

## UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO

## FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN, HUMANAS Y TECNOLOGÍAS

## CARRERA DE IDIOMAS

## THESIS PROJECT

"INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN STUDENTS OF SEVENTH SEMESTER IN LANGUAGE CAREER AT UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO IN ACADEMIC PERIOD APRIL 2015 - AUGUST 2015 ".

AUTHORS:<br>JENNIFFER VALERIA OROZCO VILLACRÉS MARÍA FERNANDA PULGAR NARANJO<br>TUTOR:<br>Mgs. ELSA BASANTES<br>PERIOD<br>April 2015 - August 2015.<br>RIOBAMBA-ECUADOR

# TUTORIAL CERTIFICATE 

## Magister

## Elsa Basantes

THESIS TUTOR AND PROFESSOR AT FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN, HUMNAS Y TECNOLOGÍAS OF UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO.

I hereby certify that:

The present thesis: INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN STUDENTS OF SEVENTH SEMESTER IN LANGUAGE CAREER AT UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO IN ACADEMIC PERIOD APRIL 2015 - AUGUST 2015, carried out by María Fernanda Pulgar Naranjo and Jenniffer Valeria Orozco Villacrés has been directed and reviewed along the research process. In the same way this thesis contains authentic information. It has been authorized to present the public dissertation and the corresponding evaluation.


## COMMITTEE MEMBERS CERTIFICATE

## INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING IN STUDENTS OF SEVENTH SEMESTER IN LANGUAGE CAREER AT UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO IN ACADEMIC PERIOD APRIL 2015 - AUGUST 2015, written work for English - Teaching Bachelor's degree. It has been approved by the following committee members in representation of Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo in the month of August 2015.

Mgs. Mónica Cadena

## COMMITTEE



FIRMA
Ms. Magdalena Ullauri

## COMMITTEE

Mgs. Elsa Basantes

THESIS TUTOR


## CERTIFICATE OF AUTHENTICITY

The undersigned, as undergraduate students of Language Career, confirm that the contents of this research study are original, authentic and of sole academic and legal responsibility of the authors.

Riobamba, March $28^{\text {th }}, 2016$

C.I: 060468540-4


Jenniffer Valeria Orozco Villacrés
C.I: 092847051-7

## DEDICATION

We would like to dedicate this Project to our God and our parents.

To our God who gives us everything in the life.
To our parents because they have supported us all the time, guiding us for the correct way and offering us strength to continue ahead in the most difficult moments of our lives. Also supporting us moral and economically during the whole career.

## Fernanda \& Jenniffer

## ACNOWLEDGMENT

We want to express our deep gratitude to Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo the place where we learned to become excellent English teachers.

To our parents who along our lives have been our support and motivation in our academic formation.

We also want to thank to MsC. Elsa Basantes because of her help that let us conclude this thesis project. We are thankful for her aspiring guidance, invaluably constructive criticism and friendly advice during the Project work.

Fernanda \& Jenniffer

## INDEX

Portada ..... i
Tutorial certificate ..... ii
Committe members certificate ..... iii
Certificate of authenticity ..... iv
Dedication ..... v
Acknowledgment ..... vi
Summary ..... vii
Index ..... viii
Chart and table index ..... xiii
Statistical graphs index ..... xiv
Introduction ..... xv
CHAPTER I
REFERENTIAL FRAMEWORK
1.1 Topic ..... 1
$1.2 \quad$ Problem setting ..... 1
1.3 Problem formulation ..... 3
$1.4 \quad$ Objectives ..... 3
1.4.1 General objective ..... 3
1.4.2 Specific objectives ..... 3
1.5 Problem justification ..... 4
CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
2.1 Previous researchers background related to the problem that is ..... 5 investigated
$2.2 \quad$ Theoretical foundations ..... 6
2.2.1 First language acquisition ..... 6
2.2.1.1 Characteristics of first language acquisition ..... 6
2.2.1.2 Conditions of acquisition ..... 7
2.2.1.3 How language is transmitted ..... 8
2.2.2 Second language acquisition ..... 9
2.2.2.1 $\quad$ Second language acquisition stages ..... 10
2.2.2.2 Second language acquisition several cognitive and environmental ..... 12 factors
2.2.2.3 The five primary linguistic elements ..... 13
2.2.3 Exposure to first language ..... 15
2.2.3.1 Innateness and language ..... 16
2.2.3.2 Practice ..... 17
2.2.3.3 Language contacts ..... 18
2.2.3.4 Language policy ..... 20
2.2.3.5 Research findings ..... 20
2.2.4 Exposure to second language ..... 25
2.2.4.1 $\quad$ The role of age in second language acquisition ..... 26
2.2.4.2 Vocabulary as an indicator of language proficiency ..... 28
2.2.4.3 Barcroft's five principles of effective second language vocabulary ..... 29
2.2.5 Language environment ..... 32
2.2.5.1 The effects of linguistic environment in society ..... 33
2.2.5.2 The linguistic environment in the classroom ..... 33
2.2.5.3 Linguistic environment for foreign language acquisition ..... 34
2.2.5.4 Linguistic input under linguistic environment ..... 36
2.2.5.5 An effective environment for foreign language acquisition ..... 37
2.2.6 Importance of english language ..... 40
2.2.6.1 English as a global language ..... 41
2.2.6.2 Importance of english in business communication ..... 42
2.2.6.3 Importance of english in education ..... 42
2.2.7 Communicative approach ..... 43
2.2.7.1 Where communicative language does approached come from? ..... 44
2.2.7.2 What is communicative language teaching? ..... 45
2.2.7.3 Characteristics of communicative approached ..... 46
2.2.7.4 Materials and how they can be used ..... 47
2.2.7.5 Examples of communicative approached ..... 48
2.2.7.6 Roles of teachers and students in communicative approached ..... 52
2.2.7.7 Advantages and disadvantages ..... 52
2.2.8 Functional approach ..... 53
2.2.8.1 Types of functional explanation ..... 54
2.2.8.1.1 Processing explanation ..... 54
2.2.8.1.2 Cognitive explanation ..... 56
2.2.8.1.3 Discourse explanation ..... 57
2.2.8.2 Schools of functionalist analysis ..... 58
2.2.8.2.1 Functionalism and formalism ..... 58
2.2.8.2.2 Autonomous functionalism ..... 60
2.2.8.2.3 Mixed formalism/functionalism ..... 61
2.2.8.2.4 Typological functionalism ..... 62
2.2.8.2.5 Cognitive linguistics and functionalism ..... 63
2.2.8.2.6 Functionalism and the dynamic approach to grammar ..... 64
2.2.8.3 Directions and prospects for functional approaches to grammar ..... 66
2.2.9 Reasons for interference of mother tongue ..... 68
2.2.9.1 The exposure to the learner in mother tongue is more than foreign ..... 68 language
2.2.9.1.1 Mother tongue ..... 68
2.2.9.1.2 English language ..... 69
2.2.9.1.3 Why the interference of mother tongue caused while learning second ..... 69 language?
2.2.9.2 Learning mother tongue occurs naturally but learning foreign tongue is ..... 70 felt artificially
2.2.9.2.1 Children learn better in their mother tongue ..... 70
2.2.9.2.2 Artificial language ..... 70
2.2.9.2.3 Learning a foreign language - 10 most common mistakes ..... 71
2.2.9.2.4 Why you can never learn a foreign language the way you have learnt ..... 77 your mother tongue
2.2.9.3 More importance is attached to grammatical rules than functional ..... 78 grammar
2.2.9.3.1 Basic english grammar rules ..... 78
2.2.9.3.2 Functional grammar ..... 79
2.2.9.4 English is a unique language with respect to phonology, word order, ..... 80 grammatical system
2.2.9.4.1 Phonology ..... 80
2.2.9.4.1.1 Models of phonology ..... 80
2.2.9.4.2 Word order ..... 81
2.2.9.5 Acquisition of vocabulary is very limited ..... 81
2.2.9.5.1 Vocabulary ..... 81
2.2.9.5.2 Importance of vocabulary ..... 82
2.2.9.6 Lack of motivation for speaking or learning foreign tongue ..... 83
2.2.9.6.1 Students lack interest or motivation ..... 83
2.2.9.6.2 Factors that affect motivation ..... 84
2.2.9.6.3 The reasons of lack of motivation in students ..... 85
2.2.9.7 Lack of experts and native speakers to teach proper pronunciation ..... 87
2.2.9.7.1 Native speaker class ..... 87
2.2.9.7.1.1 Criteria for native speaker teachers ..... 88
2.2.9.7.2 Pronunciation ..... 88
2.2.9.7.2.1 Parts of pronunciation ..... 89
2.2.9.7.2.2 Factors that affect pronunciation learning ..... 90
2.3 Basic terms definitions ..... 93
2.4 Hypothesis ..... 94
$2.5 \quad$ Variables ..... 94
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK
3.1. Scientific method ..... 95
3.1.1 Types of research ..... 95
3.1.2 Level of research ..... 96
3.2. Population and sample ..... 96
3.2.1. Population ..... 96
3.2.2. Sample ..... 96
3.3 Techniques and instruments for data collection ..... 96
3.4 Data processing and analyzing techniques ..... 97
3.4.1 Surveys adressed to students of seventh semester in language career at ..... 98
Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo
CHAPTER IV
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
4.1. Conclusions ..... 108
4.2. Recommendations ..... 109
Bibliography ..... 110
Online resources ..... 112
Attached documents ..... 116
Attachment "A" ..... 117
Attachment "B" ..... 120

## CHART AND TABLE INDEX

Chart No 2.1 Language environment ..... 40
Chart No 2.2 Four reasons why learning English is so important ..... 41
Chart No 2.3 Importance of English ..... 43
Chart No 2.4 Communicative competences ..... 46
Chart No 2.5 Materials in communicative approached ..... 48
Chart No 2.6 Types of communicative activities ..... 51
Chart No 2.7 Features of communicative activities ..... 51
Chart No 2.8 Linguistic facts ..... 55
Chart No 2.9 Word order errors ..... 81
Chart No 2.10 Important points to teach vocabulary ..... 82
Chart No 2.11 Techniques for teaching vocabulary ..... 83
Chart No 2.12 How occurs linking ..... 89
Chart No 2.13 Division of English words ..... 90
Chart No 3.1 Results obtained from the survey applied to students of ..... 106seventh semester in language career at UniversidadNacional de Chimborazo
Table No. 3.1 Interference of mother tongue in English language learning ..... 98
Table No. 3.2 Problems provoked by the mother tongue ..... 99
Table No. 3.3 Necessities for learning English ..... 100
Table No. 3.4 Reasons for interference ..... 101
Table No. 3.5 Effects provoked by the interference of mother tongue ..... 102
Table No. 3.6 Use of English for asking something to teachers or ..... 103 classmates
Table No. 3.7 Interference of false cognates in English learning ..... 104
Table No. 3.8 How avoid the interference of mother tongue ..... 105

## STATISTICAL GRAPHS INDEX

Statistical Graph No 3.1 Interference of mother tongue in English ..... 98 language learning
Statistical Graph No 3.2 Problems provoked by the mother tongue ..... 99
Statistical Graph No 3.3 Necessities for learning English ..... 100
Statistical Graph No 3.4 Reasons for interference ..... 101
Statistical Graph No 3.5 Effects provoked by the interference of mother ..... 102 tongue
Statistical Graph No 3.6 Use of English for asking something to teachers ..... 103 or classmates
Statistical Graph No 3.7 Interference of false cognates in English learning ..... 104
Statistical Graph No 3.8 How avoid the interference of mother tongue ..... 105

## SUMMARY

The purpose of this research work was to determine how mother tongue interferes in English language learning in students of seventh semester in Languages Career at Universidad National de Chimborazo in academic period April 2015 - August 2015. The hypothesis was that there is interference of mother tongue in English language learning in students of the seventh semester in Languages Career at Universidad National de Chimborazo in academic period April 2015 - August 2015. It was applied quali-quantitative method, the types of research were documentary, field and bibliographic, the levels of research were descriptive and diagnostic. Observation guides and surveys were used for data collection; the population was 22 students in the seventh semester in Languages Career at Universidad National de Chimborazo. The main results according to the stated objectives are there was interference of mother tongue in English language learning, the main reasons for interfering of mother tongue is because students think in Spanish and translate their ideas into English and this interference causes them translation, lack of fluency and the use of words called Spanglish Word.

Dra. Myriam Trujillo B. Mgs.
COORDINADORA DEL CENTRO DE IDIOMAS


## INTRODUCTION

English language is considered as a world or universal language that is why nowadays teaching and learning this language is indispensable. But is very important that students acquire this language in a right way, it means that the mother tongue does not interfere in their learning. Then if there is not interference of mother tongue, students will be able to speak English fluently without translating their ideas from Spanish to English or using Spanglish words. The determination of interference of mother tongue in English language learning in students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo helped them to avoid the use of mother tongue in their learning.

The present work contents 4 chapters that are developed as follows:
Chapter I refers to referential framework which provides information about: the topic of the thesis, the problem setting, the problem formulation, the general and specific objectives.

Chapter II is about the theoretical framework which talks about previous background researchers about the problem that is investigated, it also contains the theory about the interference of mother tongue, English learning that support the research study, basic terms definitions, hypothesis, dependent and independent variables.

Chapter III details the scientific method that was used for the development of this research. It also contains the types of investigation that were used: documental, Bibliographic and field research. Another aspect in this chapter is the level of research which talks about descriptive and diagnostic research, population and sample, data collection techniques and the instruments for the data collection.

Chapter VI refers to Conclusions and Recommendations.
At the end of the present work, there are the bibliography and the attached documents.

## CHAPTER I

## 1. REFERENTIAL FRAMEWORK

### 1.1 TOPIC

Interference of mother tongue in English language learning in students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo in academic period April 2015 - August 2015

### 1.2 PROBLEM SETTING

The Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo (UNACH) is located in Chimborazo province, Riobamba city, it has four modern campuses, one of them is the Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación, Humanas y Tecnologías situated on campus La Dolorosa; Eloy Alfaro Avenue and 10 Agosto Street. Which has several careers including the language career; with a total of one hundred fifty nine students and thirteen teachers, who are in different academic categories such as: four with bachelor's degree, six master's degrees, and three doctorates.

Language Career is structured as follows: Director, Commission for Assessment and Accreditation, Commission of Career, and Commission for the redesign of the Career. In infrastructure it has seven classrooms, one lab and one multimedia classroom; those are equipped and prepared for the development of classes and the formation of an English teacher develops through eight semesters corresponding to four school years which are from September to July.

During six semesters is evidenced that the problem in students of seventh semester of language career is the interference of mother tongue when they are learning English, then according this problem Whitley says: "Language interference is most often discussed as a source of errors known as negative transfer. Negative transfer occurs
when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages".

According to what Whitley says it is possible to realize that one of the reasons for which the mother tongue interferes in English Language is because the grammatical differences in both languages (Spanish-English).

For Richards, Platt, \& Plat "Learner language is the type of language produced by second-language learners who are in the process of learning a language. In this process, learners' errors are caused by such phenomena as borrowing patterns from the mother tongue, extending patterns from the target language, and expressing meanings using the vocabulary and syntax which are already known" (Richards, Platt, \& Platt, 1992).

While according these authors is possible to identify that another reason for interference is borrowing patterns from the mother tongue since is easier for students to use the vocabulary and syntax that already know (Spanish vocabulary or syntax) than using vocabulary and syntax in English because is new for them.

Likewise it is realized that their primordial necessities are: to speak language fluency, to express their views and opinions in class and use the language inside so much as outside of the classroom as they are about to be future professionals, in the same way is observed another reasons for which the mother tongue interferes in their learning and it is because in most of the times to speak English they perform a double process, first they think in Spanish, after they translate to English later they produce the language, another reason too is that in opportunities some teachers are forced to use the native language to facilitate understanding of complex activities without realizing that they are creating an environment of low exposure to the language, also false cognates interfere in both languages(Spanish-English) since these words incite a confusion because these are similar in form but different in meaning, and as consequences of interference of mother tongue in language learning those students have a poor use of language, they tend to reproduce the language using Spanglish words and translate their ideas from Spanish to English.

### 1.3 PROBLEM FORMULATION

How does the mother tongue in English language learning interfere in students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo in academic period April 2015 - August 2015?

### 1.4 OBJECTIVES

### 1.4.1 GENERAL OBJECTIVE:

To determine how the mother tongue interferes in English language learning in students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo in academic period April 2015 - August 2015.

### 1.4.2 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

- To investigate the causes and effects that provokes the interference of mother tongue in English Language learning.
- To analyze how the mother tongue interferes in English Language learning.
- To get conclusions about the interference of mother tongue in English Language Learning.


### 1.5 PROBLEM JUSTIFICATION

The purpose of this research project was to determine the interference of mother tongue in English language learning in students of seventh semester in Language career since nowadays English has become a universal language therefore learning English in a right way is indispensable.

Furthermore this thesis is relevant because it was very useful for teachers and students, not just at UNACH, also for other ones who are studying or teaching English since it is focused to determine the use of mother tongue in English language, in this way if students and teachers realize that the mother tongue is a negative transfer for their learning or teaching, they are going to avoid the use of it.

Likewise it is expected to determine the interference of mother tongue, for which is created a structured data collection questionnaire.

So there was a personal benefit as the problem of them is considered ours too, by the way the development of this thesis helped us to determine the use of mother tongue in our English learning or teaching because if through this thesis is evidenced that mother tongue interferes in English learning as much students as teachers are going to avoid it.

The place where there was developed our thesis is at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo, the population were 22 students from seventh semester of Language career who were studying in the afternoon from 3:00pm to $21: 00 \mathrm{pm}$ which provides us to make the research, also because the place of research offers all the facilities in terms of data collection because there is necessary permission from the Director of Language Career, the academic period in which the project was develop in April 2015 - August 2015, this period was considered enough for our research.

For the development of this research project, there were $\$ 300$ which were invested in a planned way for the investigation of this problem.

## CHAPTER II

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1 PREVIOUS RESEARCHERS BACKGROUND RELATED TO THE PROBLEM THAT IS INVESTIGATED

It was reviewed in the files of the library of Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación Humanas y Tecnologías at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo on March 19th, 2015 and was determined that there is no kind of similar study on this research that is proposing but if there will be in another library it will be used if is needed.

But there is a similar research project at Universidad Técnica de Ambato done by: Aguilar Amparo (2010), "LA INTERFERENCIA DE LA LENGUA MATERNA EN EL APRENDIZAJE DEL INGLÉS COMO SEGUNDO IDIOMA EN LOS ESTUDIANTES DEL SEGUNDO NIVEL DE INGLÉS DEL PARALELO "A" DEL "COLEGIO NACIONAL EXPERIMENTAL AMBATO", AÑO LECTIVO 2009 2010" and the conclusions were:

- There is interference of mother tongue in English language learning.
- Students do not analyze in details the new language that they are learning.
- Students use very often Spanish or mother tongue instead of English with their classmates.
- Students are afraid to English because they see it as a strange and difficult language.
- The teacher doesn't use appropriate strategies to force students to use English inside of classroom for sharing their ideas in a natural way.


### 2.2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

### 2.2.1 FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

First language 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 3 years. Acquisition of more than one language during early childhood leads to simultaneous multilingualism. (Avanika Sinha, 2009).

According this definition is understood that for learning the first language or mother tongue is not necessary study a lot because it comes naturally into us since it depends on the environment, and sometimes to reproduce the first language just people have to imitate to their parents, sisters, brothers and so on.

### 2.2.1.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There are four characteristic when a language is acquired:

## - It is an instinct.

This is true in the technical sense, i.e. it is triggered by birth and takes its own course, though of course linguistic input from the environment is needed for the child to acquire a specific language. As an instinct, language acquisition can be compared to the acquisition of binocular vision or binaural hearing.

## - It is very rapid.

The amount of time required to acquire one's native language is quite short, very short compared to that needed to learn a second language successfully later on in life.

