a direct effect on L2 learning (memory and compensation).

A qualitative exploration of these strategy categories sheds light on how these strategies were used by learners in the various peer tutoring programmes. The findings show that learners were more inclined to apply strategies as a collective, either in their formally organised peer tutoring groups or with friends and other groups outside the peer tutoring environment. This collectivist use of strategies is clearly demonstrated in each of the strategy categories. The collectivist approach to LLS use is demonstrated in multiple ways throughout the study. Recognising their need for learning support from others, learners reported asking for assistance and correction from their peers and willingly assisted and corrected their peers during L2 learning. Learners reported to value correction from others as this was interpreted as a demonstration of concern and care for the learners' well-being. Learners also voluntarily corrected others when they made mistakes, which demonstrated their preference for mutually beneficial learning interaction and reciprocity between learners and their peers.

Learners often reported that they worked in groups, either in the official peer tutoring groups or in their informal groups, to practice pronouncing English words and to learn to pronounce the new words in communication. They read together and held discussions of stories they had read, thereby improving their L2 skills such as reading, listening and speaking. Learners also encouraged one another to be better L2 learners. The collective use of strategies is likely informed by the learners' indigenous cultural values whereby knowledge generation is perceived to be a collective and community activity (Chilisa, 2012; Owusu-Ansah, & Mji, 2013; Maphalala, 2017). This also partially confirms Vygotsky's (1978) argument that higher forms of mental functioning are mediated through social interaction. As learners interact, they can co-construct L2 knowledge, thereby increasing their capacity for higher mental functioning.

A unique finding in the current study was that learners also reported using indigenous strategies for L2 learning. These indigenous strategies included two subcategories, namely: indigenous art forms (music, song, dance, drama, poetry and word games) (see section 7.4.2.1) and the use of humour (see section 7.4.2.2). Learners reported that listening to English songs and singing English music facilitated their L2 learning. Learners also reported using word games and poetry as a useful strategy for L2 learning. These art forms and games were reported to improve the learners' writing and speaking skills as well as allowing them to gain a greater understanding of the L2. Therefore, they were not only forms of play and art, but also strategies for L2 learning that the learners employed.

Learners frequently reported using humour, as indicated in the qualitative data. Humour was used to downplay learners' L2 mistakes and for creating a safe space in which learners could use the L2. When applied in this way, humour defuses emotions and assists with lowering anxiety regarding L2 usage (Samson, & Gross, 2012; Adjei, 2015; Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018). Consistent with the assertion by Bilokcuoglu and Bebreli (2018), that humour encourages critical thinking, the results indicate that learners were able to use humour for critical thinking. They moreover used humour to assist them with remembering words and gaining a greater understanding of the L2. The deliberate mispronunciation of L2 words and speaking "broken English" (OEQ) appear to have served as a strategy for stretching the limits of language, in so doing creating a hybridised form of English (Miller et al., 2017; Bilokcuoglu, & Bebreli, 2018; Cho, & Kim, 2018). Learners reported that this form of English allowed them to retain information and to access knowledge when required. This may account for learners' medium use of memory strategies – as conceptualised in the SILL – which suggests a different perspective on how learners memorise and recall information. Importantly, in an indigenous learning context this hybridised form of English functions as a memory strategy.

9.2.1.2 Subquestion no 2

How does the frequency, quantity and type of conventional strategy use affect L2 learning?

a. Frequency of strategy use and L2 learning

The frequency of strategy use in this study correlated with higher L2 performance and higher proficiency in the various language skills. These findings are supported by other researchers in the field of LLS (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Green, & Oxford; 1995; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Griffiths, 2013). The correlations results show that the cognitive strategy category was positively correlated with L2 performance $r_s(105) = .227$, $p < .05$. The specific cognitive strategies associated with L2 learning were reading for pleasure $r_s(105) = .211$, $p < .05$ and skimming over an English passage $r_s(105) = .207$, $p < .05$. This indicates that the learners' English scores related to their overall ability to manipulate or transform the L2 through getting the idea quickly (skim through passage) and using resources (reading for pleasure) (Oxford; 1990; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014). The learners' ability to use higher order functions to plan and organise (having clear goals $r_s(105) = .251$, $p < .01$.) and to evaluate and self-monitor (noticing English mistakes $r_s(105) = .264$, $p < .01$) was also related to higher L2 scores (Oxford, 1990; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014).

The results further indicate that L2 reading correlated significantly with overall SILL $r_s(105) = .452$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 20\%$, which suggests that 20% of the variance in reading ability can be accounted for by the use of strategies. All six strategy categories were associated with L2 reading, with medium correlations found between L2 reading and metacognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .419$, $p < .01$, cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .411$, $p < .01$, social strategies $r_s(105) = .332$, $p < .01$, and memory strategies $r_s(105) = .302$, $p < .05$. Small but positive correlations were also found between L2 reading and affective strategies $r_s(105) = .260$, $p < .01$ and compensation strategies $r_s(105) = .225$, $p < .01$.

L2 vocabulary and grammar skills had a small positive correlation with the overall SILL $r_s(105) = .199$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = 4.0\%$. The strategy categories that were related to higher L2 vocabulary and grammar were metacognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .237$, $p < .01$, social strategies $r_s(105) = .195$, $p < .01$, and cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .194$, $p < .05$. Higher L2 writing ability related to frequent use of all the strategies $r_s(105) = .380$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 14.5\%$. Frequent use of all six strategy categories was associated with higher L2 writing: cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .385$, $p < .01$, metacognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .338$, $p < .01$, social strategies $rs(105) = .311$, $p < .01$, compensation strategies $r_s(105) = .231$, $p < .01$, memory strategies $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$, and affective strategies $r_s(105) = .229$, $p < .01$.

The frequent use of overall strategies has a medium positive association with L2 speaking ability, $r_s(105) = .332$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = 11\%$. The specific strategy categories associated with higher L2 speaking ability include: cognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .336$, $p < .01$, social strategies $r_s(105) = .295$, $p < .01$, metacognitive strategies $r_s(105) = .280$, $p < .01$, compensation strategies $r_s(105) = .248$, $p < .01$, memory strategies $r_s(105) = .203$, $p < .01$, and affective strategies $r_s(105) = .173$, $p < .05$.

b. Quantity of strategy use and L2 learning

In this study high-performing learners frequently used 39 of the strategies in the SILL while low-performing learners frequently used 33 strategies. Using a Mann-Whitney U test, the results indicate that although high-performing learners frequently used more strategies than low-performing learners, these differences were not statistically significant U ($N_{low} = 12$, $N_{high} = 31$) = 134.50, $z = -1.40$, $p = .165$. This suggests that strategy quantity did not significantly affect L2 performance in the current study. These results are further confirmed in the analysis of strategy types, with base strategies (strategies favoured by low-performing learners) comprising 20 strategies, and plus strategies (strategies favoured by high-performing learners) comprising 26 strategies. These results contradict those found by some researchers, who indicate that high-performing learners use significantly more strategies than low-performing learners (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Dreyer, & Oxford, 1996; Griffiths, 2008, 2013; Kayaoğlu, 2013; Gregersen, & MacIntyre, 2014; Nazri, 2016). However, these results confirm the findings of other researchers (Huang, & Van Naerssen, 1987; Anderson, 2005), who argue that quantity of strategies used is not an effective indicator of L2 performance but the various strategies used are. This appears to be the case in the current study as the type of strategy used by high- and low-performing learners varied significantly.

c. Type of strategy use and L2 learning

In this study it was evident that learners at different L2 proficiency levels preferred different strategies. High-performing learners had a greater preference for cognitive (39%), metacognitive (27%), affective (15%) and memory (15%) strategies. This suggests that high-performing learners put greater effort into learning the L2 through practising the language (cognitive 12), using new words in a sentence (memory 2), repeating or writing new English words several times (cognitive 10), and writing notes and messages in English (cognitive 17). Moreover, these learners looked for opportunities to read in English (metacognitive 36), they had a learning schedule (metacognitive 34) and encouraged themselves to speak English (affective 40). High-performing learners were also distinct from low-performing learners in that they were able to make the L2 meaningful by trying to understand it through using L1 knowledge (cognitive 19) and rhymes (cognitive 20), dividing the L2 into meaningful parts

(cognitive 21) and finding patterns of meaning (cognitive 21). High performers also immersed themselves in the L2 by watching English television shows (cognitive 15), reading English material (cognitive 16), and trying to speak like native English speakers (cognitive 11).

