ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

BY A TURKISH ADULT (A CASE STUDY)

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MASTER OF ARTS

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCENİN YETİSKİN BİR TÜRK TARAFINDAN İKİNCİ DİL OLARAK EDİNİMİ (VAKA ÇALIŞMASI)

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Bu çalışma yirmi yedi yaşındaki bir yetişkinin doğal bir ortamda İngilizceyi ikinci dil olarak edinimini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, dil ediniminin iki özelliği üzerinde yoğunlaşmıştır: Biçimbirim Edinim Sırası ve Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri. Altı ay suresince hemen her gün e-posta yoluyla gönderilen 'günlük'lerin yanı sıra katılımcıya, gelişimini anlamak için Michigan İngilizce Yeterlilik Testi (MTELP) ve strateji tercihlerini saptamak için Öğrenme Stratejileri Ölçeği uygulanmıştır.

Günlüklerin analizi strateji tercihi ile ilgili Öğrenme Stratejileri Ölçeğinden farklı sonuçlar vermiştir. Günlük analizleri Bilişsel Stratejilerin daha çok kullanıldığını ortaya koymuştur. Günlüklerin aksine Öğrenme Stratejileri Ölçeği katılımcının İletişim Stratejilerini, diğer strateji gruplarından daha çok tercih ettiğini ve Bilişsel Stratejileri ise en az uyguladığını göstermiştir. Biçimbirim Edinim Sırası genel edinim sırasıyla benzerlik gösterse de genel edinim sırasının aksine, katılımcının edindiği ilk ek 'Aux be' ikincisi ise 'Irreg. Past 'olmuştur. Yinede çalışmamızın sonuçları günümüz İkinci Dil Edinim teorilerini desteklemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İkinci Dil Edinimi, Biçimbirim Edinim Sırası, Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri,

ABSRACT

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Netice ALTUN

**Master of Arts, English Language Teaching Department
Advisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU
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This study aims at investigating the acquisition of English as a second language in its natural setting by a twenty-seven year old Turkish adult. The study focuses on two aspects of her English acquisition: Grammatical Morpheme Acquisition and the preference of her Language Learning Strategies. Except our main data source 'Diaries' that the participant sent through e-mails almost everyday, we applied The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) to conceive her improvement, and Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies (SILL) to figure out her strategy preference.

The analysis of 'diaries' gave different results from SILL on the strategy preference. It revealed that Cognitive Strategies were favored the most. Unlike 'diaries' the results of SILL showed that our participant preferred the Communication Strategies more than other strategy groups, and Cognitive Strategies were the least group used by her. Though her Morpheme Acquisition Order showed similarities with the general sequence of order studies, unlike them, the first morpheme acquired by our participant was 'Aux be' and the second one was 'Irreg. Past'. Yet, the results of our study support the current theories of Second Language Acquisition of English.

Keywords: Second Language Acquisition, Morpheme Acquisition Order, Language Learning Strategies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study in question followed by the statement of the problem. The research questions to be answered through the study are introduced along with the aim and significance of the study. The limitations are decided and key terms are defined for a common understanding. Additionally the synonyms of the key terms have also been presented as used both in this study and literature.

1.1. Background of the Study

Second language acquisition is a field which draws attention of most people as a learner, instructor or an ordinary person who wants to learn a language different from his/her mother tongue. A lot of research has been done on adults' acquisition of a second language but it is a multi-dimensional question to be studied on. How much an adult's learning a second language differs from a child's, or how the simple exposure of the L2 accelerates the acquisition continues to be the subject of a lot of research.

There are discussions on the subject and the general point of view is that it is significant and advantageous to be in naturalistic exposure to the L2 and that instructed second language learning cannot be affective accordingly. From Vygotsky to Pinker there are numerous linguists advocating the importance of communicating and socializing for language learning. According to Pinker language inherently involves sharing a code with other people and 'An innate grammar is useless if you are the only one possessing it" (1994, p. 243). The interaction takes place between the learner and the native speakers of the language and how it happens is crucial for the SLA field.

Studying the language acquisition of an adult compels us to mention the discussions of 'younger-better' theory. Reminding lots of studies Singleton notes that how long exposure of L2 lasts is important. In the first year of naturalistic exposure, older beginners tend to outperform their juniors at least in some respects, although in the long run 'consensus view' is the younger is better (1995, pp.3-4).

Being an adult and surrounded by the target language brings the question of the difference between conscious and unconscious learning and learning and acquisition problem. Krashen who explains SLA through five different hypotheses (in Towell and Hawkins, 1994, p. 26) words the situation as:

> L2 learners are capable of developing two types of distinct grammatical knowledge about the L2: acquired L2 knowledge, which develop subconsciously in learners as the result of exposure to the L2, and learned L2 knowledge, which L2 learners acquire consciously either through learning about the language from textbooks or teachers, or through forming their own 'rules of thumb'.

If adults are in a natural setting of the target language they can absorb some parts of L2 without being aware of acquiring it. On the other hand from their eagerness to acquire the second language and adopt the new culture to survive in the new country, adults seem to use many different tactics (strategies) to learn the most crucial 'mean' of adaptation.

In this study the effects of being an adult, being in a country (here; the USA) where L2 (English) is spoken as a native language, and the strategies the learner uses to acquire the language are going to be investigated. Keeping all the approaches and studies done on the issue in mind, this study will focus on the adult learners' second language acquisition and the effects of long exposure, interaction and communication with the target language, and strategies used throughout learning.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of exposure to the target language and its culture on SLA of an adult learner. How the acquisition process is important and how it takes place is one of the concerns of this study. In addition to these, it also aims at revealing the learning and communication strategies the learner prefers to use during acquisition consciously or unconsciously.

1.3. Research Questions

This study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What are the language learning strategies (LLS) used by an adult learner of English during acquisition process in an English-speaking country?
    a) as can be reported from data (diaries) she has written.
    b) as reported by the learner in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning?
2. Which communication strategies are used more by the adult learners of English while they are in interaction with the language and culture?
3. How does the morphological and syntactic development of English take place for an adult L2 Learner who is a native speaker of Turkish?
4. How does the first language of the learner contribute to/hinder the learning process?

1.4. The Importance of the Study

Not so much research is conducted on SLA of adult learners in Turkey. Most of the studies done have focused on the subjects living in Turkey and learning English at school as a foreign language like other school subjects. That means their learning process is limited to mostly their school life.

This study hopes to contribute to comprehend the process of adult learner's acquisition of English in its naturalistic environment. Since thousands of Turkish learners face the difficulties of learning a second language in their adulthood, and English is the leading language learnt, the results become more significant.

Focusing also to the learning and communication strategies used during acquisition of English, the study will shed light on the most used strategies. These kinds of studies help raising the awareness of strategies both for language teachers and adult language learners of English.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The limitation of the study was that the participant and the researcher were living in different countries which restricted study to the journals. Although the participant was in interaction with both the culture and target language and that could provide a more significant data obtained from different audio-visual sources, only diaries used as a data gathering method.

The second limitation is that it is a case study and the in-depth nature of case studies prevents the generalizations of the study to the larger populations. Therefore the results of the study need to be interpreted carefully and in its uniqueness.

1.6. Operational Definitions

The definitions of some of the key terms in this study are given below:

- L1: The native language of the learner.
- L2: A second language is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication and where abundant input exists in that language (Oxford, 2003, p.1).
- Second Language Acquisition: The acquisition of any language different from the first language of the person.
- Foreign Language : A foreign language is a language studied in an Environment

where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction and where input in that language is restricted (Oxford, 2003, p.2).

- UG (Universal Grammar) : the theory claiming that the knowledge is innate and that there are certain invariant principles which do not change across languages. (Chomsky, 1981, p.223).
- SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning): The test which is improved by

Oxford to reveal the strategies being used by language learners.

- Language Learning Strategies (LLS) :" Learning Strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford,1990, p.8).
- The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP): A standard test which is improved to evaluate the grammar, vocabulary and reading proficiency of learners of English.
- Grammatical Morphemes: Morphemes that have a grammatical function in a sentence.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

In this section the literature of SLA will be reviewed in two steps. In the first part, the historical development of SLA studies in general will be mentioned. Later on, the Language Learning Strategies (LLA) is going to be revealed in detail.

2.1. Theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)
2.1.1. Contrastive Analysis

The role of the first language on the SLA and whether there is interference between the L1 and L2 led to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CA) emerge. Under the influence of the structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology CA became popular in the SLA area in 1950s and 1960s. According to this hypothesis (Klein, 1986) acquisition of a second language is largely determined by the structure of an earlier language acquired (p.25). Lado detailed it (in Gass and Selinker, 2001, p.72) as follows; "one does a structure-by-structure comparison of the sound system, morphological system, syntactic system, and even the cultural system of two languages for the purpose of discovering similarities and differences".

CA is based on the behaviorist view of learning as a habit -forming process, and assumes that differences between two languages are the major source of errors. Contrastive Analysis (Gass & Selinker, 2001) is a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second language learning situation (p.72). Saville-Troike (2005) also drives attention to the goal of CA as a pedagogical one and says that it aims to increase efficiency in L2 teaching and testing (p.34).

The theory, although aimed to seek the interference between the L1 and L2 which could be in a positive way too, it mainly focused on the negative transfer and tried to predict the possible errors to solve the SLA problems. It emphasizes (Connor,

1996) the negative, interfering effects of the first language on the second language acquisition, which is considered harmful (p.12).

CA has gradually become the target of many criticisms (after 1970s). The greatest challenge came when the inadequacies of behaviorism (which CA relied on) started to be discussed and the UG hypothesis emerged. Language is no longer seen as a habit that can be developed, but a set of structures which are grasped by an innate knowledge and exposure to the L2. Sridhar gives critics of Contrastive Analysis under two main heading (in Croft, 1980) and says that:

> Critics of CA have argued that since native language interference is only one of the sources of error, indulging in CA with a view with predicting difficulties is not worth the time spent on it. Second, criticism seeks to show that given its theoretical and methodological assumptions, CA is in principle incapable of accounting for learner behavior (p.101).

The Universal Grammer theory (UG) which explains language learning as an 'innate knowledge' replaced the stimulus-response and habit-formation theory of Behaviorism. In his article 'A Review of B. F Skinner's Verbal behavior', Chomsky (in Lust & Foley, 2004) questions the Behaviorist language learning approach (in the same time CA) as follows; 'it is beyond question that children acquire a great deal of their verbal and nonverbal behavior by causal observation and imitation of adults and other children, but it is not true that children acquire their language only through this meticulous care' (p.36). The answer of Generativists to that is an 'innate mechanism' (UG) which enables us to acquire the language which is highly structured, quiet complex, and has a great repertoire of word.

2.1.2. Error Analysis

Along with many studies on errors in SLA, Corder's article (1967) "The significance of learner's errors" was an important step which drove attention not to see errors as 'bad habits' but to see them as sources of how Language Acquisition was taken place. Corder made a clear distinction between 'mistakes' which are seen in the performance of a person and are unsystematic, and errors those which are systematic.

According to Corder (1967) "Errors (not mistakes) made in both second language learning and child language acquisition, provides evidence that a learner uses a definite system of language at every point in his development" (p.161).

Error Analysis became popular partly because of the inability of existing theories of SLA to explain the phenomena of learning and partly because of trends in first language acquisition research. Chun defines Error Analysis (EA) as "the technique of examining and categorizing systematic errors in language learners' speech" (1980, p.292).

Contrastive Analysis Approach also focused on errors and could be analyzed as a subtitle of EA. However in CA, errors were seen as mistakes resulted from transfer of L1 and how to avoid these mistakes was the main issue of the researchers of CA. On the contrary studies of EA accepted errors as a part of natural sequence of language acquisition. With EA, learners started to be seen as active and creative participants in the LA process which shows a shift from Behaviorism to Mentalism in explaining the language acquisition.

With analyzing errors two new theories Creative Construction Theory which explain language acquisition as a mental state and learners' role as a creative one, and Interlanguage which revealed that errors made in SLA were systematic came forward.

2.1.2.1. Creative Construction

After the failure of CA in giving satisfying answers to the remarkable questions of Second Language Acquisition and with the studies done on errors, a new theory, the Theory of Creative Construction (CC), brought a new look to the SLA field. The proponents of this theory claimed that L1 did not have a crucial effect on the acquisition of L2, and that the language learner took an active role in constructing new rules of the new language to be learnt.

Including CA, the majority of studies attempted to classify and analyze errors made by language learners. Generally, (Hakuta & Cancino, 1977, p. 297) errors are divided into two categories which are interference/interlingual errors (that can be traced

back to the native language of learner) and intralingual errors (that arise from the properties of the target language). Unlike proponent of CA and their claims on interference errors which were seen as habit formation, intralingual errors that language learners were constructing the way they learn their L1 became popular in 1970s. Dulay and Burt (1974) has sought to find out whether the second language acquisition has the same certain invariant sequences as Roger Brown and his colleagues had discovered before for L1 acquisition. They compared the acquisition order of Spanish and Chinese children who learned English as a second language and found out that the same acquisition sequence took place for both Spanish and Chinese children although they came from different linguistic background. In another study (in Block, 2003) they analyzed 513 unambiguous errors from 179 speech samples they had gathered and they classified just 5 per cent as attributable to L1 interference, while 87 per cent were classified as developmental and 8 per cent were classified as unique (p.19). These studies provided strong support for CC process in child second language acquisition which Dulay and Burt (1974, p.76) defined as:

….The process in which children gradually reconstruct rules for the speech they hear, guided by universal innate mechanisms which cause them to use certain strategies to organize that linguistic input, until the mismatch between the language system they are exposed to and what they produce is resolved.

The studies of fixed morpheme acquisition order (Dulay and Burt, 1975) and their similarities in children and adults brought an excitement into the SLA field and paved the way for many studies. One of those researchers who supported or refined the CC theory was Stephen Krashen who proposed the Monitor Model theory and introduced the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) into the field. Krashen's model consists of five hypotheses on how L2 is acquired. While the way he explained the acquisition of L2 was advocated by some researchers like Lightbown and many others, according to Mclaughlin his hypothesis was insufficient and unobservable (in Block, 2003, p.21). Larsen-Freeman and Long on the other hand draw attention to its not providing enough explanation on the effect of age on acquisition.

Although CC and Krashen's Hypotesis brought language acquisition from habit formation to a creative mental process of learning, how language acquisition was taking place still did not have a clear answer. All the above studies examined errors in production but it was simply possible that learner might avoid particular structures that they felt incompetent. Hakuta and Cancino (1977, p. 302) giving Schachter's research on the usage of relative clauses which showed learners avoidance clearly, question the effectiveness of error analysis and they conclude that production does not consist of just errors.

2.1.2.2. Interlanguage

The first studies of the notion 'interlanguage' go back to the Error and Contrastive Analysis studies, and the studies of Corder (1967). In his article 'the Significance of Errors', Corder discusses that the adult learner's errors are similar to a child's learning her/his mother tongue and by a trial-and-error or testing, learners slowly succeed in establishing a closer system to that of the native speakers of the languge.

The term interlanguage is first suggested by Selinker (1972) in order to draw attention to the language system an L2 learner forms, a system which can be independent of both the mother tongue of the learner and the target language. The learner himself/herself constructs it while being in contact with the native speakers of the TL or during the learning process. Selinker and others define (in Saville-Troike, 2006) this process to be a creative one, driven by inner forces in interaction with environmental factors, and influenced both by L1 and by input from the target language (p.41). Here the crucial difference is its being distinct from both the native language and the target language. According to Selinker (in Schuman, 1974, p.38) the best evidence for interlanguage can be found in fossilization, forms of speech of an L2 speaker that do not conform to the target language. Selinker (1988) words it as:

> Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems
> which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to
> a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of
> explanation and instruction he receives in the TL".