## - It is very complete.

The quality of first language acquisition is far better than that of a second language (learned later on in life). One does not forget one's native language (though one
might have slight difficulties remembering words if you do not use it for a long time).

- It does not require instruction.

Despite the fact that many non-linguists think that mothers are important for children to learn their native language, instructions by parents or care-takers are unnecessary, despite the psychological benefits of attention to the child. (Chomsky, 1965)

That is why is understood when people acquire the first language or mother tongue is not necessary to have a technical study of it, because the language is acquired by instinct too fast according to their environment and does not require instructions, as it is learned and developed in a better way the language only in the environment.

### 2.2.1.2 CONDITIONS OF ACQUISITION.

## - Natural

This is characterized by continuous exposure to language data. This data is not ordered, i.e. the (child) learner is exposed to the performance of adult speakers of the language he/she is acquiring. There is little if any feedback to the acquirer with regard to this intake.

## - Controlled

This is intervallic if not to say sporadic. Furthermore it takes place against the background of another language, usually the first language (L1) of the learners. In exceptional cases acquisition can be both natural and controlled, i.e. where one obtains formal instruction (or gives it one to oneself) and lives in an environment where the target language is spoken. Controlled acquisition is further characterized by an ordered exposure to the data of the language.

## - Guided language acquisition

This is an intermediary type between the two just discussed and is characterized by prescriptive corrections on the part of the child's contact persons, i.e. mother, father, etc. Corrections show the transfer of adult grammars to children whereas natural language acquisition shows the gradual approximation of the child's grammar to the adult's. (Chomsky, 1965)

Otherwise the environment that surrounds people who acquire the first language is the same as that developed by contacting received either by their parents or friends of a natural, controlled and guided way to its grammatical correction.

### 2.2.1.3 HOW LANGUAGE IS TRANSMITTED

Language is obviously passed on from parents to their children. But on closer inspection one notices that it is the performance (in the technical sense) of the previous generation which is used as the basis for the competence of the next. To put it simply, children do not have access to the competence of their parents.

1) Linguistic input from parents (performance)
2) Abstraction of structures by children
3) Internalization (competence of next generation)

The above model is the only one which can account for why children can later produce sentences which they have never heard before: the child stores the sentence structures of his/her native language and has a lexicon of words as well. When producing new sentences, he/she takes a structure and fills it with words. This process allows the child to produce a theoretically unlimited number of sentences in his/her later life.

Note that certain shifts may occur if children make incorrect conclusions about the structure of the language they are acquiring on the basis of what they hear. Then
there is a discrepancy between the competence of their parents and that which they construct; this is an important source of language change.

Language acquisition for any generation of children consists of achieving mastery in four main areas acquiring:

1) A set of syntactic rules which specify how sentences are built up out of phrases and phrases out of words.
2) A set of morphological rules which specify how words are built up out of morphemes, i.e. grammatical units smaller than the word.
3) A set of phonological rules which specify how words, phrases and sentences are pronounced.
4) A set of semantic rules which specify how words, phrases and sentences are interpreted, i.e. what their meaning is. (Chomsky, 1965)

According Chomsky's point of view language transmission is from parents to child and they are storing words, sentences, and new structures in your mind to produce but also certain changes can occur if children do wrong conclusions about the structure of language and therefore require generating domain into four areas as they are, syntactic, morphological, phonological, and semantic.

### 2.2.2 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

A second language is typically an official or societal dominant language (e.g. English) needed for education, employment and other basic purposes. In Ecuador, English is learnt as a second or foreign language that is not widely used in the learner's immediate social context that might be used for future travel or other crosscultural communication situations or studied as a curricular requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or necessary practical application. (Avanika Sinha, 2009)

Learning a second language is very important for people because if people have a wide knowledge about two or more languages they are going to have more opportunities to look for good jobs, travel to other countries but, people must be conscious that if they want to learn a new language or a second language is primordial study a lot, no just waiting to learn at school or at the university because it is better if there are a self-study for example searching information on internet, dictionaries, books.

### 2.2.2.1 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STAGES.

Learners go through different stages of language development than first language learners. A second language is acquired through multiple stages:

- Pre-production
- Early production
- Speech emergence
- Intermediate fluency


## - Pre-production

At the pre-production stage, the learner listens and absorbs the sounds and rhythms of the language. Learners might respond with gestures or physical actions, indicating they have understood what is said. The technique of Total Physical Response, or TPR, actively involves learners in responding to spoken language. Many learners will be shy about speaking and need an environment that feels safe and free of overt correction. The learner may begin to isolate and pronounce individual words.

## - Early production

At the early production stage the learner produces single words and two to three word phrases. Responses to questions will be a combination of words, phrases, and gestures. Many learners at the early production stage enjoy repeating simple rhymes, songs, or word plays. These sorts of activities help them refine their awareness of the
sound system of the language. Learners at this stage still need a safe, comfortable atmosphere to encourage oral language.

## - Speech emergence

At the speech emergence stage the learner experiments more freely with the language, combining words and phrases. Speech is more complex and at the same time errors in syntax are obvious. The learner responds readily to questions and benefits from modeling of correct language rather than overt correction.

## - Intermediate fluency

At the intermediate fluency stage the learner is capable of initiating and sustaining conversations and hearing his or her own errors. The degree to which the learner can correct those errors varies with the subject being discussed and the learner's vocabulary relative to that subject. Many learners at this level sound fluent, but they still have large gaps in vocabulary and syntax. They are capable of speaking with intermediate fluency in conversation and group discussions. However, this oral proficiency does not necessarily imply academic fluency. The learner may be able to engage in conversation about daily events and still have difficulty with academic language, reading, and writing. (Anonymous author, 2011)

Depending on that people need to go through different stages to achieve the acquisition of a second language as pre-production, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency and there the person observed, produce, experiment and is finally ready to start a conversation extent that can self-correcting.

### 2.2.2.2 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION SEVERAL COGNITIVE AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

These include:

- Age

Children who begin the process of learning English as a second language during their early childhood years generally achieve higher levels of proficiency (Krashen, Long, \& Scarcella, 1979).

- Acculturation

Patterns of second language use will take learners longer to internalize over the more outward aspects of a new culture (e.g., clothing styles, music) (Ovando, Collier, \& Combs, 2003).

## - Attitude and Motivation

Positive attitudes along with high levels of motivation are important aspects necessary to achieve proficiency in a second language (Hamayan \& Damico, 1991)

- Learning Style

A learner's culturally influenced preferred styles of learning may differ from the teacher's preferred styles of teaching, resulting in an inadequate learning progress (Grossman, 1995), including progress toward learning a second language.

- Native Language Proficiency

Proficiency in the student's first language provides the foundation for successfully acquiring a second language (Coyne, Kameenui, \& Carnine, 2007; Cummins, 1989).

## - Community/Family

Cultural and linguistic values and abilities are essential to successful second language acquisition (Baca \& Cervantes, 2004). (Michael Orosco AND John J. Hoover, 2008)

All these factors are dependent learning and appropriate processes of language such as their age when they are children have a better development of knowledge, attitude, and motivation and so on.

### 2.2.2.3 THE FIVE PRIMARY LINGUISTIC ELEMENTS

Acquiring any language means learning five primary linguistic elements: phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics, and pragmatics.

- Phonology

Phonology includes knowing all of the sounds that are included in a language and knowing how the sounds are combined. For example, the English letter combinations $\mathrm{sc}, \mathrm{sp}$, and st, do not exist in Spanish at the beginning of words. Thus, to pronounce these letter combinations, native Spanish speakers learning English tend to add an /e/ sound to the beginning of these letter combinations (e.g. /esc/, /esp/, as in school, especial) because in Spanish words with sc, sp, and st combinations begin with an /e/ sound (e.g. "escuela", "especial"). (Gass \& Selinker, 2001)

## - Syntax

Syntax is grammar, the rules that govern word order in sentences. Knowing the grammatical rules allows the speaker to produce an infinite set of sentences that can be easily understood by any individual proficient in that language. For example, the sentence: "The green turtle ran across the street to look for her friend the duck," can be understood by proficient native English speakers even though it is unlikely that the individual has encountered this particular sentence before (Gass \& Selinker, 2001).

## - Morphology

Morphology is the study of word formation. Morphemes represent the minimal unit of meaning in words. For example, the word fitness is made up of two morphemes: fit and ness. Ness is considered a bound morpheme because it can never be a word by itself, while fit is defined as a free morpheme because it is a word in and of itself like the words man, woman, and moon. Words can be created by adding morphemes, as in entangle: dis+entangle, dis+entangl+ing. The ways words are used in sentences also follow accepted patterns. For example, English speakers say, "Mt. Everest is a high mountain," but not "The Empire State Building is a high building." (They would say, "The Empire State Building is a tall building.") Sometimes the reason certain word combinations are appropriate is clear, while at other times the combination appears to be quite arbitrary (Gass \& Selinker, 2001).

## - Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning. Knowledge of the semantics of a language also includes knowledge of the reference of words, word combinations, and limitation of word meanings. For example, in English the word bank has multiple meanings. When a reader encounters the word bank in text such as "The children sat very close to the river bank admiring the elegant movements of the swans," he knows from the context that the word bank is being used to represent a margin. Knowing that words may have multiple meanings, and knowing those meanings, allows listeners and readers to interpret messages appropriately. Word combinations also affect the meaning of a sentence. For example, the meaning of the sentence: "The dog bit the man" is different from the meaning of "The man bit the dog" although both sentences include exactly the same words. (Doris Baker \& Scott Baker, 2009)

## - Pragmatics

Pragmatics refers to the way language is used in context. For example, when a teacher says; eyes on me, a direction is asked and the expectation is that students will look at the teacher. The teacher is not suggesting she has eyes on her body
somewhere. Word order has also an effect on pragmatics. For example, when a child orders a chocolate and vanilla ice cream cone, the order of the flavors may be important to understand which flavor comes first and which comes second. (Doris Baker \& Scott Baker, 2009)

The level of importance of each of these elements varies at different points in the development of language proficiency. A speaker and an apprentice, and the differences follow predictable stages of development. For example, reading development sounds in words similarly, understanding the pragmatics of a language requires that second language learners understand phonology, morphology, and semantics.

### 2.2.3 EXPOSURE TO FIRST LANGUAGE

There is no doubt that, apart from biological factors, exposure is of crucial importance in enhancing first language (L1) acquisition. According to Kennedy (1973), a child who begins to acquire his L1 is normally exposed to a rich linguistic environment, consisting of a range of un-simplified adult grammatical and lexical items, many of which are incomprehensible to the child. He says:
'No two children are exposed to the same primary linguistic data, or the same amount of such data, and yet despite such different experience and wide differences in intelligence, almost all children are able to crack the code of the linguistic system of their culture and learn to understand and produce sentences' (ibid.: 68-69).

The acquisition of the L1 takes place within the context of a long period of physical and cognitive development and of socialization. The language is acquired in the context of a community of speakers.

In emphasizing the importance of exposure in L1 acquisition Steinberg (1982) says:
'...the nature of the speech and environment input which children receive is especially contrived to assist language learning and that unfortunate children who have been
exposed to language mainly through television or by overhearing adults' conversation do not acquire significant language knowledge'. (Steinberg, 1982)

The acquisition of first language depends on the environment that is why children are able to produce sentences and understand their native language for communicating, and media is an important tool for learning first language even if the child is very little he/she is not going to understand grammatical and lexical items also is possible to realize that not all children are exposed to the same primary linguistic data therefore is produced a difference in their intelligence.

### 2.2.3.1 INNATENESS AND LANGUAGE

The philosophical debate over innate ideas and their role in the acquisition of knowledge has a venerable history. It is thus surprising that very little attention was paid until early last century to the questions of how linguistic knowledge is acquired and what role, if any, innate ideas might play in that process.

To be sure, many theorists have recognized the crucial part played by language in our lives, and have speculated about the (syntactic and/or semantic) properties of language that enable it to play that role. However, few had much to say about the properties of us in virtue of which we can learn and use a natural language. To the extent that philosophers before the 20th century dealt with language acquisition at all, they tended to see it as a product of our general ability to reason - an ability that makes us special, and that sets us apart from other animals, but that is not tailored for language learning in particular.

On Chomsky's view, the language faculty contains innate knowledge of various linguistic rules, constraints and principles; this innate knowledge constitutes the 'initial state' of the language faculty. In interaction with one's experiences of language during childhood - that is, with one's exposure to what Chomsky calls the 'primary linguistic data' or 'pld' - it gives rise to a new body of linguistic knowledge, namely, knowledge of a specific language (like Chinese or English). This 'attained' or 'final' state of the language faculty constitutes one's 'linguistic
competence' and includes knowledge of the grammar of one's language. (Chomsky, 1965)

This knowledge, according to Chomsky, is essential to our ability to speak and understand a language (although, of course, it is not sufficient for this ability: much additional knowledge is brought to bear in 'linguistic performance,' that is, actual language use).

### 2.2.3.2 PRACTICE

Practice is defined by Seliger as '...any verbal interaction between the learner and others in his environment. Usually such interaction consists of an output speech act by the learner and an input speech act from some other speaker... Practice also consists of covert activity such as listening to the radio, watching television and reading' (Seliger 1977)

There is a consensus of opinion among language learning theorists and practicing language teachers that, in L2 learning, the amount of practice that a learner is willing to put in is crucial in determining success. Language is learned through use in that the learner must be actively involved in trying to communicate in real situations; rich experience of the language is essential (Ingram 1978). Perhaps the following points by Politzer (1965) would sufficiently support this claim:

1. Irrespective of the teaching methods used, language learning needs a tremendous amount of practice and perseverance. It is impossible for one to understand a language without listening to it a great deal and impossible for one to learn to speak a language without speaking it.
2. Whatever the disadvantage of lower language aptitude may be, it can be overcome by sufficient practice and exposure.

Practice is the best technique to purchase a second language in addition can create our own ideas and develop ourselves in daily life, whatever methods and teaching techniques nothing beats practice of the four abilities, attitudes and aptitude of each person. (Politzer, 1965)

### 2.2.3.3 LANGUAGE CONTACTS

The degree of exposure to the TL could be determined by the nature of contact that takes place between two social groups, referred to by Schumann (1978) as the L2 learning group and the TL group, who are in a contact situation, but who speak different languages. Certain social factors can either promote or inhibit contact between the two groups and thus affect the degree to which the L2 group learns the TL. Among the factors proposed by Schumann are:

## - Social dominance patterns

If the L2 learning group is politically, culturally, technically, or economically superior (dominant) to the TL group, it will tend not to learn the IL. If the L2 learning group is inferior (subordinate) to the TL group, there will also be social distance between the two groups, and the L2 group will tend to resist learning the TL. If the L2 learning group and the TL group are roughly equal politically, culturally, technically, and economically, then there is the likelihood of a more extensive contact between the two groups, and the acquisition of TL by the L2 learning group will be enhanced.

- Three integration strategies - assimilation, preservation and acculturation

If the L2 learning group assimilates, i.e. gives up its own life style and values and adopts those of the TL group, contact between the two groups is maximized, thus enhancing acquisition of the TL. If the L2 learning group chooses preservation as its integration strategy, i.e. maintains its own life style and values and rejects those of the TL group, social distance between the two groups is created, making it unlikely that the L 2 learning group will acquire the TL. If the L 2 learning group acculturates, i.e. adapts to the life style of the TL group but maintains its own life style and values for intragroup use, acquisition of the TL will take place at varying degrees.

## - Enclosure

If the two groups share the same churches, schools, clubs, recreational facilities, crafts, professions, and trades, enclosure will be low, contact between the two groups is enhanced, and thus acquisition of the TL by the L2 learning group is facilitated. If it is the contrary, enclosure will be high, contact between. The groups is limited, thereby opportunities to acquire the TL is reduced.

## - Cohesiveness and size

If the L2 learning group is cohesive, its members will tend to remain separate from the TL group, and if the L2 learning group is large, intragroup contact will be more frequent than intergroup contact. Such situations will reduce the opportunities for acquisition of the TL.

## - Congruence or similarity

If the cultures of the L2 learning group and the TL group are similar, social contact is more likely and second language learning will be facilitated.

## - Intended length of residence

If the L 2 learning group intends to remain for a long time in the TL area, contacts between the two groups are likely to develop extensively, thus promoting the L2 learning.

Language could be determined by the nature of contact that takes place between two social groups, using determine factors Social dominance patterns: assimilation, preservation and acculturation, Enclosure, Cohesiveness and size, Congruence or similarity, Intended length of residence and form a proper communication.

### 2.2.3.4 LANGUAGE POLICY

Apart from contacts, exposure to a particular TL is also determined by language policy. Observation has shown that the spread and recession of a particular L2 in a particular country are the result of its language policy. This is the case of, to quote a few examples, Dutch in Indonesia (Sutan Takdir Alisjahbana 1974) and English in India (Fasold 1984; Dakin 1968) and Malaysia (Asmah Haji Omar 1982), and English and French in some African countries (Tiffen 1968). Society would provide the teaching of a particular L2 whenever the need arises. As stated by Wilkins (1972), usually the need for the L2 exists in multilingual countries wherein there is no sufficiently dominant language to be made the national language. There may be one but there is political resistance to its acceptance or that the language itself has not yet evolved into a satisfactory tool for the expression of modern scientific needs. Normally, the chosen L2 has some historical connection within the country as in the case of former colonies. The scale and variety of use of the L2 differs enormously? it can encompass part or all of government administration, education, and commerce. The L2 situation will not exist if the local language can be used in almost all activities. This being the case, the L2 will at the very least be taught as a subject in schools. Subsequently, there would then be a steady drop in the standard of L2 proficiency.

### 2.2.3.5 RESEARCH FINDINGS

Studies cited below serve to indicate the importance of exposure in language learning - the higher the exposure, the better the learner performs in the TL.

An observation by Lambert et al. (cited in Kennedy 1973) indicated that using the TL as a medium of instruction increased proficiency in the language. In a research programme conducted by him and his associates at McGill University in Montreal, children who began elementary school as monolingual speakers of English were being taught at school as if they were monolingual speakers of French, from the time they began kindergarten through the primary classes. The programme attempts to achieve bilingualism through 'a home-school language switch'. By exposing them to

French through the teaching of several subjects in the language, their control of spoken French developed rapidly. At the fifth year, the children became very fluent, although their production of French was still not equal to that of the native speakers. Nevertheless, they had learned far more than they would have through typical FL learning classes, and without any adverse effect on their English language abilities, or their academic achievement.

In another study by Briere (1978), it was observed that, among Native Mexican children learning Spanish as L2, environmental variables (such as whether the parents and siblings spoke Spanish, amount of attendance at school, and need for the parents to speak Spanish to travel for work) enhanced proficiency in the TL. It was further observed that the children who scored the highest on the test of Spanish were those whose community was the closest to a Spanish-speaking community. 'Apparently, the closer to a Spanish speaking community a Native Mexican community is, the greater is the exposure to and the need for Spanish as a second language' (ibid.: 171). And their study revealed that boys who normally spent most of the time with their fathers tended to be more proficient in Spanish (since, in a community of high unemployment, their fathers must know some Spanish in order to obtain jobs outside the community).

Briere's finding reflects the role of language contact in determining the success of L2 learning. This being the case, L2 learners learning the TL in the TL community is at the advantage of being substantially exposed to the language whereas a great majority of L2 learners learning the TL outside the TL community are not. As observed by Politzer (1965), all immigrants coming to the United States eventually learn to speak English - no matter what their educational level or language aptitude so long as they continue to expose themselves to the TL environment.

Exposure to a given language environment provides the learner opportunities to practice the TL. Rajagopal (1976), in a survey among Malay-medium pupils in selected schools in Selangor, observed that pupils who were less competent in English were those handicapped by their environment. They received less
opportunity and encouragement to practice speaking English at home. Even their contacts outside the home did not provide them with situations in which they could practice speaking the language.