High-performing learners were also found to plan and organise their learning effectively, as indicated by their high use of metacognitive strategies. This was illustrated by their having a learning schedule (metacognitive 24) and clear language goals (metacognitive 27). These good learners also invested time in thinking about their progress (metacognitive 38) and in enquiring how they could be better L2 learners (metacognitive 33). They looked for opportunities to use English (metacognitive 36), looked for people to speak English to (metacognitive 35) and noticed their own mistakes in English (metacognitive 31). High performers were also found to regulate their emotions about L2 use effectively and proactively. This was accomplished through writing down their feelings (affective 43), calming themselves down whenever they felt nervous (affective 39), encouraging themselves (affective 40) and rewarding themselves (affective 41) when they had achieved their language goals. To aid effective recall of L2 information already learnt, high-performing learners applied the following strategies: using new words in a sentence (memory 2), making mental pictures (memory 4), and using rhymes (memory 5) and flash cards (memory 6).

Low-performing learners had a greater preference for social strategies (30%), followed by memory strategies (20%), cognitive strategies (15%), and compensation strategies (15%). Low-performing learners relied heavily on interactional strategies such as asking for correction (social 46), asking for help (social 48) and practicing the L2 with other learners (social 47). In addition to their reliance on social interaction, low-performing learners relied on memorisation for L2 learning. This was illustrated by their frequent review of English lessons (memory 8), thinking of relationships between words (memory 1) and making sound connections between new English words (memory 3).

Moreover, low-performing learners used an equal number of cognitive (15%) and compensation strategies (15%). The type of cognitive and compensation strategies used by low-performing learners suggests that they have a high tolerance for ambiguity (Griffiths, 2014). These learners frequently translated word-for-word (cognitive 22) but when they did not know a word, they showed a tendency to guess (compensations 24 and 28) rather than look up every word in a dictionary (compensation 27). The high tolerance for ambiguity found among low-performing learners in the current study contradicts the findings by Griffiths (2013), who posited that high tolerance for ambiguity was found to be prevalent in high-performing learners.

In summary, this study indicates that frequency of strategy use was related to higher L2 performance, which suggests that high frequency of strategy use results in higher performance in the L2. Evidence suggests that high- and low-performing learners used a similar number of strategies, implying that quantity of strategy use does not affect L2 performance significantly. The type of strategy used by high-performing learners varied meaningfully from those strategies used by low-performing learners. This suggests that strategy type and frequency of strategy use are related to L2 learning whereas quantity of strategy use does not affect L2 learning.

9.2.1.3 Subquestion no 3

What are the sociocultural factors (such as gender, motivation, identity and L1 competence) that could be associated with L2 learning and how do these factors affect language-learning strategy use?

The main contribution of the present study to research on the factors that affect LLS use relates to the learners' L1. The results show that that high L1 scores correlated significantly with high L2 scores r_s (102) = .480, $p < .001$, R^2 = 23%. These results were further confirmed by the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, which indicates that frequency of strategy use was significantly higher among learners with a high L1 reading ability than those with a poor L1 reading ability $U(N_{hih} = 107, N_{low} = 29) = 1053.0$, $z = -2.649$, $p = .008$, $r = -0.23$. This was also true for vocabulary and grammar $U(N_{hih} = 100, N_{low} = 30) = 1067.0$, $z = -2.393$, $p = .016$, $r = -0.21$, writing ability $U(N_{hih} = 104, N_{low} = 26) = 756.5$, $z = -3.467$, $p = .000$, $r = -0.30$ and speaking ability $U(N_{hih} = 109, N_{low} = 19) = 628.5$, $z = -2.728$, $p = .006$, $r = -0.24$.

Two subthemes in the qualitative data confirmed the value of strengthening the L1 for L2 learning, namely translanguaging practice and language and identity. It was evident from the results that learners made use of translanguaging practice to scaffold L2 learning. Learners reported that they mixed their L1 with the L2, and that they spoke in their own language if they struggled with the L2. They also used translation to help facilitate learning. These results provide evidence that strengthening the L1 helps to support L2 learning, as argued by several international (Carstens, 2016; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; García, & Kleifgen, 2019; Pun, & Macaro, 2019; Spencer, Petersen, Restrepo, Thompson, & Arvizu, 2019) and national scholars (Newfield, & D´Abdon, 2015; Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017).

From a sociocultural perspective, strengthening the L1 allows learners to construct both L2 knowledge as well as their identity (Lave, & Wenger, 1991). Learners reported that they often disengaged from a conversation or changed the topic if they struggled to express themselves in the L2. Learners also expressed dissatisfaction with the sole use of the L2 and conveyed a desire

to have their L1 elevated to the same status as the L2. These findings suggest that denying learners an opportunity to use the L1 may result in resistance to learning the L2. This highlights the dialogic matrix that exists between language and identity, an argument supported by many scholars (Bucholtz, & Hall, 2005; Newfield, & Maundedzo, 2006; Makoni, & Pennycook, 2007; Makoni, 2011, Darvin, & Norton, 2015; Makalela, 2015a; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Ned, 2019).

Motivation was also highlighted as a factor that affected L2 learning in the current study. Using a sociocultural-spiritual perspective, the findings of the current study highlight that learners' motivation was linked to perceived gains that would result from investing in L2 learning. This included protection against shame, overcoming limitations and the desire to challenge power dynamics that exist in the sociocultural environment (Bourdieu, 1991; Norton, 2013b; Nwoye, 2017). Learners applied various metacognitive and affective strategies to ensure that they planned and managed their L2 learning in order that they should not experience the shame associated with making mistakes when using the L2. Learners also reported that they wanted to challenge the notion that learners from public schools were not proficient in English. Thus, their investment in L2 learning went beyond what the language can do for them as individuals and also applied to what this could do for the collective. The aforementioned relates to the values of Ubuntu and IKS, where knowledge generation is viewed as a collective practice instead of an individual activity (Chilisa, 2012; Maphalala, 2017; Nwoye, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017).

The number of languages used also significantly affected strategy use as learners who spoke one home language used significantly more metacognitive strategies than those learners who spoke two or more home languages $U(N_{\text{oneL1}} = 52, N_{\text{multipleL1}} = 74) = 1476.0$, $z = -2.22$, $p = .026$, $r = -.20$. Therefore, learners who only indicated one home language coordinated their learning more effectively than learners who indicated two or more home languages (Oxford, 1990; Chostelidou, 2015). This finding confirms the findings of the study by Chostelidou et al. (2015), who also found that monolingual learners used more metacognitive strategies than multilingual learners. However, the finding of the current study contradicts research by the researchers who found that multilinguals used more metacognitive strategies than monolingual learners (Mitits, 2016; Dmitrenko, 2017). The results of a study by Mitits (2016) with a sample of adolescent learners learning English found that multilingual learners had a higher preference for metacognitive strategies than monolingual learners.

The quantitative results indicated that gender significantly affected LLS use. Female learners generally used strategies more frequently than their male counterparts $U(N_{\text{female}} = 89, N_{\text{male}} = 45) = 1215.5$, $z = -3.708$, $p = .000$, $r = -.32$. Females also frequently used more memory

strategies U= 1553.5, z = -2.12, p = .034, r = -.18, cognitive strategies U = 1144.5, z = -4.05, p = .000, r = -.35, compensation strategies U = 1437.0, z = -2.67, p = .007, r = -.25, metacognitive strategies U = 1382.5, z = -2.93, p = .003, r = -.25, and affective strategies U = 1407.5, z = -2.81, p = .005, r =-.24 than their male counterparts. The more frequent use of strategies by female learners was associated with their higher performance in the L2 $U(N_{female} = 70, N_{male} = 34) = 797.5$, z = -2.79, p = .005, r = -.27. These results imply that being female is related to higher strategy use as well as higher L2 performance.