As mentioned in definitions above IL has its own characteristics different from L1 and L2 of the learner. Selinker gives the following strategies and processes which he thinks are important to be considered in the acquisition of L2 :

- Language transfer from L1 to L2
- Transfer of training, or how the L2 is taught
- Strategies of second language learning, or how the learners approach the L2 materials and the task of L2 learning
- Strategies of second language communication, or ways that learners try to communicate with others in the L2 (p.41)
- Overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material, in which L2 rules that are learned are applied broadly.

As it seems from what Selinker underlies in interlanguage development, there are a lot of issues to focus on along with interlanguage. Learning and Communication Strategies and Language Transfer play an important role in the construction of IL, and the term 'Fossilization' needs to be detailed because of its relationship with interlanguage and adult second language learning.

2.1.2.3. Fossilization

The term 'Fossilization' was introduced to the field of SLA by Selinker in 1972 (in Han, 2004, p.14) on the basis of his observation that the vast majority of second language learners fail to achieve a native-speaker competence. Since then a lot of researches have been conducted and a lot of definitions made. Larsen-Freeman (2005;189) notes that "the use of the term fossilization-as-product should be reserved for interlanguage features of learners who have been given every opportunity to learn, and have the will to do so, but have failed" and she also drives attention to whether it takes place as local or global. Selinker in his article 'fossilization as simplification' puts it as:

Fossilization occurs when particular linguistic forms become permanently established in the interlanguage of SL learners in a form that is deviant from the target language norm and that continues to appear in performance regardless of further exposure to the target language. (p.1)

As fossilization is a cessation of development and no matter how exposure to target language takes place in acquiring L2, Han argues that the 'fossilization' studies are the longitudinal studies and he reveals the fossilization phenomenon by the case of Proffessor Chien-Shiung Wu, who arrived in the US in 1936 at the age of 24 and lived and worked there until her death at the age of 83. She had 56 years of exposure to English, her second language. Han puts the situation as:

She was nevertheless unable to overcome all of her early difficulties with English, despite her undoubted intelligence and her enormous scientific achievements over the intervening decades. Why were some of her early language difficulties insurmountable? Professor Wu's case is a typical of millions of adult l2 learners who, despite long exposure and concerted efforts, become caught up somewhere in the learning process and find themselves unable to progress (p.95).

Thus, as it seems as a term, fossilization is clear enough in the sense of meaning but it continues to be the subject of lots of researches in the SLA field. After being in the center of most studies, there are both different interpretations and applications of it. Han (2003. p.96) argues that "it remains a central issue because it is no longer a monolithic concept as it was three decades ago, but rather one tied up with various manifestations of failure in L2 learning".

2.1.3. Universal Grammar

Universal Grammar brought a new face to the language acquisition field after Behaviorism. Instead of accepting language acquisition as a process of habit formation, proponents of Universal Grammar were claiming that the knowledge is innate and that there are certain invariant principles which do not change across languages. For example Chomsky (1981) expresses Universal Grammar as consisting, on the one hand,

of a theory of so-called core grammar and on the other, of a theory of permissible extensions and modifications of core grammar (p.223). Similarly Gass & Selinker (2001) say that the theory underlying Universal Grammar (UG) assumes that language consists of a set of abstract principles that characterize core grammar of all natural languages (p.169).

When the definitions of UG are analyzed in detail, two main characteristics of UG, namely the terms 'Principles and Parameters' seem as the crucial parts of the theory to focus on first. For example White (2003) defines Universal Grammar as including principles that are generally true across languages and parameters which allow for variation from language to language (p.2). As the names and definitions suggest Principles are common properties in all languages, and Parameters are the different features that languages have.

The claim is that children acquire the language with the interaction of innate principles which are invariant through languages and the triggering of the relevant parameters present in the primary linguistic data which they are exposed to. The 'Input' combines with UG and produces Output which is a grammar consisting of principles and parameters and also lexicon (See Figure 1. below).

Input	Universal Grammar	output
$\rightarrow$		$\rightarrow$
(Primary linguistic data)		(a grammar consisting principles and parameters and lexican)
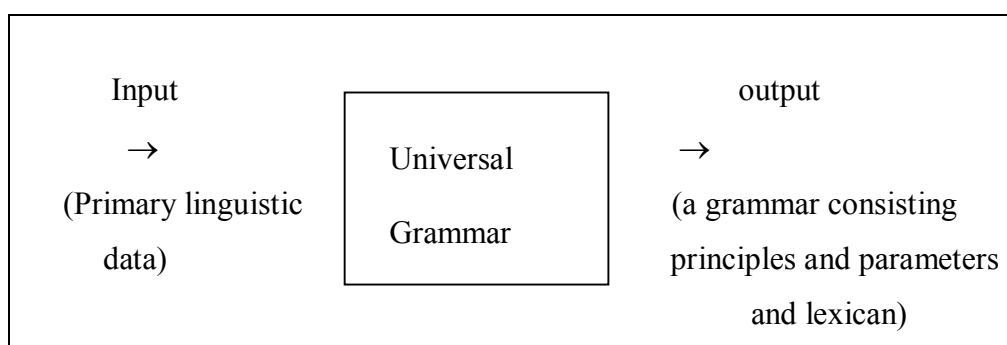
Figure 1. The Universal Grammar model of L1 acquisition.
(Based on Cook and Newsan, 1996, p.81)

As it can be seen from Figure 1 The description of the Grammar also shows us how language is acquired and language acquisition and the description of the grammar are inseparable from each other. Cook and Newson (1996) put it as the UG theory integrates acquisition with the description of grammar by making explanatory adequacy

central; the description of the grammar goes hand in hand with the explanation of how it is learnt (p.81).

Principles and Parameters Theory is the answer of what constitutes *'Knowledge of language'.* Chomsky (1981, p.9) in that way answers three main questions which he puts forward as (I) What is the nature of this language? (II) How is it acquired? (III) And how is it put to use? Since the Principles and Parameters theory explains the first question: the nature of language, then second important question needs to be answered.

Chomsky comments (1988) on the child's acquiring rich and complex sound system and ends up saying 'They constitute one part of the human biological endowment, to be awakened by experience and to be sharpened and enriched in the course of the child interactions with the human and material world (p.34). This leads us to focus on biological endowment which is called 'innateness' and the 'poverty of stimulus argument'.

The general idea behind the poverty of stimulus (POS) is the fact that the output of the language acquirer is more perfect than the data available. Laurence & Margolis (2001, p.5) state that in a similar way: "It is that the knowledge acquired in language acquisition far outstrips the information that is available in the environment; or as philosophers sometimes put it, as the output of language acquisition process is radically underdetermined by the input.

2.1.3.1. The Innateness Hypothesis

All children acquire the language of their own community without a formal education. Languages consist of infinite, rich and complex rules, and words which children learn in a very early age although when they expose only a small amount of that knowledge. However they produce infinite sentences, sentences they have never heard before. Chomsky (1988), explains this situation and he ends up by giving the answer of how this is happening. He continues his argument as:

There are cases of people who have acquired the nuances and complexities
of normal language, to a remarkable degree of sophistication, though they

have been both blind and deaf from early childhood, from under two years old in some cases, a time when they were able to speak only a few words; their access to language is limited to the data they can obtain by placing their hand on the face of speaking person. Such examples illustrate that very limited data suffice for the language faculty of the mind/brain to provide a rich and complex language, with much of the detail and refinement of the language of people not similarly deprived. (p.39)

After the stimulus-response arguments of Behaviorist Theory to explain language acquisition, UG and the Innateness Hypothesis brought a new, fundamental light to the Linguistics and Language Acquisition field. The fact that what the child hears cannot be the answer for what he/she produces found its answer in 'Innateness'. Pinker (1994) in order to support Chomsky's Innateness Hypothesis gives two fundamental facts on language acquisition... He says:

First virtually every sentence that a person utters or understands is a brand-new combination of words, appearing for the first time in the history of the universe. Second, children develop these complex grammars rapidly and without formal instruction and grow up to give consistent interpretations to novel sentence constructions that they have never before encountered (p.22).

What a child is biologically equipped is the principles of the languages and are activated by the input which is language the child is exposed to, and constitutes the parameters of her/his language. That is, a child who is exposed to Turkish will construct the parameters of Turkish and the one born in a Japanese-speaking environment will construct parameter values of Japanese language. The requisite to acquire a language is the linguistic input which is defined as evidence also and can be positive or negative.

2.1.3.2. The Role of Positive and Negative Evidence in Language Acquisition

Since the child will build the parameters of the language s/he is exposed to by interacting with the language, the role of evidence/input which will trigger his/her innate mechanism becomes crucial to focus on. Whether the speech surrounds the child is grammatical or not and how it affects the language acquisition process is a question to

be answered. The input/evidence the child has access to from her parents or peers can be both grammatical and ungrammatical.

Positive evidence refers to (Doughty & Long, 2003) the set of well-formed sentences to which learners are exposed and this is the most direct means that learners have available to them from which they can form linguistic hypothesis (p. 25). Pinker (1995, p. 152) defines it as 'the information available to the child about which strings of words are grammatical sentences of the target language'. That is, a sentence like 'I watch TV' is a positive evidence for a child learning English.

Children also expose to a lot of ungrammatical sentences during the language acquisition process. Negative evidence refers to (Pinker, 1995) information about which strings of words are not grammatical sentences in the language, such as corrections or other forms of feedback from a parent that tell the child that one of his/her utterances is ungrammatical (p.153). Negative evidence can happen in two ways; directly and indirectly. It is argued that direct negative evidence does not play a fundamental role in the acquisition process. The following dialogue from Mcneill (1966) will be a good example of correcting a child's utterances and/or direct negative evidence:

Child: Nobody doesn't like me.
Mother: No, say, "nobody likes me."
Child: Nobody doesn't like me.
(dialogue repeated eight times)
Mother: No, now listen carefully: say "Nobody likes me."
Child: Oh, nobody don't likes me.

As can be seen from the dialogue clearly, the mother provides positive and direct negative evidence; however, the child does not change the utterance and ignores the correction. Parents sometimes use indirect negative evidence, that is, they correct child's error by not using the child's form. The child may set a parameter building some certain forms that s/he does not hear. For example an English child is unlikely to hear subject-verb inversion sentences as 'speaks he' (in Cook,1996,p.91), and that is an indirect evidence which leads the child to form the parameters of her/his language by relying on what does not exist in her/his language.

On the other hand, what does not occur is infinite. According to Lust (2006, p. 30) "Children who had never heard 'the cat in the hat' would not be entitled to conclude that this expression was impossible" and she concludes that 'computing indirect negative evidence depends on pre-determined hypotheses regarding possible language'.

2.1.3.3. Principles and Parameters Theory

The crucial claim of UG is, as stated before, the principles which are invariant through languages and the parameters that are changeable. Those principles and parameters form UG. In order to understand how UG works and helps the acquisition process to take place and make LA easier for the child it is important to understand this theory in detail.

2.1.3.3.1 Principles

In order to learn how a specific language (say English) is acquired and how language in general is acquired it is important to know to what extent the properties are language-specific and to what extent they are invariant across languages (Haegeman, p.19). What is universal or/and predetermined is the principles that are the same in Japanese, English or Korean It is assumed that invariant across languages, and applied to all languages in the same way. They can be in the following main headings.

The Subjacency Principle: Only certain elements may be moved, that they only bemoved to certain locations, and that they may not move more than a certain distance (Cook & Newson, 1996,p.189).

The Projection Principle: The properties of lexical items project onto the syntax of the sentence (Cook & Newson, 1996,p.20).

Case Theory: Case theory is related to the traditional syntactic ideas of case which shows the relationship between elements in a sentence as be ing shown by their morphology as well as word order (Cook & Newson, 1996,p.222).

C-command: A structural configuration shows a relationship between elements with one element being 'superior to' but not dominating other elements which are c-commanded by it (Cook & Newson, 1996,p.239).

Binding Theory: The relationship between a pronoun and its antecedent is explained in Binding Theory (Cook and Newson, 1996,p.252).

The Empty Category Principle: An empty category must be properly governed by lexical heads (Cook and Newson, 1996,p. 261).

X-bar Theory: An X Phrase consists of an optional specifier and an X-bar (Cook & Newson, 1996,p.146).

Theta Theory: Theta Theory deals with semantic roles or θ-roles (Cook & Newson,1996,p.161)

Structure Dependency: Operations on sentences require knowledge of the structural relationships of the words rather than their linear sequence (Cook and Newson, 1996,p. 11).

The above principles are universal parts of all languages but they do not necessarily have to be active in all languages. For example subjacency principle is a principle that exists in English but do not exist in Korean, Chinese or Turkish.

2.1.3.3.2. Parameters

UG is a system of sub theories each with certain parameters of variation and when these sub theories are fixed a particular (core) language is determined (Chomsky, 1982, 2). The variant part of UG parameters are learnt as a result of exposure to some specific language. The child interacts with the language spoken in her/his environment and sets the parameters of that language. For example a child born in an English-speaking society will form parameters of English, whereas An Italian child of Italian. Italian is a pro-drop language while English is non-pro-drop. To illustrate the difference of the pro-drop language Haegeman (1994; 10) exemplifies it as:

1a She has invited Louise to her house.

1b * has invited Louise to her house.

2a Lei ha invitato Louisa a casa.

2b Ha invitato Louisa a casa.

In English because the sentence (1b) does not have the subject it is not grammatical and an English speaking child after exposed to this specific knowledge will form the non-pro-drop parameters of English whereas an Italian child will learn the same sentence possible in two ways. According to Carrol (2001,p.74) "UG is more like

a dim sum than a menu fixe". She continues to explain how the child knows what needs to be learnt and the role of UG (principles and parameters) as:

It constraints the set of offerings but does not impose a specific choice on every learner. It is usually hypothesized that UG provides a full set of basic features and that children somehow recognize which ones are needed in their particular L1, based on the stimuli available, using the stimuli to derive input which in turn are used to construct the relevant L1 categories. Thus, children learning Polynesian languages will construct V and VC syllables based on the shape of the words they hear, while children learning French will construct C, CV, VC, CVC, CCV, VCC, and CVCC syllables again based on the shapes of the phonological words constituting input to the learning mechanisms. (p.74)

2.1.4. The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)

Critical Period is used as a term by biologists. Its relationship with language acquisition goes back to 1967, studies of Lenneberg, and relies on researches done on age factor and its affects on language acquisition. The fact that most adults fail to achieve native-like competence in learning a second language and L1 acquisition is very fast comparing to L2, a lot of studies have been conducted in the field. Lenneberg made a biological explanation on the issue (in Hakuta, 1985) remarking that:

The incidence of 'language-learning-blocks' rapidly increases after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear after this age, and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort. Foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty (p.138).

Johnson & Newport (1989,p. 62) detail Lenneberg's argument in two parts. Lenneberg suggested that: first, normal language learning occurred primarily and exclusively within childhood (he gave the differences in recovery from aphasia for children vs. adults and differences in progress in language acquisition before vs. after puberty in the mentally retarded, to exemplify that). Second he suggested, the brain,

having reached its adult values by puberty, has lost the plasticity and re-organizational capacities necessary for acquiring language. Shortly, according to CPH (Abu-Rabia & Kehat,2004) there is a biological/neurological period starting from about two years of age to the end of puberty (around age 14), beyond which a complete mastery of language is no longer possible due to the changes in cerebral plasticity (p.78).

There are many studies centered on the role of age factor in second language acquisition that supports and/or challenges the CPH. For example a study conducted by Abu-Rabia & Kehat on ten subjects with different language background who learnt Hebrew after puberty showed ultimate attainment of Hebrew language. Although in that study subjects show a native-like pronunciation, the most controversial part of those studies is 'pronunciation' which remain the most difficult part of language learning to overcome. The proponents of the theories that challenges CPH (in Croft 1980,p. 184) give some other factors (ego boundaries, cognitive factors, affective factors..) for adults' not acquiring a native-like speech.

CPH studies and the term 'critical period' were originally related to the acquisition of first language. Chun says; talking about second language acquisition, 'sensitive period' is being used which is first proposed by Lamandella and refers to the time second language learning is most efficient (in Croft, 1980, p.185).

