Factors Affecting Second Language Learning at Tertiary Level:
A Case Study of Three Sudanese Universities (2014)

Mohammed Elsadig Hayder Elsheikh Muhammod

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in
English Language Teaching

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Supervision Committee

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Date: 03/08/2015
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Date 03/08/2015
DEDICATION

To my fathers’ soul…
To my family and private family
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I’m extremely grateful to my supervisor, Professor Abdul Gadir Mohammed Ali, University of Gezira, for suggesting this topic and for helping me to acquire the confidence to embark upon this work. I owe him more supports, ideas and thoughts than it can be given due credit here. From inception to conclusion, this study owes so much to him. Moreover, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to the co-supervisor of this study Professor, Ahmad GasmAlseed, whose support has been very vital for me.

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Factors Affecting Second Language Learning at Tertiary Level:

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Abstract
Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. This study is concerned with “Factors Affecting Second Language Learning”. It aimed to study first language interference and its effects on the process of learning a second language. Besides that, it aimed to stop undesirable (negative) interference to enable learners to communicate with native speakers of the L2. Moreover, it aimed to investigate the role of age and motivation in learning a second language.

The descriptive analytical method of research was applied to carry out this study. The data for this study was collected by means of a questionnaire of (28) items distributed to 160 respondents (Teachers and students) chosen from Faculties of Education in University of Gezira, University of Khartoum, and Sudan University of Science and Technology, in the second semester 2014. The data was analyzed by the SPSS program.

The main findings of the study are that most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from the first language. In addition to, there is a relationship between the level of motivation and success in learning English. Another important point that the most appropriate age to learn the language for non-native speakers, is an early age. Basing on these results, the study recommends the L2 learners should be aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 so as to be more fluent. The study also recommends that second language should be learnt in an early age in order to be easy to acquire. It is also recommends extra activities and modern strategies to be concerned as motivating factors in EFL classes. Besides that, universities should provide both professors and students with sufficient facilities (workshop, training courses, sending to English-speaking countries) to create a successful future teacher.
العوامل التي تؤثر في تعلم اللغة الثانية للمستوى فوق الثانوي

دراسة حالة: جامعة الجزيرة، جامعة الخرطوم، جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا - السودان

2014 م

محمد الصادق حيدر الشيخ محمود

ملخص الدراسة

اكتساب اللغة هو العملية التي يمكن للبشر اكتساب القدرة على إدراك وفهم اللغة وكذلك إنتاج واستخدام الكلمات والجمل لل التواصل. وتختص هذه الدراسة ب"العوامل التي تؤثر في تعلم اللغة الثانية". وتشتمل الدراسة على دراسة تداخل اللغة الأولى وتأثيرها على عملية تعلمها للغة الثانية. بجانب ذلك فإنه تهدف إلى وقف التداخل السلبي لتمكين المتعلم من التواصل مع الناطقين بها. علاوة على ذلك تهدف إلى التعرف على الدور الذي يلعبه العمر والداعف في تعلم اللغة الثانية. وقد استخدم البحث المنهج الوصفي التحليلي لتنفيذ هذه الدراسة. وقد جمعت بيانات هذه الدراسة من خلال أداء الاستبيان الذي يتكون من (28) سؤالا موزعة على 160 مشاركا (معلمون وطلاب) من كلية التربية بجامعة الجزيرة، وجامعة الخرطوم، وجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا في الفصل الدراسي الثاني عام 2014. وتحليل البيانات، اعتمدت البحث برنامج SPSS النتائج الرئيسية للدراسة هي أن معظم الأخطاء التي يقع فيها متعلم اللغة الثانية تكون نتيجة لتدخّل اللغة الأولى، وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، هناك علاقة بين مستوى التحفيز والنجاح فيتعلما لغة الإنجليزية. نقطة مهمة أخرى أن العمر الأثاث لتعلم اللغة لغير الناطقين بها هو العمر المبكر. استنادا على تلك النتائج توصي الدراسة متعلم اللغة الثانية بضرورة التعرف على النشاط و الاختلاف بين اللغة الأولى والثانية، وذلك ليكونوا أكثر طاقة، أوصت الدراسة أيضا أن تعلم اللغة الثانية لا يجب أن يكون في سن مبكرة وذلك من أجل سهولة تعلمها، ويجب على المعلمين توعية لطلاب حول
الاستراتيجيات التي تساعد على حل مشكلات التواصل وأوصت الدراسة أيضاً باستذن الأنشطة الإضافية والاستراتيجيات الحديثة من عوامل التحفيز في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. بجانب ذلك يجب على الجامعات أيضاً أن توفر لكل من الأساتذة والطلاب المعينات الكافية (ورشة عمل ودورة تدريبية ورسائلهم إلى البلدان الناطقة باللغة الإنجليزية) لخلق المعلم الناجح في المستقبل.
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List of Abbreviations and Definition of Terms

L1 = First language.
L2 = Second language.
SLA = Second language acquisition.
SLL = Second language learning.
TL = Target language.

Language:
It is a finite system of sound units, which are combined according to a certain order (a syntax) in order to form an infinite amount of information. OR Is a system of communication using sounds or symbols that enable us to express our feelings, thoughts, ideas, and experiences.

A First Language:
Is the language a person has learned from birth or within the critical period.

A second Language:
Is any language learned after one’s first language.

Language Acquisition:
Is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language, as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate.

Second Language Acquisition:
Is the study of how second languages are learned and the factors that influence the process.

Interference:
Is the errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue.

Language interference:
Is the effect of a language learners first language in their production of the language they are learning.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

The issue of first language interference has had a long history in second language acquisition (SLA) studies. Endless amount of extensive research has already been carried out to study first language interference and its effects on the process of learning a second language.

Language interference is the effect of a language learner’s first language in their production of the language they are learning. The effect can be on any aspect of language: grammar, vocabulary, accent, spelling, etc. It is most often discussed as a source of errors. And one of the major resources of errors in learner language is the transfer of patterns of the native language. So, one of the factors influencing the learning process is first language interference or negative transfer, which may be defined as "the use of a negative language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language" (Richards, 1992. P:205). In addition, Lott (1983) defines interference as "errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue".

By definition, the mother tongue (L1) is learned first and a second language (L2) is learned later on in life. The relationship or the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 must be taken into consideration. Albert and Obler (1978) clarify that L2 learners whose L1 is similar to the target language (TL) show more interference than those whose L1 has fewer similar features. Yet, when the possibilities of interference are low this more learning difficulties, "as the learner would find it difficult to learn and understand a completely new and different usage", (Bhela, 1999, P: 23).
These mistakes and errors in performance will result as learners refer to L1 structures to help. Ellis (1997) raises the need to distinguish between errors and mistakes and makes an important distinction between the two. He says that errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows.

Adult L2 learners do not acquire a new language as children usually do. Unlike young children who pick up their first language naturally in a cultural and linguistic environment. Those who learn a second language after the critical period learn their second language at a later time and sometimes in isolation from the appropriate cultural linguistic environment. Richard-Amato (1996) believes that learners "construct language from prior conceptual knowledge and develop language in predictable stages". That means L2 learners are supposed to be more developed cognitively and linguistically because of their prior knowledge, which enables them to use their analytical abilities in learning a new language.

Interference is a psycholinguistic concept which is a reality in language learning. Errors in second language learning (SLL) are partly attributable to interference. Theorists of interference believe that acquisition of the first language (L1) usually affects performance in subsequent language acquired. Interference as a linguistic problem is common in communities where the second language (L2) must be learnt. In other words, interference is a term which refers to a situation whereby two different languages overlap. In this situation, the linguistic systems of the language are transferred into the other in the process of producing the latter which is the second or target languages.

In interference, one of the two or more languages in use in a speech community is dominant. The features of the dominate language are transferred to the subordinate or target languages at the phonological, lexical, grammatical and discourse levels.
One major cause of interference is Interlingua identification. That is a situation whereby the bilingual equates two separate elements of the two languages in contact. Interference is caused when learning and performance in English is impeded by the transfer of the speaker's knowledge of his mother tongue or other acquired languages before contact with English.

The knowledge of English language represents one of the essential requirements of today’s society. Beside other skills, it is considered as one of the influential factors when applying for a job or maintaining a particular work position, which is often conditional to the advancement of a language level. Since the ability to communicate in English has become a necessity in human life, people take advantage of different opportunities to acquire it.

The study focused on the issue of language acquisition and the interference created by first language (L1) on the learning of the second language (L2). Efforts were made to find out the factors that play a major role in this dysfunction of language acquisition.

This thesis deals with a dilemma to which extent should a mother tongue be used in English lessons and whether it is beneficial for achieving teaching goals. Since various linguists offer different theories on this issue. I decided to explore their points of view and find a reasonable solution to effective teaching. The outlook into history of teaching methods is supposed to serve as a tool for considering the advantages and disadvantages of the approaches to mother tongue use and their comparison with current trends.

The process commonly referred to as “language acquisition” involves the development of a great number of cognitive systems and social skills, for example, the child must learn the form and meaning of the individual lexical items which comprise the lexicon of his language. He must develop a processing system which will enable him to produce and comprehend the sentences of the language in real time; this processing system will depend on a growing memory and attentional span. He will also require a set of
pragmatic and social skills which allow him to use his language appropriate in various contexts. Finally, he must uncover the system of rules – morphological, phonological, syntactic, and semantic which comprise the grammar of the language he is to acquire. The ultimate goal of a theory of acquisition is to explain how the child acquires mastery of his native language. This explanation presupposes an understanding of each of the developing systems and their interaction.

1.1 The Statement of the Problem

The writer will explain some problems of mother tongue. The problem has emerged from the fact that the students' problems are caused by the interference of mother tongue. The first problem is contrastive analysis between mother tongue and second language including English language.

The analysis is quite enough to show that the mother tongue has big influence in learning English speaking for students. The errors and difficulties that occur in students learning and use mother tongue of a foreign language are caused by interference of mother tongue wherever the structure of foreign language differs from that of the mother tongue we can expect in learning and error in performance.

The second is fact of mother tongue interference. There are some aspects of language that the interference of the mother tongue. The first aspect is morphology that study of field of words. This knowledge is closely related to grammar.

In Sudan, most university students have a good command of grammar rules, sentence patterns and words, but they lack communicative skills. This may be due to the dominance of the grammar-translation method over the past decades. The second aspect is syntactic. The third aspect is phonetic and phonology.
In addition to that, it will provide the background for the understanding of how first and second language is acquired and how they are similar/different from each other. The factors that will be outlined will serve as the bases of the analysis on the probability of second language acquisition.

1.2 Objectives of the Study
The study aims to:

a. Examine the factors that affect on the process of learning a second language.
b. Explore the difference and/or similarities between the mother tongue (L1) and a second language (L2).
c. Enable learners to communicate with native speakers of the L2.
d. Investigate the affect of age in acquisition of the first and second language.
e. Study the effects of variable and barriers in language acquisition.
f. Stop undesirable (negative) interference.

1.3 Questions of the Study
The research intends to find answers for the following questions:

a. How does the first language interference effect on the process of learning a second language.
b. What are the differences and/or similarities between the syntactic structure of the mother tongue (L1) and a second language (L2)?
c. What are the opportunities for the students of English to interact with native speakers?
d. How does age affect the acquisition of the first and second language?
e. What are the effects of other factors, variable and barriers in language acquisition?
f. How can learners of English language enable to stop undesirable (negative) interference?
1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

This study attempts to prove the following hypotheses:

a. Most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from the first language.

b. L2 learners will be more fluent, when they are aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, especially beginner and intermediate learners.

c. Learning a second language in early age is easier for learners.

d. The most important predictor of success in second language acquisition (SLA) is motivation.

e. Learner’s errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study might be significant as follows:

a. For teachers, the writer hopes that the result of the study can be referenced for English teachers. It can be a good guide for the teachers to teach their students correctly especially in teaching English language in general or in four skills such as speaking, writing, reading and listening.

b. For the students are to be able to know how to learn English language fluently and pronunciation in correctly and avoid the error.

c. To give some useful knowledge and experiences in learning and improving English.

d. It may offer some information to other researchers who are interested to research the similar topics to carry out further studies on the interference of mother tongue.
1.6 Methodology
The research will follow an experimental approach in order to find answers to research questions and to test the hypotheses of the research using the (SPSS) Methods.

1.7 Limits of the Study
The study is limited to Sudanese university students. The sample of the study is the fourth year university students of English language.

1.8 Sample of the Study
The sample of the research comes from the total population of university students in the Faculties of Education in University of Gezira, University of Khartoum, and Sudan University of Science and Technology who taught during the academic year 2014.
2.0 Introduction

Language Aptitude is both necessity and a significant factor not only in the communication process, but also in acquiring a wider spectrum of knowledge and cultural exposures. Learning a second language is a necessity; it is the increasingly scarce affluence that is needed in the globalized world.

The innate ability of human beings to learn the art of communication through words has been the breakthrough that paved the way for later advances in human civilization. Human beings are equipped with the ability to think and thus, the ability to learn languages. Ancient history shows that symbols and signs were the primary communication line of our ancestors. They attached meaning through body language and things in their environment. However, the recognition of sounds would be the determining factor in the formation of words and later, languages.

But what is language, and where does it come from? Learning a first language is an innate human ability which, in the absence of abnormalities, is always successful. The same is also true of a second language if acquired at an early age. A lack of completesuccess, however, can be expected by the adult second language learner. Some adults can efficiently perform all necessary linguistic tasks in a non-native language, but will still never be mistaken for nativespeakers.

This general failure is what makes adult language learning fundamentally different from child language development. (Bley-Vroman, 1989) It is also what makes foreignlanguage study different from the study of other academic disciplines. Research has shown that, as well as being an effort of the intellect, learning a language involves the emotions and the identity in a way other subjects do not. (Guiora, et

“... language is at the same time: a) a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject; b) an integral part of the individual’s identity involved in almost all mental activities, and also c) the most important channel of social organization embedded in the culture of the community where it is used. Thus L2 learning is more complex than simple mastering new information and knowledge; in addition to the environmental and cognitive factors normally associated with learning in current educational psychology, it involoves various personality traits and social components”. (p.274)

Every language has two aspects spoken and written, prose and poetry. The prose is simple, straightforward and unpractical. Whereas poetry is metrical and musical. Prose states dry facts in a dry and prose manner. While poetry deals with the aesthetic satisfaction of human beings, it can gather up in few words finest and sensitive feelings (Gardiner, 1987).

According to an American psychologist “Hooket" (1982: P.23); language has the following characteristics.

f. Language uses the vocal organs of the speaker.
ii. Language is semantic.
iii. The symbols for the transmission of ideas are arbitrary.
iv. Language is spontaneous.
v. Language involve turn taking
 vi. Language is culturally transmitted.
vii. Language is open.

Different linguists have defined language in different ways. Jesperson (1983: P.43) defines language as “set of human habits” the purpose, which is to give expression to thoughts and stand feelings, and especially to impart the mothers. Many linguists define language as a natural behavior, and they focus on human language. It seems good to look at some linguists’ definitions of the term ‘language’. Sapper,(1994), argues that language
spurelyhumanand non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarilyreduced symbols”.

According to Sapper, definition of the term ‘language’ is purely human; but language is not purely human because it it is considered as a means of communication, many other creatures can use their own language system to communicate although their systems are different. Human can also notice that bees and dolphins, as an example, have their own language system by which they can communicate freely.

Sapper claims that language is non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires. But there are other aspects of communication besides the above mentioned such as education. Communication can be also achieved by using gestures, body language and so on, not only by using symbols produced by vocal cords.

Bloch and Trager (1942,5) wrote “A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates.” In this definition language is described as a spoken process only because the definition limited the human language to vocal symbols which shows that there is no room for written language. This definition describes language only as a means of communication considering speaking and listening as fundamental skills that do not use vocal symbols.

Sweet (1992) says, “Language is the expression of ideas by means of which speech sounds are combined into words, words are combined into sentences and combination of sentences gives answers to ideas and thoughts”. Bloomfield (1989) points out that features of a language are not inherited in a biological sense. Any hereditary difference in the structure of a larynx, mouth and lips does not influence the action, which makes up a language. A child learns to speak like people around him. According to Lado (1994), the child uses noise with rudimentary system of information and loudness before he learns words. He uses utterances for a short.
He shows certain differentiation kind to the intonation of the language of his parents. His uses of intonation seems to develop a head of the element stand units of language for several years. AccordingtoNicholas(1982),"languageisoneofthesymbolsofanation.The modern knowledge is divided among different subjects, and they are in English language.

Other experts believe that, the answer to this question has great bearing on how we teach language. Before the coming of Communicative Language Teaching, most thinkers believe that behaviorism – a powerful approach to psychology – explained language. According to this view, language is a set of habits we develop through mimicry of our parents and those around us. We learn the language because it brings us a reward of some kind.

The basic modal of these thinkers led by B.F. Skinner. He used to explain a psychological phenomenon in a simple one. If an organism responds in a certain way to a stimulus and gets positive reinforcement, its behavior will be repeated. If it gets no enforcement or negative reinforcement, its behavior will stop. Thus, any kind of vocal output can become part of language, given sufficient reinforcement.

This model of language learning had a powerful impact on the teaching method known as audiolingualism. This method was based on the belief that language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. It placed a strong focus on drills, inductive teaching and on learning vocabulary within a linguistic and cultural context. Skinner proposed this theory as an explanation for language acquisition in human.

On the other hand, behaviorism denied the concept of human nature. In the late 1950s Noam Chomsky explained that there are specialized circuits in the human brain, and perhaps specialized genes, that create the gift of articulate speech. Chomsky’s ideas explained the fact; acquiring language is not a normal mental problem. Everyone sees small children pick up language effortlessly. But no one would expect a three- year-old to master calculus. Yet we are not in the least surprised when a three-year-old learns
grammar. Children learn the rules of their native grammar by hearing a limited set of sample sentences.

Noam Chomsky has made a number of strong claims about language. In particular, he suggests that language is an innate ability – that is to say we are born with a set of rules about language in our brains called the ‘Universal Grammar’ or ‘Generative Grammar’. Briefly, ‘Behaviorism’ focuses on language learning by social and environmental interaction, conditioning and reinforcement of behavior. Whereas ‘Mentalism’ focuses mainly on language learning by hidden mental ability.

From all the definitions of the term “language”, linguists made many attempts with result that in some cases their definitions are alike and few of them are different according to their views to the human language which conclude that language is:

a. A system of communication.
b. A medium from thought.
c. A vehicle for literary expression.
d. A social institution.
e. A matter for political controversy.
f. A catalyst for nation building.

When asked about the purpose of human language, most people would instinctively reply that its main purpose is communication. Therefore, language is a means of communication, this is a broad definition but it is found in all linguists’ definitions. If communication is considered as a fundamental aspect of human language, then we need to understand how communication between humans is achieved. It can be stated in the following digram:
Figure (2.1) Language Skills and Communication
Adapted from: Betty, Bobbient (1987, 175)

It appears that language either written or spoken is communicative abilities which can be classified as receptive skills and productive skills. The productive skills are speaking and writing, while the receptive skills are listening and reading, the four skills are interdependent as they are shown in the diagram.

2.0.(i) Language Interference
A language acquired earlier may influence the learning of another language. This is supported by the accepted psychological dictum that the learning of one thing may influence the later learning of something else. Such an influence can be both beneficial and disadvantageous in the learning of additional languages. Beneficial because the grasp of patterns in the language being learned may be achieved with ease. A disadvantage because the similarity between the first and the second language may be superficial and hence can lead to wrong generalizations and hamper mastering the necessary
discriminations in the second language. Such advantages and disadvantages can be related to all the components of language and the general laws governing the classifications and categorization of the external world through language.

The similarities that exist between the first language and the second language are generally assumed to facilitate the acquisition of the second language. The differences that exist between the first and the second language are generally assumed to interfere with the acquisition of the latter. However, these similarities can be a bothersome source of interference which one may have difficulty in eliminating, in spite of the repeated practice advocated by linguists and psychologists for reduction or elimination of interference.

Many tend to ascribe the errors in the second language committed by the learners to the interference of the first language. However, not all the errors can be ascribed to the interference of first language. Interference can be due to similarities as well as the difference between the first language and the second language. Furthermore, one can never predict the exact nature and quantum of errors likely to be committed by the learners merely on the basis of similarity and difference and likely interference. Many errors may be due to incomplete learning, the extension by analogy of patterns one has already learned that language, and due to simple confusion.

Following Corder’s view, may help learners to distinguish between systematic and unsystematic errors. The errors of performance such as the slips of the tongue or of the pen may be considered as unsystematic. The systematic errors represent generally a transitional stage in the learning. In the learning of a second language, the learner’s errors should be considered as evidence of a system. The learner’s language is unstable; each stage of his learning is a language by itself. Each stage may have its own errors. The totality of such transitional stages may be considered as an interlanguage. The learner is making a progressive approximation to the target language through successive interlanguage stages. Hence, the language teacher and the material producer will do well
if they make a careful analysis of the interlanguage because it will help them to teach and present the materials in a more effective manner to decide as to whether part of the syllabus is not yet learned and as to whether they should move to the next part and so on.

2.0.(ii) Need for a Second Language

Every member who is aspiring to work in a multicultural society needs to learn a second language. It is very essential because of globalization; connections are becoming inevitable among nations, states and organizations which create a great need for knowing another language. The uses of common languages are in areas such as trade, tourism, international relations between governments, technology, media and science. Therefore, many countries such as Japan (Kubota, 1998) and China (Kirkpatrick & Zhichang, 2002) create education policies to teach at least one foreign language at primary and secondary school level. However, some countries such as India, Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines use a second official language in their governing system. Today, many countries like China are giving enormous importance to foreign language learning, especially learning the English Language.