Rajagopal's finding strengthens the assumption that Malay-medium learners of ESL are insufficiently exposed to English; hence their poor performance in the language (Balaetham 1982; Omar Mohd Hashim 1982). And the reason for this lack of exposure to the TL is due to the fact that English is not the medium of instruction anymore but is merely a subject taught in schools. As stated by Habibah Salleh:
'With its status as a second language, being taught as one of the subjects in the school curriculum, English language teaching has been stripped of all the back-up it once had. This means a drastic reduction in contact hours, in exposure to the language, and in actual use of the language'.

The assumption that the more the learner practices the more competent he is in the TL was confirmed by Seliger (1977) who worked among a sample of adult learners of ESL in an intensive programme. He observed that, given the time constraint, formal instruction did not permit much practice in the TL. Therefore, additional practice outside class was of vital importance in acquiring L2 competence. This means that, given an optimal teaching system, much of what must be learned must be acquired outside class hours built on what was acquired within a formal instructional framework. Seliger points out:
'...that some learners, because of some cognitive or affective characteristics, are able to exploit formal learning environments for extensive practice while others derive only limited benefit from formal instruction. It also appears...that those who are capable of deriving the most benefit from formal learning environments may be the most likely to use this formally acquired base for further language development in informal or naturalistic learning environments'.

Based on the intensity of practice, Seliger classified the subjects into two categories:
(1) High input generators, i.e. learners who interacted intensively, who seek out opportunities to use an L2 and who caused others to direct language at them, and
(2) Low input generators, i.e. those who either avoided interacting or played relatively passive roles in language interaction situations. Seliger's result showed that the former were more successful in acquiring L2 proficiency than the latter.

Hamayan et al. (1977) examined the constellation of personality and language exposure factors associated with learning French as an L2 among three groups of students:(1) early French immersion group and (2) late French immersion group, both wherein the students received instruction in most subjects in French, and (3) English controlled group wherein the students learnt French only as a subject while instructions in other subjects were in English. They observed that, regardless of the nature of the French programmes, those learners who consistently used English and less French when communicating with acquaintances were less proficient in both oral and written French than learners who reported less consistent use of English. Similarly, students who reported a high degree of shyness performed less well on French reading comprehension than did students who reported a low degree of shyness. Thus, it is apparent that learning an L2 is more effective when there is sufficient practice and, insofar as shy students may be less likely to practice it, less proficiency will be attained.

But, the sufficiency of practice is dependent upon the availability of opportunity to practice. In the school context, the sources of opportunity to practice speaking in the TL are the teachers and peers. Chesterfield et al. (1983), studying the influence of teachers and peers in L2 acquisition among pre-school learners of English, observed that in classrooms where English-preferring children (i.e. those who speak English most of the time) predominated, those children who used relatively more English with peers and who increased their English usage over time generally showed the greatest increase in English proficiency. In classrooms where the majority of students were Spanish-preferring (i.e those who speak Spanish most of the time), children
who showed the greatest increase in English proficiency were those who used relatively more English over time with the teacher. The finding served to imply that learners who were highly exposed to the TL and who took this opportunity to interact in the language were more successful in attaining proficiency. And the teachers and peers were the sources for exposure to the TL and, in turn, for increasing proficiency.

Chandrasegaran (1979), in a study among Malay-medium learners of ESL in Johor, noticed a definite link between degree of exposure to English and competence in the language. She found that urban pupils tended to be better at English than rural pupils but she ruled out the factor of socioeconomic status as the reason since $90 \%$ of the pupils in her sample, both rural and urban, came from working class families. She also dismissed the factor of quality of instructions in rural schools as being inferior since all government schools followed the same curriculum and were staffed by teachers of similar qualifications. Nor were urban students more strongly motivated or more favorable in attitude towards English than rural pupils. The possibility was that urban pupils, by living in an environment where the opportunity for hearing and reading English was more readily available, experienced wider contact with English and so became more competent in the language.

Lieberson (1972) provided an example of the importance of exposure to the TL in the wider context of society i.e. English in French-speaking Canada, where the language was taught as a subject in French-medium schools attended by almost all French-speaking children. It was observed that not all L2 learning, however, took place in the classrooms. A lot of competence in English would be gained as young people found it necessary to participate in society, where English was used in the domain of employment. Thus competence in English increased due to the increase in exposure.

### 2.2.4 EXPOSURE TO SECOND LANGUAGE

Exposure as one of the conditions for L1 acquisition holds equally true for second language (L2) learning. If children are exposed to the L2 in the same way as they are exposed to the L1, greater success will be achieved. This is because in the 'natural' L2 learning situation, the pressure to acquire the IL in order to control the environment is indeed tremendous (Wilkins 1972). Unfortunately, according to Ravem (1974), the learner is very often not '...exposed to "primary linguistic data" in the sense that an L1 learner is, but rather to carefully graded language items presented in small doses for a few hours a week.

Similarly, in Kennedy's opinion (Kennedy 1973), the amount of exposure to the IL that an L2 learner receives in class is certainly generally much less than the amount he receives in acquiring the L1. The L2 learner is typically a part-time learner. Apart from the limited amount of time he is exposed to the L2, how the time is spent is also critical. Instead of having a rich linguistic environment, the L2 learner is usually exposed to selected phonological, syntactical, lexical, and thematic items. It is the teacher who decides and arranges the sequence of the presentation of these items to the learner.

Clearly, even though there is a similar condition between L1 acquisition and 12 learning, i.e. exposure, the amount of exposure itself is, indeed, different. The amount received by those learning the L 2 is far more limited than that received by children acquiring the L1. Secondly, in L2 learning the learner has the choice of whether or not, and to what extent, to expose himself to the TL, while in L1 acquisition exposure is automatic and one can hardly imagine a normal child retreating from language interaction.

It is better if exposure to second language is in the same way than first language since people have more opportunities for learning, but unfortunately there are less exposure to second language and that is why there is not a meaningful learning about L2.

While in educational institutions English or second language is a part time by the way students have few time or they do not have enough time for learning a foreign language because most of the time they have an exposure to first language.

### 2.2.4.1 THE ROLE OF AGE IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There is general agreement among researchers that age does play an important role in language acquisition, in that children tend to learn languages with more ease, and with a more successful ultimate attainment than do adults. An illustrative example of this is the case of deaf children and adults acquiring sign language, as "the deaf are virtually the only neurologically normal people who make it to adulthood without having acquired a language" (Pinker 1994:37). Pinker points to examples where deaf parents have not, due to social norms, acquired sign language growing up, but have later made an effort to learn it as adults. Even though they have not been able to learn sign language fluently as adults, their child - despite having no other sources of sign language input than the parents' grammatically imperfect communication - has been more successful than its parents in acquiring the language (Pinker 1994:37-18). The same is experienced in spoken language: While adults generally do not acquire their second language to the same fluency as those who speak it as their first language, children, even those who are adopted and have not been exposed to the language during the first couple of years of their life, seem to acquire the language with the same success as any native speaker. Pinker notes that "even the adults who succeed at grammar often depend on the conscious exercise of their considerable intellects, unlike children, to whom acquisition just happens" (Pinker 1994:291). One theory attempting to explain this tendency is the Critical Period Hypothesis. The Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that there is a critical period in the development of all humans within which they have to start acquiring a language to potentially reach successful ultimate attainment. Lenneberg (1967) was the first to formulate this hypothesis, claiming that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear [after puberty], and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort. Foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty." (in Hyltenstam \& Abrahamsson 2003:540)

Lenneberg explained this effect by the "completion of the hemispheric lateralization", and restricted the critical period of language acquisition to the period between age 2 and puberty (Hyltenstam \& Abrahamsson 2003:539). Even though researchers generally agree that sensitivity to language acquisition is connected to the age factor, the exact period within which this is critical is contested. While some studies suggest differences of ultimate attainment when acquisition of sign language has been initiated at age 4 and at age 6 , others have suggested that the critical period for phonology terminates at age 1 with insufficient phonology 12 resulting in "flawed semantic and syntactic capacities" (Hyltenstam \& Abrahamsson 2003:543544). An experimental study of speech perception through visual language discrimination showed that monolingual infants by watching silent talking faces were able to discriminate between languages at the age of 4 and 6 months, but no longer at the age of 8 months, suggesting that the critical period for this ability had passed (Weikum et al 2007). Pinker suggested a broader and more general definition, tying several of the existing hypotheses together, by stating that "acquisition of a normal language is guaranteed for children up to the age of six, is steadily compromised from then until shortly after puberty, and is rare thereafter" (Pinker 1994:293). According to Dekeyser (2000), an important difference concerning the age factor in language acquisition, which might be seen as a specification of the Critical Period Hypothesis, is the manner in which learners profit the most. He points to results indicating that "somewhere between the ages of 6-7 and 16-17, everybody loses the mental equipment required for the implicit induction of the abstract patterns underlying a human language" (Dekeyser 2000:518). As a consequence of this cognitive change, younger children are most effective in language acquisition when being exposed to implicit linguistic input around them, as opposed to explicitly being taught grammar rules and vocabulary. Older learners however, seem to benefit from additional explicit L2 instruction. It seems important to take this difference of effectiveness of learning mechanisms into account when teaching an L2 to children. For younger children then, the importance of input should be taken advantage of during early years, while the focus upon explicit instruction should be set to a later stage. (Tonje Gauslaa Sivertzen, 2013)

There are some opinions about that as Adults are superior to children in rate of acquisition and older children learn more rapidly than younger children do and vice versa because children are like a sponge and acquire easier the language.

### 2.2.4.2 VOCABULARY AS AN INDICATOR OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

To measure the children's level and growth of the second language in the current study, it is the size of their vocabulary that has been tested for. Clarke (2003) points to the fact that "words come first in language acquisition. [...] Without words, there would be no sound structure, no word structure, and no syntax. The lexicon is central in language, and central in the acquisition of language." (1) Alan Juffs supports this view, stating that "no matter one's theoretical perspective, the lexicon is a key component of language" (2009:181). Being both a central and an initial component of language learning, the size of the vocabulary is commonly seen as a good indicator of language skills. 15 Within the field of vocabulary, a common distinction is that drawn between active and passive vocabulary. Traditionally, the passive vocabulary is thought to consist of all the words which the speaker can recognize. The active vocabulary on the other hand, consists of the words that "can be produced at will" (Gass \& Selinker 1994:272). This distinction is closely connected to "the well-established fact from child language acquisition studies that comprehension normally precedes production." (Krashen, 1981). Even though the child has encountered a word through input, and is able to recognize it on a second encounter, it is not a given that the world is familiar enough for the speaker to be able to think of it and produce it in a second language production situation. Another distinction to be drawn when it comes to comprehension of vocabulary is that of potential and real vocabulary. Real vocabulary "consists of all the words the learner is familiar with after (and because of) exposure" (Gass \& Selinker 1994:272). Potential vocabulary, however, "consists of words a learner will recognize even though they have yet to be seen in the second language" (Gass \& Selinker 994:272). An example of such words is that of cognates, which are words that are similar in form to their translation equivalent in the first (or other acquired) language, so that the learner can guess its
meaning even though it is the first time he encounters it in the second language. One occurrence of cognates from the testing of the current study was when testing for the comprehension of the English word "hopping". It became clear that this was only part of many of the pupils' potential vocabulary when they were presented this word and four illustrations to choose from. Several of the pupils expressed discontentment when presented with the word, asking "Do you mean 'jumping'?" or assuring/correcting the experimenter: "...but it is called 'jumping'." In English and Norwegian, "hopping" and its translation equivalent "hope" are cognates. Apparently, several of the pupils had only been exposed to the word "jumping" and never the word "hopping". Still, they all pointed to the correct illustration of a girl playing hopscotch. (Tonje Gauslaa Sivertzen, 2013)

To measure the level and growth of the second language is through language that the child acquired during their apprenticeship. Vocabulary has been recognized as a vital component and a good indication of a second language.

### 2.2.4.3 BARCROFT'S FIVE PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE SECOND LANGUAGE VOCABULARY

## - Present new words frequently and repeatedly in input

The more frequently language learners are exposed to foreign vocabulary; the more likely they are to remember it. Studies suggest that most learners need between 5-16 'meetings' with a word in order to retain it. Byki does an excellent job providing this repeated exposure. Every word and phrase must be correctly identified multiple times to obtain the highest score, while the variety of exercises and activities prevents this repetition from being boring. Language learners are thus more likely to use and enjoy the program long enough to accomplish a sufficient number of 'meetings' to master the new vocabulary terms. At the same time, a proprietary algorithm tracks each learner's progress and presents the words that need the most work more often than those that have already been mastered. In that way, language learners get more exposure to the words that they find most difficult. By seeing these words more often, they can focus their attention where it is needed most.

- Use meaning-bearing comprehensible input when presenting new words

In order for learners to successfully make the association between a foreign language word and its meaning, that meaning must be conveyed in a comprehensible manner. One method for making foreign terms comprehensible and thus promoting vocabulary learning is to present each word in a variety of ways. Byki therefore uses a number of techniques to make foreign language vocabulary memorable for language learners. For example, every foreign language term is presented not only as text, but also as audio, so that language learners can hear the correct pronunciation as many times as they need to fix it in their mind. The pronunciation can even be slowed down to help language learners focus on the smaller nuances. Many of the foreign language terms in Byki are also presented along with pictures that convey the meaning in yet another form. This additional input reinforces the word's meaning and assists the learner in remembering it.

## - Limit forced output during the initial stages of learning new words

Forcing language learners to rush into sentence formation can interfere with vocabulary learning during the beginning stages of acquiring a new language. Instead, learners should be given time to absorb the meanings of individual words at their own pace before being required to use them in a larger context. Language learners who take that time are far more likely to use the words correctly when they do choose to form sentences. Byki gives language learners all the time they need to focus on foreign language terms. It allows learners to concentrate exclusively on words, so that they can master the necessary vocabulary before moving on to the next stage of learning a new language. When language learners who use Byki do feel ready to form sentences on their own, they will have a solid base of vocabulary with which to do so.

## - Limit forced semantic elaboration during the initial stages of learning new words

In addition to not forcing beginning language learners to immediately produce whole sentences, a vocabulary program should also avoid other kinds of elaboration that might produce negative effects on the learning of new words. Some learners may find it distracting or confusing if they are asked to perform other tasks at the same time that they are trying to commit new words to memory. Studies have shown, for example, that learners who were asked to either list their emotional associations for foreign language terms or count the letters in each foreign term they were learning actually had poorer recall for those vocabulary words than learners who concentrated just on the words themselves. Byki focuses on creating accurate one-to-one associations between the foreign language terms and their native language meanings. Each flash card displays one foreign language term and its meaning, with no extraneous information to distract the learner. The association between the word and its meaning is further enhanced by allowing the learner to translate the word from both language directions - first, by seeing the foreign word and having to produce the native language meaning, then by seeing the native language word and having to produce the foreign language equivalent. Byki thus sets the stage for truly effective vocabulary learning.

## - Progress from less demanding to more demanding vocabulary-related activities

Vocabulary learning is most effective when learners start off with a small group of words, then gradually add more terms as the first ones are mastered. Byki handles this process automatically, by keeping track of the words that a learner has worked with and introducing new vocabulary at the most appropriate times. The exercises in Byki also progress from easier to more challenging, allowing learners to steadily build their confidence and their ability to produce the foreign language.

### 2.2.5 LANGUAGE ENVIRONMENT

According to Dulay et al. (1982), language environment '...encompasses everything the language learner hears and sees in the new language. It may include a wide variety of situations - exchanges in restaurants and stores, conversations with friends, watching television, reading street signs and newspapers, as well as classroom activities - or it may be very sparse, including only language classroom activities and a few books and records.

And, in stressing the importance of language environment, they say:
'The quality of the language environment is of paramount importance to success in learning a new language. If students are exposed to a list of words and their translations, together with a few simple readings in the new language, they will perhaps be able to attain some degree of reading skill in language, but listening and speaking skills will remain fallow... If one is exposed only to classroom drills and dialogues, one may acquire substantial mastery of classroom communication skills but still remain at a loss in other areas of social discourse. And of course, with no exposure at all, no learning can take place.

The above quotation indicates the importance of exposure and at the same time it implies the importance of practice in L2 learning.

Language environment is considered all what people see and hear, and is included different kind of situations as for example: talking with friends, the media, classroom activities and so on.

It is important to be exposed to all language skills because just in this way people will develop the four skills together, otherwise they will develop just two or three skills depending on exposure and environment.

In conclusion the importance of exposure and practice are important for improving the language.

### 2.2.5.1 THE EFFECTS OF LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT IN SOCIETY

Are there any effects of linguistic environment on learning or acquiring a foreign language? Most of us know or know of people who have learnt to speak a foreign language quite fluently without any teaching at all: people who travel and work abroad a lot; people who stay in their own country but who mix with speakers of another language. Even quite young children, who drop out of school, often classed as "unteachable", become unofficial tourist guides and end up managing to communicate in several foreign languages. They are not always totally accurate, but they achieve a level of language ability that is entirely adequate for their needs. There is another case that many young children whose parents speak different languages (first language and foreign language) can acquire a second language in circumstances similar to those of first language acquisition, the vast majority of people are not exposed to a second language until much later.

What is it that helps people like these to learn? The linguistic environment for language acquisition is very important. For the children, they often exposure to the different language and speak in different languages. They not only acquire their first language but also can acquire the foreign language. For those abroad or mix with speakers of another language, they are usually very motivated-they have a pressing desire to communicate and to get their meaning across. They receive a lot exposure-they hear the language in use and pick up expressions they need. And they have many opportunities to speak and experiment with the language. Their interlocutors do not expect them to be perfect, and will often support their attempts to communicate by suggesting words and phrases. (Kennedy, 1973)

### 2.2.5.2 THE LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT IN THE CLASSROOM

Today, in language schools all over the world the largest group of students consists of people who have studied English at school but feel they know nothing and want to start again. Many Chinese school learners (especially non-English majors) have failed to learn English in much the same way. (Wang Cheng-jun. 2004) They have a small battery of formulaic phrases, but are unable or too shy to put them to use.

Although many of them pass their examinations successfully, the find they cannot cope in conversation with a fluent speaker. One reason why this happens is because much of their exposure consists of written language at sentence level: they are used to reading textbook exercises and hearing carefully scripted dialogues. Many have been exposed too little real spoken interaction other than instruction-focused teacher talk.

What is it that prevents students learning or acquiring foreign language which in order to communicate with speakers of non-native language? In our Chinese classroom (especially non-English major class), they are often large classes. So, in large classes, learners feel shy about talking in front of the class. Speaking is rarely tested, and exams based on grammar often result in a lot of direct grammar teaching with focus on form rather than meaning. At present, China's textbooks pay more attention to listening and speaking activities, but learners (non-English majors) fail to use foreign language correctly and freely when expressing themselves. (Wang Cheng-jun. 2004)

There are several reasons why people learn foreign languages. Linguistic environment for the acquisition of language is one of the most important reasons. Although it is not the only reason for the acquisition of language, also some people learn a language naturally without classroom instruction. On the other hand, many people do not learn the students who have had formal instruction and then spent time in the country in question are likely to achieve a better practice by comparison of only studying in a classroom and not in the environment.

### 2.2.5.3 LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Environmentalist theories of learning hold that an organism's nurture, or experience, are of more important to development than its nature, or innate contributions. Indeed, they will typically deny that innate contributions play any role at all other than that of providing the animal with the internal structure that environmental forces can proceed to shape. The best-known examples are the various forms of behaviorist and
neo-behaviorist stimulus-response learning theories, such as those of Skinner (1957), but such positions have had little impact since Chomsky's (1959) famous review of Skinner's verbal Behavior, and subsequent writings by Chomsky and his followers, despite attempted rebuttals and serious problems with nativist alternatives. Neobehaviorist learning theory was influential in language teaching circles; chiefly through the underpinnings it provided the Audio-Lingual Method in the work of Fries, Lado, Politzer, Prator and others (Larsen-Freeman Diane and Michael H. Long. 249-250).