2.1.5. Adult Morpheme Acquisition

Morpheme Order Studies gained considerable popularity in the 1970s and 1980s especially with the studies of Brown. In his study in 1973, Brown recorded the spontaneous speech of three American children; Eve, Adam and Sarah. At the end of this longitudinal study which is accepted as the starting point of the acquisition order studies he found out that these three children acquired 14 morphemes roughly in the same order although not at the same age. Brown put it as; "some factor or some set of factors caused these grammatical morphemes to evolve in an approximately consistent order in these children" (Brown, 1973, p.272). Brown also introduced the term 'suppliance in obligatory context' (SOC) which he explained as "… grammatical morphemes are obligatory in certain contexts, and so one can set an acquisition criterion not simply in terms of output, but in terms of output-where required" (1973, p.255). In

that way, Brown set 14 morphemes from the data he gathered (independent from the interaction type with children) and created a standard. In addition to Brown, De Villiers and De Villiers elicited spontaneous speech data from 21 children in a cross-sectional study and compared their data with the study of Brown same year (in Kwon, 2005, p.4). They used the same obligatory context criteria and got very similar results to those of Brown. Table 1 below, details the morpheme order of Brown.

Table 1. Acquisition order for English as a First Language

Order	Morpheme
1	Present progressive (verb + -ing)
2	in
3	on
4	Plural (noun + -s)
5	Past irregular (i.e. ran, saw, went)
6	Possessive (noun + -s)
7	Uncontractible copula (is, am, are, was)
8	Articles (a, the)
9	Past regular (verb + –ed)
10	Third person regular (verb + -s)
11	Third person irregular (i.e. does, has)
12	Uncontractible auxiliary (is, am, are, was)
13	Contractible copula (i.e. I'm, she's, they're)
14	Contractible auxiliary (i.e. I'm going)

(Adapted from Brown, 1973, p. 281)

Brown's longitudinal study on spontaneous L1 acquisition of three children greatly influenced the field of L2 acquisition. A lot of researchers tried to find out if there was a similar morpheme order in the acquisition of L2, too. Dulay and Burt are among the first to mention who extended Brown's method of analysis to L2 acquisition. After a series of studies, they administered a picture test, the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM), to children learning English as a L2, in order to elicit speech samples containing a pre-specified set of morphemes (in Chun,1980, p. 291).

Although the participants of their studies were coming from different language backgrounds (Spanish, Chinese) and the order of morphemes were different from those of Brown's, the data demonstrated an order in morpheme acquisition for L2 learners. According to Dulay and Burt the reason for morpheme order change between L1 and L2

difference was 'the increased cognitive and linguistic maturity of L2 learners' (Chun, 1980, 291).

Dulay and Burt conducted several studies on the issue on children and adults. They developed three different methods in calculating the data; the Group Score method (GSM), the Group Means Method (GMM) and the Syntax Acquisition Method (SAI). All of which designed to diminish the previous one's weaknesses and all of which were criticized by other researchers time to time for these weaknesses (in Disbrow-Chen, 2004, p.16). The structures they first focused on were eleven English morphemes, ten of which were also among Brown's fourteen morphemes, and each morpheme was examined according to its obligatory context. After several studies, Dulay and Burt (1974), and later Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) instead of fourteen morphemes of Brown or eleven morphemes of Dulay and Burt, have chosen eight morphemes for L2 learners (in Kwon, 2005, p.6).
 These eight morphemes are as follows:

Earrlier ↑	1: plural -s
	2: progressive -ing
	3: copula be
	4: auxiliary be
	5: article
	6: irregular past tense
Later ↓	7: third person singular present tense -s
	8: possessive -'s
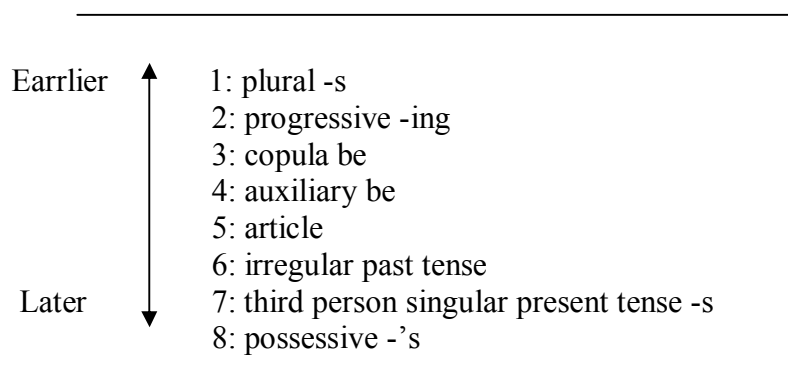
Figure 2. Acquisition order of children whose L1 was Spanish (Dulay and Burt, 1973).
Adapted from Izumi and Isahara, 2005, p. 64.

In addition to the studies of Dulay and Burt, a lot of research shed important light on the 'grammatical morpheme order' studies. Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) generalized the study of Dulay and Burt with adults of various language backgrounds by using the same test (BSM) and found a similar order of acquisition for the same set of English morphemes (Kwon, 2005, p.5). The results were also very similar to child order. Fathman, using Second Language Oral Production English Test (SLOPE), studied 120 Spanish and Korean speaking had a very similar order of

acquisition. Krashen, et al. replicated this study with an adult group and had a similar order of acquisition. According to Chun, that indicates an ''invariant order of acquisition' of morphemes in ESL learning regardless of age, L1, or instruction' (1980, p. 291).

Along with many supporting studies, there are researchers criticizing morpheme order studies on methodological grounds. Larsen-Freeman, after her study in which she carried out first with BSM and later with different tests, claims that the 'invariant' order of acquisition of morphemes may be a result of BSM, and different tests may not give same order (in Chun, 1980, p. 291). Rosansky draws attention on the lack of comparability between cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Hakuta (1976, p.22) carried out longitudinal, naturalistic study of a five year old Japanese girl learning English as a L2. At the end of her study, she agrees with the critical points mentioned by Larsen-Freeman, and Rosansky, and adds the individual differences to the list of what needs to be kept in mind.

In conclusion, despite these critical approaches to the issue, a great number of studies and researchers prove that a high degree of similarity exists in the order of grammatical morpheme acquisition. Evidently, further studies need to be done in the field since SLA is a changing and developing area.

2.2. Language Learning Strategies
2.2.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

Studies that have been conducted over twenty years show a prominent change putting emphasis on studying learners and learning, rather than on teachers and teaching. Language learning strategies are studied and defined within the field of foreign/second language learning by lots of researchers. According to Weinstein and Mayer (in Hsiao & Oxford, 2002) Learning Strategies are "behaviors or thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process". O'Malley and Chamot (1990; p.1) define learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". Oxford (1990) expands the definition of learning strategies and defines them as " specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more

enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations"(p.8).

How learners process the new knowledge and what kind of strategies they use to gain, learn or remember has been the main concern of the researchers but this led to a variety of studies and terminologies in the end which makes it difficult to have a consensus. For example some researchers as O'Malley and Chamot name these strategies as "learning strategies" while Oxford uses the term "language learning strategies". At least when coming to the characteristics there are a number of basic characteristics accepted by most of researchers. Oxford summarizes her view of language learning strategies (LLS) by listing them as follows:

Language learning strategies:

- Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
- Allow learners to become more self-directed.
- Expand the role of teachers.
- Are problem-oriented.
- Are specific actions taken by the learner.
- Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
- Support learning both directly and indirectly.
- Are not always observable.
- Are often conscious.
- Can be taught.
- Are flexible.
- Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990, p.9)

There are also a variety of categories and sub-categories among the researchers in classification of the strategies which show sometimes slight, sometimes major differences. According to Hsiao and Oxford (2002) exactly how many strategies are available and how they should be classified is open to debate and researchers and teachers are often puzzled as to which classification system to follow. The main

approaches of LLS that are best known and applied in the field are of Rubin's (1987), O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), and Oxford's (1990). These lists or taxonomies of LLS will be summarized here.

2.2.2. Rubin's Taxonomy

In their article "Comparing Theories of Language Learning Strategies", Hsiao and Oxford gives details on LLS theories and compares their similarities and differences. They start with Rubin's strategy list which has a prominent role in the strategy studies. Rubin distinguished strategies according to whether they contribute directly to L2 learning or whether they are indirectly involved with language learning. Strategy list of Rubin (1981) is as follows:

Direct strategies

1- Clarification/verification,

2- Monitoring

3- Memorization

4- Guessing/inductive inferencing,

5- Deductive reasoning, and

6- Practice.

Indirect Strategies

1- Creating opportunities for practice

2- Production tricks

(In Hsiao & Oxford, 2002, p.368-383)

The direct/Indirect study of Rubin led Oxford's direct and indirect study of L2 learning with some major changes. The classification shows a considerable degree of difference and a direct strategy of Rubin can be found as an indirect strategy of Oxford. For example 'monitoring' is a direct strategy in Rubin's taxonomy while functions as an indirect strategy in Oxford.

2.2.3. Oxford's Taxonomy

The most extensive list of classification among all other studies is the one provided by Oxford. When analyzed (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002), her classification is not completely different from the previous studies and most of her classifications overlap with those of O'Malley's taxonomy. For example Metacognitive Strategies are almost the same while Cognitive Strategies in O'Malley cover both the Cognitive and Memory Strategies of Oxford. Socio/affective strategy of O'Malley is dealt with less than two different headings; social strategies and affective strategies. There is also a new category which is called Compensation strategies of which find its equivalence as 'inferencing' in O'Malley (Hsiao & Oxford, 368-370).

The taxonomy consists of two main strategies which has the same names as Rubin's; the Direct and Indirect strategies. Oxford (1990) resembles the direct strategies to the Performer in a stage play, "working with the language itself in a variety of specific tasks and situation", and indirect strategies the Director of the play that serves a host of functions, like focusing, organizing, guiding... etc. ensuring that the performer works co-operatively with other actors in the play (p.15).

Direct strategies are the ones that are directly involve the target language learning. Under direct strategies heading, there are three sub-categories which are Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation strategies. Memory strategies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990) are those used for entering information into memory and retrieving it; cognitive strategies for manipulating the language for reception and production of meaning; and compensation strategies for overcoming limitations in existing knowledge (p.312). Each of these categories has got their own sub-categories.

Indirect Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.135) are the strategies that are called 'indirect' because they support and manage language learning without directly involving the learning process. Its subcategories are Metacognitive, Affective and Social Strategies. Metacognitive strateies are (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990) used for organizing and evaluating learning; affective strategies for managing emotions and attitudes; social strategies for learning with others (p.312). Indirect Strategies too, have lots of subcategories which will be shown in Figure 2.A. in detail.

Figure 3.A. Direct Strategies

I. Memory Strategies

A. Creating mental linkages
1. Grouping
2. Associating/elaborating
3. Placing new words into a context

B. Applying images and sounds
1. Using imagery
2. Semantic mapping
3. Using keywords
4. Representing sounds in memory

C. Reviewing well
1. Structured reviewing

D. Employing Action
1. Using physical response or sensation
2. Using mechanical techniques with systems

II. Cognitive Strategies

A. Practicing
1. Repeating
2. Formally practicing sounds and writing syste
3. Recognizing and using Formulas and patterns
4. Recombining
5. Practicing naturalistically

B. Receiving and sending messages
1. Getting the idea quickly
2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages

C. Analyzing and reasoning
1. Reasoning deductively
2. Analyzing expressions
3. Analyzing contrastively (across languages)
4. Translating
5. Transferring

D. Creating structure for input and output
1. Taking notes
2. Summarizing
3. Highlighting

III. Compensation
Strategies

A.Guessing
B.Intelligently

1.Using linguistic clues
2.Using other clues

A. Overcoming
limitations
in speaking
and writing

1.Switching to the mother
2. Getting help
3. Using mime or gesture
4.Avoidincommunication
partially or totally
5. Selecting the topic
6.Adjusting or
approximating
the message
7. Coining words
8. Using a circumlocution
or synonyms

Figure 3.B. Indirect Strategies

I. Metacognitive
Strategies

A. Centering
Your
Learning

1. Overviewing
and linking
with already known
material
2. Paying attention
3. Delaying speech
production to focus on
listening

B. Arranging and
planning
your learning

1. Finding out about
language learning
2. Organizing
3. Setting goals and
objectives
4. Identifying the purpose
of a language task
5. Planning for a
language task
6. Seeking practice
opportunities

B. Evaluating
your learning

1. Self-monitoring
2. Self-evaluating

A. Lowering your anxiety
- 1. Using progressive relaxation, deep or meditation
- 2. Using music
- 3. Using laughter

II. Affective Strategies

B. Encouraging yourself
- 1. Making positive staements
- 2. Taking risks wisely
- 3. Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature
- 1. Listening to your body
- 2. Using a checklist
- 3. Using a language learning diary
- 4. Discussingyour feelings with someone else

III. Social Strategies

A. Asking questions
- 1. Asking for clarification or verification
- 2. Asking for corrections

B. Cooperating with others
- 1. Cooperating withothers
- 2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C. Emphatizing with others
- 1. Developing cultural understanding
- 2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

Figure 3. Diagram of Oxford's Strategy Classification System

(Oxford, 1990, pp. 17-21)

2.2.4. O'Malley's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Another central study on the classification of language learning strategies is the one done by O'Malley and Chamot. They subdivided the strategies according to distinction between *metacognitive strategies* and *cognitive strategies* derived from A.

Brown, also adding a new group; *social mediation or social/affective strategies* (Cook, 1995, p.113).

2.2.4.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies refer to planning or thinking about learning process, monitoring, or evaluating learning after the activity is completed. According to Stewner-Manzaranes, Gloria et al., using those strategies learners are gaining knowledge about learning and regulating that learning, that is " the learners are aware of and have control over the domain of cognition" (1985, p.14). The taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot of metacognitive strategies is as follows:

- Advance organizers: planning the learning activity in advance at a general level-"You review before you go into class";
- Directed attention: deciding in advance to concentrate on general aspects of a learning task;
- Selective attention: deciding to pay attention to specific parts of the language input or the situation that will help learning;
- Self-management: trying to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning--"I sit in the front of the class so I can see the teacher";
- Advance preparation (Later renamed as 'Functional Planning'): 'planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task' (O'Malley et al., 1985a, p.33);
- Self-monitoring: checking one's performance as one speaks – "Sometimes I cut short a word because I realize I've said it wrong";
- Delayed production: deliberately postponing speaking so that one may learn by listening – "I talk when I have to, but I keep it short and I hope I'll be understood"; (This strategy is dropped later by Omalley and Chamot).
- Self evaluation: checking how well one is doing against one's own standards;
- Self-reinforcement: giving oneself rewards for success. (This strategy is dropped later by Omalley and Chamot).
- Problem identification: identifying important points of learning task (added as a metacognitive strategy later).

(Cook, 1995, p.114)

2.2.4.2. Cognitive Strategies

According to Stewner-Manzanares et al., "Cognitive strategies involve directly manipulating and transforming learning materials in order to enhance learning or retention" (1985, p.14). Comparing to each other, cognitive strategies are limited to certain type of activities while metacognitive strategies can be applied to a variety of situation. The list of O'Malley and Chamot for Cognitive Strategies is as follows:

- Repetition: imitating other people's speech, silently or aloud;
- Recourcing: making use of language materials such as dictionaries;
- Directed physical response; 'relating new information to physical actions, as with directives' (O'Malley et al., 1985a, p. 33); (This strategy is dropped from the list by Omalley and Chamot later).
- Translation: 'using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the L2' (O'Malley et al., 1985a, p.33);
- Grouping: organizing learning on the basis of 'common attributes';
- Note-taking: writing down the gist of texts;
- Deduction: conscious application of L2 rules;
- Recombination: putting together smaller meaningful elements into new wholes;
- Imagery: turning information into a visual form to aid remembering it- "Pretend you are doing something indicated in the sentences to make up about the new word";
- Auditory representation: keeping a sound or sound sequence in the mind- "When you are trying to learn how to say something, speak it in your mind first";
- Key word: using key-word memory techniques, such as identifying an L2 word with an L1 word that sounds similar;
- Contextualization: 'placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence' (O'Malley et al., 1985a, p.34).
- Elaboration: 'relating new information to other concepts in memory' (O'Malley et al., 1985, p.34)
- Transfer: helping language learning through previous knowledge-"If they are

talking about something I have already learnt (in Spanish), all I have

to do is remember the information and try to put it into English";

- Inferencing: guessing meaning by using available information-"I think of the
  whole meaning of the sentence, and then I can get the meaning of
  the new word";

- Summarising: making a summary of new information (added as a cognitive
  strategy later).

