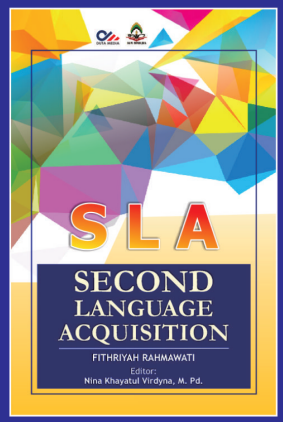
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION



This book starts from the beginning and tries to give an overview of second language acquisition covering the clear distiction between first and second language, and learning vs acquiring. Next also explains about the theories and some related hypothesis in line with SLA which later followed by the explanation of factors affecting the acquisition of language. It is also described the difference of the learners and how those difference influence the students acquire the language in the classroom.

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SLA

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

FITHRIYAH RAHMAWATI

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Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Fithriyah Rahmawati

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PREFACE

Bismillahirrahmaanirrahiim..

Alhamdulillah, praise and the greatest gratitude belong to Allah *Subhanahu Wa Ta'ala* for His blessing and mercy. Because of Him, I can complete this book entitled Second Language Acquisition. *Shalawat* and *salam* be upon our Prophet Muhammad *Shallallahu Alaihi Wasallam*.

This is a book of second language acquisition that deals with the ways of how the second languages are acquired. The book is designed to be a handbook of undergraduate students, gaining the introductory course of Second Language Acquisition. For this reason, this book starts from the beginning and tries to give an overview of second language acquisition covering the clear distinction between first and second language, and learning vs acquiring, and L1 vs L2 learning. The next chapter is about the theories and some early approaches in line with SLA which later followed by the explanation of factors affecting the acquisition of language. It is also described the differences of the language learners and how those difference influence the learners to acquire the language either in the classroom or natural setting.

This book is completed with the chapter review appearing at the beginning of each chapter, exercises, and some suggestions for further reading. So, it is hoped that the students will gain an in-depth understanding regards to how people acquire the language.

Obviously, I could not have achieved the current level of success in accomplishing this book without a strong support group. My parents and my daughters who always support me with love and understanding and all colleagues in IAIN Madura, thank you for all your unwavering supports.

December 15, 2019

Fithriyah Rahmawati

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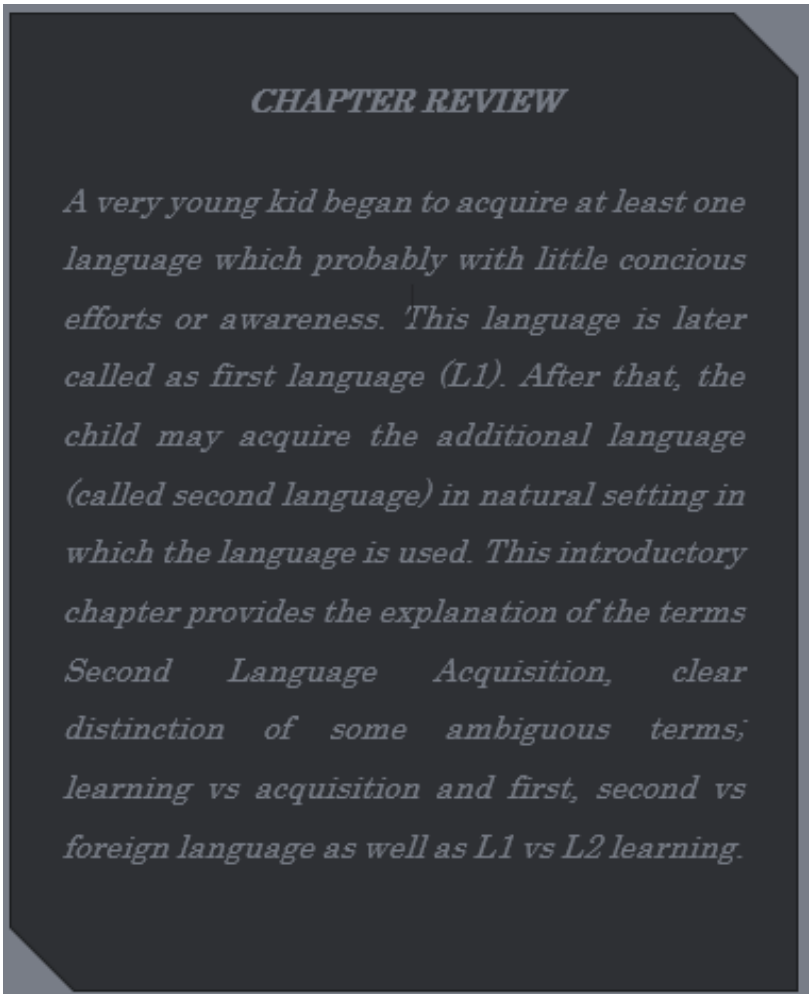
SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA)

Fithriyah Rahmawati

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION



A. Second Language Acquisition

The initial step of the exploration of SLA is understanding the term it self, Second Language Acquisition. Many aspects should be considered in order to gain better understanding of SLA. Below are some definitions of SLA according to some linguists.