The qualitative data further indicate that resource availability and social disconnection were critical factors that affected strategy use among L2 learners and shaped investment in learning the L2 (Darvin, 2019). Lack of resources in the home and in the classroom environment shaped L2 learning and informed the type of strategies that learners could use. For example, learners indicated in both the qualitative and quantitative data that they frequently used reading as a strategy for L2 learning. However, learners did not always have reading resources available that they could use at home or even in some classrooms. Learners reported that they wished they could have English books to read and highlighted that they often shared one textbook with classmates, and said that this made English learning difficult. In the face of resource shortages, learners had to adapt their strategies and adopt strategies that did not require resources such as reading material and dictionaries. To this effect learners indicated that not having a dictionary forced them to underline words or write these words down and, once at school, ask the teacher for the meaning of the words.

Learners also indicated that their school classrooms were often overcrowded and as a result the learners were unable to hear the teacher or to concentrate in class. Furthermore, learners reported that the overcrowding resulted in uncontrollable classroom environments, with learners talking while the teacher was teaching. In such classrooms, learners were unable to use some of the conventional strategies that they reported to be using. With an increase in noise levels during lessons, learners were unable to use strategies such as paying attention when someone was talking (metacognitive 42), summarising information (cognitive 23) and asking the other person to slow down (social 45). These findings confirm the studies by several researchers who found that overcrowding often impeded academic achievement (Opotow, 2006; Vandenberg, 2012; Ncontsa, & Shumba, 2013; Muthusamy, 2015; Marais 2016). In overcrowded classes, learners are unable to interact with each other critically owing to spatial constraints. This limitation impeded learners' ability to use the social strategies that they indicated using during peer tutoring, which is conducted in small classes. This inability to co-construct knowledge with their peers can inhibit critical thinking and problem-solving (Marais, 2016).

Another key finding associated with the Ubuntu philosophy relates to humanising the learning environment. This value is central to the African understanding of what it means to be a human being (Maphalala, 2017) and was observed in learners' respect for others and how they took care of the learning environment. Respect was key to how learners interacted with each other. This was demonstrated in their not being disruptive, which allowed learners to maximise L2 learning. Learners in this study often associated a clean environment with safety and learning, thus they participated in cleaning their classrooms and peer tutoring venues to aid L2 learning.

In this study it also became evident that social disconnection was a factor in L2 learning, with learners indicating that in some instances the peers and tutors played a negative role in L2 learning. Peers in the school environment were highlighted as having a negative effect on L2 learning as they made fun of learners trying to learn the L2 and discouraged learning the L2. This was restricted to the school environment and did not apply to the peer tutoring environment. Learners reported that when they were laughed at, they tended to shy away from speaking, asking questions and participating in class. These are all crucial strategies for L2 learning that are subsequently silenced when peers engage in mockery. Tutors were sometimes also perceived as a hindrance to L2 learning. This was true in cases where tutors laughed at learners when they made mistakes in using the L2. Learners also noted that tutors were not consistent in applying the rules laid down by the various peer tutoring programmes, such as the use of English as LoLt. Tutors were at times forcing learners to use English during the sessions, yet they did not always comply with this practice as they used their home languages. This inconsistent practice of applying the rules relating to L2 usage by tutors resulted in resistance to L2 learning. This resistance affected investment in L2 learning and thus affected LLS usage.

9.2.1.4 Subquestion no 4

What role does peer tutoring play in language-learning and LLS usage?

This study has highlighted that peer tutoring is an essential resource for L2 learning, with most learners (64%) indicating that peer tutoring has improved their L2 learning. In the quantitative results, learners reported that peer tutoring assisted them with L2 learning. A closer examination of learners' self-reported English ability before and during peer tutoring shows promising results. The results indicated that learners' L2 reading ability was significantly higher due to tutoring (*Mdn* = 4.1) than before tutoring (*Mdn* =3.6), z = -4.653, p < .001, r = -0.41. Learners indicated higher L2 vocabulary and grammar ability during tutoring (M = 4.0) than before tutoring (*Mdn* = 3.4), z = -6.14, p < .001, r = -0.54. Peer tutoring also significantly improved the learners' ability to speak the L2, as identified by lower scores before tutoring (M = 3.9) and significantly higher scores during tutoring (*Mdn* = 4.2), z = -432, p < .001, r = -0.38.

The qualitative results provided greater insight into how the constructivist nature of the peer tutoring environment assists learners with L2 learning. Key findings in this study are that the peer tutoring environment provides for collaborative interaction, and for learning beyond the classroom. It also allows for humanising of the learning environment. These three themes act as a mechanism through which peer tutoring scaffolds L2 learning. Learners reported that the peer tutoring environment provided greater opportunities for them to use the L2 through peer-to-peer collaboration. Learners indicated that peer-to-peer collaboration was often more effective than the teaching they received from their teachers. Peers were often reported as being supportive by providing correction of mistakes and the resources with which to practice the L2.

The peer tutoring environment was often organised in a manner that allowed for maximum learning through providing enough resources that aid L2 learning, such as books. Moreover, through group work, learners could collaborate with their peers and together co-construct knowledge. Learners also reported that the peer tutoring environment provided a safe environment for constructive feedback. This resulted in these learners trying out various strategies such as performing poetry and conducting unprepared speeches with the assurance that they would not be mocked but supported and corrected where necessary.

Another important finding in this study was that the peer tutoring environment took a holistic view of learning. These peer tutoring programmes were supported by parents who often engaged with the various programmes regarding the progress their children were making. These programmes also provided food for learners to ensure that they did not have to learn on an empty stomach. Such a holistic view of learning allowed learners to invest their time in these programmes and by so doing received assistance with L2 learning.

9.2.2 New insights into language-learning strategies

This study makes a significant contribution to the literature currently available in the field of LLSs and L2 learning with regard to indigenous strategies. This study shows that L2 learners frequently used both conventional and indigenous strategies for L2 learning, yet the literature on LLS has neglected to consider indigenous strategies. Therefore, this study contributes to research on L2 learning by presenting indigenous LLSs and by highlighting the value of these strategies for L2 learning. In this study I argued that both indigenous and conventional strategies should be given equal status, thus providing indigenous learners with a wider repertoire of strategies for L2 learning.

This study also confirmed previously existing literature that suggests that strengthening the L1 provides a vital tool for L2 learning (Uzawa, 1996; Villamil, & De Guerrero, 1996; Zimmermann, 2000; Woodall, 2002; Wang, 2003; Murphy, & Roca de Larios, 2010; Simeon,

2016; Wach, 2016; García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017; Kim, 2019; Lialikhova, 2019). In this study, learners' use of translanguaging and their reported need to have their languages valorised suggest that there is a need to reconsider the value of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Although the learners in this study showed great agency in learning the L2 through the investment of their time and resources (García-Mateus, & Palmer, 2017), they expressed the need to have their home languages recognised and given the same status as English. This is crucial since the context in which L2 learning occurs needs to legitimise L2 learners' identity for these learners optimally to invest in learning the L2. A context which presents unequal power relations between the L1 and the L2 may accordingly affect learners' identity and their motivation to learn the L2 (Norton, 2013a). Thus, this study may motivate the peer tutoring programmes to consider and valorise the use of indigenous languages during peer tutoring, thereby allowing learners to express their translingual identities. This study may also assist curriculum planners to reconsider penalising learners for using the L1 in responding to questions (verbally and in writing during assessments) as this appears to alienate learners from the school environment. Instead of penalising and devaluing learners' L1, curriculum planners should allow learners to use their full linguistic repertoires during assessments until learners are able to express their views confidently and eloquently in the L2. This may ensure active participation in the school system and create an educational environment where learners feel they belong.

Contrary to earlier theories of motivation, Norton (2013) found that high motivation did not translate into successful L2 learning. This study adds insights to the existing body of literature by highlighting the role of gender in LLS use and L2 learning. Not only were there statistically significant differences in the frequency of strategy usage between males and females, but differences were also evident in the types of strategy used by males and females, with the effect sizes showing medium (overall LLS and cognitive strategies) to small (memory, compensation, metacognitive and affective) practical significance. These effect sizes suggest that there is reasonable evidence to believe that measures need to be put in place to ensure that male learners are not left behind with regard to L2 learning.