- Rehersal: going over the language needed for a task (added as a cognitive
  strategy later).

2.2.4.3. Social/Affective Strategies

According to O'Malley and Chamot (in Cook, 1995, p.115) these strategies 'represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect'. Under that title one group is listed:

- Cooperation: working with fellow-students on a language task

After lots of studies on the issue O'Malley and Chamot changed a few titles in their lists. *Delayed production, self reinforcement,* and *directed physical response* are dropped; *the advance preparation strategy* is renamed as 'functional planning'. They reclassified the last cognitive strategy *question for clarification* under social/affective also adding new strategies:

- Question for clarification: getting a teacher to explain, help, and so on.
- Self-talk: boosting one's confidence to do a task more successfully
  (added as a social/affective strategy).
- Self-reinforcement: Providing personal motivation by arranging
  rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been
  completed successfully (Chamot, 1987, p. 125).

According to Ellis, the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies is the one provided by Oxford. He claims that 'Oxford built on the earlier classifications with the aim of subsuming within her taxonomy virtually every strategy previously

mentioned in the literature' (1994, p.539). In order to use her taxonomy methodologically more comprehensive data is needed as well. In this study, the taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot will be preferred since we did not aim at finding out LLS at the beginning, and that our data is not that comprehensive.

2.2.5. Communication Strategies

Communication enables language learners to put practice what they have learnt and to learn with others co-operatively. There are researchers who define communication strategies as psychological processes and focus on mental response of individual and who finds them sociolinguistic oriented processes. Here, in this study, since the data reveals sociolinguistic oriented information more, communication strategies will be detailed.

The most important proponents of communication strategies who think of such strategies in terms of social interaction are Tarone. She defines communication strategies as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (in Cook, 1995; p.119). Tarone's communication strategies list is as follows:

- Avoidance. The learner avoids the communication problem by
  - topic avoidance: not saying what he or she originally had in mind;
  - message abandonment: giving up speaking in mid-term.
- Paraphrase. Paraphrase strategies compensate for an L2 word that is not known by:
  - approximation: finding a word with as close a meaning as possible, such as "animal" for "horse";
  - word coinage: making up a word, say "airball" for "balloon";
  - circumlocution: talking round the word – "when you make a container" for "pottery".
- Conscious transfer. Transfer from the L1 helps the participants out by:
  - literal translation: a German speaking student says "Make the door shut" rather than "shut the door"
  - language switch: for example "That's a nice tirtil" (caterpillar).

- Appeal for assistance. For instance, "What is this?"

- Mime. Nonverbal activities such as acting out a request for the time by pointing   to the wrist.

<div align="right">(Cook, 1995, p.121)</div>

According to Rubin, "the good language learner has a strong desire to communicate or to learn from communication. He is willing to do many things to get his message across" (in Ervin, 1979, p. 329). Since our participant is surrounded by the target language, and is willing to learn it sooner, the tactics she prefers to communicate and their number of occurrence becomes very important.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

The methodology for this study is based on a longitudinal, descriptive research design. Within this chapter, the design of the study will be presented. Additionally, the instruments used to collect the data, the participant(s), and how the data is analyzed will be explained.

3.1. Research Design

This study is designed as a case study, aiming to collect a large amount of in-depth data from an adult informant, giving primary interest into processes of her second language development over time. As our participant lives in a country where English is spoken as a native language, 'diary' was chosen as a data collection tool. The diaries consist of personal information that participant gives and those diaries are systematically written and sent via e-mails. Data gathered through diaries gave us details on improvement in lexicon and grammar and the learner's language perception about L2 Acquisition.

In qualitative case studies the data can be precoded but it is continuously interpreted on first encounter and again and again (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p.450). As our data revealed lots of strategies used by the participant to learn the language and culture, it became obligatory to interpret the data also taking the strategies into consideration. Data was analyzed to in that sense, too.

3.2. Participant(s)

This is a longitudinal study consisting of a single participant who is going to be called Eda (a pseudonym) during the study. She is learning/acquiring English as a second language in the USA. The data gathering process began when she started a language course a few months after she had moved there.

There are two more languages in Eda's background which may need to be taken into consideration in data analysis section. First; she had German classes at secondary school and high school as a foreign language, and second; she was able to speak Kurdish. The reason English was accepted as her second language was that she did not have any education on Kurdish and its grammar, did not remember anything from those German classes (Personal communications, September 20th, 2007), and that Turkish was her dominant language. She spoke Turkish both at school, at home and in the wider community she was raised.

Eda is 27 years old and she was a university student in the History of Art section in her third year before she left school to go abroad. Before that, she also got education in the Radio and TV section. She took classes in English as a Foreign Language at University for the first time which continued for a year and her English learning process stopped at that point. Before she moved to the USA she was barely able to tell her name in English. (Personal communications, September 20th, 2007).

3.3. Data Collection Instruments
3.3.1. Diaries

Language learning strategies are identified through various self-report procedures because for the most part they are unobservable. The methods used for that are interviews, questionnaires, diaries, and think-aloud protocols. According to Chamot *written diaries* consist of learners' personal observations about their own learning experiences and the way in which they attempted to solve language problems (2005, p.114). Rubin suggests that using diaries help students develop metacognitive awareness of their own learning processes and strategies (in Chamot, 2005, p.114).

The most important data collection instrument in this study was diaries sent through e-mails. These e-mails supplied the data which revealed the learning process, in participant's point of view. At the beginning of the study it aimed to elicit the participant's vocabulary and grammar improvement but later it also provided us which strategies she used during the learning process.

3.3.2. The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP)

Another important instrument was the Michigan Proficiency Test which was applied to evaluate the participant's proficiency level before, during and at the end of the data collection period. The test was sent to Eda through e-mails, and she was informed on how she would take it, how much time she needed and anything she had to know about it. The test contains 100 questions. They are divided into three parts: Part I is a grammar test; Part II is a vocabulary test; and Part III is a test of reading comprehension and it takes 75 minutes to finish the entire test.

3.3.3. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The third instrument is a Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which is improved by Oxford (1990). It is a self report survey which has two different versions. In this study the SILL that is prepared for the learners of English as a second language was used. It consists of six sections and 50 statements following the general format like 'I do this and that…' and participant's respond on 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 'Never or almost never true of me' to 5 'Always or almost always true of me' (see Appendix B). After the answers are completed the values assigned to each items of each section are added and then divided into the number of items in each section. The values obtained show the profile of strategies used and the frequency of their occurrence.

3.4. Data Analysis

Although at the beginning of the study it was aimed to focus on the grammatical and syntactic development of an adult learning English in a native country, and how the participant's L1 will affect her L2, as time passed the data revealed some other important clues on what to analyze. Data is examined taking two different important areas of SLA into consideration, namely; Language Learning Strategies and Adult Morpheme Acquisition order.

At the beginning, the results of Michigan Proficiency Test which was applied before, in the middle and at the end of the data gathering process, will be given to

demonstrate the improvement of Eda's L2 acquisition. In that way her advance during the research will be perceived.

From the taxonomies detailed in the Literature Review Section, the list of O'malley and Chamot has been used in this study to analyze Language Learning Strategies, because the list of Oxford is a very comprehensive one and for using it as a basis in a study requires a more detailed, comprehensive data gathering method. As they are almost parallel to one another, it will not change the result.

The results of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was examined as explained in Oxford's book 'Language Learning Strategies' (1990, p.297).The blanks were numbered by the participant from 1 'Never or almost never true of me' to 5 'Always or almost always true of me'. Each item (1,2,3,4,5) is added up under its part and divided to the total number of statements. This average was rounded off to the nearest tenth (e.g. 3.2). All the sums for the different parts are added up and divided by 50. In that way, the preference of every strategy will be understood.

In pointing out the morphological acquisition of Eda, since she was a beginner and had not acquired the morphemes yet, there was not a critical change or milestones for examining the change as a basis of analysis. For that reason, I showed her acquisition process by showing her development in graphics taking especially the time into consideration (instead of a great change in a morpheme). In each table, the progress of the morpheme acquisition is shown in three phases. Each phase shows Eda's morpheme acquisition of two months.

Group Score Method (GSM) introduced by Dulay and Burt was used in this study (in Izumi and Isahara, 2004, p.67). In the GSM, firstly an expectation score for each morpheme is defined according to how many times it must appear in the obligatory context. One appearance is counted as 2 points. Then the learner's score is counted depending on her correct and incorrect answers. Each usage pattern is counted as being shown in Table 2:

Table 2. Distribution of points for conditions of learner's usage

Condition of Learner's Usage	Point(s)
Correct	2
Incorrect: omission of a morpheme	0
Incorrect: an erroneous morpheme	1

Adapted from Izumi and Isahara, 2004, p.67.

Expectation Score = (frequency of the morpheme in obligatory context) × 2

Learner's Score = (number of correct use) × 2 + (number of omission

errors) × 0 + (number of replacement errors).

After finding the 'Expectation Score' and the Learner's Score next the Morpheme Score is calculated as explained below. If the result of that calculation is %90 or above that number the morpheme is accepted as 'Acquired'.

$$\textbf{Morpheme Score} = \frac{\text{Learner's Score}}{\text{Expectation Score}} \times 100$$

Adapted from Izumi and Isahara, 2004, p.67.

In that way, the data will be examined, morpheme scores calculated and the morpheme acquisition order of Eda will be revealed. Additionally, her acquisition order will be compared to the Acquisition order of Dulay and Burt.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the results are going to be analyzed and discussed. As stated before, the study aimed at finding out answers of two different aspects of SLA; learning strategies the participant uses during the acquisition process and her acquisition order of grammatical morphemes. Since they are different characteristics of the SLA field the findings are going to be analyzed under two separate headings.

Before the data analysis of LLS and Morpheme Acquisition, the results of Michigan Proficiency Test will be presented first. It gave us significant results to make clear Eda's level before the test and her improvement during or after the data collecting process.

4.1. General Linguistic Development of Eda Illustrated by Analysis of Michigan Proficiency Test

The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP), a test of grammar, vocabulary, and reading, was used in order to support our study in revealing Eda's measurable improvement. It was sent her through e-mails and the answers were also received in that way. She was informed on how she will take the test.

Michigan Proficiency Test contains 100 questions and it is divided into three parts: Part I is a grammar test; Part II is a vocabulary test; and Part III is a test of comprehension. It was applied three times; before, during and at the end of the data collection period.

Table 3. Results of the Michigan Test of English (MTELP) in Three Phases

MTELP (question types)	MTELP I (correct answers)	MTELP II (correct answers)	MTELP III (correct Answers)
Grammar	7	8	19
Vocabulary	16	16	20
Reading	7	10	7
Total Number	30	34	46

As can be noticed easily, there is a significant improvement in Eda's general acquisition of English. She has got 7 grammar, 16 vocabulary, and 7 reading correct answers in the first MTELP. In second test which is applied in the middle of the data gathering process, she increased these numbers in grammar from 7 to 8 and reading from 7 to 10. Her vocabulary score stayed the same (16). Finally, after six months, she scored 19 grammar, 20 vocabulary, and 7 reading correct answers.

The MTELP III applied at the end of data gathering process, indicates a great positive change in grammar. She increases her grammar score from 8 to 19 which can be a consequence of her starting language courses again. She also scores better in vocabulary section and gives 20 correct answers instead of previous 16. The only negative change is in reading and it decreases from 10 to 7.

The total numbers of test, points out that there is a consistent positive change in Eda's English. Language acquisition is a long-term process and taking the limited time of data gathering process (six months) into consideration, Eda is showing a considerable improvement.

4.2. The Analysis of the data in terms of Learning Strategies:

The data was gathered through e-mails and Eda (a pseudonym) was not asked specifically to use any strategy or to write on the tactics she was using during acquisition process. She was writing e-mails to explain how the acquisition takes place and the e-mails sent happened to be full of strategies she was using to learn the language sooner.

The data is going to be shown by using tables and will be exemplified under the tables. The tables will show the Cognitive, Metacognitive, Socio/Affective strategy taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot (Cook, 1995, p.115), and the frequency of their occurrence by Eda in three phases. There is also Communication strategy list of Tarone with a Table revealing the frequency of their usage and the analysis of them.

The Phases are determined taking data gathering time into account. Six months were spent on collecting data, and each phase symbolizes Eda's two months of learning. For example the LLS Eda used in first two months are presented in the first Phase of each table etc...

4.2.1. Cognitive Strategies

O'malley and Chammot define Cognitive Strategies as 'interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task (1995, p.138). The number of Cognitive Strategies Eda used during her learning is very high. Table 3 illustrates the name and number of occurrence of these strategies in Eda's acquisition of English**.**

Table 4. Cognitive Strategies used in three phases.

Name of the strategy	Phase I Number	Phase II Number	Phase III Number	Total Number
• translation	22	13	5	40
• resourcing	16	6	3	25
• inferencing	5	1	4	10
• repetition	3	3		6
• elaboration	4			4
• auditory representation	2			2
• directed physical response	1			1
• note-taking	1			1
• key word	1			1
• transfer		1		1
• summarising				
• rehearsal				
• deduction				
• recombination				
• imagery				
• grouping				
• contextualisation				

As can be seen from the Table 4 clearly, Cognitive strategies are preferred a lot by Eda as a way of learning the target language. It can easily be perceived that they are used inconsistently. Yet there is a systematic usage of some specific strategies.

For example, **Translation** is the strategy Eda applied to her learning process most. She preferred that strategy 40 times, which is the highest number among the cognitive strategies she used. According to O'Malley and Chammot Translation is 'using the first language as a basis for understanding and/or producing the L2' (Cook, 1995, p.115). She uses translation mostly in producing the language as can be seen in examples below:

Example 1:   They can take a housworker . (Phase I)
               They should hire a house cleaner. (in producing the language).
Example 2 :   I go until the beach. (Phase II)
               I go to the beach. (in producing the language).
Example 3 :   You are still live in the pink imagine. (Phase III)
               You still live in the pink. (in producing L2)
Example 4 : .. bana dedi ki senin ülkenin bulunduğu yere Middle Eastern demeliyiz,
               dedi. Ben de zannettim ki Middle East Return diyor. Anlamadim ne
               demek istediğini. Zannettim ki Ortadoğu dönmeleri diyor. (Phase I)
               She told me that we must call the place where my country is as Middle
               Eastern. (Her teacher means the people. Not the country). I did not
               understand what she meant. I thought that she said Middle East
               Apostates (in understanding the language).

Because our participant is an adult learner, her conversation has lots of examples of 'translation'. First three examples show how Eda's L1 effects her, in producing L2. In Example 4, she translates the statements she hears into the L1, and tries to understand them in that way.

She starts with using that strategy 23 times in Phase 1; however that number decreases almost to half, as she acquires the language more. In Phase III, it is easily noticed that the influence of L1 in understanding and producing the language starts to

fade away. After she progresses the preference for some other strategies shows up. For example, she starts to compare herself with others or self-evaluate herself.