In real life, it is clear that children acquire their first language without explicit learning. As we know, Creole languages are pidgins that have acquired native speakers. In linguistically mixed communities where a pidgin is used as the lingua franca, children may acquire it as their native language, particularly if their parents normally communicate in the pidgin. Where this occurs the language will re-acquire all the characteristics of a full, non-pidgin language. As spoken by an adult native speaker the language will have, when compared vocabulary, a wider range of syntactic possibilities, and an increased stylistic repertoire. It will also, of course, be used for all purposes in a full range of social situations. That is, the reduction that occurred during pidginization will be repaired, although the simplification and admixture will remain. This process whereby reduction is "repaired" by expansion is known as creolization and is one of the most fascinating processes of all in linguistic change. Children use a pidgin language as their native language and expand it in part by calling on the genetic mental resources all human beings are born with-the human language faculty-and that creolization thus provides us with an unusual and fascinating window into the human mind.

A foreign or second language is usually learned but to some degree may also be acquired or "picked up" depending on the environmental setting and the input received by the second-language learner. A pidgin language, then, is a lingua franca which has no native speakers. It is the product of a multilingual situation in which those who wish to communicate must find or improvise a simple language system that will enable them to do so. It is derived from a "normal" language through
simplification, reduction and interference or admixture, often considerable, from the native language or language of those who use it, especially so far as pronunciation is concerned. The most likely setting for the crystallization of a true pidgin language is probably a contact situation of this limited type involving three or more language groups: one "dominant" language, and at least two "non-dominant" languages. If contact between the speakers of the dominant language and the others is minimal, and the imperfectly learned dominant language is then used as a lingua Franca among the non-dominant groups, it is not difficult to see how a pidgin might arise. (Chomsky, 1959)

The language environment is evidence of practice for educators of various kinds. As the teaching of foreign language in the classroom is crucial for the communication environment. Students communicate with each other in the role play; this may be the use of or without the use of authentic materials. This means can express ideas of a topic in your own words.

### 2.2.5.4 LINGUISTIC INPUT UNDER THE LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT

The importance of input for learning came to the fore in the Input Hypothesis theory (Krashen 1985, 1994), perhaps the most widely known and controversial account of foreign language (or L2) acquisition. Its central claim is that language acquisition depends solely on "comprehensible input"-language which is slightly ahead of the learners' current stage but which they can comprehend through means such as situational clues; language is acquired through trying to understand what people are saying. The evidence for this claim comes from the adaptations in speech to language learners, from the initial "silent period" during which many L2 learners prefer not to speak, and from the success of immersion and bilingual classrooms (Krashen 1985). Fierce critics were made of Krashen's model (Mclaughlin1987, Cook1993), in particular that learners need to speak as well as listen. The model has gone into abeyance rather than being abandoned but it is still extremely attractive to many language teachers, and indeed to many linguistics students, because of the intuitive
commonsense of comprehensible input, and because of its brave attempt at an overall model of L2 learning. (Krashen, 1982)

In Linguistics students begin a conversation, students can make reasonable predictions about meaning, and check everything that is not sure I understand correctly, students should know when to ask and solve any linguistic error ie teachers and they themselves must effective methods of linguistic acquire a language as this is to isolate words or phrases and students must find their meaning and use.

### 2.2.5.5 AN EFFECTIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Some studies include a control group of students who did not go abroad but continued to participate in foreign language classes at home, and can thus shed light on whether the gains that the study-abroad students made were in fact attributable to the study-abroad experience. Finally, some studies include native speakers of the target and /or the students' first language in L1 transfer. Participants in study abroad research with a focus on pragmatic abilities. It is very useful that achieve a foreign language in study-abroad. We have no many opportunities to achieve real fluency in a foreign language country where it is spoken. Our students just learn a foreign language in Chinese classroom, and some of them are taught by no-English English teachers. So, it is very important to discuss how to effectively learn or acquire a foreign language in the language classroom as a setting where the target language is taught. The target language is taught in the language classroom as a subject only and is not commonly used as a medium of communication outside the classroom. In this sense it includes both 'foreign' language classrooms and 'second' language classrooms where the learners have no contact with the target language outside the language classroom. Two contextual aspects are of potential importance in language classroom settings according to Gardner and Clement (1990). One concerns the learning situation to be found in the classroom. The other is the level of support which parents give to the foreign or second language program.

With regard to the classroom learning situation, the role relationship between teacher and student are likely to be crucial.

In the case of traditional approaches to language teaching, where the target language is perceives primarily as an "object" to be mastered by learning about its formal properties, the teacher typically acts as a "knower/informer" and the learner as an "information seeker" (Corder, 1997b in Ellis Rod, 1999). In the case of innovative approaches where the emphasis is on the use of the target language in "social behavior" a number of different role relationships are possible, depending on whether the participants are "playing at talk", as in role play activities, or have a reallife purpose for communicating, as in information gap activities; the teacher can be "producer" or "referee" and the learner "actor" or "player". Corder notes, however, that in real-life situations outside the classroom, a somewhat different role relationship arises ("mentor" and "apprentice"). Thus, even "information learning" inside the classroom may differ from that found in natural setting.

Group work is often considered an essential feature of communicative language teaching. Long and Porter (1985) summarize the main pedagogic arguments in favor of it (Ellis Rod, 1999). It increases language practice opportunities, it improves the quality of student talk, it helps to individualize instruction, it promotes a positive affective climate, and it motivates learners to learn. In addition to these pedagogic arguments, a psycholinguistic justification has been advanced: group work provides the kind of input and opportunities for output that promote rapid foreign language (or L2) acquisition. It is a good way to learn or acquire foreign in classroom that group work based on tasks. In practice task refers to the idea of some kind of activity designed to engage the learner in using the language communicatively or reflectively in order to arrive at an outcome other than that of learning a specified feature of the foreign language (or L2). The study of "tasks" has proved to be of the most productive seams of foreign language (or L2) classroom research. It has been motivated in part by proposals for "task-based syllabuses" (see Long, 1985b; Prabha, 1987; Long and Crookes, 1992) (Ellis Rod, 1999). These attempts to specify the
content to be taught in terms of a series of activities to be performed by the students, either with the teacher or in small group work.

In considering what kinds of activity, situation and role are best suited to a specific learning group, the teacher must consider a number of factors. Teacher should engage his students' learning or acquisition in a large proportion of situations where they will later need to use their communicative language. In this way, he can be confident that most aspect of the language practiced (functions, structures, vocabulary and interpersonal skills) are relevant to learners' need. Learners are more likely to feel involved in situations where they can see the relevance of what they are doing and learning. If simulation is used, they may be role-playing activities based on their familiar realms of experience. So, the situations must be capable of stimulating learners to a high degree of communicative involvement. (Chengjun Wang 2009),

In other word, the linguistic environmental setting is great practical importance for educators of various kinds. As we are teaching foreign language in the classroom, it is very important to create a real communicative environment. And offer students enough effective linguistic environments to exposure to the foreign language and speak in foreign language. When people practice may obtain adequate and better education on their same country and is not necessary go to a country where that language (English) because spoken need willpower and constant practice inside and outside the classroom, with their friends, classmates and family.

## Chart No 2.1 Language environment

| Language environment |
| :---: |
| Media |
| School |
| Friends |
| Workplace |
| Information \& communication technologies |
| Family |
| Community |

Source: Chengjun Wang, 2009
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.6 IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Out of all the languages in the world, English is considered as the international language. There are some reasons why English is so important and many people attempt to learn it. Taking up a professional degree in the higher level of study, English is inevitable. Sound knowledge and mastery of English can't be set aside. For employability in the present setup and communication English plays a significant role. Every organization is in search of qualified, talented, smart and confident employees.

English place a vital role in higher education, research, for aesthetic aspect and employment too in this modern scenario. We are at present a member of the global village. Communication is possible mostly through English. It is used as a link language. Reference books necessary for carrying out higher education and for research are available mostly in English language. (V. Radhika \& Mary Surya Kala, 2013)

Learning English language nowadays is too important because most of the times are found information in English in our computers, books, advertisements, on internet and especially if people want to get a job in any organization, they must have a high level of English or they must be mastery of English.

If people hope to acquire a wide knowledge about the world is very important at least have a knowledge about two or more languages but one of them should be English since is considered an international language.

Chart No 2.2 Four reasons why learning English is so important

| Reasons | Arguments |
| :--- | :--- |
| Official language in a large <br> number of countries. | It is estimated that the number of people in the <br> world that use in English to communicate on a <br> regular basis is 2 billion! |
| Dominant business language. | It has become almost a necessity for people to <br> speak English if they are to enter a global <br> workforce |
| Many of the world's top films, <br> books and music $\quad$ are <br> published and produced in <br> English. | Therefore by learning English you will have <br> access to a great wealth of entertainment and <br> will be able to have a greater cultural |
| Most of the content produced <br> on the internet (50\%) is in <br> English | Knowing English will allow you access to an <br> incredible amount of information which may <br> not be otherwise available! Understanding |

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_as_a_second_or_foreign_language
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.6.1 ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE

In general, the most popular language is English. In this computer age, English is the only language that anyone can understand. So to say, it has become as an ideal language for expressing our feelings. As we know that we are living in the world of globalization. English language is a common language and is spoken in many countries. No one denies the importance of English language in the present time as global language. It is clear that the English language has become more dominant around the world. There is no doubt that, the English is language of communication
between the people with different cultures. It is also the language of computers that help to communicate with the people around the world through Internet technology and e-mail. (Mehmeti, 2014)

Within any doubt it is possible to affirm that English language nowadays has become a universal language because it is used in most of the countries, in some of them as foreign language and in other ones as native language.

### 2.2.6.2 IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Learning English can be the cornerstone of success in the business world due to the fact that English has become a global language in many industries

English has emerged as the global language of trade and commerce in the past few decades, affecting many key aspects of business in the modern world. The English language first spread as the result of colonial expansion, and has become the standard for all important official communications in an increasingly large number of countries with a wide variety of native languages. In the modern world, thanks to the Internet, English continues to spread as the major medium through which both small businesses and large corporations do business. (Mehmeti, 2014)

According what this author says it is possible to understand that English language is not important just nowadays, it was important also in the past and especially in business.

### 2.2.6.3 IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH IN EDUCATION

If we are here talk of whether global education or local education then one thing that we will find common in both are the use of the English language. Yes, many of the countries have long since started making use of the language and have even been promoting its use for the benefit of the education receiver. Here, a student, if studies from a medium which is not English then definitely he may face problems in future as the language which is useful for further studies is English.

We need to know English language in order to study any science subject or any computer language. We need to know English to communicate effectively too many developed countries. English is very much important in our life...it is necessary in each and every field. If we know English we never feel tongue tide in front of others. It's a widely spoken language. People take pride in speaking English if we don't know English, we will lag behind the other. English is a need of hour. Today we can't deny the importance of English in our life. (Mehmeti, 2014)

English language is used in global education and in local education since it is a universal language, but if there are students who do not receive English in their schools, they are going to face serious problems in the future.

## Chart No 2.3 Importance of English

| Options | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: |
| Young people must know English | $97,2 \%$ |
| People of working age must know English | $80 \%$ |
| Social services must be offered in English | $58,9 \%$ |
| English language enriches our native language | $52,7 \%$ |
| In a multicultural society everybody should know  <br> English $49,9 \%$ <br> Companies must offer services in English  <br> Elderly people must know English $38,8 \%$ 23,2\% |  |

Source: UNESCO, 2008
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.7 COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

A set of principles about teaching including recommendations about method and syllabus where the focus is on meaningful communication not structure, use not usage. In this approach, students are given tasks to accomplish using language, instead of studying the language. The syllabus is based primarily on functional development (asking permission, asking directions, etc.), not structural development
(past tense, conditionals, etc.). In essence, a functional syllabus replaces a structural syllabus. There is also less emphasis on error correction as fluency and communication become more important than accuracy As well, authentic and meaningful language input becomes more important. The class becomes more student-centered as students accomplish their tasks with other students, while the teacher plays more of an observer role. (Brown, 1994).

According Brown the main aim is that Students do themselves communication on a form functional and structural development while teacher's role is to observe how student develops when using the language.

### 2.2.7.1 WHERE DOES COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE APPROACHED COME FROM?

Its origins are many, insofar as one teaching methodology tends to influence the next. The communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction.

They felt that students were not learning enough realistic, whole language. They did not know how to communicate using appropriate social language, gestures, or expressions; in brief, they were at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied. Interest in and development of communicative-style teaching mushroomed in the 1970s; authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students engaged in real communication with one another became quite popular.

In the intervening years, the communicative approach has been adapted to the elementary, middle, secondary, and post-secondary levels, and the underlying philosophy has spawned different teaching methods known under a variety of names, including notional-functional, teaching for proficiency, proficiency-based instruction, and communicative language teaching. (Berns, 1984)

Communicative approached was created with the purpose to establish a real communication using social language, gestures and expressions and this approached
was adapted to all levels, that is why the communicative approached is considered the authentic language.

### 2.2.7.2 WHAT IS COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING?

Communicative language teaching makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. Unlike the audio lingual method of language teaching, which relies on repetition and drills, the communicative approach can leave students in suspense as to the outcome of a class exercise, which will vary according to their reactions and responses. The real-life simulations change from day to day. Students' motivation to learn comes from their desire to communicate in meaningful ways about meaningful topics.

Margie S. Berns, an expert in the field of communicative language teaching, writes in explaining Firth's view that "language is interaction; it is interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with society. In this light, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social, or situational, context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak)" (Berns, 1984).

Communicative approached it is possible to express the information or ideas according to the person with whom anybody is speaking to and according the level of emotion.

## Chart No 2.4 Communicative competences

| Communicative Competences | Definition |
| :--- | :--- |
| Linguistic competence | It refers to the ability to structure English with <br> accuracy and fluency. |
| Socio-Linguistic competence | It is the ability to use the right language at right <br> time. |
| Discourse competence | It is the ability to get together the words, <br> phrases and sentences in a text with cohesion <br> and coherence. |
| Strategic competence | It is the way the speakers handle the language <br> for communicative purposes. |

Source: Torres M, 2010
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.7.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHED

1) Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers use to make meaning; speakers communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing.
2) Diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development and use in second language learners and users, as it is with first language users.
3) A learner's competence is considered in relative, not in absolute, terms.
4) More than one variety of the language is recognized as a viable model for learning and teaching.
5) Culture is recognized as instrumental in shaping speaker's communicative competence, in both their first and subsequent languages.
6) No single methodology or fixed set of techniques is prescribed.
7) Language use is recognized as serving ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions and is related to the development of learner's competence in each.
8) It is essential that learners be engaged in doing things with language - that is, that they use language for a variety of purposes in all phases of learning.
(Savignon, 2002)

There are eight essential characteristics of communicative approached which allow students the interaction between the speaker and listener or reader and writer.

### 2.2.7.4 MATERIALS AND HOW THEY CAN BE USED

Materials play an important role in communicative language teaching. They provide the basis for communication among the learners. According to Richards \& Rodgers, there are three basic types of material. These are text-based materials, task-based materials and realia.

Text-based material like textbooks will, if designed on CLT principles, offer the learners many kinds of prompts on which they can build up conversations. They will typically contain visual cues, pictures and sentence fragments which the learners can use as a starting point for conversation. Other books consist of different texts the teacher can use for pair work. Both learners get texts with different information and the task is to ask each other questions to get to know the content of the missing piece.

Task-based material consists of exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, paircommunication practice materials and student-interaction practice booklets.

Pair-communication practice material contains material contains two sets of material for a pair of students. It is similar to a task using text-based material. Both students have different kinds of information and through communication they need to put the parts together. Other pair-work tasks involve one student as an interviewer and the other one the interviewee. Topics can range from personal experience and telling the other person about one's own life and preferences to talking about a topic that was discussed in the news recently or is still up-to-date.

Using realia in communicative language teaching means using authentic material, for example newspaper articles, photos, maps, symbols, and many more. Material which can be touched and held makes speaking and learning more concrete and meaningful. Maps can be used to describe the way from one point to another and photos can be used for describing where things are placed, in front of, on top of or underneath something, and so on. (Richards \& Rodgers, 2001)

All mentioned materials help students to create a genuine communication involving oral communication, carrying out meaningful tasks, and using language which is meaningful to the learner.

## Chart No 2.5 Materials in communicative approached

| Types | Examples |
| :--- | :--- |
| Text based materials | Visual cues |
|  | Pictures and sentences fragment |
|  | Cue cards |
|  | Activity cards |
| Realia | Photos |
|  | Maps |

Source: Torres M, 2010
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.7.5 EXAMPLES OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHED

## Example No 1

In a communicative classroom for beginners, the teacher might begin by passing out cards, each with a different name printed on it. The teacher then proceeds to model an exchange of introductions in the target language: "Guten Tag. Wieheissen Sie?" Reply: "Icheisse Wolfie," for example. Using a combination of the target language and gestures, the teacher conveys the task at hand, and gets the students to introduce themselves and ask their classmates for information. They are responding in German to a question in German. They do not know the answers beforehand, as they are each
holding cards with their new identities written on them; hence, there is an authentic exchange of information.

Later during the class, as a reinforcement listening exercise, the students might hear a recorded exchange between two German freshmen meeting each other for the first time at the gymnasium doors. Then the teacher might explain, in English, the differences among German greetings in various social situations. Finally, the teacher will explain some of the grammar points and structures used. (Willetts \& Thompson, 1987)

## Example No 2

"Instructions to students" Listen to a conversation somewhere in a public place and be prepared to answer, in the target language, some general questions about what was said.

1. Who was talking?
2. About how old were they?
3. Where were they when you eavesdropped?
4. What were they talking about?
5. What did they say?
6. Did they become aware that you were listening to them?

The exercise puts students in a real-world listening situation where they must report information overheard. Most likely they have an opinion of the topic, and a class discussion could follow, in the target language, about their experiences and viewpoints.

Communicative exercises such as this motivate the students by treating topics of their choice, at an appropriately challenging level.

Another exercise taken from the same source is for beginning students of Spanish. In "Listening for the Gist," students are placed in an everyday situation where they must listen to an authentic text.

Objective: Students listen to a passage to get general understanding of the topic or message.

Directions: Have students listen to the following announcement to decide what the speaker is promoting.
"Passage" "Situación ideal...Servicio de transporte al Aeropuerto Internacional...Cuarenta y dos habitaciones de lujo, con aire acondicionado...Elegante restaurante...de fama internacional."
(The announcement can be read by the teacher or played on tape.) Then ask students to circle the letter of the most appropriate answer on their copy, which consists of the following multiple-choice options:
a) Taxi service
b) A hotel
c) An airport
d) A restaurant
(Willetts \& Thompson, 1987)

## Example No 3

Gunter Gerngross, an English teacher in Austria, gives an example of how he makes his lessons more communicative. He cites a widely used textbook that shows English children having a pet show. "Even when learners act out this scene creatively and enthusiastically, they do not reach the depth of involvement that is almost tangible when they act out a short text that presents a family conflict revolving round the question of whether the children should be allowed to have a pet or not" (Gerngross \& Puchta, 1984).

These authors continue to say that the communicative approach "puts great emphasis on listening, which implies an active will to try to understand others. This is one of the hardest tasks to achieve because the children are used to listening to the teacher but not to their peers.

## Chart No 2.6 Types of communicative activities

| Types | Examples |
| :--- | :--- |
| Controlled communicative activities | Information gaps |
|  | Games |
| Freer communicative activities | Projects |
|  | Role plays |
|  | Simulations |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 93
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
Chart No 2.7 Features of communicative activities

| Features | Definition |
| :--- | :--- |
| Information gap | One person has information the other <br> does not know, so true communication <br> takes place to discover it. |
| Choice | The speaker has a choice of what to say <br> and how to say it. |
| Feedback | When an interaction is produced, the <br> response that the listener provides to the <br> speaker permits the communication <br> flows and indicate if the purpose was <br> achieved or not. |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 92
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.7.6 ROLES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHED

Teachers in communicative classrooms will find themselves talking less and listening more--becoming active facilitators of their students' learning.