2.0.(iii) Relationship between First and Second Language Acquisition

During the period of the 70’s and 80’s various studies were conducted on first and second language learners showing that phonemes played a role in speaker’s native categories. Three models were proposed to explain the functioning of L1 in L2. The first model talks about the relationship between mature phonological system and speech perception. The Perceptual Assimilation Model (PSM) was developed to analyze the functioning of the speaker’s L1 phonological system in the perception of non-native sounds.

Another model that focuses on the issue of L2 segment acquisition is the Speech Learning Model (SLM). The SLM tries to find out how speech perception affects phonological acquisition by distinguishing the two kinds of sounds: “new” (not identified by any L1 sound) and “similar” (identified by L2 sounds). It was suggested that phonetic systems in production and perception tend to be adapted over the life span and recognize
in response to the sounds in the L2 inputs. This process is known as “equivalence classification” that obstructs the establishment of new phonetic categories for similar sounds. However, the researchers are unable to explain the nature of that mechanism.

The other model of speech perception-phonological acquisition interaction is the extended work of Ritchin (1968) and Michaels (1973). Thus, it explains that the features used in grammar differ in terms of their level of prominence. Features that are used frequently in the language’s phonology will be more prominent than the less frequently used ones. Thus, features more prominent in L1 system will greatly influence learner’s perception of new L2 sounds. (Hancin and Bhatt, 1994).

2.0.(iv) The Defining Difference between L1 and L2

According to some researchers, the defining difference between a first language (L1) and a second language (L2) is the age which the person started learning the language. For example, Eric Lenneberg used second language to mean a language consciously acquired or used by its speaker after puberty.

According to second language acquisition (SLA) research, L1 acquisition is completely successful, L2 learning is not. Very few L2 learners appear to be fully successful in the way that native speakers are (Towell& Hawkins 1994: p.14), unfortunately, language mastery is not often the outcome of SLA. (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: p.153) The evidence for this deficiency held to be the of completeness of L2 grammars (Schechter 1988) or the fossilization in L2 learning where the learner cannot progress beyond some particular stage (Selinker 1992). While there are many similarities between L1 and L2 learning, the variation insitution and other factors also produce many differences. One difficulty is filtering out differences that are accidental rather than inevitable. L1 children, mostly acquire language in different settings with different exposure to the language than L2 learners and they are at different stages of mental and social maturity (Cook 1969). It may be inherently impossible to compare equivalent L1 and L2 learners.
2.1 Language Acquisition

In fact, language acquisition is a major intellectual achievement in recent decades. An increasing large amount of linguistic research has focused on the question of how children over the world are able to master the complexities of human language in the space of a few short years. So, why do many psychologists and linguists nowadays prefer to talk about the ‘acquisition’, rather than the ‘learning’, of language? The reason is simply that ‘acquisition’ is natural with respect to some of the implications that have come to be associated with the term ‘learning’ in psychology.

The scientific study of language acquisition began around the same time as the birth of cognitive science, in the late 1950’s. There has been an explosion of research into children’s language acquisition. It has been aimed at evidence and counter-evidence for Chomsky’s ideas. For example, much of the research into Child Direct Speech and the early social interaction between mothers and babies was a response to Chomsky’s view. The ‘poverty of stimulus’ makes it possible for children to acquire a system as abstract and as complex as human language without some prior inborn knowledge about the way it works.

The term ‘language acquisition’ is normally used without qualification in the process which results in the knowledge of one’s native language. It is conceivable that the acquisition of a foreign language, whether it is learned systematically at school or not, proceeds in a quite different way. Indeed the acquisition of one native language after the illegal ‘critical age’ for language acquisition may differ, for neurophysiological reasons, from the normal child’s acquisition of his native language. It has been suggested recently, on the basis of clinical observations of the brain, that the acquisition of a second language, whether as an adult or as a child, has significant neurophysiological consequences. People be cautious, therefore, in drawing a conclusion of general import from the investigation of the monolingual child’s acquisition of this native language in normal circumstances and applying them to the problem of foreign language teaching.
Furthermore, language acquisition is one of the most important and fascinating aspects of human development. The first sound a newborn baby makes indicates that a small child shows to have something. There are various subconscious aspects of language development, such as metalinguistic, conscious, formal teaching of language and acquisition of the written system of language in both L1 and L2. Various language variables are involved in the language processes like phonology, vocabulary, morphology, syntax, paralinguistic, pragmatics and discourse. In order to provide success in cognitive functioning as well as professional life of an individual, his/her first language acquisition must develop strongly in the early years.

Language acquisition is the process of learning a native or a second language. Thus, the acquisition of native languages is studied primarily by development psychologists and psycholinguistics. Although how children learn to speak is not perfectly understood, most explanations involve both the observation that children copy what they hear and the inference that human beings have a natural aptitude for understanding grammar. While children usually learn the sounds and vocabulary of their native language through imitation, grammar is seldom taught to them explicitly; that they nonetheless rapidly acquire the ability to speak grammatically supports the theory advanced by Noam Chomsky and other proponents of transformational grammar.

According to this view, children are able to learn the ‘superficial’ grammar of a particular language. For this reason, all intelligible languages are founded on a ‘deep structure’ of grammatical rules. These rules are universal and correspond to an innate capacity of the human brain. Stages in the acquisition of native language can be measured by the increasing complexity and originality of a child’s utterances.

Therefore, there are at least many reasons for believing that the development of linguistic skills must involve the acquisition of a grammar. First, it is clear that mature language users are able to produce and understand an unlimited number of novel sentences. This
can happen when the children have acquired a system of productive grammatical rules that are applicable to novel cases. So, simple memorization of a fixed words and sentences would not help language learners to deal with unheard utterances of normal language use. Second, the children acquire grammatical rules that are found in their own utterance. But sometimes they make many mistakes. For example, children formulate a general rule that adds “ed” to the verb stem. This rule sometimes produces forms such as (do – doed). Such errors, provide clear signs of children’s attempt’s to construct grammatical rules.

A good deal of research on the acquisition of language focuses on children early utterances and the kinds of errors they contain. The study of these phenomena does not only contribute to a description of the language acquisition process, but also provides valuable clues about the nature of the mental mechanisms involved in linguistic development. A classic example of language acquisition involves adolescents and young adults who live abroad for a year in an exchange program, attaining near-native fluency, while knowing little about the language in the majority of cases. They have a good pronunciation without an notion of phonology, don't know what the perfect tense is, modal or phrasal verbs are, but they intuitively recognize and know how to use all the structures. Investigators concerned with these problems drown two basic methods: naturalistic observation and experimentation. Although both methods provide valuable information about the nature of the language acquisition process, they do so in different.

### 2.1.1 Naturalistic Observation

In the naturalistic approach, the investigator simply observes and records what happens in the natural environment. For this reason, naturalistic observation is often the first step in a research program. So, the aim in naturalistic observation is to study behavior in its usual setting, without asking the subjects any question or administering any tests. The basic technique in naturalistic observation is to be a very careful observer.
Naturalistic observation serves two purposes. It provides an excellent description of certain phenomena, and it can be a rich source of hypotheses. As one investigator comments: “I find that during the long hours of observation in the field, I not only learn about behavior patterns, but I get ideas, ‘hunches’, for theories, which I later test by experiments whenever possible”. (Tinbergen, 1965.P:55)

The acquisition of second or foreign languages is studied primarily by applying linguists. People learning a second language pass through some of the same stages, including overgeneralization, as do children learning their native language. However, people rarely become as fluent in a second language as in their native tongue. Some linguists see the early years of childhood as a critical period, after which the brain loses much of its facility for assimilating new languages. Most traditional methods for learning a second language involve the same systematic approach to the analysis and comprehension of grammar as well as to the memorization of vocabulary. The cognitive approach, increasingly favored by experts in language acquisition, emphasizes extemporaneous conversation, immersion, and other techniques intended to simulate an environment in which most people acquire their native language as children.

2.1.2 Early Theories

One of the earliest scientific explanations of language acquisition was provided by Skinner (1975). As one of the pioneers of behaviorism, he accounted for language development by means of environmental influence. Skinner argued that children learn language based on behaviorist reinforcement principles by associating words with meanings. Correct utterance is positively reinforced when the child realizes the communicative value of words and phrases.

2.1.2.1 Universal Grammar

All humans are born with the ability and drive to learn the language. Before they can even walk they start talking. From birth, they are listening with intent, ready to learn their native tongue. Evolution has seen to it that humans have an aptitude for language
learning, but just how much of our abilities are we born with and how much to we acquire as we go along?

When humans learn languages, they use the knowledge and skills acquired from the language they already know to understand this new language. That is, they take the rules of language, such as the use of verbs and adjective, sentence structure and syntax, and apply them to the new language. While these rules will always change and vary between languages, there are some structures between languages that remain the same. This is known as universal grammar. Items that can be considered a part of universal grammar include tense, aspect and mood.

There are some rules that when applied to one language can be applied to practically any language. For instance, if a language has a name for the color red, it will have a word for the color purple. These rules do not always apply to every single language, which makes the theory of universal grammar difficult for linguists to prove. Universal Grammar forms part of the nature vs. nurture that has had scientists guessing for generations. Are humans born destined to grow into a certain person with certain abilities, or do they acquire these characteristics along the way?

Within the field of linguistics, there are two theories as to how humans learn language as children. The theory of universal grammar was proposed by linguist Noam Chomsky. He believes that a set part of our brain was dedicated to language, and that this part of the brain had a set group of rules which people apply to language. It cannot be changed or altered, people do not learn it they are born with it. These structures appear in every language around the world. The alternative theory is that humans are born with no pre-existing knowledge of language, rather it is something that is acquired.

However, Skinner’s account was soon heavily criticized by Noam Chomsky. In the spirit of the cognitive revolution in the 1950’s, Chomsky argues that children will never acquire the tools needed for processing an infinite number of sentences if the language
acquisition mechanism is dependent on language input alone. Consequently, he proposes the theory of Universal Grammar: an idea of innate, biological grammatical categories, such as a noun category and a verb category that facilitate the entire language development in children and overall language processing in adults.

Universal Grammar is considered to contain all the grammatical information needed to combine these categories, e.g. noun and verb, into phrases. The child’s task is just to learn the words of his language. For example, according to the Universal Grammar account, children instinctively know how to combine a noun (e.g. A boy) and a verb (to eat) into a meaningful, correct phrase (A boy eats).

This Chomskian approach to language acquisition has inspired hundreds of scholars to investigate the nature of these assumed grammatical categories and the research is still ongoing.

A decade or two later some psycholinguists began to question the existence of Universal Grammar. They argue that categories like noun and verb are biologically, evolutionarily psychologically implausible and that the field called for an account that can explain in the acquisition process without innate categories. Hence, researchers started to suggest that instead of having a language-specific mechanism for language processing, children might utilize general cognitive and learning principles. Whereas researchers approaching the language acquisition problem from the perspective of Universal Grammar argue for early full productivity. The opposing constructivist investigators argue for a more gradual developmental process. It is suggested that children are sensitive to patterns in language which enable the acquisition process.

An example of this gradual pattern learning is morphology acquisition. Morphemes are the smallest grammatical markers, or units, in language that other words. In English, regular plurals are marked with the –s morpheme (dog+s). Similarly, English third singular verb forms (she eat+s, a boy kick+s) are marked with the –s morpheme.
Children are considered to acquire their first instances of third singular forms as entire phrasal chunks (Ahmed Kicks, A girl eats, A dog barks) without the ability of testing the finest grammatical components apart.

When the child hears a sufficient number of instances of a linguistic construction (the third singular verb form), he will detect a pattern across the utterances he has heard. In this case, the repeated pattern is the –s marker in this particular verb form. As a result of many repetitions and examples of the –s marker in different verbs, the child will acquire sophisticated knowledge that, in English, verbs must be marked with the –s morpheme in the third singular form. Approaching language acquisition from the perspective of general cognitive processing is an economical account of how children can learn their first language without an excessive biolinguistic mechanism.

2.1.2.2 Generative Grammar

Generative grammar is a branch of theoretical linguistics developed by Noam Chomsky in the late 1950s. The main idea behind generative grammar is that language is developed according to innate, universal rules which are inborn endowments, not man-made ideas devised at an intellectual level. This explains why children absorb language, including grammar, in a short period of time, with little effort. The principles which enable people to communicate, Chomsky found, are deeply embedded within the brain and are so predictable, they can be quantified mathematically.

According to generative grammar, some linguistic constructs resonate within humans as being grammatically correct while others, in their essence, are ungrammatical. The four major categories in which universal linguistic similarities have been found are phonology (the study of sounds used in a language), morphology (the study of the formation of words), syntax (the study of sentence structure), and semantics (the study of the meaning of words). As it turns out, the linguistic constructs in various languages are, in fact, simply different ways of accomplishing the same things.
Generative grammar is not counterintuitive, given the fact that people all are part of the “family of man”. All the different flavors of humankind have basic linguistic traits in common which are more deeply embedded than the more and folkways that separate them.

As a study of the underlying principles of human languages, generative grammar consists largely of empirically gathered observations of reality. These principles have been studied since Chomsky first researched them in the 1950s. While the theory has undergone many modifications over the years, its basic premises are widely accepted by the linguistic world as true.

For the language student, this is good news. On the surface, it might seem that some languages bear absolutely no similarity to one another. What do the languages of a Kung bushman of the Kalahari Desert, a Tibetan Sherpa, a Midwestern American farmer, and a Chinese businesswoman have in common? Not much, a linguist might be tempted to think. However, if these four people were sequestered in a room together, sooner or later, they would find ways to communicate. Furthermore, if they studied each others’ languages, they would ultimately find common ground amongst those languages, despite the obvious differences.

Thus, although the knowledge of generative grammar will not help the language student learn a language in any practical way, it could be a great encouragement to the student who feels like a stranger in a strange land. We people are all, in fact, brothers and sisters, and the fount of our speech rises up from a common wellspring.

2.1.3 Chomsky on Language Acquisition
Noam Chomsky postulates that the mechanism of the language acquisition is derived from the innate processes. The theory proposed by Chomsky is proved by the children living in same linguistic community. Moreover, they are not influenced by the external experiences which bring about the comparative grammar. He thus proposes his theory on
language acquisition in 1977 as “all children share the same internal constraints which characterize narrowly the grammar they are going to construct”. He also proposes that “all of us live in a biological world, and according to him, mental world is no exception”. He also believes that as there are stages of development for other parts of the body, language development can also be achieved up to a certain age.

2.1.4 Chomsky Versus Skinner

There are two basic theories for language acquisition. Noam Chomsky’s theory, which believes people have a basic pattern of learning language inside of their brain since they were born. On the other hand, B. Skinner’s theory which believes people have to be taught how to speak with someone for language acquisition. The researcher mostly agree with Chomsky theory and partly Skinner theory. People usually do not remember how they learn to speak, but everybody speaks their first language without any problems. Some children even speak more than two languages naturally. Language is a unique system which only humans have. However, it is correct rules or grammars of language people might have to study. There also seems to be a critical period for learning language. People speak their language without studying. It means people already have an ability of language pattern in their brain. Chomsky says “human brain contains a language acquisition device (LAD) which automatically analyzes the components of speech a child hears”.

The researcher supports this theory. The human brain has a special function, unlikely other animals. That’s why only humans speak languages. Learning language for a human is very easy because the human brain already contains ability of language. So, even children start to speak the language naturally in their age.

People in young age are very easier to acquire more than two languages at the same time. Even if those languages are very different, and their parents do not speak those languages. It also proves people must have an ability to function in any language innately.
In contrast theory, there is a very famous case. A girl, Genie, was language got deprived during her critical period, which is considered between 4 and 12, of learning a first language, and she could not acquire her language skill normally even though she studied. This fact, about the girl Genie, supports B.F. Skinner’s theory. However, this is a very unusual case. She might not have only language problem, but even a mental problem since she was locked in a room for 13 years. There is also a proof that Genie was about speaking without studying right after she was locked up. Since her mother reported that she heard Genie saying the words right after she was locked up.

Since the Genie’s case was discovered, Chomsky added to his theory that “the innate mechanisms that underlie this competence must be activated by exposure to language at the proper time”. This theory got a little closer to B. F. Skinner’s theory. Even young children speak a language without learning, but they often make mistakes in their speech. While they are growing, their number of mistakes in their speech decreases. They are learning how to speak, so in this case some part of Skinner’s theory is also correct.

Similarly, learning a second language for people in older age supports Skinner’s theory. People have to keep learning language to improve their second language. It hardly ever gets perfect because people have to learn all rules and structures from the beginning which do not apply to their first language. If they have learned the language system innately, people can not easily adjust to speak another language? People can not apply Chomsky’s theory at all in this case.

In conclusion, until people reach a critical period of learning language, people learn their language automatically without beginning to teach because of their innate ability of language. Furthermore, if there are more than two languages which children hear, children will be able to acquire both of them at the same time. Nevertheless, the ability of language has to be activated in the first place by something. Otherwise, people never begin to acquire their language. Once people pass the critical period, it is hard to learn
any language. Thereby, people in older age usually have a problem learning a second language. Both Chomsky’s and Skinner’s theories are correct in different cases and the language acquisition system works with both of them together.

2.1.5 Schlesinger’s Model for Language Acquisition

Schlesinger (1971) has proposed another model which may be termed as a performance model. When a speaker is programmed in a manner described by the Comskyan model, he will produce grammatical utterances of the language. But this does not provide an adequate description of what the speaker really does so far as it restricts itself only to the specification of processes involved in the production of grammatical sentences. In reality, a speaker produces not only a grammatical utterance, but also an utterance appropriate to the occasion, his condition, etc. The speaker has certain intensions and he realizes these intentions in his speech. Thus Schlesinger’s model incorporates a grammar mechanism which provides for these intentions as well. According to Schlesinger, these are the steps which the grammar takes up:

i. The “Grammar Mechanism” produces a candidate for an utterance.

ii. This candidate for an utterance is compared with the speaker’s intentions.

iii. If the match is not good enough, the information for this comparison is used to arrive at a satisfactory utterance by a series of successive approximations.

iv. It is assumed that speaker’s intentions guide the grammar mechanism from the start. However, human experience shows clearly that not all people’s intentions find expression in their speech. Some may be modified and some may not be found at all in the speech. Hence, linguists must concern themselves only with those intentions of speakers which are converted into the output sentence.

Schlesinger uses the term Input Marker (I marker) for the formalized representation of the speaker’s intentions as shown in the output. These markers are not as well as the same of the speaker’s intentions. These Input Markers represent universal semantic relations. The realizations rule converts the Input Markers into utterances. Unlike Chomskyan model which concentrates on an appropriate Phrase Marker before the
realization of actual utterances, the present model demands that the child learns the correspondence between Input Markers and the utterances of persons in his environment. The child learns to associate the Input Marker representing the situation with the utterance he/she hears.

The child is assumed to have an innate cognitive capacity and this innate cognitive capacity is “just the way the child views the world and will be the same whether he/she learns to speak, or fails to learn to speak due to some organic or environmental handicap”. There is nothing specifically linguistically about the capacity. Further the Input Markers are only concepts falling within the capacity which are not specified for the grammatical category. It is the realization rules which determine the category in which the concept appears in the utterance.

There are two kinds of realization rules, namely, position rules and category rules. The position rule accords a position to each concept founding the Input Marker in the utterance. The category rules determine the grammatical category appropriate in an utterance on the basis of examples from the adult speech. The child learns from the adult speech as to how words are placed relative to each other resulting in modifying relations. The category rule is generally based on word classes obtaining in adult speech. Schlesinger is of the opinion that the word classes are learned as stimulus response equivalents. As the category rules are learned as stimulus response equivalents. As the category rules are language specific and thus are dependent upon adult speech, they must be assumed to have been acquired after position rules. Schlesinger claims that meanings come first in the form of Input Markers and later the child learns how these are realized in linguistic forms.

In conclusion, it can be pointed out that although the models suggested above differ from each other in several ways, the problem they try to account for remains the same. The investigator has to characterize and specify first of all the input to children. He should find ways to control the input. He should also discover the structures and processes that
help the child to withstand each stage of change, the progress towards the form and function of adult speech which is the common code for all. The investigator should find out how the structures and processes are assumed to be different features of the input. In all these, the investigator can manipulate only the input and not the structures and processes undergone by the child while acquiring a language. The latter is essentially inferential by nature and as a consequence is a matter of dispute until a convincing basis is found for them in biology. However, advances in the study of acquisition of language need not wait for breakthroughs in biological search. The scholar who studies child speech must take into account the contexts in which the acquisition takes place. The child development studies have done this earlier in characterizing the cognitive development of children. Specialists must take into account not only the utterances of the child, but also the utterances and other communication modes the adults employ in their communication with the child. It must also be noted the basic structures of a language have been acquired by a child around the fourth year of his age.

2.1.6 The Biological Argument
The biological argument states that language acquisition is easier for young children because the natural brain lateralization which takes place by the time puberty made language acquisition more difficult (Al-Dali, 1997). Therefore, while young children after the age of two could acquire their natural language through simple exposure to an environment in which it was spoken, the older children had to be taught a second language in a more structured way.

Language acquisition at an orderly age is not developmentally appropriate in a certain sense. Language acquisition is theorized to be biologically timed, but not completely time-limited. Lenneberg’s theories have led to a great deal of research and exploration of the available evidence.