Resourcing is another strategy Eda preferred to use a lot. It is defined by Omalley and Chammot as "making use of language materials such as dictionaries" (Cook, 1995, p.115). In her diaries, Eda often mentions how she looked up vocabulary items in a dictionary. Below are some examples of resourcing, signifying the way she applied that strategy to her learning:

Example 5 : Televizyonun sesini kıstığımda konuşmalar altta yazılı çıkıyor. Bu şekilde izlerken bilmediğim kelimeleri yazıp sözlüğe baktım ve daha sonra onları ezberlemeye çalıştım. (Phase I)

When I turn down the voice of TV, the subtitles appear. In that way I wrote the words and then I tried to memorize them.

Example 6 : … Bize ezbere birşeyler yazdırırken cümlenin sonuna nokta koymamı istedi.'Point'i nokta olarak biliyordum ama başka bir kelime kullandı. Tabii bir kaç defa tekrarladıktan sonra neyi kastettiğini anlayabildim. Eve gelip sözlüğe baktım. Yine karşılığında 'point' yazıyordu. (Phase II)

While she was having us write something she wanted me to put something (I did not understand the word) at the end of the sentence. As far as I know it should have been 'point' so I could not understand her although she had repeated it a few times. Then when I came home and looked up in the dictionary. I found out that nokta means point. (She does not understand the word full stop).

Example 7: … Genel olarak anladım her iki parçayı. İçinde bilmediğim kelimelerin anlamına sözlüğe bakmıştım dün evde okuyunca. (Phase II)

Generally speaking, I understood the two texts. I have already looked up in a dictionary yesterday, while reading them at home.

It is possible to see resourcing in most part of the data. As can be seen from Example 5, even when she is alone, watching TV, she uses dictionary to understand what is going on. Example 6 and 7 are again shows the frequency of her using a dictionary.

Comparing three phases, a meaningful decline in using resourcing can be noticed from the table. The more she learns the language the more she reduces looking up in a dictionary. Instead she probably starts to communicate or to use other tactics to inference the meaning.

Inferencing is the third most used strategy in cognitive strategies. When three phases are compared, there is an inconsistent change in the use of inferencing. In Phase I, Eda applies it to her learning 5 times while in Phase II that number falls to 1 in Phase III; she again starts to use inferencing in her learning. According to O'Malley and Chamot Inferencing is guessing meaning by using available information-, they exemplifies it as; "I think of the whole meaning of the sentence, and then I can get the meaning of the new word"; (Cook,1995,p.115). Here are some examples from Eda's use of inferencing.

Example 8:   Sorduğu sorulardan bazılarını anlıyordum. Konuşmalarının arasında
                geçen bildiğim kelimeler olunca da ne söylediklerini anlayabiliyorum.
                (Phase III)
                I understood some of questions s/he asked. I could also understand what
                they said when there was words I had already known.

Example 9:   'Wake up' kelimesinin uyanmak olduğunu biliyordum da 'awake'
                kelimesini yeni duydum ama neyi kastettiğini anladım. (Phase I)
                I already knew the meaning of 'wake up' but I have heard of 'awake' for
                the first time. Yet, I understood what she meant.

Example 10: Yine TV'de izlediğim bir yemek programı vardı, daha çok sebzelerin
                isimleri tanıdık geliyordu, görüntünün de yardımıyla yeni kelimeler
                öğrenmeye çalıştım. (Phase II)
                Again, there was a cooking programme on TV. Names of the foods
                mostly sounded familiar. With the help of visual aids too, I tried to learn
                some new words.

In examples 8, 9, and 10, with the help of her previous knowledge, gestures or images she makes guesses on meaning.

Repetition is the fourth most applied strategy Eda used. It is described by O'Malley and Chamot as 'imitating other people's speech, silently or aloud'. A few examples of repetition from Eda's diaries are as follows.

Example 11: Sonra bu isimleri tek tek okuduk ve doğru telaffuz edene kadar tekrarladık.(Phase I)

Then we read those nouns one by one, and repeated until we could pronounce the right.

Example 12: Bana 'happy new year' dedi. Ben de ona 'happy new year' deyip çıktım.(Phase III)

Happy new year' s/he said. I also said 'happy new year' and got out.

Example 13: Adını söyledi. Ben de adımı söyledim ve bana 'Nice to meet you' dedi. Ben de ona 'nice to meet you too' dedim. (Phase I)

He told me his name. And I told him my name than he said 'nice to meet you', and 'I said nice to meet you too'.

The first example, as can be noticed takes place at school and is a teacher-directed repetition activity but the examples 12 and 13 are a way of her learning daily speech.

She applied Repetition 3 times in both Phase I and Phase II. In Phase III she did not use any repetition. The reason for that could be her acquiring daily simple speech like 'greetings etc... .' which requires a lot of repetition or that after a while she may not need to mention those repetitions.

There are some other Cognitive Strategies used only once or twice during data collection process and there are some that she has never used. She did not apply any of cognitive strategies as; grouping, deduction, recombination, imagery, contextualization, summarizing, or rehearsal.

4.2.2. Analysis of Metacognitive Strategies

According to O'malley and Chammot, "Metacognitive Strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task,

and evaluating how well one has learned" (1995, p.137). Metacognitive strategies Eda used are shown in Table 5, along with the number of their frequency.

Table 5. Metacognitive Strategies used in three phases.

Name of the strategy	Phase I Number	Phase II Number	Phase III Number	Total Number
• selective attention • self evaluation • advance organisers • directed attention • self management • functional planning • self monitoring • problem identification	5 1	1	1 2 1	6 3 1 1

Metacognitive Strategies, as can be perceived from Table 5, are less preferred than the Cognitive Strategies in the beginning of learning. It is not surprising, because after lots of studies O'Malley and Chamot concluded that like the ESL students, the foreign language students use far more cognitive strategies than metacognitive ones and those beginners relied most on repetition, translation and transfer while advanced learners use inferencing more. (In Cook, 1995, p.117).

The Metacognitive Strategy Eda applied most is **Selective Attention** although there is an inconsistency in its use. O'Malley and Chamot define it as "deciding to pay attention to specific parts of the language input or the situation that will help learning" (Cook, 1995, p.117). It is used 5 times in the Phase 1. Yet, in Phase 2 Eda did not apply any Selective Attention to her learning and in Phase 3 she applied it only once. There is an inconsistency in its frequency. A good example from that strategy would be:

Example 14: Konuşmalarında geçmişten bahsederken sık sık 'was' ve 'were' kullanmaları dikkatimi çekti. Sonra 'was' ve 'were'ın olumsuz halini cümlede kullandıklarında, olumsuzluk ekini zor farkediyorum. (Phase I)

It drove my attention that they are using 'was' and 'were' while they are talking about the past. Then when they use negative form of was and was I barely understand the negative form.

Example 15: …Sonra bilgisayarda chat odası diye bir bölüm var, odaya katıldım, iki kişiyle kısa bir diyaloğum oldu. Yazmam için iyi olur diye düşündüm ama karışıktı biraz. Yine o sayfada yazılı olan kelimeler oluyor. Onları okudum. (Phase II)

…Then there is a section called chat room, I joined it, I had a short dialog with two persons I thought that it would be good for improving my writing skill but it was a little confusing. And there is also a vocabulary part. I read it.

Example 16: …Genelde şöyle soruyorum. "How much money is this?" diyorum. Çünkü daha önce dikkat etmiştim. İnsanlar böyle soruyordu. (Phase I)
I generally say "How much money is this?" Because I paid attention before, people ask it like that.

All three examples above show Eda's paying attention to specific parts of language, e.g. askin the price in Example 16. She also pays attention to grammatical structures she hears as in Example 14.

In Phase 2, she started to self-evaluate herself. **Self Evaluation** is checking how well one is doing against one's own standards (O'Malley and Chamot, in Cook,1995,p.114). In Eda's situation once she got better in English and began to express herself more fluently, she started to compare herself with others.

Example 17 : Konuşma hızına yetişmem mümkün değil Becky'nin. O kızı eksiksiz anladığım gün İngilizceyi öğrendiğimi anlamış olacağım. (Phase III)
It is impossible to follow Becky's speech. The day I understand that girl I will feel that I have learnt English.

Example 18: Sozdar'in bir arkadaşı geldi. Daha öncede gelmişti ama şimdi konuşmalarını daha iyi anlıyorum. (Phase III)
A friend of Sozdar came. He came before too but this time I can understand her speech.

Example 19: Akşam saatlerinde yoğunlaştığı için iş çoktu. Kızlar bazen bir şeyler istiyordu. Şimdi benden bir şeyler istedikleri zaman anlayabiliyorum. (Phase III)

Because the restaurant gets busy there is a lot of work to do. Sometimes the girls ask something. Now, when they ask me to do something I can understand them.

Eda starts to evaluate herself and compare herself with others. She also evaluate herself with her old times. Her self-evaluation can be seen in Example 17 best. In examples 18 and 19, she compares her present and past improvements.

Some of Metacognitive Strategies as; 'self management', 'functional planning', 'self monitoring', and 'problem identification' were not found in the data. Eda prefers only a few number Metacognitive Strategies in her learning. As stated before, the reason is beginner learners prefer Cognitive Strategies more. She applied Metacognitive Strategies only 11 times in total, and compared to the total number of Cognitive Strategies there is a huge difference between the uses of two groups.

4.2.3. Analysis of Social/Affective Strategies

Social/Affective Strategies are added to the list of O'Malley and Chammot after extensive studies conducted in the area. O'Malley and Chammot summarize that these strategies "involve interacting with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task" (1995, 139). Table 6 illustrates the number of preference of this strategy group by Eda.

Table 6. Social/Affective Strategies used by Eda.

Strategy Name	Phase I	Phase II	Phase III	Total
•cooperation	5		4	9
•question for qlarification	3		3	6
•self-talk				

Table 6 shows that in Phase II, none of Social/Affective Strategies are used and Cooperation is applied to learning more than Question for Clarification. Examining the data in detail reveals the reason of that change. During that time Eda started to work, and her diaries are more focused on conversations at work rather than the learning process taking place at school.

Cooperation is working with fellow-students on a language task. (in Cook, 1995, p.115). The examples of cooperation consist of mostly teacher-directed activities done in the classroom.

Example 20: ..Sonra arkadaşınızla birlikte okuyun dedi, bir ben okudum arkadaşım
dinledi, bir de yanımda oturan okudu ben dinledim. (Phase I)
Then, she wanted us to read with our friends. First, I read and she
listened, then she read and I listened to her.

Example 21 : Yine ikişerli gruplar halinde şu soruları sorduk birbirimize. (Phase I)
Then we asked those questions in goups of two again.

Example 23 : …Bu konu hakkında yanımdakiyle konuştuk ve aynı zamanda hocamızda
düzeltmeleri yaptı. (Phase II)
..I talked with the friend next to me on the subject, and our teacher
corrected us.

In example 20, 21 and 23, Eda is doing a pair-work activity at school. In all these examples, she is in cooperation with her friends, working on a language task. It is also clear from 20 and 23 examples that the activities are teacher-directed.

Question for Clarification is another Social/Affective Strategy Eda used. It is defined as "getting a teacher to explain, help, and so on" (Cook, 1995, p.115). Although in classroom Eda asks questions to clarify what she had not understood; she uses it only six times in the whole language learning process. That could be another indication of her avoidance in communicating with people. She utters her questions as:

Example 24: ...Truck'ı kamyon adı olarak öğrenmiştim. Okunuşu ve yazılışı aynı gibi

geldi bana. Sonra iki anlamda kullanıldığını düşündüm. Hocaya sorunca bana tahtada iki kelimeyi de yazdı. Yazılış farkını anladım ama hala okunuşları aynı gibi geliyor. (Phase I)

I had learnt the word 'track' as the name of 'truck'. I thought that the written form and the pronunciation is the same. Then I thought it is being used in two different meanings. When I asked the teacher she wrote them on the board. I understood the difference in the written form but theirpronunciation still sounds the same.

Example 25 : ..Sonra hocaya sordum. Endişe ve merakta kalma gibi bir anlam oldugunu belirtti. (Phase III)

..Then I asked the teacher. She said it means like to be in anxiety and curiosity.

Both example 24 and 25 are good examples of 'question for clarification'. Eda is getting her teacher to explain what she has not understood.

As can be seen from the examples too, although not consistent, Eda uses 'cooperation' and 'question for clarification' when she needs to. An important point from Table 6 is that **self talk** which is added to the socio/affective list of O'Malley and Chammot later, and explained as 'reducing anxiety by using mental technique that make one feel competent to do the learning task' (1995, p.139) is not applied to the learning by Eda. That can result from the method we used to collect the data. As Eda was not asked to write the strategies she used, and did not have any education on LLS, Eda may have used this strategy though she has not mentioned or written it anywhere in data.

4.2.4. Analysis of Communicative Strategies

L2 researchers are divided into two camps: sociolinguistically oriented researchers and psycholinguisticaly oriented researchers. As stated before, in this study not the psychological process but rather the social interaction part of learning is focused on. For that reason the communication strategies of Tarone are taken as a basis.

In this study, After Eda had started to work in a restaurant and had social interaction with people, the data started to give lots of evidence on communicative

strategies. Table 7 below reveals the occurrence of Communicative Strategies and their frequency numbers.

Table 7. Communicative Strategies used in three phases

Name of the Strategy	Phase I	Phase II	Phase III	Total Number
• avoidance -topic avoidance -message abandonment	7 1	9 1	8 1	24 3
• appeal for assistance	3	3	4	10
• paraphrase -approximation -word coinage -circumlocution	3	2 2	1	6 2
• mime	3	1	1	5
• conscious transfer -literal translation -language switch				

As can be seen from Table 7, the highest number belongs to **Avoidance.** In addition to that, there is a consistency of Avoidance, its subcategory 'topic avoidance' and 'message abandonment' in all phases. A study conducted with fourteen Russian students learning English, Ervin found out that 'topic avoidance' is the communication strategy preferred most compared to other strategies (1979, p.330).

According to Tarone the learner avoids to communicate in two ways: by **'**topic avoidance' which means s/he is not saying what s/he originally had in mind, and 'message abandonment' which means giving up speaking in the mid-stream (Cook, 1995, p.120). In Eda's situation, as can be seen clearly from the table 4, Eda prefers 'Topic Avoidance' more. Instead of asking people what they mean she prefers not to say anything, or just makes guesses about what they have meant. A few examples from data on topic avoidance are as follows:

Example 26: ..Sonra kız bunla ilgili bir şey sordu bana. Anlamadım ama yine de 'yes'

dedim. Verdiği tepkiden iyiki 'yes' demişim diye düşündüm. Kurduğu cümlede 'Did Italian parsley..' kelimelerini anladım. Ne sormuş olduğunu anlamış değilim hala. (Phase II)

Then the girl asked me something about that. I did not understand but still I said 'yes'. From her reaction 'thank God I said 'Yes'' I thought. In the sentence she uttered I understood the 'Did Italian parsley... 'Part. I still don't know what she wanted to say.

Example 27: ...Tarun'la İngilizce konuşmamı istedi ama konuşmadım. Sor bi neden?. Çünkü ya dedim konuşsam, bana sonradan gülseler. (Phase I)

... He wanted me to speak in English with Tarun, but I didn't. Ask me 'Why'? Because I thought what if I talk and they laugh at me?

Example 28: ..İngilizce konuşulduğunda ben genelde susarım. (Phase I)

When the communication is in English I generally don't talk.

In example 26, Eda is communicating with a native speaker and when she does not understand her, instead of asking questions, she makes guesses on what she has meant. Examples 27, 28 explain well enough how she avoids starting a communication.