9.3 Reflections on the Hybridised Language-learning Strategy Conceptual Framework

In Chapter Four, I introduced the hybridised second-language learning strategy conceptual framework that guided the interpretation of the findings of the current study. In this section, I modified this conceptual framework to include the unique findings of the current study. This modified conceptual framework reflects the unique contribution made by the current study to existing knowledge on L2 learning and scholarly work on LLS. Lev Vygotsky's (1978) SCT

underpinned the conceptualisation and design of the current study. This conceptual framework provided the basis for a comprehensive analysis model to evaluate the use of LLS by L2 learners participating in peer tutoring. This model focuses on the sociocultural environment in which learning occurs and is premised on the idea that development occurs as a result of social interaction (Lantolf, 2012; Dongyu, & Du Wanyi, 2013; Thorne, & Tasker, 2013; Lantolf, Thorne, & Poehner, 2015).

The conceptual framework was adapted by adding the sociocultural environment, indigenous strategies and the collective use of conventional strategies. This adaptation was informed by the research findings of the current study, which show that second-language learning and LLS usage are affected by contextual factors and learner factors as well as the sociocultural environment in which language-learning occurs.

I adapted the hybridised second-language learning strategy conceptual framework by adding indigenous strategies, which learners reported to be using to aid L2 learning. The amendments are the text in red in Figure 9.1 above. The indigenous art forms (music, dance, drama, poetry and humour) that I included have been recognised by several researchers as literacy forms that support L2 learning (Kendrick et al., 2006; Rafiee, Kassain, & Dastjerdi, 2010; Şevik, 2012; Brouillette, Childress-Evan, Hinga, & Farkas, 2014; Samuelson, Park, & Munyaneza, 2018). Also added to this framework is the sociocultural-spiritual understanding of motivation as learners in the current study appeared to be motivated by their desire to protect themselves against shame, to overcome the limitations of their background and to challenge the power dynamics that position them as being deficient (Bourdieu, 1991; Norton, 2000, 2013; Nwoye, 2017). I argue that such motivation goes beyond the instrumental and integrative motivation advocated by Gardner (1985). Moreover, it goes beyond the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation contended by Ryan and Deci (2000).

I also highlighted some of the sociocultural environmental factors that could affect L2 learning. Learners in the current study had very limited interaction with native English speakers, which may have limited the strategies that they could use for L2 learning, such as asking for assistance from native English speakers (social 48) and learning about the culture of English speakers (social 50). These broader sociocultural factors cannot be divorced from L2 learning as they shape and determine what learners can and cannot do in terms of the strategies they choose to use.

The revision of this conceptual framework also included the addition of collectivist use (see text in red) of conventional strategies. This revision was informed by learners' constant use of various conventional strategies in groups, and their dependence on their peers for

encouragement, support, and correction. The way these strategies were used reflected the learners' collectivist understanding of knowledge generation, when knowledge was co-created as learners interacted with their peers, tutors and teachers. This is consistent with the constructivist worldview that was adopted in the current study (Chilisa, 2012; Bruen, 2017).

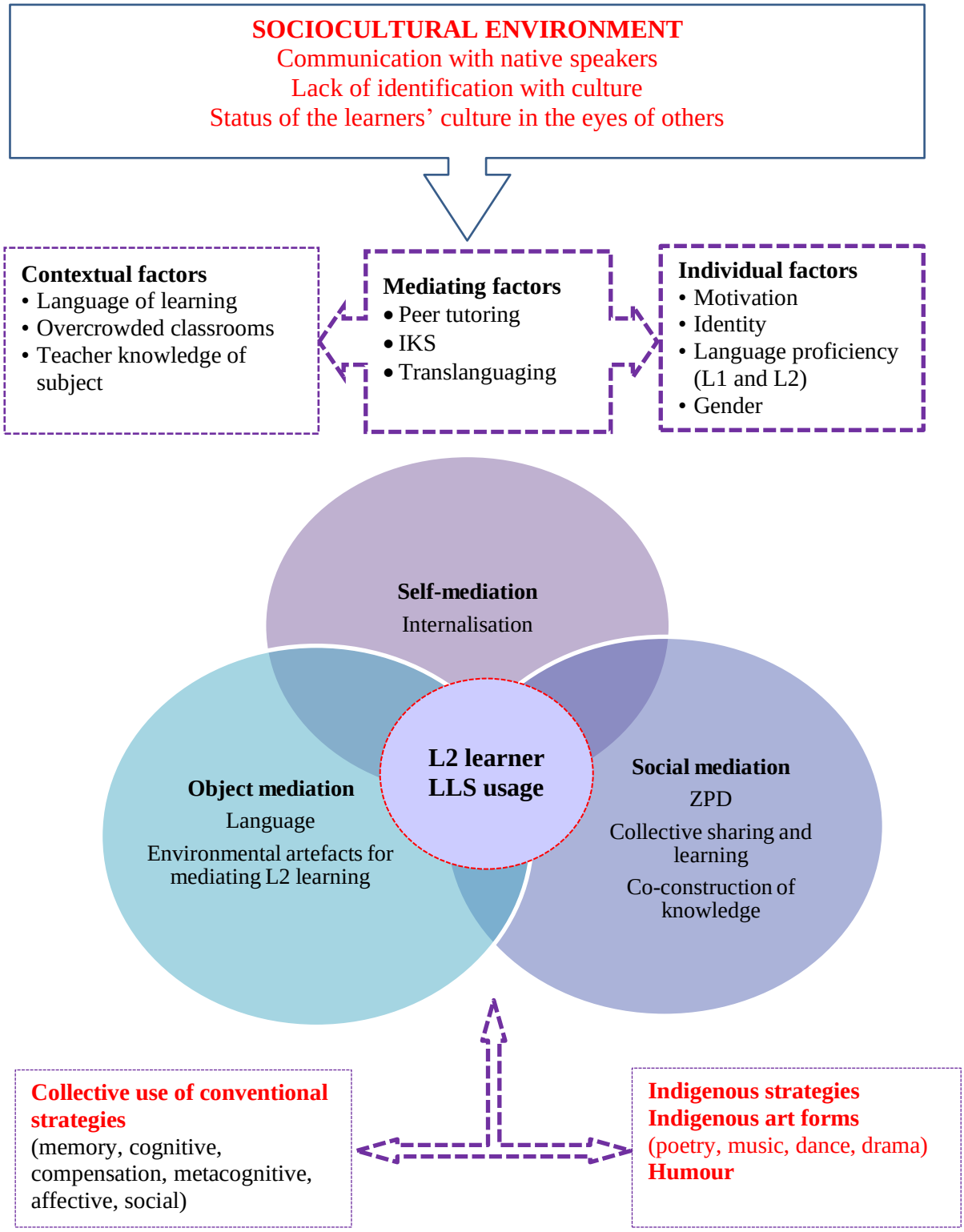

Figure 9.1: Hybridised second-language learning strategy conceptual framework

9.4 Methodological Reflections and Potential Limitations of the Study

In this section I reflect on the methodological conceptualisation, the data sources used, and data analysis applied in the current study. While the methodology of this study can be justified, as highlighted in Chapter Five, the limitations of this study should also be noted to inform future research. A convergent research design was used for this study, which entailed the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time (Creswell, 2015; Ivankova et al., 2016). This design limited the in-depth exploration of the indigenous strategies reported by learners in the qualitative questionnaire and FGDs. The use of an exploratory sequential mixed method study might have proved useful in exploring these indigenous strategies as this type of research allows the researcher to collect the qualitative data first, which allows for the further exploration of the strategies that learners use. Once these strategies have been explored qualitatively, the researcher then develops a questionnaire to measure the extent to which these strategies are prevalent in the learner population (Creswell, 2015; Ivankova et al., 2016). Therefore, using this design might have alleviated some of the difficulties encountered in the integration of the qualitative and quantitative data sets, where some themes were only explored qualitatively and not quantitatively. A deeper understanding of indigenous strategies by L2 learners might have been attained if the indigenous strategies were also explored through a quantitative questionnaire. I perceive this as an ideal opportunity for further research. Morevover, this study could have been enriched by the inclusion of more African scholars in its design and methods. For example, instead of using the typical FGD method, I could have used an indigeneous FGD method such as “talking circles” (Chilisa, 2012, p. 213).