However, Krashen (1973) issues that a review of the new evidence indicates that the critical period for language acquisition is actually much shorter than Lenneberg has
proposed. Krashen indicates that the critical period ends much before puberty and actually corresponds to the period of normal first language acquisition. Through reviewing the data in the case of Genie, a girl who was isolated and not exposed to language for the first eleven years of her life, Krashen also confirms that the evidence indicates that language acquisition could take place after the end of the critical period.

2.1.7 Some Characteristics of Language Acquisition Process

A remarkable fact about the acquisition of language is the speed with which a child is able to acquire a language. The speed of language acquisition is not conditioned by the socioeconomic environment in which a child starts acquiring language nor is it conditioned by the history, culture or even the complexity of the language which is being acquired by the child. Furthermore, the span of time required by a child for acquiring a language is found to be more less the same.

The situation obtaining between a child and his parents is far from a learning or instructional one. Usually parents do not tend to correct the ‘defects’ in the formal features of early speech by children. The ‘defects’ are rather relished by the parents. People tend to correct mistakes in truth value. They tend to ‘reinforce’ the children’s speech guided mainly by its content. In addition to this, normal children all around the world from diverse linguistic families acquire their language in three to four years.

A precondition for language acquisition seems to be that the meaning of utterances to which a child is exposed to be obvious. So, the syntax of speech addressed to children is also simple. The adults seem at times to imitate child speech in their efforts to simplify the structures of speech to suit the level of skill achievement by children.

When it is looked into the child speech, it is found that it has the characteristics of imitation and even at times rote learning. But it is the productive characteristic that plays the dominant role throughout. Children fail usually in their attempts to imitate adult
speech in the beginning of syntactic development. They are more successful in spontaneously producing the sentences.

Further a child becomes capable of putting the structures he has already acquired into use in increasingly new ways. Many utterances may be regular from the syntactic sense but semantically they are strange and have not been uttered either by parents or by the child himself.

Children around the world seem to start with a single word and go from one-word stage to a two-word stage. It is common knowledge, however, that children understand more than what they can speak at the beginning. The child single-word utterances are preceded by the development of a remarkable comprehending capacity. Some scholars believe that the child’s single-word utterances seem to function as one-word sentences before the development of syntax. Very soon the single-word stage gives place to the two-word stage and this enables linguists to speculate about the child’s underlying grammatical knowledge.

The two-word stage does not seem to be a universal phenomenon and happens to be a very brief stage wherever it is found. In this stage, one set of words occupies some fixed position and the other forms are some sort of an open class to which new words are added.

The three-word stage brings in immediate constituents with structured units. Word classes begin to emerge clearly and a number of them can be clearly defined and separated on the basis of distribution. Constituent phrases begin to emerge with an increase in complexity. The limitation to the length of sentences seem to fade out slowly this stage. Further the child’s grammar increases in complexity, variety and potential length of sentences and the length ceiling slowly disappears.
2.1.8 Language Acquisition and Variables

As the global society in which people live flows more easily across state borders, people, cultures, companies, governments, and institutions from around the world have more contact. Borders are clear and the importance of bi- and multi-lingualism becomes necessary to sustain this constant contact. As a result of this increase in language acquisition and teaching, much research has been devoted to exploring ways in which a diverse set of factors affects learning and acquisition. The significance of these variables lies in the impact on how second languages are taught. In a where barriers to intercultural and inter-linguistic interaction is being torn down. (Jill McCain, 2000).

Evolution has shown the immense importance of the capability of language in human beings. Because language allows for cooperation and the spread of technology and knowledge more easily, it has benefited the advancement in technology for humans. Pinker writes that:

“...the shape of the human vocal tract seems to have been modified during evolution for the demands of speech. Our larynxes are low in our throats, and our vocal tracts have a sharp right angle bend that creates two independently-modifiable resonant cavities (the mouth and the pharynx or throat) that defines a large two-dimensional range of vowel sounds. But it comes at a sacrifice of efficiency for breathing, swallowing, and chewing (Lieberman, 1984). Before the invention of the Heimlich maneuver, choking on food was a common cause of accidental death in humans, causing 6,000 deaths a year in the United States. The evolutionary selective advantages must have been very large to outweigh such a disadvantage.”

While chimps have been trained to mimic human speech, Pinker points out they do not naturally acquire it without training as humans do. Thus, humans are unique in their ability to acquire and pass on language.

More recent changes in human society have increased humans need for and use of multi-lingual communication. The world has become more global, leaving fewer realms to exist
in state boundaries and expanding the number of activities involving different cultures and languages. Migration, interlanguage marriages, bilingual education, multi-national corporations, and international organizations are just a few phenomenon on the rise that require bilingual (or multilingual) participants. This trend has in turn spawned research into two overlapping areas-- initial language acquisition in young children and that on acquisition of subsequent languages. The researcher will begin with initial language acquisition first.

2.1.8.1 Initial Language Acquisition

The most important factor affecting initial language acquisition is neurological developments in the brain. Unless completely deprived of language input seen in the form of hearing others speak, or physical limitations prohibiting speech, children invariably learn to talk.

Pinker summarizes the first two years of neurological development relating to language use. Before birth, virtually all neurons (nerve cells) are formed, and they migrate to their proper locations in the brain. But head size, brain weight, and thickness of the cerebral cortex (gray matter), where the synapses (junctions) subserving mental computation take place, continue to increase rapidly in the year after birth. Long-distance connections (white matter is not complete until nine months, and continues to grow in their speed-inducing myelin insulation throughout childhood. Synapses continue to develop peaking in number between nine months and two years (depending on the brain region), at which point the child has 50% more synapses that the adult. Metabolic activity in the brain reaches adult levels by nine to ten months, and soon exceeds it, peaking around the age of four. In addition, huge numbers of neurons die in utero, and the dying continues during the first two years before leveling off at age seven. The brain can also recover from damage to crucial language areas by reassigning functions to unaffected areas, while adults cannot perform similar types of recovery after the same types of damage.
While these are the most important factors affecting development of language, children can also have other characteristics that aid in rapid acquisition--they are unselfconscious, learn clear positive advantages associated with successful communication (getting food, attention, etc.), and have no other language to fall back on. These types of advantages play a role in how fast and well children acquire language. In second language acquisition similar factors determine whether or not the language is acquired at all.

2.1.8.2 Subsequent Language Acquisition
While initial language acquisition relies mainly on neurological development over time, second (and subsequent) language acquisition relies on age only in associated characteristics and not in actual brain structure. Past the age of two, brain structure and differences play only a nominal role. More relevant to second language acquisition (SLA) are four other factors: motivation, opportunity, environment, and personality.

2.1.9 Language Acquisition and Barriers
The Language barrier is a term used to imply all the problems faced by an individual as he tries to communicate with a group of people who speak a tongue other than his own. It is prevalent in settings which involve the conglomeration of people from different cultures, speaking different languages. It is also used as a blanket term for all the difficulties associated with the learning of a foreign language (Wikipedia, 2006). Over the years, there have been various steps taken by administrators in both, academic and business worlds, to facilitate this transition into an English-speaking environment by providing courses, workshops and training. Yet, this problem is still persistent, if not widespread, in schools and universities across the nation.

Learning barriers have roots. These do not appear suddenly. These may start affecting from early stages, and continue throughout the educational processes. Thus, a psychosocial analysis of such barriers may enable an instructor or educationalist to go deep into any such educational phenomenon, and be ready to cope with.
2.1.9.1 Institutional Barriers
Institutional barriers in adult education are described as difficulty finding a school with the right program and format; school schedules that do not align with the needs of adults; stringent admissions requirements or confusing financial aid processes.

2.1.9.2 Situational Barriers
Situational barriers to learning usually center on adult education, which is voluntary and where issues of participation and non-participation can be considered. For adults, situational barriers to learning pertain to the person's particular situation: responsibilities to home or job, lack of financial ability to cover costs and lack of time to attend classes.

2.1.9.3 Dispositional Barriers
The dispositional barrier as described by Cross (1981) relates to the learners’ beliefs, values, attitudes, and perception of self. According to MacKeracher, et al (2006. P:120), dispositional barriers can also refer to the attitudes and values of not only of the learner but also “their significant others, the community and far too many educational providers” and that “most attitudinal barriers are viewed as the result of some inadequacy on the part of the learner” (p.19). Dispositional barriers, which are also referred to as psychosocial barriers (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982), are described as low self-esteem and self-confidence; negative attitudes towards their situation as a learner, such as being too old, too sick, too busy, or not smart enough; or a previous negative school experience. Cross suggests that this category is far more influential in student participation and success than the data suggest.

2.1.9.4 Acquisition Barriers
Other experts believe that Syntax structure, Phonetics, Morphemes, and Semantic concept are the obvious reasons for the problems experienced in second language acquisition, and most of them are related that people attempt to learn another language during their teenager or adult years. This happens in a few hours each week of school
time, and they have a lot of other things to take care of, instead a child learns via the constant interaction that he or she experiences, and has not many things else to do. Beside the adult or teenage people have an already known language available for most of their daily communicative requirements. There are other reasons, for example the suggestion that adults tongues get stiff from pronouncing one type of language and just cannot cope with the sounds of another language. However, there is not physical evidence to support this.

Maybe most of the people can not be able to distinguish between acquisition and learning. The term acquisition refers to the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations. Instead the term learning applies to the conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of a language.

Activities related to learning have traditionally been used in language teaching in schools, and if they are successful tend to result in knowledge about the language studied. Whereas, activities related with acquisition are those experienced by the young child and by those who pick up another language from long periods spent in social interaction, the language used daily, in another country. Those whose second language experience is primarily a learning one tend not to develop the proficiency of those who have had an acquiring experience.

However, even in ideal acquisition situations, very few adults seem to reach native like proficiency in using a second language. There are suggestions that some features, for vocabulary or grammar, of a second language are easier to acquire than others, for example phonology. Sometimes this is taken as evidence that after the critical period has passed, around puberty, it becomes very difficult to acquire another language fully. It has been demonstrated that students in their early teens are quicker and more effective second language learners than, for example 7 year olds. It may be, of course, that the acquisition of a second language requires a combination of factors. The optimum age
may be during the years 11-16 when the flexibility of the language acquisition, faculty has not been completely lost, and the maturation of cognitive skills allows more effective working out of the regular features of the second language encountered.

Yet, during this optimum age, there may exist an acquisition barrier of quite a different sort. Teenagers are typically much more self conscious than young children. If there is a strong element of unwillingness or embarrassment in attempting to produce the different sounds of other languages, then it may override whatever physical and cognitive abilities there are.

2.2 First language Acquisition

First language acquisition is being termed by different names such as native language, primary language and mother tongue. This language is assumed to be one which is acquired during early childhood. Starting before the age of about three years. Acquisition of more than one language during early childhood leads to simultaneous multilingualism. Whereas sequential multilingualism means learning additional languages (L2) after (L1) has already been established. Simultaneous bilingualism is less common than sequential bilingualism.

2.2.1 Theories of First Language Acquisition

Much work in the 1950s among American Linguists sought to capture the nature of language and language acquisition either via Behaviorist Methods (Skinner), or via Cognitive Maturationalism (Piaget). Chomsky’s early work in the late ’50s focused on discrediting both schools-of-thought. Because he thought that both models contain special and essential aspects which do well to explain some elements of language. Chomsky’s claim that the brain contains separate module for language independent of cognition certainly heralded an important breakthrough in how linguists understand the nature of language and language acquisition.
Interests in first language (L1) competence for many centuries, begin with analyzing child language systematically and its psychological process in the second half of the 20th century. This results in the emergence of three theoretical positions of first language acquisition.

2.2.1.1 Behavioristic Approaches:

The study of human behavior in observable stimulus response situations which is related to behavior models is the “habit-formation” L2 theories. It mainly focuses on the publicly observed responses. There are some assumptions for this approach:

i. Children come into the world with Tabula rasa, a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language as to be shaped by their environment and slowing conditioned through reinforcement.

ii. Effective language behavior is the production of correct responses to stimuli.

iii. If particular response is reinforced, it then becomes habitual or continued.

2.2.1.2 The Nativist Approaches:

Concerning the nativist approach, some hypotheses must be discussed.

2.2.1.2.A. Innateness Hypotheses:

(i) Assertion: language acquisition is innately determined. Language is a species-specific behavior and certain modes of perception, categorizing abilities are biologically determined. (Eric Lenneberg, 1967).

(ii) Strengths: able to account for the generativity of child language.
2.2.1.2.B. Universal Grammar:

(i) all human beings are genetically equipped with abilities that enable them to acquire language.

(ii) to discover what it is that all children bring to the language acquisition process from question information, negation, word order, subject deletion and so on.

2.2.1.2.C. The Development of Generative Grammar:

Children construct hypothetical grammar, formal representations of deep structures which start as pivot grammars (two word utterances for two word classes) and mature.

2.2.1.3 Functional Approach:

The functional approach focuses on the major role of language as the tool of communication. It is different with behaviorism and nativism that only focuses on the form of language. Nature and nurture have the same important role in Language acquisition. Although human has AD, when he did not interact with the others, for example, he lives in the jungle, he will be unable to acquire language. Nurture is as an input for nature. Human acquire the meaning by interacting with the other.

2.2.2 First Language Versus Second Language Acquisition

Except in some special cases, the majority learns the languages other than their first acquired language instructional situations. Some, because of the special circumstances they are in. It is natural that even in these situations the processes of learning the first language and the capacity that goes into the learning are made use of by the second language learners. In fact, some people do not distinguish between the first and second language acquisition in terms of the theoretical assumptions of the processes. The theories of first language acquisition are extended to cover the second language learning. Hence there is a variety of theories accounting for the acquisition of second languages based on their corresponding theory of the first language acquisition. Two kinds of assumptions and strategies for language learning and teaching will be discussed. One of
the cluster of theories which emphasize habit formation and the other which emphasizes the rule governed behavior and creativity.

The child is exposed to thousands of different sounds with variation in quality, pitch, length and loudness. But he restricts himself to the acquisition of the few sounds, and to the acquisition of the language system. He does imitate and yet he is capable of producing something uttered never before. In a second language learning situation, the learner does not go through the several stages of first language acquisition such as babbling, single, double and multiple word utterances.

The learner of a second language knows already another language. Thus, he is in a position to communicate with appropriate content in the majority of the cases. An adult second language learner acquires the rules of the second language more often than the rules of his native language. Further a child acquires his first language while attempting to use it. An adult learns his second language in a situation that may not fully match the situation of use. The teacher exposes his students to the materials usually controlled on the basis of the assumptions of the theory he follows in the class. An adult may have the knowledge of the rules; yet he commits mistakes, thereby illustrating that knowledge of the rules and their use are different.

### 2.2.3 Differences between Second Language Learning and First Language Acquisition

In this section the researcher will explore the differences between the first language acquisition and the second language learning and its limitations. According to Krashen, first language (L1) acquisition is the process of natural assimilation, where as learning a second language (L2) is a conscious one.

It deserves mentioning that acquiring a second language can be a life long learning process for many as the second language learners are rarely successful. However, children by around the age of 5 have more or less mastered their first language with the
exception of vocabulary and a few grammatical structures. First language can be an impediment or an aid, depending on the methodology and the seriousness with which the teacher follows the method to teach the second language.

During the past century, “research in first language acquisition has had an enormous influence on the study of second language learning, both at the theoretical and practical level.” (Littlewood, 1984, p. 4) Researchers in first language acquisition state new ideas about the language learning process, which were then used in second language acquisition. Looking at first language learning gives the linguists a good insight about how children acquire the language.

The comparison between first and second language learning is important because children in primary classes are still in the process of learning their mother tongue. Pinter (2006) states that “the younger the child is, the more similar the two processes will be” (p. 17). Pinter adds that it is important for the teacher to appreciate how long it takes for children to learn even the first language. It is also useful to know what the child can say and do in his or her mother tongue, so it can help the teacher to consider what is realistic for that age group in a second language.

2.2.3.1. Words Collection

Mother tongue acquisition is a long process which starts long before the child starts to speak. First, they just listen to the language and absorb its rhythm and melody; they understand some words and react to them appropriately. Then slowly they start producing words, mostly between the ages of eight to twelve months. McMurray (2007) states that typically, children begin learning words at a very slow rate, perhaps only 1-2 per week. However, at some point, most children’s rate of learning accelerates significantly. This has been called the “word spurt” or “vocabulary explosion”.

O’Grady (2005) also talks about words’ acquisition and states that “whereas an eighteen month’s old child may learn one or two new words a day, a four year old will acquire a
dozen and a seven yearold will pick up as much as twenty” (p. 2). When they pick up about fifty words, they start producing sentences, usually between the age of eighteen and twenty months. “In reality, children start using words and learning the meanings before they master all of the language’s sounds. And they usually start building sentences after they have just acquired a few dozen words. So, there is an extended period of time during which children are working on sounds, words, meanings and sentences all at one.” (O’Grady, 2005, p. 5) mentions that when children learn words, they do not learn it separately, but in a sentence that is more like a continuous stream of sounds. So then they have to break it down into words. However, sometimes the child does not pick up just a single word, but the whole phrase like ‘what’sthat’ or ‘give me’, and then they pronounce it like “whadat” and “gimme”. This is called chunk – a large bit of speech and it is also used while teaching English as a foreign language (Cameron, 2008). O’Grady also states that “children are able to learn a new word after hearing it used only once or twice” (p. 51), this is called fast mapping.

2.2.3.2. Grammar Acquisition
As is commonly known, children learn from the input from and interaction with their parents. They consider the language that they have already heard and according to this, they apply the grammatical rules also to the irregular verbs and nouns when they create past tenses or plural forms.

Noam Chomsky, one of the best known linguists of the twentieth century, argues that children often produce language that they could not have heard in natural interaction with others. For example, all children learning English as their mother tongue produce past tense construction such as “flyed”, “writed”, and “buyed”. They are attaching the regular past tense marker to irregular verbs. Chomsky argues that these constructions show evidence that children make constant efforts to hypothesize about the structure of the language. Based on these, Chomsky proposes the theory of Universal Grammar, which can be imagined as a kind of device containing representations of abstract facts about human language. He proposes that all human are born with the capacity to build
on Universal Grammar. Exposure to input in the given language sets the various parameters of the Universal Grammar and this enables children to learn particular languages. For example, when a baby is born into an English-speaking environment, his or her Universal Grammar helps the baby recognize that English is a language where the word order is typically SVO (subject, verb, object). (Pinter, 2009, p. 19-20)

2.2.3.3. The Caretaker Speech

When adults are talking to children, their speech is normally quite different from their speech to other adults. There have been several observational studies in this area which showed that this “caretaker” speech occurs in every speech community and it has a number of characteristics. Some of the characteristics are stated in Littlewood in Foreign and Second language learning: The caretaker speech is generally spoken more slowly. It contains shorter utterances. It is more grammatical, with fewer broken sentences or false starts. It contains fewer sentences with two clauses. There is less variety of tenses. The range of vocabulary is more limited. There is more repetition. The speech is more closely to “here and now” (Littlewood, 1984, p. 15)

Krashen (2003) adds: “If caretaker speech does help language acquisition, it may do so by supplying crucial input, what the child needs at that moment, without the distraction of excess noise, or the language the child does not understand.” (p. 125) Caretaker speech is not consciously trying to move the children’s ability to speak to some level. “Rather, the caretaker estimates the child’s level of competence via the child’s own linguistic output and his or her reactions to caretaker speech, and in attempting to communicate with the child provides input that covers structures that the child has already acquired as well as structures that the child has not yet acquired.” (Krashen, 2003, p. 127).

2.2.4. The Influence of First Language to Second Language Acquisition

Whereas in first language learning, everything is new for the learner, in second language learning, learners already possess a set of habits; their native language. Some of these
habits can help them with the new learning task, the other can hinder them. (Littlewood, 1984) According to Littlewood (1984), this is behaviorist perspective and is called a positive or negative transfer. The negative transfer (interference) leads to learning difficulties and errors and second language learning then consists of overcoming the differences between the first and second language system.

Littlewood (1984) proposed this instruction for language teachers, he says:

“...we compare the learner’s first and second language. We can predict the language items that will cause difficulty and errors that the learner could make. We can use repetitions and drills in order to overcome the interference and established the necessary new habits”. (Littlewood. 1984, p. 18)

Krashen (2003), on the other hand, made several researches in this area and the results, as he mentioned, are that:

“...the first language has the strongest influence in complex word order and in word-for-word translations of phrases. First language influence is weaker inbound morphology (e.g. omission of plurals on nouns, lack of subject-verb agreement, adjective-noun agreement). A first language influence seems to be strongest in acquisition poor environment.” (Krashen 2003, p. 65-66)

Krashen further compared his results to other researchers; one of them was Duskova (1969) which studied, written errors in the compositions by Czech students and concluded that interference from the mother tongue was plainly obvious in errors of word order and sentence construction and also that the errors inbound morphology are not due to first language influence in her Czech students of EFL.

2.3 Concept of Second Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a research field that focuses on learners and learning rather than teachers and teaching. In their best text, Selinker (2008, P.1) define SLA as “the study of how learners create a new language system”. As a research field,
they add that SLA is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned.

Some definitions would include a concern for both processes and products involved in how language is learned by a variety of disciplines such as linguistics, psychology, and education. These different influences are shown by Patten and Williams (2007) on their theories on SLA. The theories represented the multifaceted nature of SLA as well as the various parent disciplines that have come to inform research on language learning.

Looking at the various definitions of SLA, what emerges is a concern about learners and learning. The field of SLA addresses the fundamental questions of how learners come to internalize the linguistic system of another language and how they make use of that linguistic system during comprehension and speech production.