There is only one example of Message Abandonment in each Phase. As stated above it is explained as 'giving up speaking in the mid-stream'. Since Eda is in the beginner level, she avoids engaging in a conversation and that can be the reason for not having communication with native speakers instead of giving up speaking in the mid-stream. Examples of Message Abandonment are:

Example 29: Asyalı bir kadınla aynı yerden biber alıyordum. Baktı ki çok alıyorum dedi ki 'Can you cook?' 'Yes I can' dedim. 'Can you tell me how do you make cook is this?' dedi biberi işaret ederek. Anladım ki biberi nasıl pişirdiğimi soruyor. Ona nasıl pişirdiğimi anlatmak istedim. Anlatmaya başlayınca tencerenin adını unuttum. Baktım ki anlatamıyorum, dedim 'I don't know'.Bana baktı ve 'You don't know?' dedi. Ben de 'Yes' dedim ve biberlerimi alıp ordan çabucak uzaklaştım. (Phase I)

I was buying pepper from the same place with an Asian woman. She saw I was buying a lot. 'Can you cook' she said. 'Yes I can' I answered. 'Can you tell me how do you make cook is this?' she said pointing the

pepper. I wanted to tell her how I cook, but when I start I forgot the name
of saucepan. I felt I could not explain, and 'I don't know' I said. 'You
don't know?' she asked. 'Yes' I said and I walked away.

Example 30: Kız bir şeyler sordu, anlamadım, tekrarladı yine anlamadım, ama 'Yes'
dedim ve ayrıldım.(Phase I)
The girl asked me something. I could not
understand. She repeated. I could not understand
again but I said 'Yes' and left there.

Example 31 : Bana telefon konusunda başka şeyler de söyledi. Anlamış gibi yaptım.
Sonra ayrıldım yanından. (Phase III)
She told me some other things on telephone. I acted as if I understood,
andleft him.

Both examples 29, 30, and 31 indicate how Eda left the conversation in the
mid-stream. She leaves the place in the middle of conversation or says 'Yes' to cut it
short even when she does not understand what they say.

Appeal for Assistance is simply exemplified as asking the question of 'what is
this?' (in Cook, 1995, p.121). Eda mostly avoids communicating but as can be noticed
from the table, there is stability in the usage of that strategy. Especially after Eda starts
to work in a restaurant she pushes hard to learn or understand what she is being told,
more. A few example of Appeal for Assistance of Eda would be:

Example 32: Geçen gün hangi kıtadan olduğumuzu sordu hoca. Asyalilar çoğunlukta
olmak üzere 3, 4 Güney Amerikalı var. Sıra bana gelince ben Middle
East dedim. Çıkışta beni çağırıp Middle East dersen seni İranlı ya da
Arap sanırlar dedi. Ben de haritayı çıkarıp 'what is this area name?' diye
sordum. (Phase III)
Yesterday, our teacher asked us which continent we were from. Most of
them are Asian, though there are 3 or 4 Americans. When the class was
over she called me and said if you say Middle East they will think you
are Iranian or Arabic. I took out my map and said 'what is this area
name?

Example 33 : Anlamadığımda garsonlara soruyorum, onlar gelip ilgileniyorlar.

(Phase II)

When I don't understand what they say I call

waiters, they come and take care of it.

Example 34 :   Ben kadına 'hometown meaning like country or not dedim?' 'Yes' dedi.

(Phase III)

I asked the women 'hometown meaning like country or not dedim?' She

said 'Yes'.

In examples 32 and 34, 'what is this area name?' and 'hometown meaning like country or not' are good examples of 'Appeal for Assistance'. She also says a few time in the data that, if she does not understand she asks somebody around (as in example 33).

There are 8 examples of **Paraphrase** as can be observed from Table 4. 'Aproximation' is the one Eda used most (6 times) from sub-categories of Paraphrase. "Aproximation is finding a word with as close a meaning as possible, such as 'animal' for 'horse'" (in Cook, 1995, p.121). Obviously the more she improves her English the less she uses that communication strategy because as Table 4 reveals, she starts with 3, and continues with 2 and 1, at the end.

Example 35 : Hoca bana sordu, cevap vermedim. Sonra tekrar sordu. 'Different people'

dedim oda bunun yerine 'interesting people' yazdı. (Phase II)

The teacher asked to me. I didn't answer. Then she asked again.

'Different people' I said. She corrected it, and wrote it as 'interesting

people'

Example 36 :   Sonra bir resim gösterdi bana. Resimde bir adam bozulan küçük bir

mikrodalga fırını tamir ediyordu. Fırına 'tost oven' dedim. Adam çatalla

fırının içine girdiği için elektrik dalgaları yayılmıştı. Çatal ve elektrik

dalgalarını gösterip ne olduğunu sordu, 'fork and elektric' dedim. (Phase

III)

Then s/he showed me a picture. In the picture, there was a man who was

repairing an oven. I called it 'toast oven'. Because the man was

working in the oven with a fork. There was electric waves around the oven. He asked me what that was, showing the picture. 'Fork and electric' I said.

Example 37 : Dünya yeterince güvenli değil bir çocuk emanet etmek için dedim, ama güvenlik kelimesini anlatacak kelimeyi bulamadım. Aklıma 'emergency'geldi. 'Emergency' deyince o 'safety' dedi, ben 'Evet' dedim. O da cümleyi yeniden kurup anladığını söyledi. (Phase III)

I wanted to say that the world is not safe enough for a child but I could not remember the word 'safe'. I remembered the word 'emergency'. When I said 'emergency' she understood what I meant. She said the sentence again in correct form.

In all examples the effort Eda spends to get her message across, to make herself understood by other can be realised. She finds a new word with a close meaning as 'different people' for interesting people', 'tost oven' for 'microwave oven' and 'emergency' for safety' (Examples 35,36,37).

Mime can be witnessed in Eda's communication only 5 times. Eda applies this strategy 3 times in Phase I, and only once in each Phase II, and Phase III. This strategy, as stated before, explained by Tarone as "Non-verbal activities such as acting out a request for the time by pointing to the wrist" (in Cook, 1995, p.121). A few good examples for it are as follows:

Example 38:   Beni çağırıp 'one fork' dedi eliyle de işaret ederek. O zaman anladım çatal istediğini müşterinin. (Phase III)

The customer called me and told me 'one fork please' by pointing the fork. Then I understood that he wants a fork.

Example 39:   Filmin adı Thelma ve Louise'di. Görüntü ses ve mimikler filmi anlamamı sağlıyordu. (Phase II)

The name of the movie was Thelma and Louise. Vision, sounds and mimics helped me to understand what was going on.

Example 40:   Bildiğim bir iki kelime görüntüyle birleşince anlıyorum. (Phase I)

When a few words I know, combines with the

vision, I understand it.

The examples 38, 39, and 40 are from different Phases. In all three examples Eda mentions how she understands the situations with the help of non-verbal activities.

To summarize, subcategory of Paraphrase 'word coinage' is used only twice and just in Phase II the subcategories of Transfer 'literal translation' and 'language switch' were not used by Eda during data collection time. Avoidance and specifically 'topic avoidance' is the communication strategy used most. That can be a consequence of being an adult and having barriers to communicate. Appeal for Assistance is the second most applied strategy which started to increase. That is meaningful, because throughout the data, a process starting 'from silence to communication' can be observed. In Phase III, she begins to write the data in English sometimes and there is a good example of her advance in communication;

Example 41: ...Vana gitmiş. Bana Van'la ilgili bir sürü şey sordu. Arkadaşı da Van

Kedisiyle ilgili birşeyler söyledi. Arkadaşına oraya giderse gölün ortasında bir ada olduğunu ve bununla ilgili Ermeni bir kızla müslüman bir gencin aşkını anlattığını söyledim. İngilizcem yetmiyor anlatmaya dedim. 'Romeo ve Juliet gibi mi' dedi. 'Evet' dedim, sonra bir baktım hikayeyi anlatıyorum ama cok yerde tıkanıyordum (sakın gülme).. (Phase III).

She has gone to Van. She asked me a lot of things on Van. Her friend too asked me something about cats of Van. I told her frient that if she goes to Van, there is an island in the middle of the Lake, and there is a story about it on the love of an Armenian guy and a muslim girl. I said my English is not enough. Like Romeo and Juliet? She asked. 'Yes' I said. The I found mysef telling them the story (do not laugh)... (Phase III).

To conclude, As can easily be noticed from example 41, Eda starts to talk to people, instead of avoiding communication in the last Phase. Yet, she still keeps her

barriers. "Do not laugh" is a good example of Eda's over-controling herself that keeps going even when she writes her feelings.

4.2.5. Analysis of Total Strategies used by Eda

It is important to know the total number of strategy group Eda applied to her learning. Table 8 is indicating her use of LLS in three different Phases so that a comparison could be done.

Table 8. Total strategies used by Eda in three phases.

Strategy Nane	Total Number in Phase I	Total Number In Phase II	Total Number In Phase III	Total Number In 3 Phases
Metacognitive Strategies	6	1	4	11
Cognitive Strategies	55	24	12	91
Social/Affective Strategies	8	-	7	15
Communicative Strategies	17	18	15	50

As can be seen easily from the Table 8, the difference between Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategy aplication is very considerable. Cognitive Strategies are used 91 times, whereas Metacognitive Strategies are preferred only 11 times. Cognitive Strategies start with 55 times in the Phase I. Then this number falls down to 24 and ends up with 12. This is a meaningful change. Metacognitive strategies start with 6, and continue to 1, and then 4. As stated before (in the Analysis of Metacognitive Strategies Section) this result is not very surprising because According to O'malley and Chamot, like the ESL, the foreign language students use far more cognitive strategies than metacognitive ones (in Cook, 1995, p.117).

The next point to consider is the inconsistency of Social/Affective Strategies. In Phase I Eda uses almost the same number of Social/Affective Strategies with the Phase III. However in Phase II she does not use any strategy. In a study conducted to find out the strategy use of adult learners of English (with Spanish and Russian background), O'Mallley and Chamot concluded that Socio/Affective strategies were used infrequently

comparing to Metacognitive and Cognitive Strategies. They concluded that this may result from the inhibiting influence of adult student interview situation (1995, p.139).

Communicative Strategies are the strategy group which Eda applies to her learning in close numbers. Table 8 shows that from the beginning of her learning Eda tries to learn from communication and altough mostly avoids she also pushes hard to understand her surrounding and to get her message across.

4.2.6. Results of SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)

In order to determine which strategies Eda used we used the strategy taxonomy of O'malley and Chamot. In the first section, we presented strategies observed in data utilizing O'Malley and Chamot's taxonomy. However what Eda thinks about the strategies she used can be better accessed using an inventory (SILL –Strategy Inventory for Language Learning). SILL would give us the usage of strategies Eda puts in practice or she thinks she does. It would give us her point of view on her way of learning.

Figure 4 shows the result of the Inventory.There is six categories of strategies and their average being used by Eda. Part A consists of statements on Memory Strategies which is also written on the Figure as 'remembering more effectively'. Part B, stands for Cognitive Strategies and equals to 'using all your mental processes'. Part C is Compensation Strategies which means the learner 'compensates for missing knowledge'. Part D is the Metacognitive Strategies that consist of 'organizing and evaluating one's own learning'. Party E is Affective Strategies (on managing your emotions), while Part F symbolizes Social Strategies and is related to 'learning with others'.

At the end of the Inventory Oxford gives a key to understand your average. The numbers obtained from the SILL are evaluated according the key given below (Oxford, 1990, p. 300):

Key to Understand Your Average

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

Under the light of that key it gets easy and to evaluate and discuss the results of the SILL.
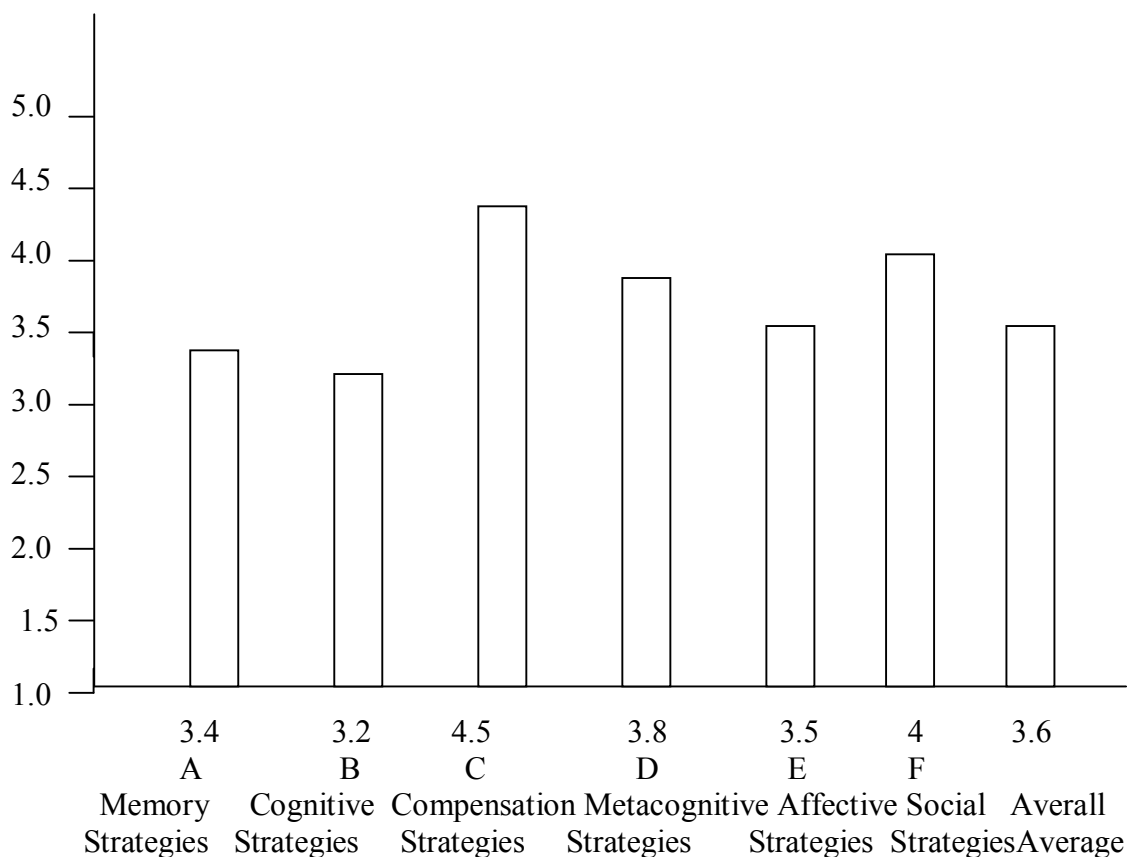
Figure 4. The Frequency of Language Learning Strategies Preferred by Eda

As can be seen from the Figure, Eda showed medium (2.5-3.4) use of Memory and Cognitive Strategies which signifies that she sometimes applied them to learning the language. The frequency of using Metacognitive, Affective and Social Strategies are high (3.5-4.4) indicating she usually uses these strategies.. The most frequent strategies

Eda thinks she uses during learning are Compensation Strategies. According to the results, their frequency is 4.5 (4.5-5.0). That means she always or almost always uses them. Her overall average is 3.6. That result suggests that she usually prefers to use strategies in her learning process.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning reveals also a few statements that Eda is sure she is using in her learning and ranked them 5. It is meaningful to see them in order to figure out her point of view about what strategy she applies more. Table 9 illustrates those statements.

Table 9. Taking the whole answers into consideration the statements Eda responded as 5 from SILL

PART A Memory Strategies	-I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. -I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.
PART B Cognitive Strategies	-I practice the sounds of English -I start conversations in English
PART C Compensation Strategies	-To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses. -When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures. -I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
PART D Metacognitve Strategies	-I have clear goals for improving my English skills -I think about my progress in learning English
PART E Affective Strategies	-I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
PART F Social Strategies	-I practice English with other students -I ask questions in English.

According to the results of SILL, Part C (Compensation Strategies) is the one Eda thinks she uses the most. As Table 9 shows, from that part, the statements she

thinks she applies to her learning more and she ranked 5 are about using guesses and gestures. When analyzed in detail, Table 9 shows that she almost ranked two items as 5 from each part and they are generally about her eagerness (Part D and E), and her effort to practice English (Part B and F) and to relate her old knowledge with the new one (Part A).