Both the qualitative and quantitative questionnaires were in English, which may have been a hindrance to the learners in expressing themselves. While learners were encouraged to respond in their indigenous languages during the FGDs, they chose to respond in English. This was a barrier in the current study and may have caused learners to hold back due to their inability to express themselves adequately in English. It may have been useful to engage learners in their indigenous languages and in so doing valorising their indigenous languages.

Another methodological limitation of the current study was restricting the learner population to learners participating in peer tutoring in Gauteng province, South Africa. The decision to focus on Gauteng limited the sample size, thereby limiting the conclusions that could be drawn regarding the findings of this study. The results of this study may only be extrapolated to learners attending peer tutoring programmes in Gauteng and not to the wider learner population. A comparative study may have widened the applicability of the findings and may have provided greater understanding of the strategies (both conventional and indigenous) used by learners in the South African context. While I cannot generalise the findings of the current study, there is

evidence that these results are congruent with other learner samples in studies conducted with learners in Gauteng schools (Lutz, 2015; Makoni, 2016).

9.5 Recommendations

In this section, I provide recommendations based on the findings drawn from this study. These recommendations pertain to both policy and practice as well as future research.

9.5.1 Recommendations for policy and practice

This study highlighted the need for the inclusion of indigenous strategies and indigenous languages to ameliorate the learning outcomes of South African L2 learners. While the NCS-CAPS curriculum aims to value IKS (DBE, 2011), it has nonetheless failed to ensure that this ideal is realised (Madiba, 2012; Ned, 2019). It is imperative that the policymakers include the indigenous knowledge systems in the curriculum to ensure that learners become actively involved in their own learning. A learner whose home life and school life are congruous has a greater chance of improving their learning outcomes. This inclusion may help to validate and elevate the rich cultural heritage of indigenous learners. Kendrick et al. (2006) argue that the formal school system often constrains teachers from including indigenous modes of learning owing to the emphasis on examinations, resource shortages, teacher training and on ensuring that they complete the curriculum within the specified timeframe. It is thus imperative that drastic change should be implemented at curriculum level to ensure that the indigenous knowledge that learners possess and the strategies that they report to be using are given equal status to Western forms of knowledge and strategies. In this regard, it may be prudent for the DBE to ease these constraints, which are often reported by teachers, by allocating sufficient time and resources for the inclusion of IKS.

While the LiEP advocates an additive bilingual approach to education, the common practice in South African schools is to adopt an early exit model, which favours English, from Grade 4 (DoE, 1997; Plüddemann, 2015). The hegemony of English over indigenous languages needs to be addressed as evidence shows that use of the L1 scaffolds L2 learning (Madiba, 2012; Early, & Norton, 2014) and helps to valorise learners' multilingual identities (Nkadimeng, & Makalela, 2015; Ngcobo et al., 2016; García-Mateus, 2017; Sefotho, & Makalela, 2017). I therefore recommend that the DBE should consider and encourage the use of translanguaging to valorise learners' translingual identity by changing assessment practices. Learners who may have understood a concept, but failed to articulate this concept in the L2 should be allowed to respond in the language in which they are most comfortable. This may avoid learner alienation from the learning environment and may encourage greater investment in L2 learning.

Drawing from the recommendations put forward by Bell (2009), I propose the incorporation of humour into the L2 classroom and peer tutoring environment as this language-learning strategy allows for complex cognitive functioning. As suggested by Bell (2009) and Miller et al. (2017), I recommend that learners should collect their own humour material for analysis and reflection in the form of books, poetry, video clips and online resources. In this way learners will learn more about the various types of humour and do so using material that is familiar and of interest to them. The second recommendation is to encourage learners to play with language through various art forms such as drama and poetry. This will expose learners to different ways of communicating and allow them to learn through imitating others and memorising L2 material.

Learners in this study cited the use of music as a strategy for language-learning. Given the benefits of music, as highlighted in the discussion, it is recommended that music should be included as a pedagogic strategy for teaching L2. In line with a constructivist and relational worldview, learners can be tasked with creating educational songs to ensure that they are completely immersed in their own learning. Learners should be taught the basic principles of grammar and tasked with the application of the various rules through song creation. Werner (2018) recommends the adaptation of familiar, repetitive songs, especially by teachers with no previous music experience. Werner (2018) also recommends the inclusion of gestures in pedagogic songs for greater learning retention.

The findings of the current study have shown that peer tutoring interaction serves as a crucial resource for L2 learning. These interactions create the ZPD, which awakens a variety of developmental processes (Vygotsky, 1978). These findings have highlighted the value of small peer-group interactions. I therefore recommend that peer-group interactions should be incorporated within the classroom environment as learners seem to benefit from such group interactions. This may allow learners to co-construct knowledge together with their peers.

The results have shown that learners in this study frequently used four of the six strategy categories, memory and compensation strategies being the only strategies that were used at a medium frequency. This suggests that learners did not always compensate effectively for missing L2 knowledge and did not remember knowledge already learnt effectively (Oxford, 1990). It is thus necessary to implement strategy training for learners participating in these peer tutoring programmes. Given that tutors are often not education experts, I recommend that this training should be conducted with both tutors and tutees. This may empower tutees with the much-needed strategies for L2 learning and for the tutors this may raise awareness of the type of strategies that learners use. With some of the peer tutoring programmes implementing same-age tutoring, it is imperative that all those involved in these programmes should be trained to encourage greater use of various strategies.

9.5.2 Recommendations for future research

Firstly, the current study focused solely on L2 learners participating in peer tutoring programmes and did not consider those who were not part of these constructivist programmes. The learners in the current study used LLS at a higher frequency than learners in the studies conducted by Makoni (2016) and Lutz (2015). More research needs to be conducted to assess the frequency of strategies used by learners who participate in after-school peer tutoring programmes and those who do not. Therefore, I recommend that future research should include learners who are not part of a peer tutoring programme and conducting a comparative study to determine if the strategies used by those who attend peer tutoring programmes differed from those who do not attend such programmes. The sole focus of this study was on L2 learners and the strategies they used for learning the L2. Future studies should explore both the learning strategies used by learners as well as the pedagogic strategies used by tutors or teachers.

The design of the current study only provided a cross-section of strategies used by learners who were already participating in peer tutoring programmes. Future studies should make use of a pre-test and post-test design to determine the effect of peer tutoring on strategy usage and L2 performance. Learners could complete the questionnaires prior to enrolling in a peer tutoring programme and the same questionnaire could be administered at the end of the school year to determine if there were any changes in strategy usage and L2 performance. To provide further evidence of the effect of peer tutoring on strategy use and L2 performance, I recommend that a control group design should be employed. Learners in the control group could be chosen from the same schools as those attending the peer tutoring programmes to minimise the effect of extraneous variables such as differences in school resources, teaching methods and learning context.

The findings of the current study show that learners used both conventional and indigenous strategies for L2 learning. To the best of my knowledge the use of indigenous strategies is limited to this study as it has not been pursued previously. However, due to the small sample size, these findings cannot be generalised to all learners in the Gauteng province but only to those who attend peer tutoring programmes in this province. Considering the limitation of the small sample size in the current study, I recommend further exploration of the indigenous LLSs with a bigger and more varied sample, which should be conducted to allow generalisation. These future studies could consider including learners who are not part of a peer tutoring programme for greater generalisation of findings. Future studies could use a different study design such as an explanatory mixed methods research design. This will involve measuring the prevalence of indigenous strategies in the learner population and then, qualitatively, explaining the use of these strategies in L2 learning (Creswell, 2015; Ivankova et al., 2016).

9.6 Conclusion

The findings of this study indicate that high-performing learners generally use more strategies than low-performing learners. This suggests that the number of strategies used might be related to L2 learning, with high-performing learners using more strategies than low-performing learners. It is evident from this study that learners use a wide repertoire of strategies, including conventional and indigenous strategies. This was a key contribution of the current study to the literature on LLS and L2 learning. This particular finding highlights the need to ensure that learners use all their resources in the L2 classroom. The current study also highlighted that the inclusion of IKS in the curriculum is a necessary imperative if academic improvement is to be made by the majority of indigenous learners in South Africa. The indigenous curriculum should reflect the values and practices of indigenous learners in order for optimal learning to occur.