Finally, it can be said that a second language acquisition is typically an official or societal dominant language (e.g. English) needed for education, employment and other basic purposes. In Sudan, English is learnt as a second language that is not widely used in the learner’s immediate social context. But it might be used for other cross-cultural communication situations or studied as a curriculum requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or practical application necessary.

2.3.1 A Brief History of SLA

Contemporary research in SLA has its roots in two seminal publications. The first is Corder’s 1967 essay “The significance of learner’s Errors” concerned largely with teaching. Corder notes that advances in language instructions would not occur until they understood what language learners bring to the task of acquisition. Corder also made a distinction between input and intake. Defining input as the language that available from the environment, but intake as that language that actually makes its way into the learner’s developing competence.
A second seminal publication was the (1922) publication of Larry Selinker’s “Interlanguage”. Selinker argues that L2 learners possesses an internal linguistic system worthy of study in its own right. He called his system an “interlanguage” because the system was neither the L1 nor the L2, but something in-between that the learner as a building from environmental data.

2.3.1.1 The 1970s
The 1970s marked largely by descriptive studies that sought refuting behaviorism and to apply the basic ideas of Corder and Selinker. During this time, they focus on acquisition orders (morpheme studies) that replicated both the methodology and the findings of L1 acquisition research on transitional stages of competence, which again replicated important findings from L1 research. So learners possessed built-in syllabus that directed their course of development. This time period also gave birth to error analysis. From error analysis scholars began to minimize L1 influence n SLA.

2.3.1.2 The 1980s
By the early 1980s, Krashen’s ideas on acquisition were mainstream. He had posited that learners acquire language through interaction with language, more thorough comprehension of the input they are exposed to Krashen’s ideas left a good amount of acquisition unexplained and the 1980s, overall is marked by critical review of his ideas and the quest for more explanatory models about the specifics of acquisition. For example, If L1 influence is limited, why was it limited? If learners had a built-in syllabus, what was this built-in syllabus and where did it come from? And If all learners needed was exposed to input, why were so many L2 learners non-native-like after so many years of interaction with the language? At that time, SLA researchers began looking seriously at the nature of theories and what theories needed to do in order to explain SLA.

2.3.1.3 The 1990s
The 1990s witnessed the beginning of competing theoretical ideas and approaches regarding SLA. Two major approaches dominated the field: the application of linguistic
theory and the application of certain psychological approaches. The linguistic theoretical approach continued to be concerned with an adequate description of interlanguage as well as its explanations. Scholars in this camp focused on the nature of the learner’s internal mental representation and what constrained it. A central tenet of this approach is language. Scholars meant that language is uniquely human, is encapsulated in its own module in the mind/brain, and comes equipped from birth with a set of language-specific constraints called Universal Grammar. Thus, the acquisition was a particular kind of experience for humans that involved the interaction of Universal Grammar with data from the outside world.

On the other hand, scholars in the psychological camp tended to avoid any linguistic description of an interlanguage. Some of them went so far as to say that there was no mental representation at all interested largely in behavior. They are not concerned with underlying knowledge but more with what learners did with language. Because they believe that theories of behavior should be sufficient to account for SLA and thus there was no need to posit unique faculties of the mind that dealt exclusively of general human learning mechanisms with data from the outside world.

One theory that emerged in the 1990s and is concerned with educational practice was Sociocultural Theory. As an account of SLA, it dismissed both linguistic theory and cognitive theory as being too “mind/brain” oriented and instead situated the learner as an active agent in learning within particular social contexts.

2.3.1.4 The 2000s and Beyond
Both linguistic and cognitive approaches continue to dominate the field and it not expected to change in the near future. This is because of the great number of people working within these fields and also because of both camps enjoy outside the field of SLA. Linguistic theory is alive and well and is applied to a range of endeavors from child first language acquisition to natural language processing. And psychology as a discipline
is very well situated and has been for over a century. Thus, it is seen the field of the SLA staying largely focused on the mind/brain.

In the end, even those who take a strong social context approach to acquisition would have to admit that language is a property of the mind and although learning may happen through interaction, language ends up in the mind/brain of the learner.

2.3.2 Early Approaches to SLA

The researcher begins his survey with the Contrastive Analysis (CA), which predates the establishment in the 1960s of SLA as a field of systematic study. In addition, because the aspects of CA procedures are still incorporated in more recent approaches, and because CA introduced the influence of L1 on L2.

2.3.2.1 Contrastive Analysis

Saville & Troike (2006) define CA, as: “.. an approach to the study of SLA which involves predicting and explaining learner problems based on a comparison of L1 and L2 to determine similarities and differences.” They believe that CA is heavily influenced by Structuralism and Behaviorism theories which were dominated in linguistics and psychology through the 1940s and 1950s. They added, the goal of CA was primarily pedagogical in nature: to increase efficiency in L2 teaching and testing. Robert Lado states this clearly in 1957s. He says:

“... we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and the culture of the student”

Instructuralist linguistics, the focus of CA is on the surface forms of both L1 and L2 system, and on describing and comparing the languages one level at a time. A “bottom-up” priority for analysis is also expressed as a priority for language learning of structures before meaning. Charles Fries makes this priority very clear:
“... In learning a new language, the chief problem is not at first thought of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system.... It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language”

On the other hand, some scholars in behaviorist psychology assume that language acquisition essentially involves habit formation in a process of Stimulus – Response – Reinforcement (S-R-R). Learners respond to the stimulus, and reinforcement strengthens the response; they imitate and repeat the language that they hear, and when they are reinforced for that response, learning occurs. Another assumption of this theory is that there will be transfer in learning, this means the transfer of elements acquired in L1 to the target L2. Lado believes that, the transfer is called positive when the same structure is appropriate in both languages. But when the L1 structure is used inappropriate in the L2, the transfer is called negative or interference.

Further, Muriel and Troike think that, the CA approach of the 1940s to 1960s was not adequate for the study of SLA in part because the behaviorist learning theory cannot explain the logical problem of language learning. Another problem was that CA analysis were not always validated by evidence from actual learner errors.

2.3.2.2 Error Analysis

According to Muriel and Troike, Error Analysis (EA) is the first approach to the study of SLA which focuses on learners’ creative ability to construct language. It is based on the description and analysis of actual learner errors in L2, rather than an idealized linguistic structure attributed to native speakers of L1 and L2 as in (CA). Some linguists think that, EA replaced CA by the early 1970s because of the following developments:-

a) Predictions made by CA did not always materialize in actual learner errors. Perhaps, many real learner errors could not be attributed to transfer from L1 to L2.

b) The exclusive focus on surface-level forms and patterns by structural linguists shifted to concern for underlying rules.

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c) Learning processes became an important focus for study. So, researchers began to separate issues in SLA from pedagogical concerns.

The shift in primary focus from surface forms and patterns to underlying rules, and from Behaviorism to Mentalism, are attributable in large part to the revolution in linguistics which resulted from Noam Chomsky’s introduction of Transformational-Generative (TG Grammar from 1957 to 1965. (Muriel and Troike).

2.3.2.3 Interlanguage

Corder and Larry Selinker (1972) introduced the term Interlanguage (IL) “to refer to the intermediate states of a learner’s language as it moves toward the target L2”. Selinker and others taking this approach considered the development of the IL to be a creative process and influenced both by L1 and by input from the target language. Selinker (1972) stresses that there are differences between IL development in SLA and L1 acquisition by children, including different cognitive processes involved (from McLaughlin 1987. P:61):

i. Language transfer from L1 to L2.

ii. Transfer of training, or how the L2 is taught.

iii. Strategies of second language learning.

iv. Strategies of second language communication.

v. Overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material.

The concept of an IL as a system of learner language which is at least partially independent of L1 and L2 has been highly productive in the study of SLA. It is generally taken for granted now, although controversies remain concerning its specific nature and whether “progress” should be measured against native-speaker norms. (Eubank, Selinker 1988. P:76)
2.3.3 Stages of Second Language Acquisition

All new learners of English progress through the same stages to acquire language. However, the length of time each student spends on a particular stage may vary greatly.

2.3.3.1 Pre-production Stage

This is the silent period. English language learners may have up to 500 words in their receptive vocabulary, but they are not yet speaking. Some students will, however, repeat everything you say. They are not really producing language, but are parroting.

These new learners of English will listen attentively and they may even be able to copy words from the board. They will be able to respond to pictures and other visuals. They can understand and duplicate gestures and movements to show comprehension. Total Physical Response methods will work well with them. Teachers should focus attention on listening comprehension activities and on building a receptive vocabulary.

English language learners at this stage will need much repetition of English. They will benefit from a “friend” who speaks their language. But it should be remembered that the school day is exhausting for these newcomers as they are overwhelmed by listening to English language all day long.

2.3.3.2 Early Production Stage

This stage may last up to six months and students will develop a receptive and active vocabulary of about 1000 words. During this stage, students can usually speak in one- or two- word phrases. They can use short language that has been memorized although this language may not be used correctly. With respect to this stage, some suggestions would useful:

i. Asking yes/no either/or questions.

ii. Accept my one or two word responses.

iii. Give my students the opportunity to participate in some of the whole class activities.
iv. Use my pictures to support questions and build vocabulary.

v. Provide my listening activities.

vi. Simplify my the content materials to be used. Focus on key vocabulary and concepts.

vii. Support my learning with graphic organizers, charts and graphs. Gegin to foster writing in English through labeling and short sentences.

2.3.3.3 Speech Emergence Stage

The students have developed a vocabulary of about (3,000) words and can communicate with phrases and sentences. They will ask simple questions, that may or may not be grammatically correct, such as “May I go to the bathroom?”. They will understand easy stories which read in class with the support of pictures. They will also be able to do some content work with teacher support. The following are simple tasks that can complete:

i. Reading short, modified text in content area subjects.

ii. Completing graphic organizers with word banks.

iii. Understanding and answer questions about charts and graphics.

iv. Matching vocabulary words to definitions.

v. Understanding teacher explanations and two-step directions.

vi. Composing brief stories based on personal experience.

2.3.3.4 Intermediate Fluency Stage

English language learners at the intermediate fluency stage have a vocabulary of 6,000 active words. They are beginning to use more complex sentences when speaking and writing and are willing to express opinions and share their thoughts. They will ask questions to clarify what they are learning in class. These English language learners will be able to work in grade level math and science classes with some teacher support. Comprehension of English literature and social studies content increasing. At this stage, students will use strategies from their native language to learn content in English.

Student writing at this stage will have many errors as try to master the complexity English grammar and sentence structure. Many students may be translating written
assignments from the native language. They should be expected to synthesize what they have learned and to make inferences from that learning. This is the time for teachers to focus on learning strategies. Students in this stage will be able to understand more complex concepts.

2.3.3.5 Advanced Fluency Stage

It takes students from (4-10) years to achieve cognitive academic language proficiency in a second language. Students at this stage will be near-native in their ability to perform in content area learning. Most learners at this stage have been exited from ESL and other support programs. At the beginning of this stage, however, they will need continued support from classroom teachers, especially in content areas such as history/social studies and in writing.

2.3.4 Factors that Influencing the Acquisition of a Second Language

It is difficult to separate the elements of the affective domain, because they inevitably overlap. However, for the purposes of this discussion, affective factors will be divided into seven categories. They are: Acculturation, Ego, Personality, Emotion, Beliefs about Learning, Attitudes, and Motivation. Following each term is an explanation and a discussion based on the literature. Many of the authors treat more than one of the factors in their research. Table 2.1 lists the studies by first author (although many have more than one author) and year, and shows which factors are included in their studies.

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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Acculturation</th>
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Table (2.1) Factors in Second Language Acquisition by Different Authors
2.3.4.1 Acculturation

Acculturation is the degree to which the learner identifies with and integrates into the target language culture. This term is most often used when referring to immigrants and in an environment where the target language is spoken. It would not apply in a foreign language learning environment. Schumann (1998) says, “There are two sets of forces influencing acculturation, one social and one psychological or affective”. He believes that an immigrant group which feels either dominant or subordinate to the target language community will resist acquiring the language, but those who feel roughly equal will acculturate.

Abu-rabia (1996) thinks that the native speakers of English have generally made little attempt to acquire the language of the country in which they lived. In addition to that, he thinks, although there are practical reasons for learning enough of the dominant language to survive, members of the minority group may have negative attitudes towards the target language and resist acquiring it.

Abu-Rabia (1996) seems to support Schumann’s (1978) theory that identification with a target culture would result in language ability closer to that of the native speaker.
Affective factors (according to Schumann) would be the attitudes the individual has toward the target language community. A desire to communicate with the members of the target community would lead to increased competence, while negative feelings about them would not. Some researchers claim that culture influences the learner’s interlanguage.

2.3.4.2 Ego

The role of the ego in language learning is an important issue that has not received much objective study. A lack of complete competence in the interlanguage can affect the learner’s ego and self-concept. Oral skills and particularly pronunciation are components of language closely tied to personal identity. This is as true of one’s native language as of a second language.

According to Smit and Dalton (2000), “Pronunciation learning goes deeper than mere acquiring of something new: it encompasses the whole being and has an impact on the learner’s identity.” (p. 8) Learners may be reluctant to acquire the pronunciation of a native speaker. “To speak a L2 like a native is to take a drastic step into the unknown, accompanied by the unconscious fear of no return”. (Smit and Dalton. p. 9)

2.3.4.3 Personality

Personality features can also have a profound influence on second language achievement. Some of the personality features which have been studied in relation to language learning are: introverted/extroversion, self-confidence, willingness to communicate, willingness to take risks and seriousness. Although introverted students do well in most academic settings, for the language learner, extroversion most desirable feature, especially in a communicative classrooms (MacIntyre and Charos, 1996). Those who are not so sensitive and shy may do better, particularly in oral skills. Nevertheless, traditional classrooms emphasizing vocabulary and grammar still favor the introverted. (p. 9). Horwitz (1986, 127) notes that some personalities change in the second language. Normally talkative people are sometimes shy in a second language and shy
people are sometimes more outgoing, since it feels like they are acting or are really a different person.

Hassan (2001) studies extroversion/introversion in adult Egyptian students and the effect of these personality features on pronunciation accuracy. These native Arabic speakers were studying English as a foreign language in Egypt. He found that the extroverted students had more accurate pronunciation than those who were introverted. Although males were found to be more accurate than females, a smaller number of males in the study make it hard to generalize this result. He notes that previous researchers have found that extroverted learners prefer role plays, conversation and other interactive activities, while introverts like working alone or with one friend. (Oxford and Anderson, 1995; Hassan, p. 4)

The second feature in personality as a factor is a willingness to communicate. A desire to communicate and willingness to make mistakes and reach out to others is a necessary component of learning to speak another language. MacIntyre et al. (2002) investigate this factor stating that “Willingness to communicate is the one, overwhelming communication, personality constructs which permeate every facet of an individual’s life and contributes significantly to the social, educational, and organizational achievements of the individual”.

Self-confidence is another personality feature correlated with successful language learning. “Linguistic Self-Confidence” is included by Dornyei (1996,75) as one of three factors contributing to foreign language behavior and competence. He noted that “self-confidence is a powerful motivational process” in both multi-lingual and foreign language learning situations. According to Ehrman (1996) self-confidence correlated significantly within the end of training success and with a lack of anxiety. She also found self-confident learners to express a preference for open ended learning activities, while those with less confidence preferred to limit their own risk. (p. 92) This willingness to take risks is still another aspect of personality and confidence. For Samimy and Tabuse
(1992), risk-taking is one of a number of affective variables which influences learning. They found female graduate students to be the most willing risk-takers and also the more successful students.

Personality can also affect SLA. In combination with the environment, it can act to inhibit learners or to encourage increased opportunity. Introversion has the greatest chance of negatively affecting SLA. Students that are afraid of embarrassing themselves by speaking incorrectly or by not being able to speak at all may try to avoid opportunities that would otherwise aid their learning. If teachers correct mistakes and further embarrass shy students, it may isolate students even more. Instead, repeating back the corrected statement allows feedback without a damaging student's ego. For example, if Marcia says "Yesterday I go to the store with my Madre," the teacher would respond, "You went to the store with your mother yesterday?" She has effectively provided corrected input while also continuing the conversation. If a student shuts down after an outright correction, then opportunity for more input and practice has been lost.

All of these external and internal characteristics affect the way in which language is acquired by the brain. Increased input, lowered anxiety, strong integrative motivation and positive environments can help processes of language acquisition progress. It is an interesting overlap between the physical processes of the brain and the more mental processes of the mind. While language acquisition is ultimately completed and stored in the brain, emotional and environmental factors greatly affect the process by which it is acquired. Because these factors and many others all interact in the acquisition of language, it is incredibly difficult to research the effect of one specific aspect. Many studies have ignored this fact and have tried to attribute too much weight to one factor, while others have undoubtedly affected the outcomes. Since single factors and how they affect acquisition cannot be completely isolated, research should be concentrated on the outcomes of certain teaching techniques. They will not be universally applicable, but will help to eliminate less effective or damaging techniques. This area of teaching will be increasingly important as our world continues to become more bilingual and multilingual.
2.3.4.4 Emotion

Emotion is a subject which has received even less objective study in the field of language learning, although it may underlie cognition. “There is a link between the physical pathways in the brain for transmitting emotions and the chemicals the brain produces for everyday learning and memory.” (Christison, 1999, p. 8) In addition, negative emotions cause blood to flow away from the neocortex (area of logical thought) in the limbic area, making rational decisions impossible. Positive emotions would seem to have an effect on the learning experience, both in the classroom and in a target language environment. Warm feelings about the teacher, the other students and one’s own security may support learning, while anxiety, particularly about negative judgments when performing in the TL, may inhibit learning. In contrast to positive emotions, negative emotions seem to have an adverse effect on learning. Anxiety, a negative emotion, has been the subject of some study. Ehrman (1996) included “anxiety” as one of three affective variables in her study of adult Foreign Service Institute learners.

2.3.4.5 Learner Beliefs about Learning

The beliefs the learner has about the nature of learning and about his/her own abilities also influence the learning which actually takes place. For example, if a student believes that language ability is innate rather than the result of hard work, he/she may easily give up.

Mori (1999, 408) investigates this phenomenon in detail. Beliefs studied were: fixed ability, simple knowledge, quick learning, and omniscient authority. Her study reveals that “Interestingly, the effects of learner beliefs on learning seem to exist independently of one’s ability to learn. She further states that “…this study demonstrates that a strong belief in innate ability is associated with lower achievement. However, she concludes that, since beginning and advanced learners had different beliefs, “the findings of this study do suggest that learner beliefs might be modifiable.” (1999, p: 409) Since beliefs do change over time, she believes teachers may be able to influence learner beliefs for the
benefit of learning. She suggests that “... teachers may need to provide an achievable, meaningful learning task.”

2.3.4.6 Attitude
Attitudes are social as well as the emotional aspect of an individual learner. The perception of the value of learning the language, opinions and attitudes toward the TL, the culture, the people and the learning situation itself (including the teacher, the classroom and the teaching method) all may influence learning to some degree. Schumann (1998, p:2) says that: “The appraisal mechanism guides SLA. It appraises the teacher, method and syllabus, as well as the target language, its speakers and the culture in which it is used.”

According to Dornyei (1994), “attitude” is quite separate from “motivation” although some researchers tend to combine these two affective factors or to do attitude an aspect of motivation (Gardner, 1979, Smit & Dalton, 2000). In the field of psychology, these two terms come from different branches. “Attitude” is a sociological term and an aspect of the social context, while “motivation” is the subject of investigation for psychologists looking at the individual’s instinct, drive, arousal and needs. (Dornyei, 1994, p. 274) Gardner (1980) gives several definitions of attitude. “Attitude is an inference which is made on the basis of a complex of beliefs about the attitude object.” (p. 267) He also quotes Thurstone (1928) says: “The concept ‘attitude’ will be used here to denote the sum total of a man’s instincts and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, fears, threats and convictions about any specified topic.” (p. 267)

One researcher specifically concerned with attitude and its relation to achievement is Elliott. He attempted to measure the relationship of several variables to skill and achievement in pronunciation. Elliot did conclude, as a result of this study, that instruction is more effective than non-instructional, but whether or not attitude is related to achievement after instruction was still not clear. Although field independence and attitude were factors related to a better pronunciation before instruction, they were not related to improvement. “The findings revealed that neither field independence nor subject concern
for pronunciation accuracy were significant predictors of improvement in pronunciation”. (p. 530) He did find that, before additional instruction, “.. attitude or concern for pronunciation accuracy proved to be the most significant factor” in pronunciation accuracy. (p. 356)

Lori and Al-Ansari (2001) did one of the few studies with children. Their study in Bahrain measured the attitudes of native Arabic speaking nine year olds towards English. As well as attitudinal and motivational variables, they measured sociocultural variables such as previous experience with English, foreign friends and travel. They found motivation to be high and attitudes toward English overwhelmingly positive. In spite of learning English in an FLA environment, many of the children had contact with English speaking maids in the home and had heard English games and stories. The researchers say that although this was correlated with positive attitudes, it may be that having a maid was simply a sign that the family was more educated and in a higher income bracket and for this reason would be more likely to encourage contact with the outside world. (p. 98)

2.3.4.7 Motivation
Motivation plays a very crucial role in all learning behavior. Lambert identifies two kinds of motivation, namely instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. A learner with the integrative motivation learns a second language in order to become a full-fledged member of the community whose language is learnt as a second language. A learner with an instrumental motivation learns a second language in order to achieve certain functional ends. It is found that a learner with an integrative motivation learns his second language more successful than the one who has an instrumental motivation. The integrative motivation is linked with personality. The learner must be prepared to evolve an identity for himself with persons who speak the target language. He must be prepared to accept the aspect of the behavior of the target community. When an individual has a prejudice against the language he is learning and the people who speak it, has a tendency to self-sufficiency, his acquisition of a second language may be hampered. The integrative language learning leads to the acquisition of a new set of verbal habits which
are linked with the culture of the target community. As a result the learner becomes a member of two cultures.