Comparison of the strategies Eda says she applies more in SILL, and our data (diaries) will give us meaningful results on Eda's way of learning, and her point of view on it. Since the taxonomy of Oxford and O'Malley and Chamot are parallel in general (for a detailed comparison, see Appendix A), it is important to analyze the results.

According to SILL results, Eda graded Memory Strategies 'contextualization, elaboration, keyword, auditory representation, imagery, and grouping' as 3.4, which signifies that she sometimes uses them. However, these six strategies are not found in our data.

As can be easily noticed, Metacognitive Strategies are the same in both the taxonomy of Oxford and O'Malley and Chamot (see Appendix A.). Yet as stated before, Eda's use of Metacognitive Strategies was low. According to SILL, Eda uses them 3.8 (high) which means she thinks she usually applies them to her learning.

The most comprehensive group was Cognitive Strategies which Eda used with the highest (91) number and applied to her learning more. The result of SILL for this group of strategy is 3.2 (medium), which means she thinks she sometimes uses Cognitive Strategies.

Socio/Affective Strategy group of O'Malley and Chamot is named as Social Strategies and Affective Strategies in Oxford's list. In our data Eda applied them inconsistently and only 15 times. Figure 3 illustrates that SILL result is 3.5 for 'self talk' (Affective Strategies) which Eda never used in diaries, and 4 for 'cooperation', and 'question for clarification' (Social Strategies). That is, Eda thinks she usually applies self talk, cooperation and question for clarification.

If Figure 3 is examined closely, the only strategy under the Compensation Strategy title is 'inferencing'. Inferencing was the third most applied Cognitive Strategy of O'Malley and Chamot's taxonomy. Eda's highest score belongs to Compensation Strategies. Hsiao and Oxford define Compensation Strategies as 'techniques used by learners to compensate for missing knowledge (2002, p.371). She also reminds that the Compensation Strategies for speaking are called Communication Strategies that does not exist in O'Malley and Chamot's list. Taking this into consideration, it is important to remember the score of Communication Strategies. Eda used them 50 times in total which is meaningful because the number she applies them and the results of SILL are parallel to each other.

Finally, Eda's total use of Strategies we obtained from the data (except the similarity between Compensation and Communication Strategies), and the results we had from SILL are different in general. That means strategies she thinks she uses and the ones she applies to her learning activities are not the same.

4.3. Analysis of Data in terms of Morpheme Acquisition of Adult Learners

As we explained in Chapter Three, the data Eda provided will be examined in detail to analyze if the sequence of her acquisition follows the general pattern predicted in the literature and in what way it differs if it does. Her morpheme acquisition analysis will be done in the following order.

1. Plural –s
2. Progressive –ing
3. Cop. be
4. Aux. be
5. Article the/a
6. Irreg. past
7. 3rd person singular
8. Possessive –s

The reason for analyzing the data in this order is that this is the general acquisition order of eight grammatical morphemes by adults described in the SLA

literature by Dulay and Burt (1974) and Krashen et al. (1976) (in Izumi and Isahara, 2004, p. 64).

Eda used all of the eight grammatical morphemes in her written and oral communication which can be seen throughout the data. Only the frequency with which each of them was used varied within one stage and the others. The frequency of some morphemes is high, while that of some others are lower. 'Possessive /-s/' and 'Third person singular /-s/' needs to be put aside with the rare number of use by Eda.

The morphemes are presented in 'Tables' fewer than three stages. As all morphemes have not been completely acquired, and there was not a systematic change of them during data gathering process, time spent on acquisition will be accepted as a basis of deciding 'Stages'. Data has been gathered in six months and the change of morphemes in every two months will be revealed in these graphics.

4.3.1 Acquisition of Plural /-s/

Eda's acquisition pattern of plural /-s/ was very interesting. Figure 1 shows that Eda demonstrated a stable acquisition of that morpheme. In the first stage the number of correct and incorrect total are the same while in the second stage a change takes place in the number, and the correct form of plural /-s/ significantly increases. The consistency of acquisition continues in stage three and she starts to use the plural /-s/ with less errors than the previous stage.

Table 10. Overall Acquisition pattern of Eda's Use of Plural /-s/

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	5	11	10
Incorrect Total	5	8	4

Starting from the first stage, Eda demonstrated an evident attempt to use plural /s/. She made errors of non-use or over-use of the morpheme along with the correct use. She was also confusing the written form. The following plural nouns are a few examples of plural attempts occurred in her speech:

Correct use: - Do you like reality show**s**?

- At different age**s**.

- In different part**s** of the world.

- In the United States, college student**s**..

Incorrect use: - Make two list_.

- I like comed**ies** mov**ies**.

- Young people leave their parents home**'s**

- One time**s** a month.

- What kind**s** of mov**ies** do you like?

As can be seen from the examples, Eda's errors seems to result from overgeneralization or non-use of the morpheme in that stage. She also makes errors of using apostrophe /'+s/ while writing plural /-s/. Her correct uses may have been learnt as chunks or may result from acquiring the simplest form of the morpheme; noun+s first. In addition to that, it is important to see the correct and incorrect use of the morpheme is equal in that stage.

In stage two, Eda attempted to use the other forms of the plural /-s/ morpheme. Here a few examples of her usage of simple form of pluralization 'noun+s' and her attempts of using a new form of the morpheme appears as follows:

Correct use: - We will buy some book**s** in Italy.

- Italy have a lot of old building**s**.

- It has old exellent restaurant**s**.

- She is in her tirt**ies**.

- Does she wear glass**es**?

Incorrect use: - We'd like a lot of pictures about old chur**chs**

- My neighbour**'s** always has loud part**ies**.

The most significant feature of this stage is that she attempted different version of the morpheme. She was able to use the /-ies/ form now, and was trying to pluralize words ending with /-ch/, altough she does not manage that correctly. She could succeed to pluralize the word 'glass' by putting /-es/ correctly. She also continues to make errors

resulting non-use of the morpheme as ".. So many park, so many old place, too many old building". In addition to that, she still uses the 'noun+s' version of the morpheme correctly in that stage.

In stage three, she seems to make less errors but she still does not attempt to use any correct pluralization of nouns ending with /-ch/, /-sh/, /-x/, /-ss/. She is avoiding using all types of the morpheme. She continued correct usage of 'noun+s' and a few errors she did was in using /-ies/ version. Her errors and avoidance to use the morpheme can result from the affects of Turkish which has a simpler system of making plural. A few examples of her use of Plural /-s/ in that stage are as follows:

Correct use: - I see on the map so many Arabic countr**ies.**

- It has special cat**s.**

Incorrect use: - I have so many memor**is.**

- We are a democratic countr**ie**.

To summarize, her use of plurals was developing even though it will take a long time for her to overcome her errors and fear of doing an error. Plural /-s/ is one of the eight morphemes she attempted to use a lot of (43 times).

4.3.2. Acquisition of Progressive tense –ing

The second morpheme 'Progressive –ing' is one of morphemes Eda tried to use least among others. The total number of her /-ing/ usage is 20, which shows she is still avoiding using that morpheme. Her overall development pattern of acquiring this morpheme is illustrated in Table 11.

Table 11. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's Use of Progressive /-ing/

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	4	2	7
Incorrect Total	2	-	5

In the first stage, Eda makes two errors, and the number of her correct use of the morpheme is 4. A few examples from her usage of /-ing/ are:

Correct use: - I **am** listen**ing** to music

                 - I **am** wear**ing** a jacket and shoes

Incorrect use: - Are you live_ alone?

                 - I **am** learn_ play tennis.

As can be noticed from the examples, her errors are not resulting from incorrect usage of the morpheme and they are more results of forgetting. The number of her correct use is important too because it is the first stage and compared to incorrect use it is significant.

In stage two there is a noticeable fall in her usage of /-ing/ morpheme. She uses it only two times: 'I am going to shopping with my sister and I am thinking about hanging out with my friends'. It is interesting that she uses the morpheme in stage one, more than she does in stage two. Her not making any errors can result from her avoidance of using the morpheme. As the data is collected naturalistically, it can also result from not having a context to use the morpheme.

Coming to stage three, Eda's number of total use increases as can be noticed from Table 10, although the number of her errors is close to the correct use of the morpheme. A few examples from her correct and incorrect use is as follows:

Correct use: - He **is** swim**ming** 3 or 4 hours because he **is** follow**ing** the

                 candles.

        - Is **she** work**ing** today?

Incorrect use: - He **is** play_ piano.

        - He **is** wanna fix**ing.**

        - You **are** still live_ in the pink.

        -

The examples illustrates that Eda's errors result from not putting the /-ing/, or by over-using it. Finally the most significant thing to say on her acquisition of 'Progressive –ing' is that although she hasn't acquired the morpheme yet, she has started to develop it by using it both in correct and incorrect form.

4.3.3. Acquisition of Copula /be/

Copula /be/ develops steadily with a small change after the first stage. Table 12 ilustrates Eda's overall acquisition pattern of Copula /be/ in three stages.

Table 12. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's use of Copula /be/

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	5	7	7
Incorrect Total	4	2	3

As can be seen from the Table above, the number of Eda's correct use of Copula /be/ is close to her incorrect use. Some examples from her use of copula /be/ are as follows:

Correct use: -Where **is** Ahmedi tea?
                - My favourite song **is** 'Imagine'.
Incorrect use: - I think this family _ from Mexico.
                - My favourite movie _ 'Titanic'.

The examples above and others, when examined in detail, shows that Eda is using only the Present form of Copula /be/ in the stage I. It is also important to draw attention to the type of errors she did in using Copula /be/. Her errors result from the omission of the morpheme...

Stage II, illustrates a great positive change. She increases her correct use and the number of incorrect use fails to 2. As can be followed from below examples, she attempts to use past form of Copula /be/ although she fails to do that correctly.

Correct use: - It's clean, it**'s** near downtown.
                -He **is** young, smart and educated
Incorrect use: - The music _ very romantic.
                - I _ sorry to leave.

According to obligatory context, in two examples of incorrect use of Copula /be/ above, Eda should have said 'The music was very romantic, and I was sorry to leave'. Comparing total patterns, we can conclude that in stage II, all correct uses are Present form of Copula /be/, and also her incorrect uses are consisting of her failure of applying Past form of it. She still can only use the simple present form of the Morpheme.

Stage III shows characteristics of stage II. The total number of correct and incorrect use is almost the same. In that stage there is a development in her use. Finally she uses past form of Copula /be/ in a sentence, although there is not any Future form yet. A few examples from her sentences are as given below:

Correct use: - **Is** you country by the Armenia?

- People **were** very friendly

Incorrect use: - But my hair too _ short.

-Your English _ very good.

As mentioned before, Eda mostly utters present form of 'Copula Be' in first two stages. In her last stage, she manages to use past form of the morpheme once, but she still does not use any future form. Because she is in a natural environment it can result from getting familiar with and understanding the simple form first. The last two stages are very similar. Her errors are consisting of omission of the morpheme like previous stages which can be an effect of her L1.

Finally, it is important to remind that Eda has not tried to use any Future form of the morpheme and failed to use the Past form of it. In spite of that, her acquisition process of Copula /be/ continues steadily and smoothly.

4.3.4. Acquisition of Auxiliary /be/

'Auxiliary be' is one of the morphemes Eda used a lot with a considerable success that can be noticed easily. Table 13 reveals the preference number of the morpheme by Eda.

Table 13. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's Use of Auxuliary /be/.

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	12	11	14
Incorrect Total	6	2	1

To analyze Eda's acquisition of Auxiliary /be/ morpheme, omissions, additions of either the auxiliary verb 'to be' or of any main verb, as errors, the wrong tense of auxiliary /be/ or the overuse of it are all counted as errors.

From her application of the Auxiliary /be/ , it can be concluded that Eda has acquired modals as; have to/has to, can, must, have/has, and Tenses as; Future Tense, Be going to, Simple Present Tense (but not the third person singular form), Present Perfect Tense, and Simple Past Tense. Her 9 errors are consisting of Simple Past Irregular form errors and the omission of /–ing/ or /am,is,are/.

The acquisition pattern of Eda's use of Auxiliary /be/ illustrates a constant development. Her number of using auxiliary /be/ morpheme is 46 times. That means; in general she takes risks of using auxiliary /be/ more, than she did in previous morphemes analyzed. In addition to that, 37 use of the morpheme is correct which is fascinating if it is compared to other morphemes' correct ratio.

Some correct and incorrect examples from her use of Auxiliary /be/ are as follows:

Correct use: -   I don't like my neighborhood.
- My future **is not** clear; maybe **I will** go to university.
- I **have gone** the beach and we've visited the museums
- How long **have you been** there?
- You **can** go there any time.

Incorrect use: - Are you live_ alone?
- Why **didn't** you **came** to school?
- **Did** you **ridden** a camel?
- I _ wear**ing** a jacket.

- What **do** you **do before**?

From the examples above we can conclude that the omission of the morpheme or using the wrong tense are the reasons of Eda's errors. As can be seen from the Table 12, there is an obvious decline in her errors while her correct use continues in almost the same numbers. It is also clear that Eda is good in using the Auxiliary /be/ morpheme which can also be commented/discussed that she uses the sentences or morphemes that she is positively sure they are correct. Finally, when considered in general, Auxiliary /be/ is the first morpheme acquired by Eda. The ratio of correct use of that morpheme is 90 %.

4.3.5. Acquisition of Article a/the

The acquisition of 'a/the' is revealed in the Table 14 below. This morpheme is draws attention with the number of high use by Eda.

Table 14. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's Use of Article a/the.

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	8	10	11
Incorrect Total	13	12	15

Eda uses the correct form of article a/the 37 times, and the obligatory context total is 69. Her errors mostly consist of overuse or omission of the morpheme. As can be noticed, she applies it to her speech lots of times comparing to the other morphemes. Some examples from Eda's use of Article /a/the/ are as follows:

Correct use: - I love to travel in **the world.**

- He is following **the candle's light.**

- Everything is different here, **the time, the weather** and..

- I have **a problem.**

- He took **a candle.**

Incorrect use: - I am real _ fitness freak.

- It was _ big city in Iran.

- Because Los Angeles is _ biggest city in California.
- My mom is _ desperate housewife.
- I am a _ English teacher in _University.

Analyzing all the examples carefully it is important to mention high use of article /the/ comparing to Article /a/. Article /a/ is used only 7 times whereas Article /the/ is used 62 times. Most of errors result from the omission of the article and a few examples from overuse of it.

Article /a/ is used correctly very few times, and It is almost always omitted. There is not any use of /an/ form of Article /a/. It is possible that the times Eda used Article /a/ correctly she could do it because she used as chunks. The reason she uses article /a/ less than /the/ can result from other form of /a/ (/an/), and her fear of making mistakes, because there is only one way of using /the/ and she applies /the/ several times. The other reason of high number of errors is the influence Eda's L1. Since Turkish does not have the definite/indefinite articles, for an adult learner of English it is difficult to learn and apply it correctly.

4.3.6. Acquisition of Irregular Past

'Irregular Past' is a morpheme Eda used 37 times. Table 15 shows the correct and incorrect total of Eda's use of that morpheme.

Table 15. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's Use of Irregular Past..

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	3	10	6
Incorrect Total	7	2	-

As can be seen in Table 15 the total number of Eda's correct use is 19, and incorrect use is 9. For a morpheme as 'Irregular Past' the number of correct use is very high because it is not a morpheme acquired very early or easily, especially for adult learners. This morpheme is in number 5 of the Brown's 14 morpheme list of L1

acquisition. In Dulay and Burt's list which is detailed in the Literature Review section it is in number 6.

Eda's acquisition of 'irregular past' in Stage I is as would be expected; a high number of incorrect use which is 7, with 3 correct uses. In Stage II she shows a great success increasing the correct number to 10. She makes only 2 mistakes of using the morpheme. Finally in Stage III, she uses the morpheme 6 times with no incorrect use. A few examples from Eda's 'Irregular Past' use are:

Correct Use: - I **had** Babakabuc with rice

- I **went** to Hollywood Boulevard.