9.7 Final Reflection

Consistent with the use of think boxes to reflect on my journey during this study, I end this journey with the final reflection that follows.

Think box 9.1: Personal reflection

Through this study I am relearning the value of our connectedness as human beings. The selfless contribution of every individual who is part of the various peer tutoring programmes has opened up a corridor for imagining the possibility of a reconstructed education system: A system where learners, with all their various languages, can be meaningful co-constructors of knowledge and effectively engage in the classroom in ways that speak to their identity. This engagement often calls for the use of the learners' L1 for them to express themselves fully.

Never has it been more vital to emphasise the value of our connectedness than now as the world battles the coronavirus. With each day that passes, we realise that our health and well-being is not merely dependent on our ability but also depends on the health of others. This brings home the value of Ubuntu: that my well-being is tied to the well-being of the other. This calls for all of us to stop thinking of ourselves as "I" but start to embrace the "We" because ultimately each of us is connected to those around us.

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APPENDICES

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Appendix A

Information sheet for programme managers

Dear Programme Manager,

I am a student at the University of Pretoria and I am conducting research with the purpose of obtaining my Doctor of Philosophy Degree. The topic of my research is: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***. The University of Pretoria's Ethics Committee has given permission for this research to be conducted. I would greatly appreciate your participation by allowing the Grade 8-9 learners in your peer tutoring programme to participate in this study.

What is this study about?

The aim of this study is to identify the language-learning strategies used by learners to whom English is a second-language. I will also explore how the different strategies influence English second language-learning during peer tutoring sessions. The focus on learning strategies is motivated by findings from several researchers who show that effective language-learning can be achieved through the use of language-learning strategies. These strategies can be taught to learners thereby helping them to make learning more effective, enjoyable and meaningful. The reason for focusing on English is because studies have shown that language proficiency in the medium of instruction is the single biggest factor that affects learner performance in school. In South Africa where majority of learners are taught in their second language it becomes very important to ensure that these learners are made aware of the different strategies that can help them improve their use of the second language.

What are learners expected to do if they participate in this study?

Self-report questionnaires: Participation in this research will require of learners to complete two self-report questionnaires. The first questionnaire will focus on the language-learning strategies used by your child. The second questionnaire will include some biographical information as well as questions about language learning in the context of peer tutoring. These questionnaires will be completed anonymously. This means that learner's responses to the questionnaire will not be directly linked to their name or surname or identity number. However, information such as gender, home language, Grade will be required although this information will in no way reveal the identity of your child. This questionnaire will take between 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

Focus group interview: The learners will also participate in a focus group interview (maximum of six learners per group) when they will share about their learning strategies and

how they think these strategies influence English second-language-learning during peer tutoring. The focus group interviews will be audio-recorded. At no point during the focus group interview will learner's personal details be identified. Learners will not be required to identify themselves by their name, surname or identity number to ensure that none of the responses are linked to specific learners. In transcribing the responses from the focus group interviews pseudonyms will be used. At no point during the write-up of the thesis will your child's identity be revealed. The focus group interviews will take approximately 40 to 60 minutes.

Non-participant observation: I will observe one of the peer tutoring sessions between learners and their tutors and take down observational notes on how language is used during the session. This session will also be audio-taped but the learner will not be asked to identify him/herself. The tutor will not be identified either in order to protect the learner's identity. As a non-participant observer, I will not be tutoring the learners in your programme but will be present while the designated tutors tutor the learners.

Would learner's participation in this study be kept confidential?

All responses will be kept confidential during the study and afterwards, and any information that might identify the learner will not be included in the research report. The data gathered during this study will be used to write a thesis and academic articles. Responses recorded in self-report questionnaire, focus group transcripts and observational notes will be rendered anonymous using pseudonyms created by the researcher. All the data that are gathered will be securely stored for a period of 15 years, after which time these records will be securely destroyed. If you choose to allow the learners to participate in the study please complete the attached consent form. If you have any further queries about this research, please contact me or my supervisor using the contact details listed at the end of this document.

Do learners have to participate in this research and may they stop participating at any time?

Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. Learners have no obligation to participate in this research study. If a learner does not wish to participate in the study, they will not be disadvantaged in any way. The learner will continue to participate in the peer tutoring sessions regardless of their participation in this study.

The learners are allowed to withdraw at any time from their participation in this research. The moment a learner wishes to withdraw from the study, he or she will be allowed to do so regardless of whether he or she had commenced with any of the activities or not. At no point will a learner be asked to continue participating in the study if he/she does not wish to do so.

What are the risks of participating in this research?

There are no foreseen risks in participating in this study. However, some learners and tutors may feel uncomfortable in having someone observe them during the peer tutoring session. In a case where a learner or tutor experiences discomfort about being observed he or she is free to withdraw from the study. This withdrawal will not affect their current or future participation in the peer tutoring programme.

What are the benefits of participating in this research?

The learner's participation in this study will not have any direct benefit for him/her. The findings of this study will contribute towards the broader body of knowledge on the topic of language-learning strategies and second-language-learning. Moreover, the information obtained from this research will be made available to you as the peer tutoring programme manager and can be used by the tutors to help learners to become more proficient in English as a second-language.

Is any assistance available if learners are negatively affected by participating in this study?

It is not foreseen that learners will be negatively affected by participating in the research. However, should a learner be negatively affected in any way by participating in the research, the researcher will arrange for appropriate professional assistance to be provided to the learner. If this should happen, you as the programme manager together with the parents of the child will be informed so you can provide permission for the researcher to refer the learner.

What if I have more questions about this research?

This research is being conducted by Mrs Nondumiso Machimana, a PhD candidate at the department of Humanities at the University of Pretoria, under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis. If you have any questions regarding the research, please do not hesitate to contact me directly on the following numbers: 012 319 3225. Alternatively you can contact my supervisor, Dr Genis at the following numbers: 012 4205547.

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Appendix B

Consent form for peer tutoring managers

Title of Study: Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring

Principal Investigator: Nondumiso Machimana

Doctoral Supervisor: Dr Gerhard Genis

I, in my capacity as the programme manager of (*name of organisation*): _____ consent to learners in the peer tutoring programme to take part in the study entitled: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***.

I hereby give my permission that Grade 8 and 9 learners may complete the survey questionnaires, that they may participate in the focus group interviews and that they may be observed during a peer tutoring session. I give my permission that the focus group interviews and the observation of the peer tutoring session may be audio-recorded. I also give my permission that the results of the focus group interviews, survey questionnaire and observation notes may be used for the purposes of this study.

I understand that:

- Participation in this research study is voluntary.
- Learners and the organisation may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason for withdrawing.
- Learners and the organisation will not benefit directly from this study.
- No information that may identify the learners or the tutoring programme will be included when reporting the results of this study.
- All recorded information will remain confidential.

I have read and understand the information given to me in this information sheet. I have been given the contact details of the primary researcher and the supervisor should I need to contact them when I have any further questions.

Name of Programme Manager

(Please print): _____

Signed: _____

Date: _____

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Appendix C

Information sheet for parents and learners

Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am a student at the University of Pretoria and I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining my Doctor of Philosophy Degree (PhD). The topic of my research is: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***. The University of Pretoria's Ethics Committee and the Peer tutoring Programme manager have given permission for this research to be conducted and I would greatly appreciate your child's participation in this study.

What is this study about?

The aim of this study is to identify the language-learning strategies used by learners to whom English is a second-language. I will also explore how the different strategies influence English second-language-learning during peer tutoring sessions. The focus on learning strategies is motivated by findings from several researchers who show that effective language-learning can be achieved through the use of language-learning strategies. These strategies can be taught to learners thereby helping them to make learning more effective, enjoyable and meaningful. The reason for focusing on English is because studies have shown that language proficiency in the medium of instruction is the single biggest factor that affects learner performance in school. In South Africa where majority of learners are taught in their second-language it becomes very important to ensure that these learners are made aware of the different strategies that can help them improve their use of the second-language.