A learner’s motivation and purpose for learning a language would seem to be an important factor in the eventual competency achieved. Motivation is found in the research to be a combination of many factors. It includes the purpose for learning, such as travel, friendship, self-development, career success, and includes intrinsic as well as extrinsic elements. In some ways, all of the above affective factors combine to form the motivation (or lack of it) toward the goal of language learning. A definitive explanation of motivation can not be given. More explanation will be given to motivation as an important factor in SLA later on in this chapter.

A person’s motivation behind learning a second language (L2) and the views she holds regarding the L2-speaking community, both come into play in speed of SLA and degree of proficiency achieved. Motivation is differentiated along a continuum-- integrative at one end and instrumental on the other. Integrative motivation is seen in language learners whose desire to learn is rooted in wanting to become part of the L2-speaking community, wants more contact with it, or is genuinely interested in it. On the other end of the spectrum is instrumental motivation. A student who sees language as a means to obtaining some reward (good grades, employment, a diploma or for mere appreciation) would reflect instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation is more helpful in SLA and proficiency because there is more desire for interaction with the community and the language that helps acquisition. Those students with mainly instrumental motivation are less likely to seek out situations where their language skills will be needed and will be improved, like social occasions in the L2 community, readings in the L2, or friends in the L2 community. In addition, students with low views of the L2 community are likely to not see benefits in learning the language. If a language community is associated with poverty, crime or other negative characteristics, there is less motivation for students to be associated with that community.
2.3.4.8 Opportunity
Opportunity and motivation work together to affect language acquisition. Motivated students are more likely to seek out more opportunities that utilize language skills. Stephen Krashen has argued that "the learner improves and progresses... when he or she receives second language input that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to 'comprehensible input' that belongs to level 'i+1'”. The learner can still follow the conversation, but is exposed to new words or concepts. Many theorists and teachers stress that varied and frequent comprehensible input is key to acquisition. It would make sense that the number of the opportunities the brain has to store and reinforce patterns, accents, concepts, and meanings of a language, that the better this information would be stored and processed.

2.3.4.9 Environment
The environment in which these opportunities take place also affects SLA. As explored before, the level of input provided has maximum effect at the 'i+1' level, In addition to this, an environment which encourages the greatest amount of use of the language is beneficial. Dulay and Burt proposed that people use an 'affective filter' that "regulates how much input is received by a language processing mechanism". If the affective filter is over-used, a person tries to compose grammatically perfect sentences every time she speaks, and if it is under-used she speaks without regard to the 'rules' she is aware of. The optimal user of the affective filter speaks naturally and often and eventually incorporates more rules into her speech. In this way, the brain is provided with more experience and input while also progressing toward more fluent speech.

2.3.5 Psychological and Social Factors in Second Language Acquisition
Humans have a capacity to acquire human languages. This capacity enables them to abstract and internalize the rules underlying the materials to which they are exposed as children. Exposure is very important to activate the innate capacity, which enables people to acquire language. If a child is not exposed to human language within the critical period (puberty age), the ability to acquire language is lost. Second language learning begins
usually after the instinctive capacity for language acquisition has matured to some extent. So, one must take into account the psychological and social factors which may facilitate or hamper the acquisition of a second language.

First language acquisition is part of the socialization process the child is undergoing and is an important tool for the acquisition and stabilization of concepts. The child acquires his first language so as to become a member of the community he is born in. He is influenced by the behavior of his elders. On the other hand, second language learning requires some adjustments with the culture imparted through the language. His habits, intelligence, aptitude, attitudes, motivation and other psychological and linguistic factors may facilitate his learning or may inhibit him from learning the second language. Briefly, it can be said, personality factors and motivation play a very important role in the acquisition of a second language.

2.3.6 Internal and External Factors

The continuous growth and loss in SLA is influenced by a whole range of factors. Not only the type and amount of contact with a language, but also individual factors such as age, attitude, motivation, intelligence, and earlier learning experience are important. Some students learn a new language more quickly and easily than others. This simple fact is known by all who learned or taught a second language. So, some language learners are successful with their hard work and persistence. However, there are other crucial factors influence success and can be categorized as internal and external.

2.3.6.1 Internal Factors

Internal factors are those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation.

2.3.6.1.1 Age

SLA is influenced by the age of the learner. Children seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. While older learners usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation.
2.3.6.1.2 Personality
Anxious learners usually make slow progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to speak. More outgoing students will not worry about making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice.

2.3.6.1.3 Motivation
Intrinsic motivation has been found to correlate strongly with educational achievement. Clearly, students who enjoy language learning will do better than those who do not.

2.3.6.1.4 Experiences
Learners who have acquired general knowledge and experience are in a strong position to develop a new language than those who haven’t.

2.3.6.1.5 Cognition
Some linguists believe that there’s a specific, innate language learning ability that is stronger in some students than in others. Therefore, students with greater cognitive abilities will make faster progress.

2.3.6.1.6 Native Language
Students who are learning a second language as their first language have a much easier task than those who aren’t.

2.3.6.2 External Factors
External factors are those that characterize the particular language learning situation.

2.3.6.2.1 Curriculum
For ESL students in particular, it is important that the totality of their educational experience is appropriate for their needs.

2.3.6.2.2 Instructions
The students will make faster progress when their language teachers are providing them appropriate and effective learning experience.

2.3.6.2.3 Culture and Status
There is some evidence that students in situations where their own culture as a lower status than that of the culture in which they are learning the language make slower progress.
2.3.6.2.4 Motivation

Students who are given continuing, appropriate encouragement to learn from their teachers and parents will generally fare better than those who aren’t.

2.3.7 Neurophysiological Constraints on Second Language Acquisition

There have been speculations about what is possible and what is impossible for humans to learn second language. It is a known fact that humans can and do learn languages other than their own first language. Acquisition of the first language usually takes for granted, whereas the learning of a second language is generally considered non-automatic, if not, artificial in some sense. The perceptible difference in the quality of acquisition of second languages by children on the one hand and the adults on the other, so clearly in the difficulty usually an adult face in the acquisition of a good pronunciation has led to many speculations including neurophysiological ones. Some consider that such adult difficulties in the acquisition of a second language should be ascribed to neurophysiological constraints which set with puberty.

Lenneberg (1967) finds that at the age of puberty, the power of automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a language seems to disappear, even though a person can still learn to communicate in a foreign language. It is common experience in all over the world that many illiterate adults learn new languages, when they have to, through a mere exposure. This indicates that even the adults face essentially the same task that children too. They have to discover the structure of the language on the basis of spoken text materials to which they are exposed. It is true that pronunciation difficulties may increase after puberty.

2.3.8 Mastery of Second Language

We say that a person has learned a language when he is able to use its structure with attention focused more on content than on the structure. He should be able to recall the structures and use them at normal speed, should have a normal memory span for the language structures and should be in a position to identify ordinary errors based on the
practice he has had. This demand on the learner of a second language puts the entire business of second learning as rather distinct from other learning tasks in which one considers that learning has taken place if the process is reversed, recalled or recognized. Such an acquisition components for different persons. Learning theories and linguistics can provide indirect support for the acquisition of a second language in many ways, such as, the description of the articulatory organs involved in the production of an utterance and their movement, phonetic transcription, by providing synonyms and near synonyms, comparison of the structures of the second language with those of the first language, by controlling the content and the structures in a gradual and graded manner.

2.3.9 Structural Linguists and Second Language Acquisition

Structural linguists in generally assumed that the discovery procedures they employ in the identification and description of a language are convertible for the exposure should be prepared and made available accordingly. Further, they assume that the levels they posit for language as a general phenomenon and the specific structures they establish for a specific language should govern the teaching of the second language and exposure materials be prepared and introduced accordingly. They suggest that one should teach listening and speaking first before teaching reading and writing. The learner must be enabled to perceive all the contrasts between phonemes of the second language. He should be enabled to pronounce the phonemes of the second language in such a way that the native speaker of that language can perceive the learner’s use of the sound system as rather to his own use. The methods involve repeated practice of the patterns involved introduction of items as a single group if the same process is involved in the derivation of the items use of drills and exercises for each and every structure of the language and so on.

Imitation and memorization are stressed upon. Hence the teacher is asked to provide good models to the students to enable them to achieve good imitations. The learners are asked to memorize the basic sentence structures. As the normal use of language in face communication is a conversation, the materials for the learning of a second language usually take the form of conversations. However, the objectives of the course determine
the kind of exposure materials. As language is considered a system of habits, the emphasis is upon the shaping and forming of habits through pattern practice. The vocabulary load is kept to the minimum while students are in the process of learning the sound and grammatical patterns of the second language. New vocabulary is presented a familiar grammatical matrix. Briefly, the practice is to emphasize the focus on an item from the point of view of the well known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex.

The patterns are taught gradually in cumulative and cyclical, graded steps. Cumulative because an attempt is made to utilize all the patterns introduced earlier to the present task. Cyclical because an attempt is made to enable the student to go back to the old structures for further practice, reinforcement and stabilization. The teacher is asked to bear in mind that habits are acquired slowly and with such an acquisition must be organized in a systematic fashion.

Linguists suggest that the second language learning may begin with sentences, other components introduced as part of the sentence structure. This is done because the sub-sentence elements do not have independent stats.

2.3.10 Rate of Acquisition and Retention of Second Languages

The first language is not learned by everybody with the same rate of acquisition. There are individual differences in the degree of success with regard to the acquisition of different components of language. It is possible that such differences get reflected in the acquisition of a second language, at least at the beginning stages of acquisition. Intelligence may also influence language learning in so far as it is concerned with the grasping of patterns, guessing meanings from the context. Good auditory memory span enables a learner to acquire good recognition. Instruction is not effective if the individual is not ready to receive it. Emotional attachment to a particular language can help learning it. The drive with which individual is determined to learn a language is another important factor in the acquisition of a second language.
The age of the learner, his intentions, experience, the material, the context and the methods used for learning the language, the quantum of practice and repetition put into the learning and the amount of time that elapsed after the learning, facilitate or hamper the retention of the language. Memory, in general, increases during the first two decades of life and a slow decline is noticed from the forties onwards.

Learning must be thorough in order to retain what is learned for a longer period; repetition is the most important factor for this. Further active repetition rather than passive repetition (speaking rather than listening, writing rather than reading) contributes to retention. When a person has more experience with the second language, it becomes relatively easier for him to retain and remember what is learned. When what the learner has learned has relevance to his needs and the demands of the situation confronted by the learned, he will be able to remember the materials more readily. The familiar word sequences and word connections help a learner to retain and remember what is learned. An understanding of the system and the way it works enables the learner as to what he should expect in a context. This awareness contributes to the retention of language.

2.3.11 Second Language Acquisition in Adults

Second language acquisition (SLA) is the study of how second language learners are learned and the factors that influence the process. SLA researchers examine how communicative competence understands cultural references, use strategies to keep communication from breaking down, and apply the rules of grammar-development in a second language. (Savignon, 1997). They also study nonlinguistic influences on SLA such as age, anxiety, and motivation. Hence, the researcher will show how SLA can inform adult English as a second language (ESL) instruction. Three areas of second language acquisition will be discussed: the effect of learner motivation, the role of interaction, and the role of vocabulary.
2.3.11.1 The Learner Motivation in SLA

Motivation has been a focus of SLA research for many years. Dornyei identifies motivation as “why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it”. Linguist Robert supports the theory that integrative motivation promotes SLA. This motivation seems to promote SLA regardless of the age of the learner or whether the language is being learned as a second or foreign language. Even if individuals do not have this positive attitude toward learning the language, they may want to learn the language to meet their needs and goals, such as to get a job. Whatever the learner’s motivation seems to support the practice of teachers discovering and responding to learners’ needs and goals when planning instruction.

Teachers can facilitate motivation by helping learners identify short-term goals and reflect on their progress and achievements. For example, teachers can provide learners with self-assessment checklists to identify skill strengths and weaknesses to help learners build autonomy and take charge of their learning.

Teachers also look at how instructional contexts also affect motivation. Dornyei believes that motivation may vary from day to day and even from task to task. In addition to that, using varied and challenging instructional activities helps learners stay focused and engaged on instructional content. He suggests that social factors (e.g. group dynamic, learning environment, and a partner’s motivation) affect a learner’s attitude, effort, classroom behavior, and achievement. Therefore, teachers should create an environment that is conducive to learning by encouraging group cohesion in the classroom. Pair and group work activities can provide learners with opportunities to share information and build a sense of community.

Dornyei also suggests that teachers cultivate opportunities that continue stimulate language use when learners are not in class. Because he thinks project work provides learners with a bridge between practice in and outside of class. In addition, Mass and Van Duizer believe that projects provide opportunities for learners to work with others to
accomplish tasks, using English in real-life situations. Finally, it can be said that instructional practices that teachers use to generate and maintain learner motivation and strategies through which learners themselves take control of factors that have an impact on their motivation and learning, such as lack of self-confidence, change of goals, or distractions.

2.3.11.2 The Role of Interaction in SLA

Another area of SLA focuses on how interaction contributes to second language acquisition. Ellis says “Interaction refers to communication between individuals, particularly when they are negotiating meaning in order to prevent a breakdown in communication”. While Long states that conversational interaction facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, and output in productive ways. The interaction provides learners with opportunities to receive comprehensible input and feedback as well as to make changes in their own linguistic output. This allows learners to “notice the gap” between their command of the language and correct, or target-like, use of the language. Empirical research with second language learners supports the contention that engages in language interactions facilitates second language development. Findings from a study to determine how conversational interaction affects the acquisition of acquisition formation indicate that interaction can increase the pace of acquisition.

Bygate has used tasks to understand both the second language learning and teaching processes. Task-based teaching provides learners with opportunities for learner-to-learner interactions that encourage the authentic use of language and meaningful communication. Ellis says “The goal of a task is to exchange meaning other than to learn the second language”. Dought and Pica suggest that learners produce longer sentences and negotiate meaning more often in pair and group work than in teacher-fronted instruction. Interactive tasks may be most successful when they contain elements that

i. are new or unfamiliar to the participants;

ii. require learners to exchange information with their parents or group members;
iii. have a specific outcome;
iv. involve details;
v. involve the use of naturally occurring conversation and narrative discourse.

2.3.11.3 The Role of Vocabulary in SLA

World knowledge is an essential component of communicative competence, and it is important for production and comprehension in a second language. Qian shows that vocabulary knowledge is the size of the vocabulary and the depth of vocabulary, which includes knowledge of pronunciation, spelling, multiple meanings, the contexts in which the word can be used, the frequency with which it is used, morphological and syntactical properties, and how the word combines with other words.

Another important point is that some linguists have focused on incidental vocabulary—vocabulary that second language learners develop while focused on a task other than on learning new words. However, learners need to understand about 3,000 word families in order to understand the meaning from context. Teachers can help learners build sight vocabulary by teaching word families and using word association activities such as semantic mapping. In semantic mapping, teachers identify key terms in a text and learners list other words in the text that relate to the key terms. Burt suggests that learners gain vocabulary knowledge through extensive reading. Teachers should include reading opportunities in class and assist learners in selecting texts that are of high interest and level appropriate. They should preview the key vocabulary in a reading passage, teach high-frequency words, and help learners use dictionaries effectively. Active meaning negotiation seems to have a positive effect on vocabulary acquisition. Teachers can provide learners, with multiple opportunities to use new vocabulary in tasks such as those involving problem solving and information gap. Finally, giving students the opportunity to interact with the teacher and with each other and teaching language forms and vocabulary in the context of meaningful learning activities are all ways in which second language acquisition is applied in the classroom.
2.4 Stephen Krashen and Second Language Acquisition

Stephen Krashen is an expert in the field of linguistics, specializing in theories of language acquisition and development. Much of his recent research has involved the study of non-English and bilingual language acquisition. He had been developing his ideas over a number of years. He explains the twin processes of language teaching and learning.

2.4.1 Stephen Krashen’s Theory of Second Language Acquisition

This point will present major models of SLA based on the findings described earlier. The models of SLA are deeply rooted in the approaches to language acquisition. Some of them are directly based on a particular approach (Anderson’s model strongly connected with cognitivism) while others refer to some aspects of different approaches (Krashen’s model referring to innatist and interactionist theory).

The model proposed by Krashen (1981) is an attempt to reconcile claims to be the first comprehensive theory of SLA. Mariusz Trawinski says: “In his model, Krashen shares some views presented by Chomsky in his Universal Hypothesis, especially the idea of the mental processing of the input and constructing personal meaning by the learner”. So, Krashen shows the following major claims:

i. Learners construct an internal representation of the language they are learning.

ii. The internal representation develops in predictable stages towards the full language system.

iii. Language development depends on the quality of language input.

iv. Language output is only on the outcome of the learning process and not the cause of learning.

Much has been made of Krashen’s theory of SLA, which consists of five main hypotheses: The acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis.

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2.4.1.1 The Acquisition Learning Hypothesis

The acquisition-learning distinction is the most fundamental of all the hypothesis in Krashen’s theory and the most widely known among linguists and language practitioners. According to Krashen there are two independent systems of second language performance “the acquired system” and “the learned system”. The “acquired system” or “acquisition” is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquired their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language- natural communication – in which speakers are concentrate not on the form of their utterances, but in the communicative act. Whereas, The “learned system” or “learning” is the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge about the language, for example, knowledge of grammar rules. According to Krashen “learning” is less important than “acquisition”.

Krashen distinguishes two processes through which a second language can be mastered: First, learning-a conscious process of study, analysis, attention to form and error correction, usually taking place in classroom settings, leading to gathering metalinguistic knowledge. Second, acquisition-a subconscious process similar to L1 acquisition, with attention to meaning, taking place during meaningful interaction, usually in natural settings, leading to automatic language use.

Acquisition is considered to be more valuable as it leads to natural, fluent language use. According to Krashen, learning plays an important role in the process of monitoring and self-correction of the produced utterance. Krashen also claims that learning and acquisition are separate processes and learning can not turn into acquisition. Mariusz Trawinski thinks that acquired and learnt knowledge is also stored separately. Acquired language is stored in the hemisphere of the brain in the language areas where it is available for automatic processing. Learnt knowledge is also stored in the left hemisphere, but not necessarily in the language area.
According to Mariusz Trawinski, the following diagram shows the role of learning/acquisition in language production:

```
Learnt system

Acquired system  Utterance
```

**Figure 2.2. Learning and Acquisition in Language Production**

### 2.4.1.2 The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning and defines the influence of the latter on the former. The monitoring function is the practical result of the learned grammar.

According to Krashen, the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the ‘monitor’ or the ‘editor’. The ‘monitor’ acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/her disposal, he/she focuses on a form or thinks about correctness, and he/she knows the rule.

It appears that the role of conscious learning is somewhat limited in second language performance. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor is- or should be- minor, being used only to correct deviations from ‘normal’ speech and to give speech a more ‘polished’ appearance. Learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor, or editor. Learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance, after it has been "produced" by the acquired system. This can happen before we speak or write, or after (self-correction). Figure 2.1 models this process.
Conscious learning is available only as a "Monitor", which can alter the output of the acquired system before or after the utterance is actually spoken or written. It is the acquired system which initiates normal, fluent speech utterances. Krashen also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to ‘monitor’ use. He distinguishes those learners that use the ‘monitor’ all the time (over-users); those learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users); and those learners that use the ‘monitor’ appropriately (optimal users). An evaluation of the person’s psychological profile can help to determine to what group they belong. Usually extroverts are under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. Lack of self-confidence has been frequently related to the over-use of the ‘monitor’.

The learnt system functions as a monitor for the produced utterances, the device used for editing language production. Krashen specifies three conditions for monitor use:

i. Sufficient time.

ii. Focus on form.

iii. Knowing the rule.

Monitoring is considered to be an important element of language production, however, monitor over-use may lead to hyper-accuracy at the cost of fluency of an utterance. Similarly, monitor under-use may lead the break of communication as a result of the amount of errors in an utterance.
2.4.1.3 The Natural Order

The Natural Order hypothesis based on research findings which suggest that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a ‘natural order’ which is predictable. For a given language, some grammatical structures tend to be acquired early while others late. This order seemed to be independent of the learners’ age, L1 background, conditions of exposure, and although the agreement between individual carriers was not always 100% of the studies, there were statistically significant similarities that reinforced the existence of a Natural Order of language acquisition.

Krashen however points out that the implication of the natural order hypothesis is not that a language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition. Analyzing the findings of the morpheme studies, Krashen claims that learners pass through similar stages in development and language is acquired in a predictable order: some language rules acquired earlier, others later.

The order of acquisition does not depend on the order in which the language rules are presented to the learner. Similarly, the order of rule acquisition does not depend on the relative complexity of a particular rule: some complex rules are acquired earlier than simple ones, e.g. the rule for –s to the third person singular in the present simple tense is one if the last to be acquired. The similarity of the language acquisition sequence in different learners is explained by the existence of cognitive organizers the role of which is to sort out the incoming information to build the language system. In this respect – according to Mariusz Trawinski – “Krashen seems to be close to Chomsky’s idea of LAD.”