- I **spoke** to my family and then worked all weekend

Incorrect Use: - Why **didn't** you **came** to school?

- I **learned** to **spok** a little Portugese.

- **Did** you **ridden** a camel?

As examples above reveals, it can be concluded that Eda acquired irregular verbs that are very common in daily speech. A few correct examples from data to prove that is read, sent, felt, lived, eat, took, swum, met, etc... Her incorrect use results from the rare verb as 'ridden' above, the use of 'did' with 'V2', or as the second example above using two past forms together in a sentence.

In conclusion, Although Eda's number of occasions for that morpheme is only 28 and that can be excepted as an indication of avoidance, comparing numbers with the general order in literature, her acquisition of 'Irregular Past' is amazing. Although Eda did not have any education on Kurdish Grammar, her acquit ion of 'Irregular past' also can be a consequence of Kurdish which has the similar 'past forms' as English. Otherwise only with Turkish background she would be expected to make more mistakes in using the morpheme.

4.3.7. Acquisition of Third Person Singular /–s/

Third Person Singular –s is a morpheme which Eda used comparatively rare. Table 16 illustrates the correct and incorrect data in three stages.

Table 16. Overall Acquisition Pattern of Eda's Use of Third Person Singular /-s/

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	6	1	-
Incorrect Total	7	1	-

The total number of Eda's use for that morpheme is only 15. There are 8 correct and 7 incorrect examples in the data. What captures attention from Table 16 in the first glance is the downfall of use of morpheme in two stages and finally the nonuse of the morpheme in Stage III. A few examples of her use are:

Correct Use: - My neighbor never cut**s** the grass.

- She always think**s** about other people.

- He work**s** seven days a week.

Incorrect Use: - He drive_ to school.

- Our teacher ask_ question.

- I walk**s** three times a week.

-

As a conclusion, most of errors result from omission of the morpheme. There is only one example of overuse of it which is given in the examples above. An important point is that the number of correct and incorrect use is almost the same. The most noteworthy part is the fall in the numbers and nonuse of morpheme in Stage III which is an indication of Eda's avoidance as time passes.

4.3.8. Acquisition of possessive /-s/

Table 17 is illustrating the number of correct and incorrect use of Possessive /-s/ in the data.

Table 17. Overall Acquisition pattern of Eda's Use of Possessive /-s/

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
Correct Total	2	1	-
Incorrect Total	7	1	2

Possessive –s is the morpheme that Eda used only 13 times, the lowest number in her acquisition list. She has got 3 correct uses as can be seen from the Table 17. The number of her incorrect use is 10. A few examples from the data are:

Correct Use: -   My neighbour**'s** dog makes noise.

-   My neighbour**'s** cats go everywhere.

-   He is following the candle**'s** light.

Incorrect Use: - Young people leave **they are** parents **home's.**

-   What is this **area name?**

-   **Dbakir is** weather usually hot.

-

As stated above, there are only three correct uses. There are three types of errors; omission of morpheme, confusing it with plural -s, and using 'is' instead of possessive. Possessive /–s/ is number 6 of Brown's L1 acquisition list, and it is at the end of adult L2 acquisition study of Dulay and Burt. It is the least used morpheme by Eda, too. Like Third Person Singular /–s/, she is using the morpheme a lot at the beginning but as time passes she starts to avoid applying it to her speech.

4.3.9. Acquisiton Percentage of Morphemes in General and Their Comparison with General Sequence

Table 18 indicates the grammatical morphemes, number of occasions Eda had to use them, her expected score, her actual score, and the percentages of her correctness which also shows whether she acquired the morpheme or not.

Table 18. Findings of the subject's grammatical morpheme applications.

Grammatical Morphemes	Number of Occasions	Expected Score	Actual Score	Percentages of Correctness
Plural –s	43	86	26	73
Proggressive-ing	20	40	65	65
Copula be	28	56	69	69
Aux be	46	92	90	90
Article a/the	69	138	51	51
Irreg. Past	28	56	80	80
Third Person Singular	15	30	50	50
Possessive -s	13	26	34	34

According to Brown (1973), %90 accuracy indicates that a morpheme has been acquired. Table 18 reveals the acquisition percentages of Eda. As can be seen from the

table, only 'auxiliary be' can be accepted as 'acquired' as it had reached %90 accuracy. Other morphemes following 'auxiliary be' are; 'irregular past' (%80), 'plural -s' (%73), 'copula be' (%69), 'progressive -ing' (%65), 'article a/the' (%51), 'third person singular' (%50), and the least acquired one which is 'possessive –s (%34)'.

As it can be seen from the table, there are 46 number of occasions in 'auxiliary be' (which is accepted as 'acquired') and Eda's actual score is 37. However the in least 'acquired' morpheme 'possessive -s', the number of occasions are 13 where Eda's score is only 3. The decrease in her number of occasions also shows her avoidance of using some of morphemes.

These findings indicate that the participant has acquired these grammatical morphemes well, although not accurately enough. It seems she needs a little more time and practice to acquire the morphemes left.

When we rank the morphemes according to the acquisition percentage we can compare it with the general sequence. As mentioned earlier, in order to conclude that a morpheme is acquired, its acquisition percentage needs to be over 90. Table 19 indicates the participant's order of morpheme acquisition with the order set by Dulay and Burt.

Table 19. Comparison of grammatical Morpheme Acquisition

The subject's order of morpheme acquisition		Dulay and Burt's order of morpheme acquisition
1. Aux be	90	1. Plural –s
2.Irreg. Past	83	2. Progressive -ing
3. Plural –s	76	3. Copula be
4. Progressive –ing	71	4. Aux be
5. Copula be	68	5. Article a/the
6. Article a/the	51	6. .Irreg. past
7. Third person singular –s	50	7. Third person singular
8. Possessive –s	34	8. Possessive –s

As can be observed in Table 19, there are some similarities and differences of the order of morpheme acquisition worth discussing. It has been stated before that

'Auxiliary be' is acquired first in our study although the same morpheme is in the fourth order of Dulay and Burt's acquisition list. The second significant difference appears in the next morpheme to be acquired which is 'irregular past'. Eda's acquisition percentage is 83 while In Dulay and Burt's study, 'Irregular past' is at number 6.

The similarities are more than differences when the table examined closely. Although they are not in the beginning of the list, 'plural -s', 'progressive -ing', and 'copula be' are following each other in the row, and will be acquired as in they are listed by Dulay and Burt. In terms of acquisition articles 'a' and 'the' shows similarity. In our study it is in number 6 and in Dulay and Burt's study it is in number 5.

The other significant similarity is identified in the acquisition of last two morphemes; 'third person singular –s' and 'possessive -s'. These morphemes are at the end of both lists which indicates that they are acquired last. As stated before, Eda avoided using these morphemes and their number of occasions was less than other morphemes.

Two conclude, except the first morpheme 'auxiliary be', which is the first and only acquired morpheme and the second highest scored morpheme 'irregular past', the rest of morphemes shows a great similarity to the list of Dulay and Burt. The order of other morphemes and the last two morphemes that acquired least are the indication of a 'natural sequence' and an interlanguage.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, Summary and Conclusion of the study in which the results obtained are reviewed and discussed will be presented. Next, the general assessment of the study is given. Finally, the implications for further research and for teaching are presented.

5.1. Summary and Conclusion

This study attempted to examine the SLA process of a Turkish adult learning English in its naturalistic environment. It aimed to reveal the Order of Acquisition of Morphemes the participant uses and its comparison to the studies conducted before. It also aimed to attain the learning and communication strategies used by adult learners of English as a L2. We sought to find answers for the following research questions:

1. What are the language learning strategies (LLS) used by an adult learner of English during acquisition process in an English-speaking country?
    a) as can be reported from data (diaries) she has written.
    b) as reported by the learner in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning?
2. Which communication strategies are used more by the adult learners of English while they are in interaction with the language and culture?
3. How does the morphological and syntactic development of English take place for an adult L2 Learner who is a native speaker of Turkish?
5. How does the first language of the learner contribute to/hinder the learning process?

In order to answer the first and second research questions the data obtained from the diaries and the results of SILL mentioned before, were analyzed. Based on the data, it was found that from Cognitive Strategies our participant preferred to use 'translation' with the highest number. The second most preferred strategy from the same category

was 'resourcing' again with a considerable number. In Metacognitive Strategies, She used 'selective attention' most and 'self evaluation' second. She applied 'cooperation', and 'question for clarification' from the Socio/Affective strategy group. 'avoidance' was the most preferred strategy among Communication strategies, and 'appeal for assistance' was the second most applied strategy.

According to the results of SILL which gave us an idea about what Eda was thinking on her strategy preference the strategy categories lined up as; Compensation Strategies, Social Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies.

The data obtained through diaries and SILL does not give parallel results on strategy group Eda really applies to her learning and the one she thinks she does. In 'diaries' her strategy use lines up as: Cognitive Strategies, Communicative Strategies, Socio/Affective Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies. Yet, SILL results which show her point of view on strategy use is: Compensation Strategies, Social Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies, Memory Strategies, and Cognitive Strategies. Cognitive Strategy is the group she uses the most although it is at the end of the list, according to SILL. Compensation Strategies which overlap with Communication Strategies are parallel in preference. Both diaries and SILL show that Eda uses the Communication Strategies a lot.

The third research question aimed to find out the Grammatical and Syntactic development of our participant. In order to see her development, the data analyzed taking 'Morpheme Acquisition Order' studies into consideration. The results indicated that her Morpheme Acquisition Order was: 'Aux be', 'Irreg Past', 'Plural –s', 'Progressive -ing', 'Copula be', 'Article a/the', 'Third Person Singular', and 'Possessive -s'.

When the results are compared to the findings or the 'general sequence in the literature the first acquired morpheme 'Auxiliary be' and the second one 'Irregular Past' is astonishing. The rest of the list is parallel to the general order studies. That parallel results are significant in the sense that they can be accepted as the sign of an interlanguage.

The forth research question was about whether the first language contribute to or hinder the language acquisition process of our participant. The effects of her first language has been better noticed in the acquisition of 'Plural -s' which has a structure different from Turkish and Eda had difficulty a lot in applying it. Same problem took place in the acquisition of 'Article a/the' 'Third Person -s' 'Copula be' and 'Possessive -s'. On the contrary in the acquisition of 'Irregular Past' and 'Aux be' her Kurdish had positive effects and contributed to her learning/acquisition.

5.2. Suggestions for Further Studies

Further studies can be conducted with a wider number of learners. In order to have more reliable results, instead of six months, the effects of longer exposure can be observed. Being able to record the participant's communications, or observing her improvement closely, supporting study with the videotapes etc.. would give better results on her acquisition process. Various data gathering methods as 'think-aloud protocols', 'interviews' and 'questionnaires' can be used to have a chance of better comparison especially in analysis of strategies. If the participant was educated on Strategies, she could have been learning faster and given better details on her strategy use.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A Comparison of Two Major Strategy Classification.

O'Malley & Chamot (1990)	Oxford (1990)
O'Malley, Chamot,	
Stewner-Manzanares,	
Kupper, & Russo (1985)	
O'Malley, Chamot,	
Stewner-Manzanares,	
Russo, & Kupper (1985)	

Metacognitive Strategies	
Advance Organizers	Metacognitive Strategies
Directed Attention	Metacognitive Strategies
Selective Attention	Metacognitive Staregies
Self Management	Metacognitive Staregies
Functional Planning	Metacognitive Strategies
Self Monitoring	Metacognitive Strategies
Self Evaluation	metacognitive Strategies
Delayed Production	Metacognitive Strategies
Cognitive Strategies	
Repetition	Cognitive Strategies
Resourcing	Cognitive Strategies
Translation	Cognitive Strategies
Grouping	Memory Strategies
Note Taking	Cognitive Strategies
Deduction	Cognitive Strategies
Recombination	Cognitive Strategies
Imagery	Memory Strategies
Auditory Representation	Memory Strategies
Keyword	Memory Strategies

Contextualization	Memory Strategies
Elaboration	Memory Strategies
Transfer	Cognitive Strategies
Inferencing	Compensation Strategies
Socio/Affective Strategies	
Cooperation	Social Strategies
Question for Clarification	Social Strategies
Self-Talk	Affective Strategies

Adapted from Hsiao, T. Y. & Oxford, R. L. (2002, p. 371).

APPENDIX B

Appendix C

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)
(c) R. Oxford, 1989

Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the separate Worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

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

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

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

(Version 7.0 [EFL/ESL] © R. L. Oxford, 1989)

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

EXAMPLE

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

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

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

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

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

(c) R. Oxford, 1989

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

(Write answers on Worksheet)

Part A

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

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

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

4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.

5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.

6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.

7. I physically act out new English words.

8. I review English lessons often.

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

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.

11. I try to talk like native English speakers.

12. I practice the sounds of English.

13. I use the English words I know in different ways.

14. I start conversations in English.

15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.

16. I read for pleasure in English.

17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.

18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.

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

(Write answers on Worksheet)

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.

20. I try to find patterns in English.

21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.

22. I try not to translate word-for-word.

23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

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

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

26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.

27. I read English without looking up every new word.

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

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

Part D

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

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

32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.

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

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

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

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

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

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

38. I think about my progress in learning English.

       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

       (Write answers on Worksheet)

Part E

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

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

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

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

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

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

Part F

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

46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

47. I practice English with other students.

48. I ask for help from English speakers.

49. I ask questions in English.

50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Your Name _____ Date _____

Worksheet for Answering and Scoring

the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

(c) R. Oxford, 1989

1. The blanks (_____) are numbered for each item on the SILL.

2. Write your response to each item (that is, write 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.

3. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.

4. Divide by the number under SUM to get the average for each column. Round this average off to the nearest tenth, as in 3.4.

5. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMS for the different parts of the SILL. Then divide by 50.

6. When you have finished, your teacher will give you the Profile of Results. Copy your averages (for each part and for the whole SILL) from the Worksheet to the Profile.

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

SILL Worksheet (continued)

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

(c) R. Oxford, 1989

Part A	Part B	Part C	Part D	Part E	Part F	Whole SILL
1. _____	10. _____	24. _____	30. _____	39. _____	45. _____	SUM Part A _____
2. _____	11. _____	25. _____	31. _____	40. _____	46. _____	SUM Part B _____
3. _____	12. _____	26. _____	32. _____	41. _____	47. _____	SUM Part C _____
4. _____	13. _____	27. _____	33. _____	42. _____	48. _____	SUM Part D _____
5. _____	14. _____	28. _____	34. _____	43. _____	49. _____	SUM Part E _____
6. _____	15. _____	29. _____	35. _____	44. _____	50. _____	SUM Part F _____
7. _____	16. _____		36. _____			
8. _____	17. _____		37. _____			
9. _____	18. _____		38. _____			
	19. _____					
	20. _____					
	21. _____					
	22. _____					
	23. _____					

SUM _____ SUM _____ SUM _____ SUM _____ SUM _____ SUM _____ SUM _____

$\div 9 =$ _____ $\div 14 =$ _____ $\div 6 =$ _____ $\div 9 =$ _____ $\div 6 =$ _____ $\div 6 =$ _____ $\div 50 =$ _____
(OVERALL AVERAGE)

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Your Name _____   Date _____

Profile of Results on the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 7.0

(c) R. Oxford, 1989

You will receive this Profile after you have completed the Worksheet. This Profile will show your SILL results. These results will tell you the kinds of strategies you use in learning English. There are no right or wrong answers.

To complete this profile, transfer your averages for each part of the SILL, and your overall average for the whole SILL. These averages are found on the Worksheet.

Part	What Strategies Are Covered	Your Average on This Part
A.	Remembering more effectively	_____
B.	Using all your mental processes	_____
C.	Compensating for missing knowledge	_____
D.	Organizing and evaluating your learning	_____
E.	Managing your emotions	_____
F.	Learning with others	_____
YOUR OVERALL AVERAGE		_____

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