The teacher sets up the exercise, but because the students' performance is the goal, the teacher must step back and observe, sometimes acting as referee or monitor. A classroom during a communicative activity is far from quiet, however.

The students do most of the speaking, and frequently the scene of a classroom during a communicative exercise is active, with students leaving their seats to complete a task.

Because of the increased responsibility to participate, students may find they gain confidence in using the target language in general. Students are more responsible managers of their own learning (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

The chief teacher's role in communicative approached is facilitator of the learning since he/she establishes the situation or create the context to promote communication and as facilitator the teacher must fulfill the role of monitor too.

Students are, above all, communicators since they learn to communicate by communicating and they are seen as more responsible for their own learning.

### 2.2.7.7 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

The most obvious advantage in communicative language teaching is that of the increase of fluency in the target language. This enables the learners to be more confident when interacting with other people and they also enjoy talking more. The approach also leads to gains in the areas of grammatical/sociolinguistic/discourse/strategic competence through communication.

One major disadvantage might be that it is difficult for the teacher alone to check the language use of every student, especially in a big class. The students are allowed to make mistakes but they need to be corrected - preferably not whilst in the middle of
a conversation - by the teacher in order to improve and so as not to make the same mistake again and again. Therefore it is not helpful if there's only one teacher for one class.

Another point concerning the teacher might be that it depends on the teacher how motivating or boring the lesson will be. The teacher needs to prepare the material at home and needs to make it as motivating and creative as possible so that the students find the tasks meaningful and motivating, and are eager to communicate with each other. (Savignon, 2002)

The advantage is that students increase their fluency because they feel confident talking with somebody else.

The disadvantage could be that is difficult for teachers to check the language of each student and for these reason students can commit some mistakes.

### 2.2.8 FUNCTIONAL APPROACH

The Functional Approach is considered to be the second paradigm of psychology. This idea focuses on the function of the mental processes which involves consciousnesses. (Gordon, 1995) This approach was developed by William James in 1980. James was the first American Psychologist and wrote the first general text book regarding psychology. In this approach he reasoned that the mental act of consciousness must be an important biological function (Schacter et al., 2011) He also noted that it was a psychologist's job to understand these functions so they can discover how the mental process operates. This idea was an alternative approach to the structuralism, which was the first paradigm. (Gordon, 1995)

In second language acquisition (SLA) functional approaches are of similarities with Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG). Focus is on the use of language in real situations (performance) as well as underlying knowledge (competence).

As believe these authors are enforced in mental processes like act of consciousness, mental process operates, so students have to use the language in real situations as essential knowledge.

### 2.2.8.1 TYPES OF FUNCTIONAL EXPLANATION

There are three types of functional explanations that usually are distinguished in the functionalist linguistic literature: processing, cognitive, and discourse or information structure explanations.

### 2.2.8.1.1 PROCESSING EXPLANATION

Processing explanations make reference to models of the production and comprehension of utterances. A processing explanation argues that some aspect of grammatical structure is due to limitations on the human ability to produce or comprehend the structure.

Processing explanations typically are employed to account for two sorts of linguistic facts. One is the relative frequency of a particular grammatical structure across the world's languages. For example, it has been observed that suffixes are on the whole more frequent than prefixes (or more complex alterations of word forms) in the world's languages. A processing explanation has been proposed for the suffixing preference. It is hypothesized that speakers process word stems before their inflections. Psycholinguistic experiments imply that the beginning of a word is most salient, hence the word stem should ideally occupy the initial position; the ends of words are the next most salient, hence inflections should ideally occupy the final position.

The second sort of phenomenon for which processing explanations are employed is to account for degrees of acceptability of a construction in a single language. For example, in English, subordinate clauses embedded in the middle of a clause are relatively less acceptable than subordinate clauses embedded at the end of a clause: compare I know the boy that owned the cat that caught your parakeet to The parakeet that the cat that the boy I know caught died. This fact has been explained
as a consequence of the difficulty in interpreting the latter sentence's centerembedded clauses. In fact, it is grammatical in English to move a relative clause from the middle of a clause to the end under certain circumstances: A woman contacted me who I had shared an apartment with during my last year at college.

Processing explanations have been proposed for constraints on certain types of syntactic structures, constraints on patterns of morphemes within words, and on sound patterns. The latter explanations typically are described in terms of ease of articulation or ease in discrimination (in speech perception). Processing explanations for syntax and morphology, especially in explaining differences in cross-linguistic frequency of word order and morpheme order, are particularly associated with the work of J. Hawkins (Hawkins 2004).

Processing explanations focus on limitation of human ability to understand or comprehend the structure, it is proposed to contrast certain types of syntactic structures.

## Chart No 2.8 Linguistic facts

| Linguistic facts | Examples |
| :--- | :--- |
| Relative frequency of a particular <br> grammatical structure across the <br> world's languages. | Suffixes are on the whole more frequent <br> than prefixes. |
| To account for degrees of acceptability <br> of a construction in a single language. | Subordinate clauses embedded in the <br> middle of a clause are relatively less <br> acceptable than subordinate clauses <br> embedded at the end of a clause. |

Source: http://www.lexised.com
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.8.1.2 COGNITIVE EXPLANATION

Cognitive explanations generally make reference to the conventional meaning of a word, inflection or syntactic construction. A cognitive (semantic) explanation of a grammatical phenomenon essentially hypothesizes that some or all aspects of the analysis of the grammatical phenomenon make reference to conventional semantic properties. For example, some languages have plural inflections for all count nouns, while other languages restrict plural inflections to only nouns referring to animate beings, still others to only nouns referring to humans. This variation is built on a general ranking or hierarchy of nouns according to the semantic class of their referents: human animate inanimate. The description of the constraint on the occurrence of the plural inflection in each language, and the cross-linguistic pattern of constraints, requires reference to the semantic classes of entities denoted by the noun, described in terms of animacy.

Cognitive explanations, like processing explanations, have been used to describe both grammatical constructions in particular languages and also patterns of crosslinguistic variation. The example of the animacy hierarchy in the preceding paragraph illustrates both sorts of explanations. It hypothesizes that the distribution of the plural inflection in any particular language will make reference to the semantic class of the entity denoted by the noun. It also hypothesizes that the crosslinguistic variation in the distribution of the plural inflection is subject to the hierarchical ranking of animacy categories given in the preceding paragraph. In recent cross-linguistic research, explanations of cross-linguistic patterns have been offered in which the patterns of occurrence of a construction are mapped onto a single semantic or conceptual space applicable to all languages.

Some cognitively oriented functionalists make a stronger claim about the relationship between grammatical form and semantic function, namely that certain grammatical categories are better described in semantic terms. (Bybee 2010, Tomasello 1998)

Cognitive explanation is focus on syntactic construction and like processing explanation is used to describe grammatical construction and patterns of crosslinguistic variation.

### 2.2.8.1.3 DISCOURSE EXPLANATION

Discourse explanations make reference to the organization and presentation of information in discourse, that is, the structuring of information for the purpose of communication. Such explanations are called discourse explanations by some functionalists, and information structure explanations by other functionalists. For example, the English active and passive voice constructions (The car hit the tree vs. The tree was hit by the car) both describe the same event and participants, but differ in which participant is encoded as the subject of the construction. It has been argued (based on naturally occurring examples) that the participant that is more topical is encoded as subject. Another example is the choice of construction in response to a question such as wasn't that incredible when Mary called the boss a pig? One can respond with Yeah, it really shocked me that she called him that, but not with Yeah, what really shocked me was that she called him that. The unacceptable response uses the pseudocleft construction, and the pseudocleft construction is acceptable only if the information 'something really shocked me' is already in the hearer's consciousness. It is not in this case, and hence is unacceptable.

As with processing and cognitive explanations, discourse functional explanations have been offered both to explain restrictions on the acceptability of specific constructions in particular languages, and to explain the frequency of distribution of particular linguistic features across languages. Examples of the former were given in the preceding paragraph. An example of the latter is certain patterns of word order. In the overwhelming number of languages, the subject precedes the object in the most common order of elements in a clause. It has been proposed that the reason for this asymmetry is that the subject tends to be the topic, and the most
common discourse pattern is for the topic to precede the 'comment,' or at least other less topical participants. (Bybee, 2010)

Discourse explanation is focus on organization and presentation of any information in a discourse with the purpose of communication and like processing and cognitive explanation it is offered to explain restrictions of specific constructions.

### 2.2.8.2 SCHOOLS OF FUNCTIONALIST ANALYSIS

One of the most fundamental issues that divide schools of linguistic theory is: what is the relationship between linguistic form and linguistic function? The relationship is not at all straightforward. Also, depending on the position that a linguist takes on the relationship between form and function, certain additional hypotheses have to be made in order to accommodate linguistic facts. These hypotheses have to do with aspects of language not directly connected to the form-function relationship, such as the organization of grammatical knowledge in a speaker's mind, the nature of semantics, and the role of cross-linguistic evidence. Since these additional hypotheses are closely associated with various schools of functionalist analysis, they will be discussed here.

### 2.2.8.2.1 FUNCTIONALISM AND FORMALISM

Functionalist schools generally set themselves up as contrasting with the formalist approach, associated most strongly with N . Chomsky, but also advocated by other linguists who reject some of Chomsky's more specific claims about syntax. A purely formal explanation of a grammatical phenomenon makes reference exclusively to properties of grammatical form or structure. With respect to grammatical structure, a formal explanation of some pattern of sentence structure will make reference only to syntactic categories and structural relationships between the elements of a sentence, and not to the meaning of the words, inflections or constructions of that sentence, their discourse function, or their production and comprehension in language use. With respect to word structure, a formal explanation will make reference only to morphological categories and relations between roots and affixes, and not to aspects of the meaning and use of
word forms. With respect to sound structure, a formal explanation will make reference only to the structure of the sound system independent of its articulatory and auditory realization.

The concept of a formal explanation is closely associated with the theoretical position that the organization of grammatical knowledge in a speaker's mind is divided into components which separate a linguistic form from its conventional meaning and use in discourse. A typical model describes grammatical knowledge as being compartmentalized into phonological, syntactic and semantic components. The phonological component is separated from its phonetic realization, and the syntactic component is separated from its semantic interpretation. Linguistic form is linked up to its phonetic realization or semantic interpretation, eventually: formal models have rules linking syntax to semantics and phonology to phonetics. The formalist hypothesis does however imply that linguistic form is organized in a purely formal way to a high enough degree that it can be described best as existing in separate components. That is, the formal analysis of grammatical structure is self-contained relative to functional factors.

Functionalist approaches to language challenge or reject the formalist model of the relationship between form and function to varying degrees. However, all functionalists accept that not all aspects of grammatical structure can be accounted for by meaning and use. There will always be some degree of arbitrariness in language structure, where arbitrariness is intended to mean not wholly explainable in terms of language function. The question is, how much arbitrariness is there in language structure, and to what extent does the arbitrary aspect of language structure form a self-contained system? Different functionalist schools give different answers to this question. (Chomsky, 1965)

Some functionalist approaches reject the relationship between form and function but all agree that not all aspects of grammatical structure are accounted by their meaning.

### 2.2.8.2.2 AUTONOMOUS FUNCTIONALISM

The closest approach to formalism which calls itself functionalist can be called autonomous functionalism. Autonomous functionalism argues that the numbers of properties of grammatical form that are explainable solely in grammatical terms are considerably fewer than most formalist theories assume. In particular, the restrictions on the use of particular constructions are sought in functional properties, whether cognitive, processing or discourse-functional. To take a simplified example: in the There-construction (as in There is a bird in the bushes), a noun phrase with an indefinite article (a bird) is acceptable but one with a definite article usually is not (compare There is the bird in the bushes). A plausible explanation for this restriction is that the There- construction is used to introduce a new referent into the discourse, but definite noun phrases describe referents already known to both speaker and hearer. This would be an autonomous functionalist analysis of the restriction.

However, even in an autonomous functionalist approach, the rules governing the formation of the construction itself, such as the fact that there is the first element followed by a form of be, are considered to be purely formal. Autonomist functionalists focus their research efforts on accounting for as many of the constraints on the construction as possible in terms of functional properties, while leaving the basic structure of the construction for formalist analysis. The autonomist functionalist research program is found in the work of S. Kuno, E. Prince, G. Ward, and their students and associates. Their explanations generally appeal to properties of information structure rather than semantic properties. Because they accept the basic structural analyses of formalist approaches, autonomous functionalists generally do not reject the view that linguistic knowledge in a speaker's mind is organized into components. Instead, they have proposed that there is another component, the information structure component, which should be included along with the syntactic and semantic components.

In fact, many functional analyses of specific constructions in more radically functionalist approaches to language are actually autonomous functionalist analyses, that is, they account for the restrictions on syntactic constructions in terms of the meaning and use in discourse of the construction. We may call these autonomous functional analyses in whatever sort of functionalist approach they are found in. (Chomsky, 1965)

Autonomist functionalist analyses of particular constructions are not incompatible with more radical functionalist approaches.

### 2.2.8.2.3 MIXED FORMALISM/FUNCTIONALISM

Another sort of approach, not clearly identifiable with any particular school of linguistic theory, but sometimes called functional, challenges the hypothesis of a sharp separation between the uses of formal or functional properties to describe grammatical constructions. In these theories, the description of both the structure and the constraints on a construction can mix formal and functional properties. Two schools, Functional Discourse Grammar of S. Dik and K. Hengeveld and associates, and Role and Reference Grammar of R. Van Valin and associates, both use formal and functional properties (typically semantics, but also information structure) to describe the grammatical structure of sentences as well as the constraints on them. In addition, many grammatical descriptions of languages informally describe both syntactic and semantic properties of constructions without implying any sharp division between the two. (Dik, 1997)

The description of structure and constraints might mix formal and functional properties even grammatical descriptions can describe syntactic and semantic properties without any division.

### 2.2.8.2.4 TYPOLOGICAL FUNCTIONALISM

As was noted above, cognitive, processing and discourse explanations have been offered for patterns of cross-linguistic variation as well as in the analysis of the grammars of individual languages. A school of linguistic theory knew as typology has arisen which focuses on cross- linguistic variation and its limits. Much crosslinguistic variation appears to be built on the base of general functional patterns, as illustrated above for cognitive, processing, and discourse explanations. This observation has led some typologists to argue that all cross-linguistically verified universals of language are susceptible to functional explanation in this way. This approach to analysis is called typological functionalism or the functionaltypological approach.

Typological functionalism makes a stronger claim than the schools described in the preceding sections. The autonomous functionalist approach assumes that there still remains a significant amount of syntactic structure that can be described in terms of a self-contained set of rules (which are further assumed to be in part languageuniversal). The mixed formal-functional theories do not assume that formal principles governing syntactic structure are self-contained, but those theories allow for the possibility that there are formal properties of languages that are universal for all languages. The typological functionalist approach hypothesizes that any universal generalizations about linguistic structure are ultimately explained in functional terms. The typological functionalist approach does not, in fact cannot, assume that the structure of a particular language's grammar is entirely explainable in functional terms. For instance, one example given above was that the occurrence of a plural inflection on nouns could be accounted for by the hierarchy human animate inanimate. The semantic hierarchy is universal, but each language applies the hierarchy to the distribution of the plural inflection in its own way, that is, one cannot predict what semantic class a language will extend (or restrict) its plural inflection to. That is, the exact class of nouns allowing a plural inflection is partly arbitrary, although it is partly explainable in terms of the semantic hierarchy: if the language allows plural inflection for animate nouns, it will allow plural inflection
for human nouns. This sort of explanation of a linguistic phenomenon is sometimes described as motivation, in contrast to a set of rules that exhaustively predicts the forms that would be found. (Comrie 1989, Croft 2003, Givón 2001, and Greenberg 1990)

It is focus on cross- linguistic variation and its limits. It does not assume that the structure of a particular language's grammar is entirely explainable in functional terms.

### 2.2.8.2.5 COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS AND FUNCTIONALISM

Cognitive linguistics is a broad school of linguistic theory that is usually called functionalist. Cognitive linguistics, as its name indicates, focuses on cognitive (semantic) explanations for grammatical structure. Cognitive linguistics has contributed a number of ideas to other functionalist approaches that are relevant to assessing functional approaches.

Cognitive linguistics has proposed a model of grammatical knowledge, construction grammar, that offers an alternative to the formalist model in which form and function (semantics and information structure) are separated in distinct components (Croft 2001, Goldberg 2006). Construction grammar hypothesizes that knowledge of syntax involves the knowledge of individual constructions which combine formal properties (syntactic structures, morphological inflections) and functional ones (semantics and discourse function). For example, the ditransitive construction [X Verb Z Y], as in Marilyn sent Gina a book, specifies not only the syntactic structure of the construction but also the semantic relationships among the participants, such as the fact that Z comes to possess Y . Constructions are organized in a network of grammatical knowledge in a speaker's mind. More broadly, grammatical knowledge is organized as a system of signs or symbols, consisting of form (the signifier) and function (the signified). A model organizing grammatical knowledge in terms of constructions/symbols/signs allows for a direct statement of functional properties that are relevant to particular grammatical constructions and other grammatical units. (Lakoff 1987)

Cognitive linguistics proposed grammatical knowledge and construction grammar. Construction grammar involves the knowledge of individuals while grammatical knowledge is organized as a system of symbols.

### 2.2.8.2.6 FUNCTIONALISM AND THE DYNAMIC APPROACH TO GRAMMAR

Grammatical structure is commonly assumed to exist in speakers' minds. However, grammatical structure is also directly involved in social interaction in language use, and language use is central to accounting for language acquisition, language variation and language change. In the more dynamic process of language acquisition and language change, functional factors have been argued to play a role.

In both language acquisition and language change, it has been argued that competing motivations among functional principles play a major role. The idea of competing motivations is that (functional) principles may come into conflict such that there is no grammatical system that satisfies all of the functional principles. As a result, change occurs over time in acquisition and in the history of a language, and the languages of the world exhibit structural diversity even though their speakers' linguistic behavior conforms to the same functional principles. (Competing motivation models do not presuppose that the competing principles are functional, and in fact competing motivation models are now used by many formalists).

The most general and commonly offered example of competing motivations is that between economy and iconicity (see Linguistics: Iconicity). Economy is the principle that a speaker uses the least effort necessary to express himself or herself. For example, English leaves the singular number of nouns unexpressed: book vs. book-s. Economy is considered to be a speaker-oriented functional principle: its influence on language is for the benefit of the speaker. Iconicity is, in part, the principle that all of the relevant parts of the meaning conveyed are in fact conveyed by grammatical elements in the utterance (words, inflections, etc.). For example, in some languages, both the singular and the plural of a noun are expressed by overt
suffixes. This aspect of iconicity is considered to be hearer-oriented: any aspect of meaning left out by the speaker may not be recoverable by the hearer. Economy and iconicity compete with each other: a linguistic expression that is economical will not be iconic (since it leaves some elements of meaning unexpressed), and an expression that is iconic will not be economical (since certain elements of meaning are not left unexpressed). Hence, across languages, there is diversity in the expression of the category of number, and languages change from one form of expression of number to another over time.

Competing motivations models have been proposed in language acquisition (Bates and MacWhinney 1989) and in language change (Haiman 1985). More recently, some functionalist linguists (P. Hopper, R. Langacker, J. Bybee, W. Croft) have emphasized the dynamic character of language in ordinary use, and have argued that a speaker's grammatical knowledge should not be considered to be as static and immutable as is usually believed. They argue that a speaker's grammatical knowledge is not a tightly integrated system, but rather a more loosely structured inventory of conventionalized routines that have emerged through language use. The empirical research of the functionalist linguists who advocate this view has focused on the role of frequency of use on the entrenchment of grammatical knowledge, and on inductive models of abstracting grammatical knowledge from exposure to language use, both in acquisition and in adult usage.