The following table shows the order of L1 acquisition in English morphemes, based on the Harvard Study (Brown 1873):

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### Table 2.2 Order of L1 Acquisition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Morpheme</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Present Progressive –ing</td>
<td>He is sitting down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Preposition ‘in’</td>
<td>The mouse is in the box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Preposition ‘on’</td>
<td>The book is on the table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Plural –s</td>
<td>The dogs an away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Past irregular</td>
<td>The boy went home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Possessive –s</td>
<td>The girl’s dog big.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Uncontractible copula ‘be’</td>
<td>Are they boys or girls?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Articles ‘a – an’ / ‘the’</td>
<td>He has a book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Past regular –ed</td>
<td>He jumped he stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Third person regular –s</td>
<td>He runs very fast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Third person irregular ‘has’ / ‘does’</td>
<td>Does the dog bark?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Uncontractible auxiliary ‘be’</td>
<td>Is he running?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Contractible copula ‘be’</td>
<td>That’s a Spaniel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Contractible auxiliary ‘be’</td>
<td>They’re running very slowly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following diagram shows proposed natural order for L2 acquisition:

```
- ing
  plural
  copula
  auxiliary
  article
```
2.4.1.4 The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis is Krashen’s attempt to explain how the learner acquires a second language. In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen’s explanation of how second language acquisition takes place. So, the input hypothesis is only concerned with ‘acquisition’, not ‘learning’.

According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the ‘natural order’ when he/she receives second language ‘input’ that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner at stage ‘i’, then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to ‘comprehensible Input’ that belongs to level ‘i + 1’. Since not all of the learners can be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that ‘natural communicative input’ is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some ‘i + 1’ input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence.

Krashen believes that language is acquired only if the language is understandable for the learner. Comprehensible input is a necessary condition for language acquisition and it means that the input contains language forms just beyond the learner’s language competence. Krashen uses the formula $i + 1$ for comprehensible input, claiming that input below or on the level of the learner does not lead to language development, and the input
much beyond the level of the learner’s competence is ignored by the learner as incomprehensible, which again does not lead to language acquisition.

2.4.1.5 The Affective Filter

The Affective Filter hypothesis, embodies Krashen’s view that a number of ‘affective variables’ play a facilitative role in second language acquisition. These variables include: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that leaners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and low level of anxiety are better equipped or successful in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and debilitating anxiety can combine to ‘raise’ the affective filter and form a ‘mental block’ that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is ‘up’ it impedes language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary, but not sufficient on its own, for acquisition to take place.

Affective filter is an emotional barrier which prevents the learner from receiving the input from the environment. This emotional barrier may be caused by negative attitudes towards the language or the learning process, lack of motivation, or just negative emotional/physical states (e.g. Stress). By blocking the access of comprehensible input, the affective filter blocks the process of language acquisition. That is why Krashen places much importance in the conditions in which the language learning process takes place.

The following diagram presents the process of second language acquisition in the view of Krashen’s Monitor Model:

Diagram 2.5: SLA in Krashen’s Monitor Model
According to the previous diagram Mariusz Trawinski (P:73) says that: “Krashen’s Monitor Model was very influential, especially that most of his claims seem to be logical, reflecting the experience of SLA teachers and learners. It was developed into the Natural Approach, which is the classroom approach based on Krashen’s hypotheses”.

On the other hand, Mariusz Trawinski thinks that the Model was also strongly criticized for the lack of adequate scientific research supporting the hypotheses. It is practically impossible to find out which part of the language has been acquired and which has been learnt, or which of the two is being used at a given moment. In addition to that, there is no scientific evidence for the use of ‘monitor’: is the language produced by the learner at a given moment monitored or not? Is it really true that incomprehensible input does not affect language acquisition if small children during the first months of their lives, do not comprehend the language but still acquire some elements of it? It is also not clear whether the affective factors really affect language acquisition or maybe the opposite. Success in acquisition leads to a ‘lowered affective filter’. So, Mariusz Trawinski says: “The Monitor Model still needs a comprehensive scientific analysis”.

Finally, Krashen’s Monitor Model of SLA can be summarised in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Krashen’s Monitor Model of SLA</th>
<th>Defining Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Acquisition / Learning hypothesis</td>
<td>- There are two distinct ways of ‘learning’ a language; one is by using language in ‘real’ communication (subconscious acquisition); the other is by consciously studying it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The Input hypothesis (I + 1)</td>
<td>- Humans acquire language in only one way by understanding messages received as ‘comprehensible input’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. The Affective Filter hypothesis
- A kind of affective mental block which prevents language input from reaching the language acquisition device.

4. The Natural Order hypothesis
- The rules of language are acquired in a natural, predictable manner.

5. The Monitor hypothesis
- Conscious ‘learning’ or study can serve only as a monitor, or language ‘editor’.

2.4.2 The Role of Grammar in Krashen's View

According to Krashen, the study of the structure of the language can have general educational advantages and values that high schools and colleges may want to include in their language programs. It should be clear, however, that examining irregularity, formulating rules and teaching complex facts about the target language is not language teaching, but rather is "language appreciation" or linguistics.

The only instance in which the teaching of grammar can result in language acquisition (and proficiency) is when the students are interested in the subject and the target language is used as a medium of instruction. Very often, when this occurs, both teachers and students are convinced that the study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition, and the teacher is skillful enough to present explanations in the target language so that the students understand. In other words, the teacher talk meets the requirements for comprehensible input and perhaps with the students' participation the classroom becomes an environment suitable for acquisition. Also, the filter is low in regard to the language of explanation, as the students’ conscious efforts are usually on the subject matter, on what is being talked about, and not the medium.

This is a subtle point. In effect, both teachers and students are deceiving themselves. They believe that it is the subject matter itself, the study of grammar, that is responsible for the students' progress, but in reality their progress is coming from the medium and not the message. Any subject matter that held their interest would do just as well.
2.5 Anderson’s Adaptive Control of Thought Model (ACT)

Anderson’s model (1976) is closely related to cognitive psychology, but it is designed to account for language learning. The ACT model explains second language acquisition in terms of general skill learning. Learning a language involves transforming declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge which enables efficient language use. Therefore, the whole ACT model is based on the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge.

Declarative knowledge is what is known about a particular problem. Declarative knowledge is: Static, Conscious, and Based on definitions and rules.

In this area, MariuszTrawinski says: “Declarative knowledge is stored in memory as a representation independent of any language in a form of propositional network or schemata separately for each language domain. As a result, one might be proficient in”. So, he believes that this type of storage makes it possible for both languages to share the same propositional network or schemata. He thinks some skills learnt in L1 are normally transferred to L2 and do not require additional learning.

The storage of language-independent concepts in long-term memory means that the process of selecting a specific language to express the concept takes place in short-term memory just before language production.

Schemata stored in long-term memory are organized either by natural categories or by events. The first group of schemata is considered to be easily transferred between languages, the second one being too culturally specific to be transferable.

The propositional network consists of the basic unit (node) and its relations/arguments (links), e.g. the node: animals is connected with the links: mammals, birds, fish, etc.. This hierarchical organization has certain advantages, spreading activation and building up interconnected schemata by joining propositional networks, enabling the learner to make
inferences about concepts, organize, and understand new information independently of a specific language. (O’Malley, 1990).

Declarative Knowledge should be simple, accurate, and generalizable as it is going to be the basis for proceduralisation. Procedural knowledge is about how to do something. It is the ability to generate language or to solve a problem. Procedural knowledge is:

i. dynamic
ii. activated without awareness
iii. developed through extensive practice (activating declarative knowledge).

On this point, Mariusz Trawinski states: “Procedural Knowledge is stored in a form of production systems, which refer to all processes (not only language) and, in their most basic form, contain a condition (if) and an action (then), e.g. IF the goal is to indicate that object X belongs to me THEN say ‘My X’. (Johnson 1996:95). According to Anderson, language components of procedural knowledge consist of:

i. Reception procedures (e.g. inferencing)
ii. Production procedures (e.g. monitoring)
iii. Conversational procedures (e.g. discourse rules)
iv. Communication strategies
v. Learning strategies

Anderson distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge has three implications for SLA:

a) the extension of procedural knowledge to language acquisition.
b) the possibility of transfer of declarative and procedural knowledge between L1 and L2.
c) the necessity of possessing both types of knowledge for successful SLA.
d) the requirement of different teaching techniques for either type of knowledge.
Actually, Anderson’s model views the learning process as a sequence consisting of three phases (Johnson 1996: 95):

- **Declarative encoding** ➔ **procedural encoding** ➔ **tuning**

**Diagram2.6: Anderson’s Model**

According to Anderson (1980) the process of transition of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge takes place in three stages: Cognitive Stage, Associative Stage and Autonomous Stage.

### 2.5.1 Cognitive Stage

Cognitive Stage involves conscious activity on the part of the learner who receives instructions. During this stage, information is stored as facts without any activation procedures – this stage is reflected through a ‘silent period’ in the process of SLA.

### 2.5.2 Associative Stage

Associative Stage involves the process of storing the information into more manageable units by means of ‘composition’ and ‘proceduralisation’. Additionally, at this stage, errors in the original declarative knowledge are detected and eliminated. Declarative knowledge, however, is not yet removed – this stage is reflected through interlanguage.

### 2.5.3 Autonomous Stage

Procedures formed in the associative stage become automatic. Some further generalization or discrimination of production procedures is possible and errors disappear. Working memory or consciousness is not involved so parallel processing becomes possible – this stage is reflected only in highly proficient learners.

From the above point, it can be observed that the stages of skill acquisition show the parallel between the development of any cognitive skill and the process of SLA (silent period = > inter-language => proficiency). They also cognitively explain the use of consciousness in SLA not as depending on the context of learning (like in Krashen’s...
model), but depending on the type of information to be processed, conscious learning is used for new, unfamiliar information.

Mariusz Trawinski assents that “Anderson’s stages of skill acquisition also account for the process of language retention/attrition the retrieval of words depends on the depth of processing, i.e. a number of contexts in which they are used”.

Anderson sees the difference between L1 and L2 only as a stage reached by the learner, L1 learners usually reach the autonomous stage, whereas most L2 learners do not go beyond the associative stage, and consequently do not reach full autonomy. Anderson’s model gives a comprehensive framework for SLA. It explains certain constructs of SLA proficiency, transfer, metalinguistic awareness, inter-language, acquisition vs. learning, language retention) in terms of cognitive theory, and puts the process in the wider context of cognitive development. It also touches upon the problem of storage of linguistic information in memory and mental processes accompanying language production, setting the direction for further research.

Mariusz Trawinski adds to that, the major drawback of Anderson’s model is its complexity, which turns it into an abstract reasoning far from application in the language classroom, unlike Krashen’s model. Additionally, Anderson was not able to find a way to maintain declarative knowledge after it turns into procedural knowledge, which may have a detrimental effect on SLA as both types of knowledge are necessary for language mastery.

2.6 Age and Motivation

2.6.1 Age as Affective Factors in Second Language Acquisition

Age is one of the most important affective factors in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). There is some consensus among SLA researchers that age as an affective factor that brings about different performance stage in second language learning. Most experts also agree that individual learners learn differently depending on many variables like learning opportunities, the motivation to learn, individual differences and learning styles
in second language acquisition. However, there is little consensus as to how far individuals of the same age group of learners follow a similar and/or liner pattern of language acquisition.

It is generally believed that younger learners have certain advantages over older learners in language learning. The common notion is that younger children learn L2 easily and quickly in comparison to older children (Ellis, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2008; Mayberry and lock, 2003). The relationship between age and success in SLA is linked to the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). CPH, also known as “the sensitive period”, is defined as “the period during which a child can acquire language easily, rapidly, perfectly, and without instruction” (Richard & Schmidt, 2002, p.145). The CPH suggests that a period of time, between birth and somewhere around the age when a child enters puberty, exists in which the learning a second language can be accomplished more rapidly and easily than times falling outside of this period i.e. post puberty (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 2008).

SLA theories and research have explained the impact of age on second language acquisition. As reported by Lightbown and Spada (2008), learning depends on the learners’ characteristics and the environment. Their finding suggests that older learners have a higher level of problem solving and metalinguistic abilities than younger learners.

The notion of the critical period for a second language acquisition has been associated with several hypotheses. Some researchers have focused on the view that the younger learners as the better learners whereas others opine the older learners as the better learners. However, there are different perspectives on how the children and adults learn a foreign or second language. Adults naturally find themselves in such situations that demand more complex language and expression of the more complicated ideas, whereas children lack pressure and maturity in second learning.
Singleton (1989) offers a number of proposals related to age and second language acquisition. The most popular notions are “the younger = the better” and “the older = the better” (Singleton, p. 31). He focuses on learners’ pronunciation skill and other linguistic features.

Patkowski (1982, p:58) carried out a research on (67) highly educated immigrants to the United States from various backgrounds. In his control subjects, (33) subjects were those who had come to the United States before the age of (15) (pre-puberty group) and (34) subjects who were post-puberty group with similar backgrounds. He examined the spoken English of the subjects, and analyzed “a difference between learners who began to learn English before puberty and those who began learning English later after puberty” His result shows a strong negative relationship between age of arrival and syntactic rating. He concludes that the pre-puberty group was better in language learning than the post-puberty group. He further elaborates:

“... the only factor which was highly associated with the level of syntactic proficiency attained by learners was the age at which acquisition of English began. Practice and instructional variables showed little or no association with the dependent variables. The result, then, appeared to strongly support the hypothesis of an age-related limitation on the ability to acquire full command of a second language”. (Patkowski, 1982, p. 59)

One of the supporting evidences in the field of second language acquisition comes from the experience of immigrants. A group of researchers have shown a relationship between age of entry, length of residence and level of language acquisition (Singleton 1989, Spada 2008).

The second strong hypothesis is that older learners are more successful than younger language learners in SLA. This notion was highly supported by a number of short term experimental researchers. These studies and research were based on teaching projects and second language immersion programs. Some of these studies have highlighted
adolescents and adults of different ages where results have indicated that the older learners are far better than the younger ones.

Olson and Samuel in the 1970s have investigated the relative capacity of native English speakers in three different age groups on 20 elementary pupils, 20 junior high school pupils and 20 college students. On the test pronunciation, it was found that two older groups performed significantly better than the elementary age group.

In other studies on age and SLA, many researchers have mentioned a similar finding that adult subjects performed better than the children. In another study, Fathman and Precup tested oral proficiency in English on (20) children and (20) adults in a formal setting in Mexico. Their finding also brought a similar conclusion that the children scored better in English pronunciation than the adults but the adults scored better than the children in syntax. Some studies, on the other hand, have focused on the issues of culture and variations of accent among the speakers of the same language. Lobov (1920) has claimed that “people rarely acquire the accent of a particular region if they move into that region after puberty” (Singleton, 1989, p. 111).

While considering younger learners in the long run, Krashen (1979) has forwarded three proposals in the domain of morph syntax. Krashen’s positions in SLA are as follows:

i. Adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant).

ii. Older children acquire faster than younger children (again time and exposure are held constant).

iii. Acquiring who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning as adults. (Singleton, 1989, p. 117)
Krashen studied syntax and morphology of children in formal learning contexts. He claimed that older learners proceed through the early stages of second language grammatical development more quickly than younger learners. Fathman observes a difference in the rate of learning English phonology, morphology and syntax based on the differences in age. She focuses on the children aged 11 to 15 years who received significantly higher scores in learning the morphology and syntax of a second language than those children of age six to ten years.

### 2.6.1.1 Optimum Age for Learning a Second Language

The question of the best age for learning a second language has aroused many people’s curiosity and has practical concerns for parents bringing children up bilingually and for governments deciding the age to start teaching a second language to children. Undoubtedly, there is a popular belief that young children are best at L2 learning, shared by many mainstream linguists: ‘It is a common observation that a young child of immigrant parents may learn a second language in the streets, from other children, with amazing rapidity. While the subtleties that become second nature to the child may elude his parents despite high motivation and continued practice’ (Chomsky, 1959, 49).

But the question still remains, is there any empirical support for this ‘common observation’?

It looks a simple matter: test some people who start young and some who start old and see who is better. However, like most academic questions, it turns out to be almost unanswerable in the form in which it is asked.

The answer cannot, for example, be assumed to be the same for those acquiring the second language in natural circumstances and for those being taught in a classroom; though it may be that situations for natural L2 learning are fairly few in number, those for classroom learners vary according to the educational system and the language teaching methods involved.
Even the word ‘age’ is problematic; L2 researchers often use it to refer to the age of arrival (AoA) in another country, thus confounding age with immigration, restricting the people studied to immigrants, usually to the USA – far from a random selection of L2 learners (Cook, 1986) – and leaving it uncertain how much L2 teaching or exposure the people had received before immigrating – one reason for going to a specific country may be a familiarity with the language spoken there. The research design is also highly problematic: a proper balancing of young and old would also involve them having the same amounts of L2 exposure (Munoz, 2008); ‘The crucial comparison is between the language proficiency of learners of two age groups who have learnt the second language in the same period of time; time has to be taken into account not only as the age at which learning started, but also as the duration of learning’ (Cook, 1986). Comparing children’s acquisition with that of adults is also fraught with problems, given the many non-language ways in which children are developing (Cook, 2010), for example, memory capacity and Piagetian stage of development, and the many differences in their situations and language input.

Underlying much of the discussion is the idea of ‘critical period’. The ethologist Konrad Lorenz originally based the idea of critical period on the imprinting behavior of ducks (Lorenz, 1949); after hatching, ducklings imprint a single person as ‘mother’ once and for all and cannot do so after this critical period. The idea that there are certain periods of physiological development during which an organism can learn particular behaviour then spread to much study of animal behaviour and was applied to language development by Eric Lenneberg, who suggests the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) that the ability to learn language naturally atrophies after the early teens (Lenneberg, 1967); for example while all babies start by distinguishing pairs of sounds like /ba~da/ by the age of 12 months they are only sensitive to the sound contrasts used in their first language (Werker & Tees, 1984) and cannot distinguish between non-native sounds.

A common way of expressing the conclusions on age in SLA initiated by Krashen, Scarcella and Long (1982) is as a set of slightly paradoxical statements, given in Cook (1986) as:
i. Older children are better than younger children at learning a second language.

ii. Adults are better than children at learning a second language.

iii. Immigrants who start learning a second language younger end up better speakers than those who start older.

More recent research does not seem to have undermined these mixed findings. Given the same circumstances for acquiring the second language for the same amount of time, older children are better than younger children, particularly in school. Cenoz (2003) for instance compared Spanish/Basque speaking children aged 4, 8 and 11 who had learnt English for the same period and found the older children were better. Munoz (2008) sums up the current view on the classroom acquisition as supporting the ideas that older learners learn faster than younger ones and that younger learners only have an advantage when they have more exposure, particularly in listening comprehension.

If the specialists apply the idea that L2 users are intrinsically different from monolingual native speaker presented earlier to the age issue any conclusions become problematic. The measure of success in age studies is always approximation to monolingual native speakers (Birdsong, 2005; Hyltenstam and Abrahamsson (2003) for instance claim ‘absolute nativelike command of an L2 may in fact never be possible’ for older learners; Johnson and Newport (1989) find that ‘later age of acquisition determines that one will not become native [-like] or near-native [-like] in a language’. The effects of age on second language acquisition are not necessarily established by demonstrating that speakers speak more like or less like monolingual native speakers.
2.6.2 Motivation as a Contributing Factor in Second Language Acquisition

In this section, the researcher will deal with Gardner's socio-educational model and the significance of motivation as a contributing factor in second language (L2) acquisition. Motivation is defined as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language. Motivation is divided into two basic types: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is characterized by the learner's positive attitudes towards the target language group and the desire to integrate into the target language community. Instrumental motivation underlies the goal to gain some social or economic reward through L2 achievement, thus referring to a more functional reason for language learning.

2.6.2.1 Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model

The work conducted by Gardner in the area of motivation was largely influenced by Mowrer (1950, cf Larson-Freeman and Long 1994), whose focus was on first language acquisition. Mowrer proposed that a child's success when learning a first language could be attributed to the desire to gain identity within the family unit and then the wider language community. Using this as the basis for his own research Gardner went on to investigate motivation as an influencing factor in L2 acquisition.

Before examining the effect of motivation on second language learning it is first important to realize that it is one variable, which, combined with other factors, influences a learner's success. Gardner (1982), in his socio-educational model, identified a number of factors which are interrelated when learning a second language. Unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner's model looks specifically at second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom. The model attempts to inter-relate four features of second language acquisition. These include the social and cultural milieu, individual learner differences, the setting or context in which learning takes place and linguistic outcomes.
The social or cultural milieu refers to the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language. It is these beliefs which have a significant impact on second language acquisition. An example of this can be seen in the monoculture setting of Britain, where many believe it is not necessary to learn another language and that minority groups should assimilate and become proficient in the dominant language of the country. The same can be said of many other predominantly monoculture communities throughout the world. However, in other countries such as Canada, bilingualism and biculturalism are often encouraged within society (Ellis 1997). Gardner (1979, cfSkehan 1993) suggests that expectations regarding bilingualism, combined with attitudes towards the target language and its culture, form the basis of an individual's attitude towards language learning.

The second phase of Gardner's model introduces the four individual differences which are believed to be the most influential in second language acquisition. These include the variables of intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety (Giles and Coupland 1991). Closely interrelated with these variables is the next phase of the model, referred to as the setting or context in which learning takes place. Two contexts are identified, namely formal instruction within the classroom and unstructured language acquisition in a natural setting. Depending upon the context, the impact of the individual difference variables alters. For example, in a formal setting intelligence and aptitude play a dominant role in learning, while exerting a weaker influence in an informal setting. The variables of situational anxiety and motivation are thought to influence both settings equally.