What will your child be asked to do if they participate in this study?

Self-report questionnaires: Participation in this research will require of your child to complete two self-report questionnaires. The first questionnaire will focus on the language-learning strategies used by your child. The second questionnaire will include some biographical information as well as questions about language learning in the context of peer tutoring. These questionnaires will be completed anonymously. This means that your child's responses to the questionnaire will not be directly linked to their name or surname or identity number. Although information such as gender, home language and grade will be required, this information will in no way reveal the identity of your child. These questionnaires will take between 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

Focus group interview: Your child will also participate in a focus group interview (maximum of six learners per group), when he/she, together with other learners, will share their learning

strategies and how they think these strategies influence English second-language-learning during peer tutoring. The focus group interviews will be audio-recorded. At no point during the focus group interview will your child's personal details be identified. Your child will not be required to identify him- or herself by name, surname or identity number to ensure that none of the responses are linked to your specific child. In transcribing the responses from the focus group interviews pseudonyms will be used. At no point during the write-up of the thesis will your child's identity be revealed. The focus group interviews will take approximately 40 to 60 minutes.

Non-participant observation: I will observe one of the peer tutoring sessions between your child and his/her tutor and make observational notes on how language is used during the session. This session will also be audiotaped, but your child will not be asked to identify him/herself. The tutor will not be identified either in order to protect your child's identity. As a non-participant observer, I will not be tutoring your child, but will be present while the tutor is tutoring your child.

Would your child's participation in this study be kept confidential?

All responses will be kept confidential during the study and afterwards, and any information that might identify your child will not be included in the research report. The data gathered during this study will be used to write a thesis and academic articles. Responses recorded in the self-report questionnaires, focus group transcripts and observational notes will be rendered anonymous using pseudonyms created by the researcher. All the data that are gathered will be securely stored for a period of 15 years, after which these records will be securely destroyed. If you choose to allow your child to participate in the study, please complete the attached consent form and send it back with your child. If you have any further queries about this research, please contact me or my supervisor using the contact details listed at the end of this document.

Does my child have to participate in this research and may he/she stop participating at any time?

Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. Your child has no obligation to participate in this research study. If your child does not wish to participate in the study, they will not be disadvantaged in any way. Your child will continue to participate in the peer tutoring sessions regardless of their participation in this study.

Your child is allowed to withdraw at any time from their participation in this research. The moment your child wishes to withdraw from the study, he or she will be allowed to do so regardless of whether he or she had commenced with any of the activities or not. At no point will your child be asked to continue participating in the study if he/she does not wish to do so.

What are the risks of participating in this research?

There are no foreseen risks in participating in this study. However, your child or their tutor may feel uncomfortable having someone observe them during the peer tutoring session. In the case where your child or your child's tutor experiences discomfort about being observed he or she is free to withdraw from the study. This withdrawal will not affect their current or future participation in the peer tutoring sessions that they attend.

What are the benefits of participating in this research?

Your child's participation in this study will not have any direct benefit for him/her or you, the Parent(s) or Guardian(s). The findings of this study will contribute towards the broader body of knowledge on the topic of language-learning strategies and second-language-learning. Moreover, the information obtained from this research will be made available to your child's peer tutoring programme manager and can be used by the tutors to help your child to become more proficient in English as a second-language.

Is any assistance available if my child is negatively affected by participating in this study?

It is not foreseen that your child will be negatively affected by participating in the research. However, should your child be negatively affected in any way by participating in the research, the researcher will arrange for your child to receive the appropriate professional assistance. In the unlikely event that this should happen, you as the parent will be informed and you will be required to grant permission for the researcher to refer your child.

What if I have more questions about this research?

This research is being conducted by Mrs Nondumiso Machimana, a PhD candidate at the Department of Humanities at the University of Pretoria, under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis. If you have any questions regarding the research, please do not hesitate to contact me directly at the following numbers: 012 319 3225. Alternatively you can contact my supervisor, Dr Genis, at the following numbers: 012 4205547.

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Appendix D

Consent form for parents and assent for learners

Title of Study: Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring

Principal Investigator: Nondumiso Machimana

Doctoral Supervisor: Dr Gerhard Genis

I, the parent/guardian of_____

consent to my son/daughter taking part in the study entitled: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***.

I hereby give my consent that my child may complete the survey questionnaires, that my son/daughter may participate in the focus group interviews, and that my son/daughter may be observed during a peer tutoring session. I give my consent that the focus group interviews and the observation of the peer tutoring session may be audio-recorded. I also give my consent that the results of the survey questionnaires, focus group interviews and observation notes may be used for the purposes of this study.

I understand that:

- My child's participation in this study is voluntary.
- My child may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason for withdrawing.
- There will be no direct benefit from my child's participation in this study.
- No information that may identify my son/daughter will be included when reporting the results of this study.
- All recorded information will remain confidential.

I have read and understand the information given to me in the information sheet. I have been given the contact details of the primary researcher and the supervisor should I need to contact them when I have any further questions.

Name of Parent/Guardian:
(Please print) _____

Signed: _____

Date _____

Name of Learner

(Please print) _____

Signed: _____

Date _____

Appendix E

Information sheet for tutors

Dear Tutor

I am a student at the University of Pretoria and I am conducting research with the purpose of obtaining my Doctor of Philosophy Degree (PhD). The topic of my research is: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***. The University of Pretoria's Ethics Committee and the peer tutoring Programme Manager have given permission for this research to be conducted and I would greatly appreciate your participation in this study.

What is this study about?

The aim of this study is to identify the language-learning strategies used by learners to whom English is a second-language. I will also explore how the different strategies influence English second-language-learning during peer tutoring sessions. The focus on learning strategies is motivated by findings from several researchers who show that effective language-learning can be achieved through the use of language-learning strategies. These strategies can be taught to learners thereby helping them to make learning more effective, enjoyable and meaningful. The reason for focusing on English is because studies have shown that language proficiency in the medium of instruction is the single biggest factor that affects learner performance in school. In South Africa where majority of learners are taught in their second-language it becomes very important to ensure that these learners are made aware of the different strategies that can help them improve their use of the second-language.

What will I be asked to do if I participate in this study?

Non-participant observation: I will observe one of the peer tutoring sessions between you and your tutee and take observational notes on how language is used during the session. This session will also be audio-taped but you will not be asked to identify yourself. Your tutee will not be identified either in order to protect your and their identities. As a non-participant observer, I will not be tutoring or commenting on the way you tutor, but I will be present while you are tutoring.

Will my participation in this study be kept confidential?

Participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to participate or not to participate in the study. All responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality during the study and afterwards, and no information that might identify you will be included in the research report.

The data gathered during this study will be used in writing a thesis and academic articles. Responses recorded in the observational notes will be rendered anonymous through pseudonyms created by the researcher. All the data that are gathered will be securely stored for a period of 15 years, after which these records will be destroyed in a secure manner.

If you choose to participate in the study, please complete the attached consent form. If you have any further queries about this research, please contact me or my supervisor using the contact details listed at the end of this document.

Do I have to participate in this research and can I end my participation at any time?

Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You are not forced to participate in this research study. If you do not wish to participate in the study, you will not be disadvantaged in any way. You will continue to participate in the peer tutoring sessions regardless of your participation in this study.

You are allowed to withdraw from participating in this research at any time. The moment you wish to withdraw from the study, you will be allowed to do so immediately regardless of whether you have started your tutoring session or not. You will not at any point be asked to continue participating in the study if you do not wish to do so.

What are the risks of participating in this research?

There are no foreseen risks in participating in this study. However, you or your tutee may feel uncomfortable having someone observe you during the peer tutoring session. Where you or your tutee experience discomfort about being observed, you are free to withdraw from the study. This withdrawal will not affect your current or future participation in the peer tutoring programme.

What are the benefits of participating in this research?