These functionalists have argued for a usage-based or exemplar-based view of grammatical representation, in part following recent proposals in phonology. In the exemplar view, all tokens of grammatical units (words, constructions, etc.) to which a speaker has been exposed are at least initially stored as part of the mental representation of that grammatical unit, as a cloud of exemplars. The exemplars are structured qualitatively by dimensions of conceptual space (analogous to phonetic space), and processes in memory lead to their consolidation, entrenchment and decay. These processes are dynamic processes that lead to changes in grammatical representation in the lifetime of an individual speaker. (Haiman 1985)

In language acquisition and language change competing motivation play an important role and it is proposed in language acquisition. Speakers learn language for necessity, it does not matter the age.

### 2.2.8.3 DIRECTIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR FUNCTIONAL APPROACHES TO GRAMMAR

Taken as a whole, functional approaches to grammar are widely practiced in linguistics. Nevertheless, there are important divisions between different schools of functionalist theory and between functionalists and formalists.

A common misunderstanding (among formalists in particular) is the belief that functionalists do not accept the existence of arbitrariness in language, that is, that not all aspects of grammatical knowledge are explainable by functional principles. There is no functionalist that holds that view. However, many functionalist theories have not developed a model of the representation of grammatical form, instead focusing their attention on the analysis of functional domains and their role in accounting for grammatical structure. There are significant exceptions to this observation, notably the mixed formal/functional theories, Bybee's model of lexical and morphological representation, and construction grammar in cognitive linguistics. Construction grammar is gaining a wider audience, and some functionalists are beginning to develop more detailed models of grammatical structure that are compatible with functionalist theories.

A significant split in functionalism is between those who are more cognitively oriented, focusing their attention on cognitive explanations, and those who are more discourse oriented. These two functionalist approaches have largely gone their own ways, developing models of language meaning (cognitive linguists) and language in use (the discourse functionalists) However, there are some functionalists such as T. Givón and W. Chafe whose work draws on both cognitive and discourse models. Usage-based models integrate cognition and discourse, in that there is a feedback relationship between the mental representation of linguistic knowledge and language use. The two approaches are inherently compatible:
language must be understood from both a psychological and a social-interactional perspective.

Functionalist approaches to language generally have also neglected research in sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics begins with the hypothesis that language is a dynamic, variable phenomenon, and argues that factors outside linguistic form, namely social parameters, account for variation and change in language. In both of these respects, sociolinguistics shares theoretical assumptions in common with functionalism. The increase of research on social- interactional factors and on relative frequency of use in functionalist research may lead to an integration of social with other functional factors in a social-functional theory of linguistic variation and change.

A rapprochement between functionalism and formalism is less likely, because the two differ in fundamental assumptions about the nature of language and the relation between form and function. There are some respects in which practical research is converging among formalists and functionalists, however. For instance, competing motivations as a mechanism of analysis is now widely used in formalist theories under the name of Optimality Theory. The rise of computer-aided corpus research has led to a convergence in interests on naturally occurring language and the role of usage in grammatical structure. Some formal semanticists have made reference to prototypes and polysemy, and some semanticists working in generative grammar also give conceptualization a significant role in analysis. (Givón 2001, Chafe 1994)

Functionalists do not accept the arbitrariness in language because not all aspects of the grammar are explainable.

There is a relationship between the mental representation of linguistic knowledge and language use because both of them are compatible.

### 2.2.9 REASONS FOR INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE

The main reasons why the mother tongue interferes are the following:

- The exposure to the learner in Mother Tongue is more than foreign language.
- Learning mother tongue occurs naturally but learning foreign tongue is felt artificially.
- More importance is attached to grammatical rules than functional grammar.
- English is a unique language with respect to phonology, word order, grammatical system etc....
- Acquisition of vocabulary is very limited.
- Lack of motivation for speaking or learning foreign tongue.
- Lack of experts and native speakers to teach proper pronunciation.
(V. Radhika \& Mary Surya Kala, 2013)

Maybe there are some others reasons for interference which are considered:
Lack of practice
Bad methodology for learning
Translation

### 2.2.9.1 THE EXPOSURE TO THE LEARNER IN MOTHER TONGUE IS MORE THAN FOREIGN LANGUAGE

### 2.2.9.1.1 MOTHER TONGUE

First language is the language through which the child makes acquaintance with everything about it to communicate. Mostly it may be their mother tongue. Learning of mother tongue takes place in very natural way and through proper imitation and exposition. The language skills listening and speaking are learnt at home and then child is sent to school for learning other skills such as reading and writing of the language. The child has more exposure to use his mother tongue and possibility of getting corrected the mistake is more. Regional language is learnt by birth. But the process of second language which is known as foreign tongue learning is quite different. The language skills listening, speaking precede reading and writing at
school only. Learning of foreign tongue is an artificial process. Mistakes are not corrected on the spot. No proper model to imitate is available in plenty. Lack of exposure to use the language is another reason. (Radhika, 2013)

The mother tongue is considered as the first language which is acquired in a natural way and most of the times it is acquired at home; learning mother tongue is very different to learning foreign language because it is an artificial process.

### 2.2.9.1.2 ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English place a vital role in higher education, research, for aesthetic aspect and employment too in this modern scenario. We are at present a member of the global village. Communication is possible mostly through English. It is used as a link language. Reference books necessary for carrying out higher education and for research are available mostly in English language. Books from many languages are translated to English language in order to enable the non - native speaker benefit in their day to day life. Many valuable books in Tamil, Hindi, Chinese, Sinhale, Telugu, are being translated in to English for education, trade and literary purposes. So the learning of English can't be ignored at any stage. (Radhika, 2013)

As English is considered a world language then learning it nowadays is too important especially for communication so it cannot be ignored in any place.

### 2.2.9.1.3 WHY THE INTERFERENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE CAUSED WHILE LEARNING SECOND LANGUAGE?

The interference of Mother Tongue in learning English as a second language is generally a lifelong experience while speaking, reading and writing. Learners never manage to shake off the lexical stress pattern of their mother tongue in their English oral production. When a child learns mother tongue his mind is a clean state so he learns his mother tongue easily by imitate. But when he learns a foreign language as English he faces difficulties of accepting the rules which is against the rule of their mother tongue. So the interference of mother tongue is felt in their learning and communication. (Radhika, 2013)

It is very easier to learn mother tongue than foreign language because when people learn mother tongue their mind is clean but learning a foreign language is all opposite.

### 2.2.9.2 LEARNING MOTHER TONGUE OCCURS NATURALLY BUT LEARNING FOREIGN TONGUE IS FELT ARTIFICIALLY

### 2.2.9.2.1 CHILDREN LEARN BETTER IN THEIR MOTHER TONGUE

Globally, there are 50-75 million 'marginalized' children who are not enrolled in school. Children whose primary language is not the language of instruction in school are more likely to drop out of school or fail in early grades. Research has shown that children's first language is the optimal language for literacy and learning throughout primary school. In spite of growing evidence and parent demand, many educational systems around the world insist on exclusive use of one or sometimes several privileged languages. This means excluding other languages and with them the children who speak them. (Arnold, Bartlett, Gowani, \& Merali, 2006)

People are able to acquire the first language without the necessity to assist to schools, but if they go to school they will have the chance to avoid mistakes in their mother tongue.

### 2.2.9.2.2 ARTIFICIAL LANGUAGE

A simple definition of an artificial language is any language whose lexicon and grammar were developed from an individual source for the sake of itself. Individual source refers to either one creator or a select body of creators. Unlike an authentic language, the brunt of it emerges with relative suddenness. A great deal of time might transpire over the course of its development, but when it is released to others the language must be communicatively functional - the system can be used to convey many ideas.

Another qualification is inferred in the definition: the system is functional before there are any real native speakers. The creator is in almost every case incapable of
speaking his or her own artificial language, and creates vocabulary and grammatical systems at a much faster rate than they can be learnt and employed.

The definition also implies that while others beside the creator are capable of learning an artificial language, the reason it is artificial is because it is functional before it is a language. To define a system as a language implies that there is more than one speaker, which suggests this type of system is strictly artificial as long as no one speaks it and a language as soon as people do.

For the sake of itself does not mean that the language has no purpose, but that its goal is not first and foremost an ideological one. Languages generated for ideological purposes are similar but ultimately different. In the case of Klingon and Elvish, they initially serve literary purposes, but in both cases their roles are often self-serving. (Okrand, 1993)

Languages are considered artificial because to acquire those people must follow a conscious process that result in knowing about the language.

### 2.2.9.2.3 LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE - 10 MOST COMMON MISTAKES

Learning a foreign language is no easy thing, but it does get easier over time because you learn from your mistakes and you get to know yourself better as a learner. The best thing is that you can considerably shorten your learning curve by learning from other people's mistakes.

In this post we'll have a look at the 10 most common mistakes that language learners make. Get ready to take down some notes, because if you avoid most of the mistakes outlined below, you'll be on your way to fluency in no time! (Lingholic, 2004)

According to Lingholic, 2004 there are ten common mistakes in learning a second language:

- Approaching learning as homework

The overwhelming majority of people see language learning as some kind of homework. Curiously enough, people don't usually see learning how to surf or play the guitar the same way. Why would languages be any different?

Learning a language shouldn't be seen as "homework," but rather as an enjoyable process to open up a world of opportunities and reach a personal goal. Learn how to actually enjoy the language you're learning by not only getting stuck with textbooks, grammar drills and flashcards.

Remember, anything you really enjoy doing in your native tongue can also be enjoyed in the language you're learning. Whether it be reading a book or a blog, watching movies, playing computer games, meeting friends, or listening to music, the possibilities are endless. This approach will also get you to discover more about the culture of the people who speak the language you're learning, which is always very interesting and rewarding.

## - A single method

A lot of language learners fail to diversify the methods they use, and often get stuck with the same textbook for months. No wonder they end up quitting out of boredom.

Make sure you diversify the methods you use and develop a healthy habit of approaching the language from various angles. In my interview with polyglot Luca Lampariello, Luca says that he usually tries to stick to one or two textbooks in the beginning stages of language learning. He encourages learners to do the same by picking one or two language series that they particularly like.

As you reach an intermediate stage, however, Luca really underlines the importance of diversifying the methods you use. Coming back to the previous point about not
approaching language learning as homework, don't forget that anything you really enjoy doing in your native tongue can also be enjoyed in your target language.

## - Starting too abruptly

Being extremely motivated for a short period of time can drain your batteries, after which you'll have to take a break and relax. We're all super excited when we start learning a new language. We feel like buying every single book we can get our hands on and spending hours every day studying the language. Most of us have this initial motivation boost, but the problem is that when this flow of motivation comes to a stop and the tide reverses, we're in for some disappointment. A lot of people give up because they drain themselves way too quickly. Don't be one of them.

The secret here is to start slowly to make sure you don't drain your batteries so as to keep yourself motivated for the long-run. In the beginning stages, try not to study more than 30-40 minutes a day. This may seem counter-intuitive but consistency is infinitely better than starting abruptly, giving up after a few weeks, and then returning back to the language after a long period of absence. As you progress and reach an intermediate level, think about gradually putting more time every day toward the learning of your target language. This is sustainable because you'll already have developed healthy habits and a solid base in the language.

## - Waiting too long before speaking

Speaking a language is a skill, just like driving a car or playing a musical instrument is. No matter how much knowledge you gain about it through books, your skill is unlikely to truly improve unless you practice it. Many language learners nevertheless hold the mysterious belief that somehow years of textbook cramming and classes where a teacher is lecturing a monologue will magically make their skill develop. Others want to wait until they can make next to no mistakes before opening their mouth so as not to embarrass themselves.

Don't. Do. That.

You really have to overcome your fear and your embarrassment and practice speaking with somebody as soon as you can. Nothing bad will come out of it. I don't necessarily recommend "speaking from Day 1" as polyglot Benny Lewis does, but you should certainly start practicing basic dialogues after a few weeks of exposure to the language. This will also improve your pronunciation and your ability to retain new words and expressions, and as an added bonus you'll get to meet new friends!

## - Not listening enough

Listening to the language you are learning is extremely important, yet so many language learners never make an effort to listen to anything beyond the boundaries of their textbook's CD (at best). The problem is compounded by the fact that most audio files that come with language textbooks are highly artificial sounding, prefabricated conversations that bear little resemblance to how actual native speakers talk in real life.

We all learn by copying, and the only way you can copy a language is by listening to someone speak it. Even in the early stages of your learning journey, when you still can't understand much of what you listen to, don't hesitate to get exposed to the language as much as you can (i.e. music, movies, radio, the news, etc.). Besides your listening skills, your pronunciation and intonation will really make leaps and bounds if you do so, because you'll get used right from the start to the "flow" of the language.

## - Rigid thinking

Languages involve a lot of uncertainty. Every day you'll come across words you've never seen before. Most beginning language learners get all fussed about it and feel like they have to know every single word they come across before passing on to something else. This makes their life miserable. The problem is, we can never know every word there is out there, much less the definition for each and every one of them. Think about it, the word "set" in English has approximately 464 definitions. Do you know them all? Not even close.

Good guessing skills are very important when it comes to acquiring a foreign language, and you should ensure you remain flexible and open to uncertainty. Get into the habit of guessing the meaning of new words from context. Don't worry; you'll eventually learn them through repeated exposure, in different contexts, at different places. This process is called assimilation. However, you should look for words that are vital to your understanding of what's happening if there is no way you can guess them. Just don't get bogged down in the details; keep your eyes on the big picture.

## - Taking a bottom-up approach

Many people start by looking at the individual pieces of the puzzle and then assume that eventually everything will line up and fit together; that's called the bottom-up approach. It sounds intuitive, but it doesn't work that way. If you start by learning all the grammar rules and the pronunciation for every individual word before actually stringing sentences together, you'll end up with a rather unpleasant experience and little success in terms of fluency development (remember your high school language class?). The same thing applies when learning tones; you simply cannot expect to learn the tones for, say, every individual Chinese word and then string them together and somehow sound natural.

The top-down approach encourages the learner to first be exposed to entire sentences and gradually learn grammar and rules in a more inductive manner, just like children naturally acquire their mother tongue. Grammar is important, no doubt, but you should be exposed to the language first. That's the method language series such as Assimil use, and from the experiences of several distinguished polyglots I've interviewed, it's also their method of choice.

## - Translating concepts directly

Many learners don't understand that languages are different from each other, and that very often you simply can't translate particular words and expressions directly. Doing so more often than not results in very unnatural sounding speech. A very
simple example is the use of personal pronouns such as " I " or "You." In so-called "pro-drop" languages such as Arabic, Spanish and Korean, personal pronouns are very rarely used because they are redundant. Yet the vast majority of English speakers learning these languages seem to have a hard time getting their head around this simple fact.

When you start learning a foreign language, start from a blank slate. You need to forget about whatever patterns or expressions you got used to employing in your native tongue, especially if you're learning a language from a different family. Get used to absorbing new patterns and expressions without always referring back to your mother tongue. You'll thank me later.

## - Forgetting about intonation

A lot of people dedicate little time to really working on their pronunciation, and much less on their intonation (what I like to call the "flow" or "music" of the language). This results in them sounding totally foreign and hard to understand. This might surprise you, but intonation is actually more important than pronunciation if you want to get yourself understood.

Recently, Brian Kwong had a really great interview with polyglot Luca Lampariello, in which Luca underlines the importance of intonation and gives very specific steps through which you can improve it. Generally speaking, a lot of listening will help to fix this problem, but it's always good to consciously work on it too through recording yourself and going over exercises.

## - Lack of confidence

Last but not least, too many people start learning a foreign language with the wrong mindset. "It's too hard," "It's too boring," "I won't make it," or any similar type of thinking will drag you down and may even turn into a self-fulfilling prophecy. Be careful not to confuse competence with confidence. Competence is the ability to do something, whereas confidence is your belief about your competence.

These ten mistakes affect to the acquisition of a second language and all of them people must avoid if he/she would like to learn a foreign language as a native one.

### 2.2.9.2.4 WHY YOU CAN NEVER LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE THE WAY YOU HAVE LEARNT YOUR MOTHER TONGUE

If you have ever mustered enough energy and motivation to try to take up a new language, (who hasn't right?) sooner or later you must have stumbled upon mysterious "natural way" courses. Supposedly extremely efficient, often advertised and promoted by prominent figures and masterminds in the field of language learning and teaching and almost always horrendously expensive, such courses have nevertheless become very popular among students who fell prey to the promise of learning a language just as easily and effortlessly as children do. Yes indeed - you are going to be learning like a child.

Because, let's face it: undeniably true, children do seem to have a peculiar gift for learning languages, or, at the very least, their native language. This can be attributed to a variety of different reasons, yet in the end produces the same outcome - no child has ever failed to reach total and perfect mastery in his or her mother tongue. Conversely, how many of us ended up being at least advanced in the second language of our choosing? How many of us actually stuck with the course?

It is not surprising then that for many years the researchers have been trying to pinpoint what exactly makes children learn languages so easily. The "natural" courses are the result of such research, their task to mimic the way children learn the mother tongue and recreate it, allowing the adult learners to learn their second language in the exactly same way. (Omniglot, 2010)

Even people are very willingness to acquire a second language as the first one it will be a very difficult task since they are going to be able to develop the four skills as well but the pronunciation and the intonation are not going to be the same as native speakers.

### 2.2.9.3 MORE IMPORTANCE IS ATTACHED TO GRAMMATICAL RULES THAN FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

### 2.2.9.3.1 BASIC ENGLISH GRAMMAR RULES

In any language there are basic rules the speaker or would be learner needs to understand before moving on to harder skills. English itself has basic rules that people need to follow for it to make sense to hearers and readers. Here are some basic English grammar rules that are easy to understand and easy to learn.

- Only use capital letters for proper nouns and at the beginning of a sentence.
- For every sentence there should be one noun and one verb. A sentence with more than one noun or verb is confusing to understand.
- When a sentence is complete use appropriate punctuation. There is no need to have dual punctuation when ending a sentence.
- If an apostrophe is needed make sure to use it to show ownership. An apostrophe is also used when words are abbreviated.
- Whenever writing multiple sentences about the same subject or line of thought, use paragraphs to divide long segments of writing.
- A line should of thought require a list make sure to separate each article by a comma.
- Make sure case and number of the subject and the verb match. It the noun is singular the verb should be singular as well.
- When connecting two lines of thought in a sentence, use a conjunction to make things make better sense.
- If you have two lines of thought that are similar feel free to use a semicolon to combine them.
- Make sure to use the correct tense when writing or speaking English.
- Try not to end a sentence with a preposition.
- A conjunction word should not be used to start a sentence.
- Sentences should be complete thoughts and not fragments.
- Try not to use double negatives. Such as no not never.
- Make sure to use words correctly.
- Avoid repeating lines of thought in sentences.
- Make sure paragraphs are complete; having three to five sentences each.
(Five minutes, 2014)
As in all languages, also English has several grammar rules and students or people as learners must acquire most of them with the purpose to be understood by other ones.


### 2.2.9.3.2 FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

Functional theories of grammar are those approaches to the study of language that see the functions of language and its elements to be the key to understanding linguistic processes and structures. Functional theories of language propose that since language is fundamentally a tool, it is reasonable to assume that its structures are best analysed and understood with reference to the functions they carry out. Functional theories of grammar differ from formal theories of grammar, in that the latter seeks to define the different elements of language and describe the way they relate to each other as systems of formal rules or operations, whereas the former defines the functions performed by language and then relates these functions to the linguistic elements that carry them out. This means that functional theories of grammar tend to pay attention to the way language is actually used in communicative context, and not just to the formal relations between linguistic elements. (Dik, 1997)

So all of the time when anybody uses grammatical structure, he/she also carries out any language function; it means that when he/she says something he/she does something.

### 2.2.9.4 ENGLISH IS A UNIQUE LANGUAGE WITH RESPECT TO PHONOLOGY, WORD ORDER, GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

### 2.2.9.4.1 PHONOLOGY

It is the study of the sound patterns that occur within languages. Some linguists include phonetics, the study of the production and description of speech sounds, within the study of phonology.