The final phase of the model identifies linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience. A linguistic outcome refers to actual language knowledge and language skills. It includes test indices such as course grades or general proficiency tests. Non-linguistic outcomes reflect an individual's attitudes concerning cultural values and beliefs, usually towards the target language community. Ellis (1997) reasons that
individuals who are motivated to integrate both linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of the learning experience will attain a higher degree of L2 proficiency and more desirable attitudes.

Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner 1982).

2.6.2.2 Integrative Motivation
Motivation has been identified as the learner's orientation with regard to the goal of learning a second language (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). It is thought that students who are most successful when learning a target language are those who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used (Falk 1978). This form of motivation is known as integrative motivation. When someone becomes a resident in a new community that uses the target language in its social interactions, integrative motivation is a key component in assisting the learner to develop some level of proficiency in the language. It becomes a necessity, in order to operate socially in the community and become one of its members. It is also theorized that "integrative motivation typically underlies successful acquisition of a wide range of registers and a native like pronunciation" (Finegan 1999, p:568).

2.6.2.3 Instrumental Motivation
In contrast to integrative motivation is the form of motivation referred to as instrumental motivation. This is generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language (Hudson 2000). With instrumental motivation the purpose of language acquisition is more utilitarian, such as meeting the requirements for school or university graduation, applying for a job, requesting higher
pay based on language ability, reading technical material, translation work or achieving higher social status. Instrumental motivation is often characteristic of second language acquisition, where little or no social integration of the learner into a community using the target language takes place, or in some instances is even desired.

### 2.6.2.4 Integrative Versus Instrumental Motivation

While both integrative and instrumental motivations are essential elements of success, it is integrative motivation which has been found to sustain long-term success when learning a second language (Taylor, Meynard and Rheault 1977; Ellis 1997; Crookes et al. 1991). In some of the early research conducted by Gardner and Lambert integrative motivation was viewed as being of more importance in a formal learning environment than instrumental motivation (Ellis 1997).

In later studies, integrative motivation has continued to be emphasized, although now the importance of instrumental motivation is also stressed. However, it is important to note that instrumental motivation has only been acknowledged as a significant factor in some research, whereas integrative motivation is continually linked to successful second language acquisition. It has been found that generally students select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons for the study of language. Those who do support an integrative approach to language study are usually more highly motivated and overall more successful in language learning.

One area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful is in the situation where the learner is provided with no opportunity to use the target language and therefore, no chance to interact with members of the target group. Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-native learners of L2 English. The social situation helps to determine both what kind of orientation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. BrajKachru (1977, cf Brown 2000) also points out that in India, where English
has become an international language, it is not uncommon for second language learners to be successful with instrumental purposes being the underlying reason for study.

Brown (2000) makes the point that both integrative and instrumental motivations are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both orientations. He cites the example of international students residing in the United States, learning English for academic purposes while at the same time wishing to become integrated with the people and culture of the country.

Motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement. For this reason it is important to identify both the type and combination of motivation that assists in the successful acquisition of a second language. At the same time it is necessary to view motivation as one of a number of variables in an intricate model of interrelated individual and situational factors which are unique to each language learner.

2.7 Language Acquisition and Language Learning

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive, produce and use words to understand and communicate. This capacity involves the picking up of diverse capacities, including Syntax, Phonetics, and extensive Vocabulary. This language might be vocal as with speech or manual as in sign. Language acquisition usually refers to first language acquisition, which studies infants’ acquisition of their native language, rather than second language learning, which deals with the acquisition (in both children and adults) of additional languages.

To be clearer, language acquisition refers to the process of natural assimilation, involving intuition and subconscious learning, which is the product of real interactions between people where the learner is an active participant. It is similar to the way children learn their native tongue, a process that produces functional skill in the spoken language without theoretical
Stephen Krashen makes a distinction between Acquisition and Learning. We have seen this surface in the current debate. Krashen's claim here is that there are two ways of getting knowledge about language: on the one hand, we have the approach to knowledge-getting that typifies the classroom of yesteryear - the learner cons rules of grammar, lists of vocabulary, and so on. This is what is referred to as Learning. It is a conscious process, demanding effort and attention to the task in hand. This can be contrasted with the way in which the child absorbs the mother tongue: it is only rarely that the infant shows any conscious effort in his increasing mastery of language - most of the time, he progresses while attending to other business.

This is acquisition. "Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require boring drill... Acquisition requires meaningful interactions in the target language – natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding." Stephen Krashen (cf. Schütz, 2007)

Acquisition, Krashen believes, is the royal road to FL mastery. Learning has some utility, since it allows the student to construct a Monitor - we'll come to that later - which checks on the output to ensure that it is correct. But the acquisition is your main man. Learning the rules of how to construct a passive sentence will not place the construction in your usable, unconscious grammar, where it would be available to generate discourse. There is no interface between learning and language acquisition.
There are numerous objections to be made to this position, but I'll stick with one here. It can be argued that the distinction is simplistic; human learning is a multi-faceted skill, that calls on a number of different processes that work together. Some of these are unconscious, others are conscious, and yet others are sometimes one and sometimes the other. Anderson, for example, argues that all knowledge is, at one stage, explicitly stated or explicitly modeled - it is Declarative. We often forget this, believing that such and such a skill is semi-natural - think of riding a bicycle - and suppressing the hours of instruction that actually were necessary. By this time, the formal rules or demonstrations have gone undercover, and our knowledge has become Procedural.

There is no warranty, in this view, for the claim that 'learning' cannot aid in the acquisition of any kind of knowledge - and no reason to believe that language is different in this regard. One of the fundamental points at issue between Ron Sheen and Stephen Krashen in their recent posts. Whether Ron Sheen believes in a LAD or not, I do not know. But he certainly rejects the idea that learning cannot help the learner towards fluency.

In 1959 Chomsky reviewed a work of B. F. Skinner (1953), who was trying to extend a classical behaviorist model of learning to language. His goal was to provide a way to predict and control verbal behavior by observing and manipulating the psychic environment of the speaker (Skinner1957, 547 cf Lust, 2006, 51) In the Review Chomsky showed that this concept for learning does not apply to language knowledge and behavior and he distinguished language learning from language acquisition. (Lust, 2006)

“Language acquisition is a subconscious process not unlike the way a child learns language. Language acquirers are not consciously aware of the grammatical rules of the language, but rather develop a "feel" for correctness. "In non-technical language, acquisition is 'picking-up' a language". “Language learning, on the other hand, refers to
the "conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them". (Wilson, 2006)

On the basis of Chomsky’s review of Skinner, Lust (2006) states that: “language is not learned in any classical sense of the term” (p. 52). In language learning, we are most often talking about language acquisition. The second language is acquired in a similar way as the mother tongue, through a subconscious process during which they are unaware of grammatical rules. In order to acquire language, the learner needs a source of natural communication and the emphasis is on the communication and not on the form. (Haynes, 2005).

Comparing the second and the first language acquisition Cameron (2008) sees the problem in the amount and type of exposure to the language. While acquiring the first language children are surrounded by the language every day in every place they go. They hear it on TV, radio, from their parents and relatives. In second language acquisition it is very different. Outside the classroom, children will meet very little with the use of the English language. They could encounter the language in some way to use on TV, computers and films, hear it in songs and advertisements, but they will not be exposed to people using the language in everyday life. This can be provided to them by the teacher, but just through several hours of teaching in a school week. That is why there is a larger responsibility on the teacher to provide opportunities for learning through classroom language and classroom activities.

2.7.1 Language Learning

The concept of language learning is linked to the traditional approach to the study of languages and today is still generally practiced in high schools, colleges worldwide. Attention is focused on the language in its written form and the objective is for the student to understand the structure and rules of the language through the application of intellect and logical deductive reasoning. The form is of greater importance than communication.
Teaching and learning are technical and governed by a formal instructional plan with a predetermine syllabus. One studies the theory in the absence of the practical. One values the correct and represses the incorrect. There is little room for spontaneity. The teacher is an authority figure and the participation of the student is predominantly passive. The student will be taught how to form interrogative and negative sentences, will memorize irregular verbs, study modal verbs, etc.

The student later learns to construct sentences in the perfect tense, but hardly ever masters the use of it. It is a progressive and cumulative process, normally tied to a preset syllabus that includes memorization of vocabulary. It seeks to transmit to the student knowledge about the language, its functioning and grammatical structure and grammatical structure with its irregularities, its contrasts with the student’s native language, knowledge that hopefully will produce the practical skills of understanding and speaking the language. This effort of accumulating knowledge becomes frustrating because of the lack of familiarity with the language. Thousands of graduates with arts degrees in English are classic examples of language learning. They often are trained and theoretically able to teach a language that they can communicate in only with extreme difficulty.

2.7.2 Principal Views Relating to Second Language Learning

There are three principle views related to Second language learning:

i. The structural view treats language as a system of structurally related elements to code meaning (e.g. grammar).

ii. The functional view sees language as a vehicle to express or accomplish a certain function, such as requesting something.

iii. The interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiations and interaction found in conversational exchanges. This view has been fairly dominant since the 1980s.
Finally, the differences between second language learning and first language acquisition, the earlier studies prove that the acquisition of L1 is a natural process; where as learning L2 is a conscious one, and argues that though one may not be fully successful in learning a second language, it is inevitable today to master competencey in a second language to work in a multicultural society.

2.7.3 The Importance and Advantages of Learning a Second Language

Although the world has relatively few continents, however, they contain lot diversity of the population speaking in myriads of languages. Most of counters today, because of increasing urbanization, international commerce, tourism, business travel and modern technology have begun to embrace the concept of a society that is multicultural. And evidently, a globalized multicultural society world has also been a society that is multilingual. Even though the U.S regards itself as the world’s melting pot, it has very low levels of proficiency in learning a second language. Most students usually study just English, or learn a second language at a stage when gaining true proficiency becomes too late.

The importance and advantages of learning a second language continue to increase day by day. However, the importance of learning a second language is not merely limited to the ability of communicating with people who speak different languages. According to studies, it has been shown that learning a second language results in students achieving greater divergent thinking, creativity, and cognitive development compared to monolingual children.

A number of studies have also shown that when students learn a second language, they have a tendency of outscoring those who are proficient in only a single language on tests of nonverbal and verbal intelligence. Still other studies have shown that the academic skills of students learning a second language are enhanced by in improving their abilities
in mathematics, writing, and reading. Plus, when people learn a second language, they become a valuable assist to the community in which they work and live.

Apart from the requirement of translators and interpreters, there are an increasing number of jobs where people are required to interact with people that speak other languages. Learning a second language also enables a person to adapt to a variety of cultural backgrounds. Also the capacity of communicating in another language can be a contributory factor to the overall achievement of professional and personal career goals. Language is one of the main components of the civilization and culture of the people who speak it. Hence, learning a second language can be a comparatively easy and wonderful way of absorbing another culture. When one absorbs another culture by learning a second language, apart from appreciating other people are their cultures, it also enables us to comprehend what role language plays in shaping our thought patterns. Often, other languages have better methods of expressing ideas, concepts, or thoughts compared to English, which usually become a part of English, thus enabling English language speakers communicate better.

2.7.4 Acquisition versus Learning

Many have discussed second language acquisition and first language learning. Second language learning is the process by which people learn a second language in addition to their native language. The term “acquisition” and “learning” are not treated as synonyms, instead, used to refer to the subconscious and conscious aspects of learning a language. Language acquisition is the ability of the brain in its cognitive development & process to conceptualize concepts, structures and semantics of a language, while learning is the active participation and effort to learn a language. Language teachers devise methods as components of language acquisition, while learners use them to learn. Language learning involves receiving information about the language, transforming it into knowledge through intellectual effort and storing it through memorization. Language acquisition involves developing the skill of interacting with foreigners to understand them and speak their language.
2.7.5 Differences between L1 and L2 Acquisition/Learning

The distinction between acquisition and learning is one of the hypotheses established by the American Stephen Krashen (1988) in his highly regarded theory of foreign language acquisition known as the Natural Approach. There are many differences between first language acquisition and second language learning. According to Krashen, the acquisition of native language is a natural process; whereas learning a second language is a conscious one. In the former, the student needs to take part in natural communicative situations. In the latter, error correction is present, as is the study of grammatical rules isolated from natural language.

It is easier for the child to learn language that is spoken by his/her ancestors, parents, relatives, intimates. Another fact is that children simply learn language easier than adults. Children do indeed seem to develop better pronunciation skills than do adults who learn a language later in life. In fact, it is nearly impossible for adults to develop completely native-like pronunciation. However, adults are just as capable of learning language as are children. The reason it seems easier for children have less to do with age than with other factors that go along with age. In addition to that, DenainaQenag speaks about the difference between L1 and L2 through the following table:

Table 2.4: (Differences between First language and Second language – (DenainaQenage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Language</th>
<th>2nd Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>constantly acquired</td>
<td>regularly learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incessant interaction with caregiver</td>
<td>infrequent interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulus to comprehend</td>
<td>less motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no emotional barrier</td>
<td>may be emotional barrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no “inter-language”</td>
<td>dependence on “interlanguage”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Booming</td>
<td>rarely booming</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.7.6 Children Versus Language Learning and Acquisition
Fortunately, a child in a very special privileged position in society. Errors which seem cute when made by a child are odd or weird when made by an adult. We are glad to smile and talk “baby-talk” with a child, but reluctant to do this for adults. Children are happy to babble away to themselves, while adults may be more self-conscious. Overcoming some of this reluctance to appear childlike may significantly improve the success of second-language learners.

### 2.8 Second Language Teaching

Language is a wholesome phenomenon the use of which involves many factors at a time. The relationship between content and expression, the coordination between listening and speaking, cohesion and order among the structures that constitute the language, conversational speed and memory span, habitual use, all go into the making language.

There are three major areas through which research on language learning, including second language learning has been carried out. These are conditioning, verbal learning and motor learning and skills, and trial and error. Conditioning might explain the arbitrary connection between a word and its meaning. Verbal learning is concerned with serial learning. Motor learning and skills, and trial and error learning are of a general nature which are not concerned with specific units and patterns of linguistic structure.

There are a few general laws which have been found useful in the teaching of second languages. These include the laws of contiguity, exercise, intensity and assimilation and effect. The law of contiguity stresses the importance of the contiguity of the occurrence of the structures for mutual reinforcement and easy recall. The law of exercise stresses the importance of practice in the retention of a structure. The law of intensity emphasizes the importance of the intensity with which a structure is practiced for its retention. The law of assimilation explains how a new structure may elicit the response which has been connected with similar stimulating conditions in the past. The law of effect stresses the need for a satisfying condition for the retention of a structure.
There are certain sociological factors and influences which facilitate or hamper the learning and retention of a second language. These include the contacts with whom we live, work, learn, and play. Another important factor in the mastery is what the language happens to be used for. Part of the success in learning the first language is due to the fact that it is used for almost everything. Whether a person makes use of all the language skills or only one of them will also have some effect on his mastery of a second language. The skill with which a person starts might decide his eventual mastery of the language. The amount of time spent in learning a second language is one of the most important factors in mastering and maintaining it.

2.9 Communication with Native Speakers

When people want to learn something, their first impulse is to open a book. It is a behavior pattern that applies to any type of learning, including foreign language learning, but unfortunately it is at least slightly outdated, compared to the global context people live in.

Today, not everything people want or need to know can be found in books. The means, tools and methods of learning have diversified because the traditional education provided through school and books is no longer enough to cover people’s learning gaps. Foreign languages are no exception.

In current times, traveling and living abroad is common experiences. In these conditions, learning foreign languages is a lot more than a way of enriching cultural horizons. It is something that people make use of in our day-by-day life. Shifting from traditional foreign language learning methods to something that can help people become effective in real-time interactions with native speakers is a must. And what better way of coming to manage communication with locals than exercising people language skills with a native speaker?
According to Ivan, there are several aspects that make communication with native speakers one of the best ways to truly master a foreign language.

(i) Language is a dynamic part of a people’s culture. It reflects the changes that interfere at an economic and social level and the mentalities’ evolution. A foreign language handbook requires time to be conceived, approved for publishing and then issued. A handbook is already old the moment it comes out of the print, because between the moment the authors started to work on it and the editorial issue, the foreign language taught in it underwent several changes. In exchange, native speakers represent a reflection of their mother tongue as it is currently used.

(ii) We often live with the idea that we know a language because we studied it in school for several years. And it is not before discovering how poorly we can handle a conversation with a native speaker that we realize it was an illusion. Exercising your speaking skills with a native is the key to success. This is the only experience that will allow you to take over common words and expressions used only in spoken language or even slang. It is true that it might not be the most accurate version of that language from the grammar point of view, but it is the only way you can learn how to effectively communicate within the territory where that language is official.

(iii) Communicating with a native speaker will offer you the chance not only to develop speaking skills, but also to get an insight of the civilization and culture associated with the language you are learning. You will have the chance to observe non-verbal behavior (if it is a face-to-face or video mediated conversation) or other variations of the speaking behavior (talkativeness degree, openness to communication, approach etc.).
Finally Ivan compines:

“...the most effective form of communication with a native speaker takes place face to face, But do not forget that we are living in the information technology's era when a few clicks and typing make communication barriers disappear. Use social media, networking sites, make friends from other cultures and chat with them. It is not only a form of entertainment, but also an endless resource of learning”.

The opportunity to interact with native speakers either inside or outside of the classroom is a significant advantage. Native speakers are linguistic models and can provide appropriate feedback. Clearly, second-language learners who have no extensive access to native speakers are likely to make slower progress. Particularly in the oral/aural aspects of language acquisition.

According to some linguists these factors are all interactive and therefore it is impossible to tease away the exact effect fay one of these factors in isolation. What we do know through large-scale studies is what effect these factors may have in general. However, we can never predict exactly how any particular factor will affect any particular learner, not only because it is impossible to know exactly all factors involved and how much exactly each of these factors might influence language development but especially because these factorstrust with each other. In addition, an individual’s knowledge of a language has never been completely stable and may vary from day to day.

2.10 Previous Studies

In this section, studies conducted in the area of second language acquisition will be surveyed.


They conducted a MA study entitled “Relations of Some Sociocultural Variables and Attitudes and Motivations of Young Arab Students Learning English as a Second
Native Arabic speaking elementary school students were the subjects of this study in Bahrain. 412 students (203, male/209, female) were given attitudinal scales based on Gardner and Lambert. Using quantitative analysis, the authors found that the children hold strong positive attitudinal and motivational outlooks toward learning English. Having an English speaking maid in the home, and therefore the opportunity to speak was significantly correlated with most of the attitudinal and motivational variables.

2.10.2 The Second Study: GitaraniPonnuchamy (2011)

Gitarani conducted a PhD study entitled “School English as A Second Language Experiences of Students in Tamil Nadu, India”. (2011). The study aims to:

a. Influence of L1 proficiency on L2 proficiency.
b. Motivation influences.
c. Identify common themes related to participants’ age of second language acquisition.

The Study findings are:

a. Lack of influence of L1 proficiency on L2 proficiency. Participants had not scored in English as highly as did in Tamil; because teachers did not teach them how to study English, whereas they knew how to read Tamil and they speak Tamil at home, so it’s easy.
b. Positive role of intrinsic motivation in L2 learning.
c. Early ESL introduction not supported by other.

2.10.3 The Third Study: Hassan, Badran.A (2001)

Hassan (2001) conducted a PhD study entitled ‘Extroversion/Introversion and Gender in Relation to the English Pronunciation Accuracy of Arabic Speaking College Students’. This study of 71 (16 male, 55 female) native Arabic speaking adults learning English in Egypt. He tries to measure pronunciation in relation to personality traits and gender. Students were instructed to speak for five minutes about their home town or their college.
It is not stated whether or not the interview was taped or whether judges rated their performances in person.

The Study findings are:

a. Extroversion was a significant predictor of success in pronunciation accuracy.

b. Males were more accurate than females.


Oyama, S (1982) conducted a MA study entitled “A sensitive period for the acquisition of a nonnative phonological system”. This quantitative study of (60) Italian-born male immigrants in the New York area, analyzed the pronunciation of the subjects reading a paragraph and relating a life-threatening incident. Her analysis of the correlations between the questionnaire variables and the pronunciation variables found that age upon arrival in the U.S. was the only variable found to correlate with improved pronunciation. She was surprised to find that length of stay in the U.S. had little correlation with pronunciation accuracy and that the affective variables did not show a significant influence. These unexpected results show the difficulty of devising a way to measure affect. The researcher may in fact be unintentionally measuring factors of which he/she is not aware. Perhaps Oyama’s instrument was faulty and this would make her conclusions incorrect. The affective variables may have influenced accuracy, but they were not effectively measured.

2.10.5 The Fifth Study: Samimy, Keiko Komiya, Tabuse, Motoko (1992)

Samimy, Keiko Komiya and Tabuse, Motoko conducted a MA study entitled “Affective variables and a Less Commonly Taught Language”: A Study in Beginning Japanese Classes”. This quantitative study of 68 American college students learning Japanese studies the relationship between affective variables (attitude, motivation, classroom personality) and performance. It found that motivation and attitudes were predictors of success.
2.10.6 The Sixth Study: Schmidt (1996)
Schmidt conducted a PhD study entitled “Foreign Language Motivation: Internal Structure and External Connections”. This study in Egypt was of 1464 adult (and some teen) native Arabic speakers learning English. The study aims to:
   a. Identify components of foreign language learning motivation and learner preferences.
   b. Identify relationships between learner strategies and components of motivation.

The study findings that the components of motivation are:
   a. Intrinsic and extrinsic goal motivation.
   b. Personal psychological goals.
   c. Attitudes toward native speakers and culture, and anxiety.