Your participation in this study will not have any direct benefit for you. The findings of this study will contribute to the broader body of knowledge on the topic of language-learning strategies and second-language-learning. However, the information obtained from this research will be made available to your peer tutoring programme manager and can be used by all tutors to help tutees to become more proficient in English as a second-language.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

It is not foreseen that you will be negatively affected by your participation in the research. However, should you be negatively affected in any way in participating in the research, the researcher will arrange for you to receive the appropriate professional assistance. In the unlikely

event that this should happen, your programme manager will be informed so that permission may be granted so that the researcher can refer you.

What if I have more questions about this research?

This research is being conducted by Mrs Nondumiso Machimana, a PhD candidate at the Department of Humanities at the University of Pretoria, under the supervision of Dr Gerhard Genis. If you have any questions regarding the research, please do not hesitate to contact me directly at the following numbers: 012 319 3225. Alternatively you can contact my supervisor, Dr Genis, at the following numbers: 012 4205547.

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Appendix F

Consent form for tutors

Title of Study: Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring

Principal Investigator: Nondumiso Machimana

Doctoral Supervisor: Dr Gerhard Genis

I *(name and surname)* _____

agree to take part in the research study entitled: ***Language-learning strategies of English second-language learners participating in peer tutoring***.

I agree to participate in this study and that my peer tutoring session may be observed. I give consent that the session may be audio-recorded. I also give consent that the results of the observation notes may be used for the purposes of this research study.

I understand that:

- Participation in this research study is voluntary.
- I can withdraw from the study at any time.
- I will not benefit directly from this study.
- No information that may identify me will be included in the research report.
- All recorded information will remain confidential.

I have read and understand the information given to me in the information sheet. The information in the information sheet has been explained to me in a language that I understand. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions regarding this research study and understand what is expected of me. I have been given the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor should I need to contact them when I have any further questions.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

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Appendix G

Strategy inventory for language-learning (SILL)

(Adapted from Oxford, 1990)

- This form of the strategy inventory for language-learning (SILL) is for learners of a second-language (SL).
- **SL** refers to **English**
- Please read each statement carefully and indicate with a cross HOW TRUE THE STATEMENT IS OF YOU.
  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**
- 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.

PART A: MEMORY STRATEGIES

	Statement	Never true	Usually not true	Somewhat true	Usually true	Always true
1.	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I use new SL words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I connect the sound of a new SL word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I remember a new SL word by making a **mental picture** of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I use **rhymes** to remember new SL words.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I use **flashcards** to remember new SL words.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I physically act out new SL words.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I review SL lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I remember new SL words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	1	2	3	4	5

PART B: COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

	Statement	**Never true**	**Usually not true**	**Somewhat true**	**Usually true**	**Always true**
10.	I say or write new SL words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I try to talk like **native** SL speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I practice the sounds of SL.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I use the SL words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I start conversations in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I watch SL language TV shows spoken in SL or go to movies spoken in SL.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I read for pleasure in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I first **skim** an SL passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try to find patterns in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I find the meaning of an SL word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I try not to translate word for word.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5

PART C: COMPENSATION STRATEGIES

	Statement	**Never true**	**Usually not true**	**Somewhat true**	**Usually true**	**Always true**
24	To understand unfamiliar SL words, I make guesses.	1	2	3	4	5
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in the SL, I use **gestures**.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I read SL without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in the SL.	1	2	3	4	5
29	If I can't think of an SL word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5

PART D: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

	Statement	**Never true**	**Usually not true**	**Somewhat true**	**Usually true**	**Always true**
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my SL.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I notice my SL mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking SL.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of SL.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study SL.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I look for people I can talk to in SL.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in SL.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I have clear goals for improving my SL skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I think about my progress in learning SL.	1	2	3	4	5

PART E: AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

	Statement	**Never true**	**Usually not true**	**Somewhat true**	**Usually true**	**Always true**
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41	I give myself a reward or **treat** when I do well in SL.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I notice if I am **tense** or nervous when I am studying or using SL.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I write down my feelings in a language-learning dairy.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning SL.	1	2	3	4	5

PART F: SOCIAL STRATEGIES

	Statement	**Never true**	**Usually not true**	**Somewhat true**	**Usually true**	**Always true**
45	If I do not understand something in SL, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I ask SL speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I practice SL with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I ask for help from SL speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I ask questions in SL.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I try to learn about the culture of SL speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix H

Peer tutoring and English learning questionnaire

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION:

Age		**Gender**	
Grade		**Home language(s)**	
What score (marks) did you get for your home language in your last exam?		**How long have you been attending the peer tutoring sessions?**	
What score (marks) did you get for English in your last exam?		**Has your English score (mark) improved since you started participating in peer tutoring?**	

SECTION B: Please comment on how well you were able to do the following **before peer tutoring**.

No.	Before joining the peer tutoring programme	Very poorly	Poorly	All right	Well	Very well
1.	I read English material…	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I understood English vocabulary and grammar…	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I wrote English…	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I spoke English…	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I read my home language…	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I understood my home language vocabulary and grammar…	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I wrote my home language…	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I spoke my home language…	1	2	3	4	5

Please comment on how well you are able to do the following now that you are in a peer tutoring programme (**current rating of performance**)

No.	Currently in a peer tutoring programme	Very poorly	Poorly	All right	Well	Very well
9.	I read English material…	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I understand English vocabulary and grammar…	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I write English…	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I speak English…	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I read my home language…	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I understand my home language vocabulary and grammar…	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I write my home language…	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I speak my home language…	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: ENGLISH LEARNING DURING PEER TUTORING

17. Describe your peer tutoring environment.

18. What steps or actions do you take to make English language-learning more enjoyable for you during peer tutoring?

19. What assistance do you receive during peer tutoring that helps you learn English better?

20. What assistance do you wish you have during peer tutoring to help you learn English better?

ENGLISH LEARNING IN THE CLASSROOM AT SCHOOL

21. Describe your classroom environment.

22. What steps or actions do you take to make English language-learning more enjoyable for you in the classroom?

23. What assistance do you receive in the classroom that helps you learn English better?

24. What assistance do you wish you have in the classroom to help you learn English better?

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Appendix I

Focus group interview guide

Name of Peer tutoring programme:

_____

Gender representation:

_____

Number of schools represented:

_____

Languages represented:

_____

_____

Questions to help guide the focus group discussion

Q1. What motivates you to learn English?

Q2. What are your reasons for learning English?

Q3. What makes English learning easy for you?

Q4. What challenges do you experience in learning English? How do you overcome these challenges?

Q5. In what ways does peer tutoring motivate you in learning English?

Q6. What role do your peers play in language-learning?

Q7. What do you believe about yourself and your ability to learn English?

Q8. When listening/reading and you come across a word or phrase you've never heard before, what do you do?

Q9. When speaking/writing and you can't think of an English word or phrase, what do you do?

Appendix J

Nonparticipant observation sheet

Observation checklist and behaviour observation

No.	Behaviour observed	Comment on the observed behaviour
1	How often do tutees get to interact with each other?	
2	How often do tutees interact with the tutor?	
3	Are tutees actively engaging in the peer tutoring session or are they passive receivers of information (asking for guidance, giving their own views, critically voicing their opinion)?	
4	How often are tutees given an opportunity to reflect on what they are learning (summarising, asking clarifying questions)?	
5	Note the number of times code-switching/code-mixing is used by the tutor to the tutee.	
6	Note the number of times code-switching/code-mixing is used by the tutee to the tutor.	
7	Note the number of times code-switching/code-mixing is used by tutees to each other.	
8	Are learners able to express themselves in English? If and when learners struggle	

No.	Behaviour observed	Comment on the observed behaviour
	to express themselves effectively in English, what strategies are used to help learners overcome this?	
9	What form does the peer tutoring interaction take? (Is it tutor-led or tutee-led, is there shared learning or does the tutor merely teach in a traditional classroom format? Were tutors using structured material for tutoring or were learners guiding the tutors on what they needed assistance with?)	
10	How is the physical environment arranged?	
11	Describe the peer-tutoring session*? (How many learners per tutor? Are learners being tutored in groups (how many in a group)or is the tutoring done one-on-one? Do tutors rotate during the session or do they stay with the same learner/learners throughout the session)?*	
12	How often did learners have to read during the session?	
13	How often did learners have to write during the session?	
14	Additional notes on other behaviours observed during the peer tutoring session.	

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