Diachronic (historical) phonology examines and constructs theories about the changes and modifications in speech sounds and sound systems over a period of time. For example, it is concerned with the process by which the English words "sea" and "see," once pronounced with different vowel sounds (as indicated by the spelling), have come to be pronounced alike today. Synchronic (descriptive) phonology investigates sounds at a single stage in the development of a language, to discover the sound patterns that can occur. For example, in English, nt and dm can appear within or at the end of words ("rent," "admit") but not at the beginning. (SIL International, 2004)

Phonology is a branch of linguistic which study the sounds and according to SIL International there are two types of phonology which are the following: Diachronic and Synchronic phonology.

### 2.2.9.4.1.1 MODELS OF PHONOLOGY

Different models of phonology contribute to knowledge of phonological representations and processes:

- In classical phonemics, phonemes and their possible combinations are central.
- In standard generative phonology, distinctive features are central. A stream of speech is portrayed as linear sequence of discrete sound-segments. Each segment is composed of simultaneously occurring features.

In non-linear models of phonology, a stream of speech is represented as multidimensional, not simply as a linear sequence of sound segments. SIL International, 2004)

### 2.2.9.4.2 WORD ORDER

Most English sentences (clauses) conform to the SVO word order. This means that the Subject comes before the Verb, which comes before the Object.

## Examples:

- I (S) bought (V) a new computer (O).
- $\quad$ She ( S ) doesn't like (V) dogs (O).
- Why did you (S) do (V) that (O)?

Chart No 2.9 Word order errors

| Most common errors | Examples |
| :--- | :--- |
| Incorrect position of the adverb | Usually I worked in the morning. |
|  | Often they spend in manta. |
|  | Never you will forget them. |

Source: http://esl.fis.edu/grammar/rules/order.htm
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
It is important to have a wide knowledge of grammar for building correct sentences or paragraphs and especially for having a correct word order and in this way don not commit mistakes.

### 2.2.9.5 ACQUISITION OF VOCABULARY IS VERY LIMITED

### 2.2.9.5.1 VOCABULARY

Vocabulary can be defined as an essential element in learning a foreign or second language, without it the learners cannot convey what they want. It cannot be taught or learned in complete isolation from the rest of the linguistic components such as: grammar, phonetics, phonology, notions and functions. (Torres, 2009)

One of the aspects for teaching or learning a foreign language is to have a wide knowledge of vocabulary because if people do not have enough vocabulary in their lexicon they are not going to be able to communicate what they want to express.

### 2.2.9.5.2 IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY

Vocabulary is central to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their ideas.

Wilkins wrote that "without grammar very hate can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. (Wilkins, 1972)

The vocabulary is really important no just for expressing ourselves, it is also important for understanding to other ones too.

Chart No 2.10 Important points to teach vocabulary

| Points | Argument |
| :--- | :--- |
| Meaning | Its dictionary meaning and the aspect of <br> meaning such as: denotation and <br> connotation. |
| Form | What part of grammar it is - a verb, a <br> noun, an adjective and so on. |
| Pronunciation and spelling | It is necessary for learner to learn how to <br> pronounce the words and how to write <br> them. |
| Collocations | The way that words occur together. |
| Word formation | What the affixes and suffixes may <br> indicate about the meaning. |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 14
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## Chart No 2.11 Techniques for teaching vocabulary

| Techniques | Examples |
| :--- | :--- |
| Realia | Real things |
| Pictures | Photos |
| Body | Gestures |
| Word sets | Living room <br> surface of the earth in which plants <br> grow. |
| Definition | Synonyms: clever = intelligent <br> Antonyms: cold = hot |
| Synonyms/Antonyms | Traffic <br> There are many cars, buses, taxis, and <br> motor bikes in the city center. |
| Illustrative sentences | Always - usually - often - sometimes - <br> seldom- never |
| Scales | Fruit : (apple, peach, pear, watermelon) |
| Hyponyms | Do homework NOT make homework |
| Special grammatical features | Good = bien |
| Translation |  |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 15
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

### 2.2.9.6 LACK OF MOTIVATION FOR SPEAKING OR LEARNING FOREIGN TONGUE

### 2.2.9.6.1 STUDENTS LACK INTEREST OR MOTIVATION

- Students see little value in the course or its content.
- Students do not believe that their efforts will improve their performance.
- Students are demotivated by the structure and allocation of rewards.
- Students do not perceive the classroom climate as supportive.
- Students have other priorities that compete for their time and attention.
- Individual students may suffer from physical, mental, or other personal problems that affect motivation.

The motivation is the most important factor for success in language learning and it is even more important than specific ability in a language.

### 2.2.9.6.2 FACTORS THAT AFFECT MOTIVATION

According to Torres 2009, the factors that affect motivation are the following:

## - Interest

Generally we have found that students don not like English because they did not find any relation between English and their own lives. They did not think that English would be useful in their future, so they felt that they spent too much time learning boring, unpleasant and difficult things.

## - Clear goals

Goal setting is extremely important to motivation and success. Normally learners need a reason to invest on their own to learn.

- The students' ability to learn a second language

It can be influenced by their attitudes toward the target language, the target language speaker and their culture.

Negative attitudes toward the foreign language, which often comes from stereotypes and superficial contact with the target culture, can impede the learning of the language. On the contrary, positive attitudes towards them increase language learning success.

- Self-confidence and self-esteem

Some students think they are not able to do something. It seems likely that students who have experienced failure in learning relate it with their own inabilities which
cause them to have low self-esteem related to their future success in learning which may, in turn, lead to low risk taking and other behaviours that are negative.

## - Lack of good methodology

Students loose motivation when the teacher's methodology is boring or passive.

Rapport between the teacher and learners - teachers who do not create warm and trustful atmospheres in the classroom cannot create favourable attitudes toward learning. (Torres, 2009)

According what the author says, these five aspects affect to motivation that is why teachers and students must look for ways of avoiding them.

### 2.2.9.6.3 THE REASONS OF LACK OF MOTIVATION IN STUDENTS

Language learning is not an easy process, and it requires time and effort. However, it is not just a cognitive process. It leads us to bringing some affective factors to this process.

Affective factors, which are related with the state of our emotions, play a big role in language learning, and they can even determine the level of success in learning because of the fact that when we develop positive feelings during the language learning process, the possibility of achievement will directly increase. One of these affective factors is motivation in language learning.

Motivation provides students with a purpose and direction to follow. For this reason, it has a great significance in learning. However, in the case of insufficient motivation, some problems begin to appear. Students do not take most out of their learning. Language does not seem meaningful and purposeful. Without will and desire to learn, it is difficult to achieve effective and fruitful learning, which provides us with the opportunity to benefit from our learning. As Huitt (2001) suggests, displaying the importance and necessity of language will help improve their motivation to learn even in the case of inadequate intrinsic motivation.

Hence, teachers should get more aware of importance of motivation in language learning and with simple changes they can promote their students' motivation.

In regard to the findings of this study, it is important to find out the reasons that lead to lack of motivation. In the classroom observed and researched, students experience lack of motivation when there is a negative environment. Teacher's being negative and non-supportive destroys their motivation. For this reason, establishment of positive and supportive atmospheres intensifies students' willingness towards lesson.

Students do not inhibit themselves from learning and get more willing towards language learning when teachers establish positive and psychologically healthy environments that appeal to students; as a consequence, they can achieve fruitful learning. Brown lists some tips to break potential barriers to learning:

- "help your students to laugh with each other at various mistakes that they all make"
- "be patient and supportive to build self-esteem, yet at the same time be firm in your expectations of students"
- "Elicit as much oral participation as possible from students, especially the quieter ones, to give them plenty of opportunities for trying things out." (Brown, 2001)

Learning a second language is very complex process which does not require just of time and effort, it requires of affective process too, it means level of emotion and motivation.

### 2.2.9.7 LACK OF EXPERTS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS TO TEACH PROPER PRONUNCIATION

### 2.2.9.7.1 NATIVE SPEAKER CLASS

Native speaker classes vary in size, from small groups up through full classes. Heterogeneity of students' skill levels is the rule rather than the exception. Therefore, although usually structured by grade level, it is possible to combine two consecutive grade levels in cases of insufficient numbers of native speaker students in any one grade level.

Because of the basic differences in approach between teaching English to native speakers and to other students, and considering the substantial gap between the two groups' skills levels, the native speaker students should, whenever possible, study separately. Optimally, the native speaker class completely replaces the regular English class; lessons are held simultaneously for the identical number of hours.

However, administrative and budget constraints often impinge upon the feasibility of a complete replacement program. The native speaker class either gets one less class hour per week than the regular class, or some sort of combination is reached whereby native speaker students have some of their hours separately and some in the regular class. The latter arrangement requires close cooperation and planning between the native speaker and regular English teacher so as to be workable and ensure that the native speaker students are actively involved in learning activities, whether individual, pair or group work. By no means should the regular English lesson be considered "free time" for native speaker students. (Hours for Native Speaker Pupils, 2014)

Native speakers' classes are different from foreign classes since in native classes it is possible to count with native English teachers who have a wide knowledge about the language and especially about the proper pronunciation, intonation and so on.

### 2.2.9.7.1.1 CRITERIA FOR NATIVE SPEAKER TEACHERS

Teachers of native speaker classes should possess the following qualifications:

- Certification or license to teach English in Israel at the relevant grade level
- Being a native speaker of English themselves.
- Whereas the need for English-language teaching certification is selfexplanatory, it is no less imperative that the teacher of native speaker classes with certification from abroad be completely familiar with the methodologies - both general education and subject matter methodologies - upon which the teaching of English in the Israeli classroom is based. Certain elements of the regular program must be taken into consideration, when preparing students for the Bag rut.
- Regarding the second qualification, it is most strongly recommended that only native speakers teach in these programs. Experience has shown that lack of total proficiency, both oral and written, on the part of the teacher inevitably leads to the undermining of his/her authority with both students and parents.

It is strongly recommended that teachers of native speakers avail themselves of the in-service training sessions held by the English Inspectorate regarding native speakers and other relevant issues. In addition, individual counseling of teachers, including classroom observation, is available. (Hours for Native Speaker Pupils, 2014)

Native speaker teachers are people with several qualities which let them to develop as well; it means that they have good methodology, techniques to teach the language.

### 2.2.9.7.2 PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciation is the act of speaking clearly and correctly and being understood by those around you.

Learning to pronounce is a complex task but the learning process can be facilitated if the learner is aware of exactly what is involved. Once learners are aware that English
words have a stress pattern, that words can be pronounced in slightly different ways, and that the pitch of the voice can be used to convey meaning they will know what to pay attention to. (Torres, 2009)

The pronunciation is considered an important aspect in acquiring a second language that is why teachers must help students to understand the functions of each component of English pronunciation and suprasegmental features like: stress, linking, intonation and so on.

### 2.2.9.7.2.1 PARTS OF PRONUNCIATION

According Torres 2009, the parts of pronunciation are:

## - Linking

It is a phenomenon in which two sounds are connected between adjacent words and pronounced in a continuous flow from one word to another.

## Chart No 2.12 How occurs linking

| Combinations | Example |
| :--- | :--- |
| Consonants and vowels | Come on |
| Consonants and consonants | Red deer |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 32
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

- Assimilation

It is a phenomenon in which two adjacent consonants are pronounced and the articulation of the first consonant is altered under the influence of the second consonant.

## - Stress

Stress plays an important role in learning English language. Certainly if the learners are not able to use good stress they won't be understood and communication will be broken.

It is important for students to know which words of a sentence are stressed and which are not.

## Chart No 2.13 Division of English words

| Division | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| Content words | These express independent meaning and <br> are usually stressed. |
| Function words | These have little or no meaning in <br> themselves. |

Source: Torres M, 2010, pg. 34
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## - Intonation

Intonation is the area of pronunciation that is considered the most complex for the language learner. We are rarely consciously aware of it when we speak. When learn the intonation patterns without externalizing rules or analyzing them, instead a great deal of exposure and practice is required. (Torres, 2009)

All parts of pronunciation must be taking into account while learning English language because learning to pronounce is a complex task but the learning process can be facilitated if students are aware of what is involved.

### 2.2.9.7.2.2 FACTORS THAT AFFECT PRONUNCIATION LEARNING

For Torres 2009 the factors that affect pronunciation are:

## - Linguistic variables

It concerns with the first language of the learners. The system of English sounds is similar to the Spanish system in consonants but more different in vowels, rhythm and intonation. The teacher has to prioritize the teaching of suprasegmental features of a language such as the stress-timing, so that the speakers can get intelligibility in their production of the target language. $\mathrm{He} /$ she should also focus on the production of those phonemes which do not exist in the mother tongue, like the sound /t/, so that
learners can produce a language that even though is not native like, will be clear and intelligible enough to generate and maintain communication.

- The age factor

Many studies support the hypothesis that age determines the accuracy of the learner's pronunciation. Biological changes take place in the brain after a certain age; people loose certain abilities after this age. This is why the younger a person is the better he or she will have an accurate perception of the sounds of the new language. However, there have been cases of adults who learned to speak a second language fluently, still with a foreign accent.

## - Amount of exposure

We don't live in an English-speaking environment nor surrounded by English speakers, so the interference of mother tongue in pronunciation is something hard to be erased after a long time of exposure.

- Phonetic ability

Some people have a better ear for foreign languages than others. This factor is out of a teacher's control but training has an effect. (Torres, 2009)

## - Attitude and identity

It has been shown that those learners who show positive feelings toward the speakers of the new language tend to develop more accurate, native-like accents.

- Motivation and concern for good pronunciation

Learners who have the desire to get good pronunciation learn better than those who show no interest.

## - Class atmosphere

Learners need friendliness, kindliness and freedom for learning to produce sounds that are strange for them.

- Amount and type of prior instruction

The group of students we are working with needs to be taught how to produce accurate sounds and stress of words and sentences. Learners will need a lot of exposure, explanation and exercise to improve.

- Institutional variables

The type of teachers students have influence a lot in the type of pronunciation students build up and not that only that but the type of material teachers use for training and skills orientation. As we can see teachers have a greater duty than before to be well prepared and also the institutions to have the necessary resources to provide a good exposure, exercise and explanation of these and all of the pronunciation features.

## - Methodological variables

The distinct problems of transfer our students perform are due to a lack of consistency in teaching and training whatever method the teacher is applying he/she should focus students' attention to segmental and suprasegmental features of the language in a peripheral way, all of the time. We are aware that nowadays it is not the case to make students acquire a native-like pronunciation, but they need to be trained with the main aim of being able to communicate clearly, fluently and accurately. (Torres, 2009)

The factors that affect pronunciation must be avoided for students and teachers' part, making conscious that the best way to improve pronunciation is to speak English daily and to find opportunities to be exposed to the language as much as possible.

### 2.3 BASIC TERMS DEFINITIONS

- Approach: It is a theoretical position and beliefs about the nature of the language, and the language learning and the applicability of both in a variety of different ways in the classroom.
- EFL: EFL stands for 'English as a Foreign Language'. An EFL environment is one where the majority of the community does not speak English as their first language (or L1).
- First Language acquisition (L1): It is the natural process in which children subconsciously possess and develop the linguistic knowledge of the setting they live in.
- Foreign language: Any language used in a country other than one's own; a language that is studied mostly for cultural insight.
- Interference: Refers to the speaker or writer applying knowledge from their mother tongue to a second language.
- Language transfer: (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross meaning) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to a second language.
- Language transfer theory: (also known as L1 interference) is related to the effect the learners' first language has on their production of the second one.
- Mother tongue: The language that a person has grown up speaking from early childhood.


### 2.4 HYPOTHESIS

There is interference of mother tongue in English language learning in students of seventh semester in language career at the Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo in the academic period April 2015 - August 2015.

### 2.5 VARIABLES

### 2.5.1 INDEPENDENT

English language learning

### 2.5.2 DEPENDENT

Mother tongue

## CHAPTER III

## 3. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

### 3.1. SCIENTIFIC METHOD

For the development of this research the Quality-Quantitative method was applied:

- Quality-Quantitative: It is the combination of both approaches (quantitative and qualitative), the mixed research thereof which includes the same features of each of them and they used five similar and interrelated phases :
a) Carry out monitoring and evaluation of phenomena.
b) Establish assumptions or ideas as a result of observation and evaluation performed.
c) They test and demonstrate the extent to which the assumptions or ideas have merit.
d) Revise such assumptions or ideas on the basis of evidence or analysis.
e) Propose new observations and assessments to clarify, modify, build and / or substantiate the assumptions or ideas, or to generate other.


### 3.1.1 TYPES OF RESEARCH

In our research project was used the bibliographic, documental, field, descriptive and diagnostic research.

- Documental Research. - It allows us to get different types of data through the use of printed materials, in order to understand, analyse and interpret different approaches and criteria of several authors on a particular issue.
- Field Research. - It allows to obtaining data, establishing a direct relationship between the researcher and the reality, without control or manipulating any variable.
- Bibliographic Research. - It allows finding a wide search for information on a specific issue, to be conducted in a systematic way.


### 3.1.2 LEVEL OF RESEARCH

In our research project was used: descriptive and diagnostic research.

- Descriptive research. - Through this research is used the observation as a main element and in observation is possible to use surveys and questionnaires.
- Diagnostic research. - The researcher must be able to define clearly, what he/she wants to measure and must find adequate methods for measuring it along with a clear cut definition of "Population" he/she wants to study.


### 3.2. POPULATION AND SAMPLE

### 3.2.1. POPULATION

At seventh semester in language career at the Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo. There was a population of 22 students.

### 3.2.2. SAMPLE

As the population was small was not be applied, in consequence the researches will work with all the involved in the investigate process.

### 3.3 TECHNIQUES AND INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

### 3.3.1 TECHNIQUES

a). Survey. - It is a quick interview, with the surveyor asking only a few questions.
b).Observation. - Observation is way of gathering data by watching behavior, events or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting.

### 3.3.2 INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used were: observation guide and questionnaire format.

### 3.4 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYZING TECHNIQUES

- Information was reviewed.
- It was used statistical tables and statistical graphs to collect and interpret information.
- Got conclusions of the research.


### 3.4.1 SURVEYS ADRESSED TO STUDENTS OF SEVENTH SEMESTER IN

## LANGUAGE CAREER AT UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO

1. Do you think that the mother tongue (Spanish) interferes in your English language learning?

Table No. 3.1 Interference of mother tongue in English language learning

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Yes | 18 | $82 \%$ |
| No | 04 | $18 \%$ |
| TOTAL | 22 | $100 \%$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
Statistical Graph No 3.1 Interference of mother tongue in English language learning


Source: Table No 3.1
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $82 \%$ of them say that the mother tongue (Spanish) interferes in their English language learning while the $18 \%$ of students say that the mother tongue does not interfere in their English learning.
b) Interpretation: The results obtained from the surveys show that there is interference of mother tongue in students of seventh semester in Language Career.
2. If, the mother tongue interferes in your English language learning, what kinds of problems provoke in you this interference?
Table No. 3.2 Problems provoked by the mother tongue

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| You can't express <br> your ideas | 11 | $50 \%$ |
| Lack of fluency | 6 | $27 \%$ |
| Scarce use of English | 5 | $23 \%$ |
| Others | 0 | $0 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## Statistical Graph No 3.2 Problems provoked by the mother tongue



Source: Table No 3.2
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $50 \%$ of them say that they can`t express their ideas in a clear way, the $27 \%$ states that they have a lack of fluency and the $23 \%$ express that they have a scarce use of English language inside and outside the classroom.
b) Interpretation: The results obtained from the surveys show that in most of students the interference of the mother tongue provokes that they can't express their ideas in a clear way.
3. Which are your necessities for learning English?