2.10.7 Differences Between the Previous Studies and This Study
The mentioned previous studies have examined different factors affecting second language learning. Each study was conducted according to certain hypotheses suitable to fit the objectives of it. The mentioned studies carried out results and findings according to a very restricted area of language acquisition and learning. No study focused on all factors that affect on second language learning. Each study concentrated on one factor only. Another difference, the previous studies have focused on acquisition, but this study is carried out on both learning and acquisition.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction:
The purpose of this study is to canvass views about how some factors affect second language acquisition and learning. In the preceding chapter the researcher reviewed literature related to the main factors of second language acquisition. The review covered the definition, differences between first and second language, affecting factors, and theories of learning and teaching.

This chapter includes a complete description of the study methodology used by the researcher and the sample was used. Beside the study tool was designed to collect research data and the method of determining the validity and reliability research tool. In addition to Statistical technique that was used for data processing and analysis.

The researcher adopts the empirical, analytical and descriptive methods to analyze the data received from the participants so as to find the correlation between variables being studied.

3.1 Description of Population of the Study
3.1.1 The Sample of the Study:
The study was conducted at different universities in Sudan. One hundred and sixty subject who participated in this study. Sixty of them are English teachers from different universities and one hundred are students. All of these participants from the student’s side are native speakers of Arabic language. A random sample of students was chosen from the Faculties of Education at the University of Gezira (UG), University of Khartoum (UK), and Sudan University of Science and Technology (SUST). Regarding to the sample of students, they are all at university level-grade four graduates in 2014. The choice of EFL students based on the fact that students have at least completed 7-8
semesters were expected to cover most of the course requirement. The population is shown in table No. (3.1)

Table No. (3.1) The sample Target selected from each university (Students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>University of Gezira</th>
<th>University of Khartoum</th>
<th>Sudan University of Science and Technology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Students</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2 Sample Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Teachers</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Students</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. All students are enrolled in Faculty of Education who are expected to be English teachers in the near future.
b. All students are majoring in English.
c. All students are at university-level four grade.
d. All students are descended from Sudanese origin with the same Islamic, Arabic and African culture.
e. All students of the three universities were a mixture of male and female students.
3.2 Tools of Data Collection
Data collection was conducted in the university setting (advanced level), and on a regular university day during the eighth semester of 2014. Some specialists in education participated in this study when they distributed the questionnaire to the students.

Data analysis was conducted in accordance with the research questions. Frequency, descriptive analysis questionnaire, and mean scores were used to provide a particular of the population under study. The method adopted in this study is the descriptive analytical method of research.

Analytical method of research is adopted to analyze the data collected (60) teachers and (100) students, who were chosen randomly from the English language Departments in the three faculties of education from different universities in Sudan. A questionnaire was designed as a data gathering device for the data required to carry out the study. The data collected was analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

3.3 Tools of Data Analysis
For data analysis the researcher used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS) so as to show the result of the questionnaire items of the study by using percentages, frequency tables, case processing tables and figures.

For this study, the statements contained phrases and questions concerning with different factors for acquisition and learning language. Containing three axes, the questionnaire elicited the required data as follows:

3.4 The Content of the Questionnaires
There are two questionnaires, one for the students and the other for the teachers. The questionnaires consists of 30 statements that seeking information about the factors affecting second language acquisition and learning. The purpose of the questionnaire is to
measure the necessary factors that affecting second language acquisition and learning methods in the educational process. The format used in the question construction is scale format.

3.5 Procedures of the Questionnaire

The researcher took the copies of his questionnaire with his proposal of the study and discussed it with some of the university staff (University of Gezira (UG), University of Khartoum (UK), Sudan University of Science and Technology (SUST)), and Jazan University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and his colleagues who were specialized in English asking them to make their comments on the suitability of the questionnaire for the purpose of the study. They all made valuable comments, suggestions.

Those notes and recommendations were carefully studied in the final version of the questionnaire. The final version of the questionnaire contained 30 items seeking information about the necessary factors that affecting second language acquisition and learning methods in the educational process.

The questionnaire was piloted on a group of students who fairly represented the sample of the study. That step was done to test the clarity of the questionnaire items and instructions. The pilot group was requested to inform the investigator about any difficulties they faced in understanding the items and instructions. Their responses were considered and minor amendments were made to the final version of the questionnaire. The researcher made use of these responses of the students and explained most of the items and instructions of his questionnaire in Arabic to secure high level of students understanding of the questionnaire items and instructions when conducting it.

The questionnaires have been distributed during the second semester of the academic year 2013-2014. Some of the copies of the questionnaires were distributed at the university lectures while others were sent by email to faculty members in Sudanese universities. The questionnaire was explained to the respondents. The researcher filled up the questionnaire based on the answers of the participants. One hundred and sixty copies
were distributed: 100 hundred for the students at the college of education in three Universities. 60 of copies were sent to the faculty members in some Sudanese universities.

3.6 Validity of the Questionnaire
The questionnaire was first submitted to five (5) of referees at university of Gezira and Jazan University. Then it was examined by the main supervisor who made some comments on the content. After making the final amendment to the questionnaire, it was approved by the supervisors. Besides, five (5) academic professors specialized in EFL evaluated the questionnaire regarding content and face validity.

3.7 Reliability of the Questionnaire
Poilt and Hunger (1999:317) define reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. Berg (1989:83) explains that, the use of a consistent and systematic line of questions for even unanticipated areas is particularly important for reliability and for possible replication of a study.

To avoid the problematic aspect of the questionnaire such as poor wording, instruction and imbiguity, the questionnaire was submitted to educational and psychological experts. Some item has been slightly modified while other were reconstructed and restricted to remove the ambiguity and to make the statement quite clear for the respondents.

The study used statistical package for social to analyze the data which are collected. The researcher used person’s correlation and the results below:

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{N \left( \sum X Y \right) - \left( \sum X \sum Y \right)}{\sqrt{\left[ N \left( \sum X^2 \right) - \left( \sum X \right)^2 \right] \left[ N \left( \sum y^2 \right) - \left( \sum y \right)^2 \right]}} \]
Where = correlation
R : reliability of the test
N : number of all items in the test.
X : odd scores
Y : even scores
∑ : Sum
\[ R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} \]
Val : \( \sqrt{\text{reliability}} \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0.806</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>validity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.8 Summary and Conclusion

In conclusion it might be as well to request the main points that are included in this chapter. The chapter focuses on the research design and methodology used to accomplish the study. It has given a detailed description of the population of this study, a description of samples of this study, a description of tools of this study and it shows how the data of this study is collected and analyzed. An analysis and implementation of empirical data collected through these methods will be presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR
Results and Discussion

4.0 Introduction
In this chapter the results and data analysis are presented and described. The data was collected for this study is to determine the effective factors in language acquisition and learning. The analysis of the obtained data showed significant results. The descriptive features of the polled were follows:
1) 100 students from the faculties of education in Sudanese universities.
2) 60 faculty members from different universities in Sudan.

4.1 Data Analysis:
To obtain the required results, the descriptive analytical method was followed. The researcher used statistical package for social science (SPSS) to analyze the results and discuss them. The questionnaire was revolving round two main constituents needed for conducting an effective factors for second language acquisition and learning.

4.2 Data Analysis and Discussion
The data was collected by the researcher and then that was statistically analyzed and presented in the table form below. The tables below demonstrate the participants’ responses and their percentages.

Table (1)
Shows duplicates and percentage of the sample answers to the axis of the students about the importance of the English language.

Axis one: Students:

Table (4.1) Axis One: The importance of English language?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very</th>
<th>Rather</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>83 %</td>
<td>%15</td>
<td>%2</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Seen from the table (above) that the sample of students responded that the English language is important for them at the rate of (83 %).

Table (4.2) Axis One: Extent of interest in English language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very</th>
<th></th>
<th>Rather</th>
<th></th>
<th>Little</th>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>75 %</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19 %</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to (4.2) above, (75 %) of the sample of students responded that they feel the importance of the study of the English language.

Table (4.3) Axis One: Reasons for learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for learning English</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English is compulsory at your university</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 %</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25 %</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You just want to pass English exam</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is necessary for your future job</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are interested in learning English language</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.4) Axis One: Difficulty in speaking English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulty in speaking English</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, often</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, sometimes</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, but rarely</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4.4) indicates (66 %) of the sample of students responded that they sometimes find some difficulties when they speak English.

**Table (4.5) Axis One: Factors causing difficulty in English?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s low proficiency and experience in English and methodology</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32 %</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55 %</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students low proficiency in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The student’s passive learning style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topics are not interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.5) shows (50 %) of the sample of students agree that the student’s passive learning style is one of the important factor that cause difficulty in English.

**Axis Two: Teachers. (A) Second Language Acquisition**

Table (4.1.a) Axis Two: Prior language effect on the way a second language acquired.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above illustrate that the sample of teachers responded that they are all agree with the statement which supposes prior language effect on the way a second language acquired.
Table (4.2.a) Axis Two: L2 learners will be more fluent, when they are aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, especially beginner and intermediate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) that, the research sample of teachers responded that L2 learners will be more fluent when they are aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, especially beginner and intermediate. This result supported the second hypothesize because all the sample are agree with the statement.

Table (4.3.a) Axis Two: Motivation is the most important predictor of success in second language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (4.3), the research sample of teachers responded that motivation is the most important predictor of success in SLA. The result supported the fourth hypothesize because most of the research sample of teachers agree with the statement (95 %).
Table (4.4.a) Axis Two: Learners with higher level of motivation more successful than those with lower motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>67 %</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33 %</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in table (4.4), (67 %) of the teachers with higher level of motivation are more successful than those with lower level of motivation.

Table (4.5.a) Axis Two: It is useful for a native speaker teacher to know Arabic language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>58 %</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>42 %</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to table (4.5) above, (58%) of the research sample of professors believes that a native speaker teacher of the English language should learn Arabic language.

Table (4.6.a) Axis Two: Learn two languages at the same time leads to a slow learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 %</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>75 %</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above illustrate that (85 %) of the sample of teachers responded that they agree with the statement which supposes learning two languages at the same time.
leads to a slow learning. This depends on the idea that second language learning is slow in the case of multiple sources of learning.

Table (4.7.a) Axis Two: Once learners know roughly 1000 words and the basic structure of a language, they can participate in conversation with native speaker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>68 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) that the research sample of teachers responded that they disagree with the statement that suppose if learners know roughly 1000 words and the basic structure of a language, they can participate in conversation with the native speakers.

Table (4.8.a) Axis Two: Parents usually correct young children when they make grammatical errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>83 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) that, (93 %) of the research sample of teachers disagree with the idea that parents usually correct young children when they make grammatical errors.

Table (4.9.a) Axis Two: To what extent do you encourage your students to practice English outside the classroom?
Always | often | sometimes | never
--- | --- | --- | ---
Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | %
45 | 75% | 10 | 17% | 5 | 8% | 0 | 0%

Seen from the table (above) that, (75%) of the research sample of teachers responded that they always encourage students to learn English outside of the classroom.

Table (4.10.a) Axis Two: Students should be involved in choosing materials, topics, activities and forms of teaching.

Not at all | hardly | fairly | important | Very important
--- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | %
0 | 0% | 0 | 0% | 5 | 8% | 40 | 67% | 15 | 25%

Seen from the table (above) that, (82%) of the research sample of teachers responded that they agree with the statement.

Table (4.11.a) Axis Two: There is a relationship between level of motivation and success in SLL.

Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain | Disagree | Strongly Disagree
--- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | %
46 | 77% | 14 | 23% | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0% | 0 | 0%

Seen from the table (above) that, (77%) of the research sample of teachers responded that there is a relationship between the level of motivation and success in learning English.

(B) Theories of Learning and Teaching
Table (4.1.b) Axis Two (B): In your opinion, how important is that a teacher has a good knowledge of theories of learning and language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>hardly</th>
<th>fairly</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>70 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above), that (70 %) of the research sample of teachers responded that they believe it is necessary to know the importance of learning theories of learning.

Table (4.2.b) Axis Two (B): Learning method (teaching) affects learning the language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>hardly</th>
<th>fairly</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>70 %</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) that, (87 %) of the research sample of teachers answered that learning method (teaching) is important and affects mainly on learn the language.

Table (4.3.b) Axis Two (B): Learning a second language in early age is easier for learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58 %</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) that, the research sample of teachers responded that the most appropriate age to learn the language for non-native speakers’ is in an early age (59 %). This support the common notion which think younger children learn L2
easily and quickly in comparison to older learners. So, the result is supported the third hypotethese because most of the research sample agree with that statement (75 %).

**Axis Three: Teachers and Students: Acquisition and Learning**

**Table (4.1.C) Axis Three:** Languages are learned mainly through imitation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>75 %</td>
<td>8 %</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 %</td>
<td>59 %</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table (above), it is clear that the teachers (92 %) and the students (80 %) both disagree with the statement (4.1) in axis three.

**Table (4.2.C) Axis Three:** Most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from the first language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>70 %</td>
<td>19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>57 %</td>
<td>23 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above) the respondents “Teachers (89 %) and Students (80 %)” agree that most mistakes in L2 are caused by L1 interference. This support the first hypotethese that most of the mistakes that second learners make are due to interference from the first language.

**Table (4.3.C) Axis Three:** Learner’s errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.
Seen from the table (above), the teachers believe in “error correction” (92 %) more than the students do (22 %). This result supported the fifth hypothesis about learner’s errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.

Table (4.4.C) Axis Three: The earlier a second language is introduced in school programs, the greater the likelihood of success in learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28 %</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result from the table (above) concludes that the teachers (99 %) agree that ‘the earlier’ second language training is initiated, is better for the learners, but students (36 %) marginally agrees. Most of the students disagree with this statement.

Table (4.5.C) Axis Three: Intelligence and maturity affect language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very</th>
<th>rather</th>
<th>little</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23 %</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>67 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>65 %</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table (above), the majority of the teachers (67 %) believe that the intelligence and maturity – as factors – have some affect in language acquisition. On the other hand, most of the students (56 %) believe in these factors.

**Table (4.6.C) Axis Three:Language acquisition is linked to the size of social interaction.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>always</th>
<th>often</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15 %</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above), both teachers (58 %) and students (81 %) are often support the idea that language acquisition is linked to the size of social interaction. While few of them select (always) to support this idea.

**Table (4.7.C) Axis Three:Economic and social level affects language acquisition.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>always</th>
<th>often</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77 %</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table (above), it is very clear that most of the teachers choose the option of (sometimes 73 %). It shows for us that they partially believe in the effect of economic and social level on language learning. In contrast, most of the students believe with this statement and they think economic and social level (always 55 %) affects language learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 %</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above), both teachers (92%) and students (75%) agree with the effect of environment in second language acquisition.

Table (4.9.C) Axis Three: The study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8 %</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seen from the table (above), both teachers (67%) and students (74%) agree with the study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Conclusion

This chapter presents the results and the findings the study has come up with in terms of the extent to which it has confirmed the hypothesis and the answers of the questions of the study. In addition, it provides recommendations, conclusion and suggestions for further studies. The purpose of this study is to investigate the main factors that effect second language acquisition.

The main objectives of this study are to study first language interference and its effects on the process of acquisition and learning a second language. Moreover, this study aims to explore the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. Besides that, it aims to stop undesirable (negative) interference to enable learners to communicate with native speakers of the L2.

To sum up, this study investigated some important factors that effect in second language acquisition. These factors are supported by the FL students in the faculties of Education in Sudanese universities. The results of the study reported in chapter four indicate that the Sudanese students of EFL at advanced level (university level) are concerned with healthy classroom as well as those who are interested in foreign language teaching and teaching strategies in particular.

Finally, this study explains the factors that effect acquisition of English language as a second language. It expresses the essential factors which can be acquired by students to learn English language.
5.1 Findings

The study has come up with the following findings:

a) Eighty (80%) of the students believe that most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from the first language. This percentage indicates that the interference of the first language has a great effect in second language acquisition.

b) The majority of the participants are agree (92%) with the idea that L2 learners will be more fluent when they are aware of the similarities and differences in syntax, sentence structure, grammar etc..

c) Most of the participants (81%), disagree with the statement that suppose if learners know roughly 1000 words and basic structure of a language, they can participate in conversation with the native speakers. This percentage indicates that there are some important factors that help learners to communicate with the native speakers more than above factors.

d) It is shown that about (91%) support the idea that learning second language in an early age, helps the learners to be successful in learning. They believe that the most appropriate age to learn the language for non-native speakers’, is an early age.

e) All the participants believe that motivation is the most important predictor of success in SLA. This percentage (95%) shows that learners with higher level of motivation are more successful than those with lower motivation. On the other hand, factors such as environment, intelligence, economic and social level should also be considered.
5.2 Recommendations

After stating the findings and concluding this study, the researcher would like to make the following recommendations:

a) L2 learners should be aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 so as to be more fluent.
b) Second language should be learnt in an early age and teachers should raise students’ awareness about strategies for solving oral communication problems.
c) It is also recommended extra activities and modern strategies to be concerned as motivating factors in EFL classes.
d) Besides that, universities should provide both professors and students with sufficient facilities (workshop, training courses, sending to English-speaking countries) to create a successful future teacher.
e) It is suggested that they hire educators that are knowledgeable in the field of second language acquisition, having the ability and flexibility to reinforce and expand learner potential, through the use of different methods and procedures, in a communicative language learning class.
f) It is recommended that the colleges and universities in Sudan attempt to hire more qualified instructors if they continue to have a ‘hands–off’ approach with regards to their curriculum development in their English second language programs.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies

Future studies about affective factors are needed in three areas: 1) student centered factors in learning, 2) teacher and classroom centered factors in learning, and 3) environmental and social factors in learning. Student centered factors include natural ability and the affective factors discussed in Chapter 2, such as acculturation, ego, personality, emotion, beliefs about learning, attitudes and motivation. The extent to which students can be taught to modify their own beliefs and control their own emotions to improve
their learning would be a useful subject of study. The second area includes factors which are under the control of the teacher such as the teaching method, the materials and the classroom environment. The third area includes the society in which the learner functions and the culture of the target language community. In addition to contributing to the construction of a new theoretical model, future studies should investigate the relationship of the above factors to learning and achievement and also the possibilities of manipulating these factors to achieve a positive outcome.


Cantor, Jeffrey A. delivering Instruction to Adult Learners. Toronto. (1992).


Dr. Walid M. Amer. An Investigation into the Differences between English and Arabic Consonant and Vowel Sounds. Paper. The Islamic University of Gaza: Palestine.


Ortega, L. (2009), Understanding Second Language Acquisition, London: Hodder Education


Rosa M. Manchon (2009). Writing in Foreign Language Contexts (Learning, Teaching, and Research).


Appendix

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the Factors Affecting Second Language Learning. Your assistance in completing the questionnaire is highly appreciated. You can be confident that the data collected are only for the study purpose. Your answers will be the required data for a PhD Thesis entitle “Factors Affecting Second Language Learning at Tertiary Level”.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Axis one: (For Students Only)

1. The importance of English language?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>very</th>
<th>rather</th>
<th>little</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. How much do you feel interested in studying English language?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very</th>
<th>rather</th>
<th>little</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

   a. English is compulsory at your university. (   )
   b. You just want to pass English exam. (   )
   c. English is necessary for your future job. (   )
   d. You are interested in learning English language. (   )

4. Difficulty in speaking English?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, often</th>
<th>Yes, sometimes</th>
<th>Yes, but rarely</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. Factors causing difficulty in English?
   a. Teacher’s low proficiency and experience in English and methodology.
   b. The students low proficiency in English.
   c. The student’s passive learning style.
   d. Topics are not interesting.
   e. Others (please specify .................................................................).
**Axis Two: (For Teachers Only) - (A) Second Language Acquisition**

1. Prior language effect on the way a second language acquired.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. L2 learners will be more fluent, when they are aware of the similarities and differences between L1 and L2, especially beginner and intermediate learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The most important predictor of success in second language acquisition (SLA) is motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Learners with higher level of motivation more successful than those with lower motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. It is useful for a native speaker teacher to know Arabic language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
6. Learn two languages at the same time leads to a slow learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Once learners know roughly 1000 words and the basic structure of a language, they can participate in conversation with native speaker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Parents usually correct young children when they make grammatical errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stronglydisagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Stronglyagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>6 10 %</td>
<td>50 83 %</td>
<td>4 7 %</td>
<td>0 0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. To what extend do you encourage your students to practice English outside the classroom?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>often</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

10. Students should be involved in choosing materials, topics, activities and forms of teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>hardly</th>
<th>fairly</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

157
11. There is a relationship between level of motivation and success in SLL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(B) Theories of Learning and Teaching
1. In your opinion, how important is that a teacher has a good knowledge of theories of learning and language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all</th>
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<th>important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>42 %</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Learning method (teaching) affects to learn the language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all</th>
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<th>important</th>
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<tbody>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Learning a second language in early age is easier for learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Axis Three: (For Both Teachers and Students) Acquisition and Learning
1. Language are learned mainly through imitation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

158
2. Most of the mistakes that second language learners make are due to interference from the first language.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Learner’s errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits.

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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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4. The earlier a second language is introduced in school programs, the greater the likelihood of success in learning.

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Intelligence and maturity affect language learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>very</th>
<th>rather</th>
<th>little</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Language acquisition is linked to the size of social interaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>always</th>
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<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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7. Economic and social level affects language learning.

<table>
<thead>
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8. The environment affects in second language learning.

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9. The study of formal grammar is essential for second language acquisition.

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