Table No. 3.3 Necessities for learning English

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Speak English fluently | 5 | $23 \%$ |
| Give your opinions in <br> classes | 4 | $18 \%$ |
| Use English inside and <br> outside the classroom | 12 | $55 \%$ |
| Others | 1 | $4 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## Statistical Graph No 3.3 Necessities for learning English



Source: Table No 3.3
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $55 \%$ of them say that their main necessity for learning English is use English inside and outside the classroom, the $23 \%$ states that their necessity is speak English fluently while the $18 \%$ express that they would like give their opinions in classes and the $4 \%$ say others.
b) Interpretation: The results obtained from the surveys show that the main necessity in most of students is use English inside and outside the classroom.
4. Why the mother tongue interferes in your English learning?

Table No. 3.4 Reasons for interference

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| You think in Spanish and <br> translate your ideas into English | 17 | $77 \%$ |
| Sometimes your teacher uses <br> the mother tongue into the class | 3 | $14 \%$ |
| There are similar words in <br> English and Spanish but with a <br> different meaning | 2 | $9 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## Statistical Graph No 3.4 Reasons for interference



Source: Table No 3.4
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $77 \%$ of respondents express that the reason for interference is because they think in Spanish and translate their ideas into English, the $14 \%$ states that sometimes their teachers use the mother tongue into the class and the $9 \%$ say that there are similar words in Spanish and English but with different meaning.
b) Interpretation: The results reported from the surveys show that the main reason for interference is because they think in Spanish and translate their ideas into English.
5. Which are the effects the interference of mother tongue in English learning provokes?
Table No. 3.5 Effects provoked by the interference of mother tongue

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Use of"'Spanglish <br> words" | 4 | $18 \%$ |
| Translation (Spanish - <br> English) | 14 | $64 \%$ |
| Lack of fluency | 4 | $18 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
Statistical Graph No 3.5 Effects provoked by the interference of mother tongue


Source: Table No 3.5
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $64 \%$ of them say that the effect provoked by the mother tongue is the translation while the $18 \%$ states that the interference of mother tongue provokes a lack of fluency and the $18 \%$ say the effect is the use of Spanglish words.
b) Interpretation: The results reported from the surveys show that the main effect provoked by the interference of mother tongue is the translation (Spanish - English).
6. How often do you use English for asking something to your classmates or teachers?

Table No. 3.6 Use of English for asking something to teachers or classmates

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Always | 10 | $45 \%$ |
| Often | 12 | $55 \%$ |
| Never | 0 | $0 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

Statistical Graph No 3.6 Use of English for asking something to teachers or classmates


Source: Table No 3.6
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $55 \%$ of respondents express that they use English often while the $45 \%$ say that they use English always.
b) Interpretation: The results reported from the surveys show that most of students use English for asking something to teachers or classmates often.
7. Do you think that false cognates interfere in your English Learning?

Table No. 3.7 Interference of false cognates in English learning

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Yes | 13 | $59 \%$ |
| No | 09 | $41 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## Statistical Graph No 3.7 Interference of false cognates in English learning



Source: Table No 3.7
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $59 \%$ of respondents express that false cognates interferes in their English learning while the $41 \%$ say that false cognates does not interfere in their English learning.
b) Interpretation: The results reported from the surveys show that in most of students there are interference of false cognates.
8. What can you do to avoid the interference of mother tongue in English language learning?
Table No. 3.8 How avoid the interference of mother tongue

| OPTIONS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Use English inside and <br> outside the classroom | 3 | $14 \%$ |
| Don't translate your <br> ideas from Spanish to <br> English | 9 | $41 \%$ |
| Think in English and <br> speak in English | 10 | $45 \%$ |
| TOTAL | $\mathbf{2 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
Statistical Graph No 3.8 How avoid the interference of mother tongue


Source: Table No 3.8
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco
a) Analysis: From the $100 \%$ of the surveyed students, the $45 \%$ of them say that to avoid the interference of mother tongue they must think in English and speak en English, the $41 \%$ express that they must not translate their ideas from Spanish to English and the $14 \%$ say that they should use English inside and outside the classroom.
b) Interpretation: The results obtained from the surveys show that to avoid the interference of mother tongue they must think in English and speak en English.

Chart No 3.1 Results obtained from the survey applied to students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo

| SURVEY QUESTIONS | OPTIONS |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { TOT } \\ \text { AL } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Do you think that the mother tongue (Spanish) interferes in your English language learning? | YES | NO |  |  |  |
|  | 82\% | 18\% |  |  | 100\% |
| If, the mother tongue interferes in your English language learning, What kinds of problems provoke in |  | $\ddot{0}$ $\begin{aligned} & \text { Ü } \\ & \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| you this interference? | 50\% | 27\% | 23\% |  | 100\% |
| Which are your necessities for learning English? |  |  |  | \% |  |
|  | 23\% | 18\% | 55\% | 4\% | 100\% |
| Why the mother tongue interferes in your English learning? |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 77\% | 14\% | 9\% |  | 100\% |
| Which are the effects the interference of mother tongue in English learning provokes? |  |  | ๘ |  |  |
|  | 18\% | 64\% | 18\% |  | 100\% |
| How often do you use English for asking something to your classmates or teachers? | $\frac{\stackrel{n}{3}}{\frac{\pi}{3}}$ | $\stackrel{\text { Ũ }}{0}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { J } \\ & \text { 己 } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
|  | 55\% | 45\% | 0\% |  | 100\% |


| Do you think that false cognates interfere in your English Learning? | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ |  | \% |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 59\% |  | 41\% | 100\% |
| What can you do to avoid the interference of mother tongue in English language learning? |  |  |  |  |
|  | 14\% | 41\% | 45\% | 100\% |

Source: Survey
Done by: Fernanda Pulgar \& Jenniffer Orozco

## CHAPTER IV

## 4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMENDATIONS

### 4.1. CONCLUSIONS

- The results of the interview show that there is interference of mother tongue in English language learning.
- The mother tongue (Spanish) does not allow students to express their ideas in a clear way in English.
- The main cause why the mother tongue interferes in English language learning is because students think in Spanish and translate their ideas into English.
- The chief effect provoked by the mother tongue in English language learning is the Translation (Spanish - English).


### 4.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

- Students should think and speak in English to avoid the interference of mother tongue in English language learning.
- Students must use English language inside and outside the classroom with teachers and classmates to improve their English learning.
- Teachers must dictate their classes only in English even the activities are complex.
- Teachers should encourage students to use English inside and outside the classroom.


## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Arnold, C., Bartlett, K., Gowani, S., \& Merali, R. (2006). Is everybody ready? Readiness, transition and continuity: Reflections and moving forward. Background paper for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007.
- Asmah Hj. Omar (1992). The linguistic scenery in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.
- Baca, L.M., \& Cervantes, H.T. (Eds.). (2004). The bilingual special education interface. NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Berns, M. S. (1984). Functional approaches to language and language teaching: Another look. In S. Savignon \& M. S. Berns (Eds.), "Initiatives in communicative language teaching. A book of readings" (pp. 3-21). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Brown, H.D. 2001. Teaching by principles, An interactive approach to language pedagogy. San Francisco State University: Longman.
- Bybee, J. L. (2010). Language, Usage and Cognition. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Comrie, B. (1989). Language Universals and Linguistic Typology. (2nd edn.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Croft, W. (2003). Typology and Universals. (2nd edn.) Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chafe, W. (1994). Discourse, Consciousness and Time: The Flow and Displacement of Conscious Experience in Speaking and Writing. Chicago: University of Chicago Press
- Chomsky, N. 1965. Aspects of the theory of syntax. Boston: MIT Press.
- Dik, S. C. (1997). (2nd rev. edn.). The Theory of Functional Grammar. (2 Vols). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Gerngross, G., \& Puchta, H. (1984). Beyond notions and functions: Language teaching or the art of letting go. In S. Savignon \& M. S. Berns (Eds.), "Initiatives in communicative language teaching. A book of readings" (pp. 89-107). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Givón, T. (2001). Syntax: A Functional-Typological Introduction. (2nd edn.) Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Haiman, J. (1985). Natural Syntax. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hawkins, J. A. (2004). Efficiency and Complexity in Grammar. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1987). Women, Fire and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). "Techniques and principles in language teaching." Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Okrand, Marc, The Klingon Dictionary, ©1993 by Paramount Pictures, Simon \& Schuster, Inc. New York, NY
- Richards, Jack C. \& Rodgers, Theodore S. (2001). Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed.). New York. Cambridge University Press.
- Savignon, Sandra J. \& Berns, Margie S. (1984). Initiatives in communicative language teaching. Reading, Massachusetts. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.
- Savignon, Sandra J. (2002). Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education. United States of America. Yale University Press.
- Tomasello, M. (Ed.), (1998/2003). The New Psychology of Language: Cognitive and Functional Approaches to Language Structure. (2 Vols). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Torres Cajas, Monica. "Basic Methodology for Teaching English". 2009. Riobamba. RioImpresiones.
- Willems, G., \& Riley, P. (Eds.). (1984). "Communicative foreign language teaching and the training of foreign language teachers." (EDRS No. ED 273 102, 219 pages)


## OUTLINE RESOURCES

- Anonymous author (2011),second language acquisition ,world languages Ed Tech Productions, San Diego County Office of Education Retrieved 16:49, Julio 6, 2015, from: http://mandarin.sdcoe.net/la1.html
- Avanika Sinha, (2009).Interference of first language in the acquisition of second language. Journal of Psychology and Counseling Vol. 1(7) , pp. 117122 Retrieved 15:46,April 8, 2015, from file:///C:/Users/Personal/Downloads/article1379761693_Sinha-et-al1.pdf
- Barcroft, J. Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: A Lexical Input Processing Approach, Foreign Language Annals Vol. 37 No. 2 Retrieved 15:46, Agosto 15, 2015, from http://www.transparent.com/white-papers/second-language.html
- Bellugi, U. and Brown, R. (eds.) (1964), The Acquisition of Language, Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 29, 92 Retrieved 15:46, Agosto 15, 2015, from http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/innateness-language/
- Brown, D. (1994), Teaching by Principles, Prentice Hall Regents. Retrieved 16:25, April 8, 2015, from https://books.google.com.ec/books
- Chengjun Wang (2009),on linguistic environment for foreign language acquisition, CCSE, vol.1, ${ }^{\circ} 1$ Retrieved 17:00, Agosto 15, 2015, from http://study.com/academy/lesson/the-effects-of-environment-and-culture-on-language-development.html
- Chomsky (1965), online linguistics ,Campus Essen Retrieved 16:49, Julio 6, 2015,from:https://www.uni-due.de/ELE/LanguageAcquisition.htm\#GlossTop
- Damico, J.S. \& Hamayan, E.V. (1992). Multicultural language intervention: Addressing culturally and linguistically diverse issues. Chicago: Riverside. Retrieved 20:34, March 23, 2015, from http://www.ldonline.org/article/40715?theme=print
- Doris Baker \& Scott Baker, (2009) Second Language Acquisition,educacion.com Retrieved 15:25, Agosto 8, 2015, from http://www.education.com/reference/article/second-language-acquisition/
- Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt \& Stephen Krashen. (1982), Language Two. New York: Oxford University Press. Retrieved 15:25, April 8, 2015, from https://books.google.com.ec/books?id=FspoAAAAIAAJ\&q=Dulay,+Heidi,+ Marina+Burt+\%26+Stephen+Krashen
- Five minutes (2014) Basic grammar rules. Retrieved 18:53, July 12, 2015, from http://www.5minuteenglish.com/english-grammar-rules.htm
- Functional approach. (2015, February 16). In Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia.Retrieved20:34,March23,2015,fromhttp://en.wikipedia.org/w/i ndex.php?title=Functional_approach\&oldid=647426882
- Gass, S.M. y C.G. Madden (eds.) (1985) Input in Second Language Acquisition, Rowley, Mass., Newbury House. Retrieved 20:34, March 23, 2015, from https://linguistlist.org/issues/12/12-1260.html
- Hours for Native Speaker Pupils (2014) English native speakers. Retrieved 18:25, July 12, 2015, from http://cms.education.gov.il/EducationCMS/Units/Mazkirut_Pedagogit/Englis h/NativeSpeakers/Defining+the+Native+Speaker+Student.htm
- Julio Foppoli (2013) esl/base,stages in the second language acquisition process, Retrieved 20:34, Agosto 15, 2015, from: http://www.eslbase.com/teaching/silent-period-second-language-acquisition
- Kennedy, Graeme. (1973), 'Conditions for language learning.' In John W. Oiler \& Jack C. Richards. eds. Focus on the learner: pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers. Retrieved 17:37, April 8, 2015, from http://www.melta.org.my/ET/1991/main3.html
- Krashen, S.D., M. Long y R. Scarcella (eds.) (1982) Child-adult Differences in Second Language Acquisition, Rowley, Mass., Newbury House. Retrieved 17:37, April 8, 2015, from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3586451
- Krashen, S. (2004) the Power of Reading: Insights from the Research. Heinemann. Portsmouth. Retrieved 16:53, April 8, 2015, from http://www.worldcat.org/title/power-of-reading-insights-from-theresearch/oclc/54501289
- Lingholic (2004) 10 common mistakes in English. Retrieved 18:23, July 12, 2015, from http://www.lingholic.com/learning-foreign-language-10-most-common-mistakes/
- Mehmeti, E(2014) Retrieved 17:58, June 10, 2015, from http://es.slideshare.net/emmamricardo/the-importance-of-english-language
- Michael Orosco \& John J. Hoover(2008), Characteristics of Second Language Acquisition, Cultural Diversity, and Learning/Behavior Disabilities, Significance to Contemporary Educational Contexts Retrieved 16:49,Julio 2015, from: http://ptgmedia.pearsoncmg.com/imprint_downloads/merrill_professional/im ages/0-205-60827-2_c03.pdf
- Omniglot (2010) Learning languages. Retrieved 18:52, July 12, 2015, from http://www.omniglot.com/language/articles/mt.htm
- Ovando, C., Collier, V., \& Combs, M. (2003). Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching multicultural contexts (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill. Retrieved 16:49, Julio 6, 2015, from: http://iteslj.org/Articles/Bradley-Scaffolding/
- Pinker, S. (1989). Learnability and Cognition: The Acquisition of Argument Structure, Cambridge, MA: Bradford/MIT Press.- (1997). How the Mind Works, New York, Norton. Retrieved 16:49, Agosto 14, 2015, from: http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/innateness-language/
- Posner, M.I. and Raichle, M.E. (1994). Images of Mind. 2nd Ed., New York: W H Freeman \& Co. Retrieved 16:49, Agosto 14, 2015, from: http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/innateness-language/
- Ravem, Roar. (1974), 'Language acquisition in a second language environment.' In Jack C. Richards, ed. Error analysis: perspectives on second language acquisition. London: Longman. Retrieved 14:53, April 8, 2015,
from http://www.worldcat.org/title/error-analysis-perspectives-on-second-language-acquisition/oclc/1524554
- Richards, J.C., Platt, J., \& Platt, H. (Eds.). (1992). Longman dictionary of language teaching \& applied linguistics. Essex, England: Longman Group UK Limited. Retrieved 17:55, April 8, 2015, from http://librarydspace.twu.edu/bitstream/handle/11274/265/2012Dam282p295.
- Schacter, D. S., Gilbert, D. T., \& Wegner, D. M. (2011). Psychology: 2nd Edition. New York: Worth. Retrieved 15:25, April 8, 2015, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Functional_approach
- SIL International (2004) Phonology. Retrieved 17:21, July 12, 2015, from http://www_01.sil.org/linguistics/glossaryoflinguisticterms/WhatIsPhonology
- Steinberg, Danny D. (1982), Psycholinguistics: language, mind and world. London: Longman. Retrieved 15:50, April 8, 2015.
- Tonje Gauslaa Sivertzen (2013). A study of the long-term effects of initial extra English input on Norwegian 4th graders' receptive vocabulary, The role of input in early second language acquisition Retrieved 15:25, agosto 15, 2015,from:https://www.ntnu.edu/documents/1535402/35615794/master_01_t onje_gauslaa_sivertzen.pdf/04c46cf3-c2be-46fa-a77c-543c125498e3
- V. Radhika \&Mary Surya Kala (2013) Interference of Mother Tongue in Learning a Foreign Tongue. ELT Voices - India Vol 3,No 2,pp. 97-101. Retrieved 17:00, April 8, 2015, from file:///C:/Users/Personal/Downloads/EVI_32_7.pdf.
- Whitley, M. Stanley (2002). Spanish-English Contrasts: A Course in Spanish Linguistics. Georgetown University Press. p. 358. Retrieved 17:45, April 8, 2015,from:http://books.google.com.ec/books?id=yyqU_tXek1EC\&pg=PA35 8\&redir_esc=y\#v=onepage\&q\&f=false
- Wilkins, David A. (1972), Linguistics in language teaching. London: Edward Arnold. Retrieved 15:53, April 8, 2015.

ATTACHED
DOCUMENTS

## ATTACHMENT "A"

Survey addressed to students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo.


## UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO

FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN HUMANAS Y TECNOLOGÍAS

## LANGUAGES SCHOOL

## THIS SURVEY IS FOCUS ON STUDENTS OF SEVENTH SEMESTER IN

 LANGUAGE CAREER AT UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO Dear student:The objective of this survey is to determine the interference of mother tongue in English language learning.

This is reserved information
Mark with an $\mathbf{X}$ the answer that you consider right. In some questions you can choose more than one answer.

1. Do you think that the mother tongue (Spanish) interferes in your English language learning?
a) Yes ( )
b) No ( )

Note: If the answer of first question is "YES", continue answering the following questions otherwise thank you for your collaboration.
2. If, the mother tongue interferes in your English language learning, What kind of problems provoke in you this interference?
a) You cannot express your ideas in a clear way.
b) Lack of fluency
c) Scarce use of English language inside or outside the classroom ( )
d) Others: $\qquad$
3. Which are your necessities for learning English?
a) Speak English fluently.
b) Give your opinions in classes.
c) Use English inside and outside the classroom.
e) Others: $\qquad$
4. Why the mother tongue interferes in your English learning?
a) You think in Spanish and translate your ideas into English
b) Sometimes your teacher uses the mother tongue into the class.
c) There are similar words in English and Spanish but with a different meaning( )
5. Which are the effects the interference of mother tongue in English learning provokes?
a) Use of "Spanglish words"
b) Translation (Spanish -English)
( )
c) Lack of fluency
6. How often do you use English for asking something to your classmates or teachers?
a) Always
b) Often
c) Never
( )
( )
( )
7. Do you think that false cognates interfere in your English Learning?
a) Yes ( )
b) No ( )
8. What can you do to avoid the interference of mother tongue in English language learning?
a) Use English inside and outside the classroom
( )
b) Don't translate your ideas from Spanish to English
c) Think in English and speak in English

## ATTACHMENT "B"

Observation guide used to determine the interference of mother tongue in English language learning.

## OBSERVATION GUIDE



## UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE CHIMBORAZO

## FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN, HUMANAS Y TECNOLOGÍAS

## CARRERA DE IDIOMAS

OBSERVATION GUIDE
OBJETIVE: To determine how the mother tongue interferes in English language learning in students of seventh semester in language career at Universidad Nacional de Chimborazo frequently.

| $\mathbf{N}^{\text {o }}$ | INTERFERENCE | FREQUENCY |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { TONGUE } & \text { IN } \\ \text { ENGLISH } & \\ \text { LANGUAGE } & \\ \text { LEARNING. } & \end{array}$ | Never | Rarely | Often | Sometimes | Always |
| 1 | The teacher uses  <br> mother tongue  <br> during English <br> classes.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | Students use <br> English for asking <br> something to <br> teacher.  |  |  |  |  |  |


| 3 | While the class is <br> in process, students <br> use their mother <br> tongue. |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 | Students tend to <br> use Spanglish <br> words. |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Students have <br> fluency when they <br> speak English. |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | Students tend to <br> confuse with false <br> cognates. |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | Students are able to <br> express their own <br> ideas using <br> English. |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | Students try to <br> translate for giving <br> their point of view. |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | Students have <br> enough English <br> vocabulary. |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | Students use <br> English language <br> with their <br> classmates. |  |  |  |  |