According to Saville-Troike, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children as well as the process of learning that language. From its definition, SLA can be understood in two ways, both the study of learning the subsequent language and the process of the learning it self. In line with its scope, SLA covers informal second language learning occured in natural contexts, formal second language learning that takes place in classrooms, and second language learning that mix these two settings and circumstances.

Informal language learning happens when an Indonesian child, for example, goes to London in which using English in daily conversation. Of course, he/ she will picks up English when he/she is attending school with native English-speaking children without any specialized language instructions. On the other hand, when a high school student in Japan joins an English class or when an undergraduate student in England takes a course of Arabic, 'formal learning' has occured. Furthermore, the mixture of formal and informal learning situation could possibly occured. For example,

a student from China has English classes in London and then he/she also using English for social interaction outside the classroom in their daily life. Therefore, these samples has figured out how language could be possibly acquired by people through three ways, formal learning, informal learning and combination of formal and informal learning.

At least, three basic questions are worthy to answer in attempt to understand the process of language acquisition.

- What exactly the learners of L2 have to know?
- How does the learners acquire the language?
- Why are some learners considered more successfull than others?

Probably, there is no answers that could be completely accepted by researchers of SLA. It is the result of what Saville-Troike stated that "SLA is highly complex in nature, and in part because scholars studying SLA come from academic disciplines which differ greatly in theory and research methods". However, exploring answers to the questions above are beneficial for anyone learning and teaching additional languages in practice. Therefore, it can be noticed that SLA has emerged as a field primarily within psychology and linguistics, other subfields of applied

linguistics; sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and social psychology.

What is learned in acquiring a second language and how it is learned is often influenced by whether the situation involves informal exposure to speakers of other languages, immersion in a setting where one needs a new language to meet basic needs, or formal instruction in school. These learning conditions are often profoundly influenced by powerful social, cultural, and economic factors affecting the status of both languages and learners (Saville-Troike, 2012).

B. Learning vs Acquisition

It is crusial to distinguish two terms –learning and acquisition- that are often confusing in the definition and usage. Other terms may appear in terms of understanding 'learning' and 'acquisition'. As mentioned in the previous section, learning of a particular language can occur throughout *informal* learning, *formal* learning and combination of both types of learning. If it is mentioned that informal learning takes place in natural context, the formal learning are mostly dealing with classroom instruction. However, it cannot be denied if someone can learn the language through both informal and formal learning in the same time.

While, Yule (2014) has also identified the distinction between learning and acquisition. According to Yule, the term acquisition refers to the

gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language. While, the term learning, however, applies to a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language. Further, learning is typically carried out within an institutional setting. We can take an example about Mathematic subject which, for example, is not acquired, but it is learned.

Yule (2014) added that the activities mostly associated with learning have traditionally been used in language teaching in schools and educational institutions. It has a tendency that when the learning is successfull, it results in more knowledge "about" the language rather that fluency in using the language as demonstrated in social interaction. Knowledge "about" the language refers to knowledge demonstrated in test. On the other hand, activities that refers to acquisition are activities carried out by the young kid and those who 'pick up' a second language in directly interaction for long periods, especially those who use the language with the native speakers of the language. It is not surprising if the experience of individuals whose L2 exposure through learning is not the same kind of general proficiency as those who had more of an acquisition type of experience.

Ellis (1994) also make a distiction between *instructed* and *naturalistic* second language

acquisition. Regarding this, the distinction depends on the situation where the language learning is either naturally occuring in social interaction or as through study with the help from some sources or references or classroom instruction. Similarly, Klein in Ellis (1994) also distinguished terms *spontaneous* and *guided* acquisition. He distinguished these two terms based on psycholinguistics perspective. He argued that the learners focus on communication in naturalistic context since they learn incidentally. When they engaged in instructed language acquisition context, however, they typically focuses on some aspects of the language system. When it comes to the question how the distinction is viewed from sociolinguistics one, it is better to reflect the setting and the activities in which the learners usually engaged in. Based on the sociolinguistic view, it is not proper to assume that instructed learning is conscious while the naturalistic learning is unconscious.

Acquisition, according to some researchers (Krashen, 1981) stated that acquisition is the subconscious process of 'picking up' a language through exposure and the latter to the conscious process of studying it. It means that it is possible for learners to acquire and to learn rules independently and at separate times (Ellis, 1994). Moreover, Krashen (Krashen, 1985) also stated that *acquisition* requires meaningful interaction in the target language in which the speakers are focusing not with the form of their

utterances. It lead to natural comunication that focus on the messages they are conveying and understanding. In this moment, error correction and the explicit teaching of the rules are not relevance since the caretakers and people surrounding can modify their utterances to help them understand. These modifications is associated in the process of acquisition.

On the other hand, *learning* is intended to deal with error correction and presentation of the rules of the language (Krashen, 1985). The error correction is maintained to help learners recognize the correct mental representation o the linguistic generalization.

C. First, Second, and Foreign Language

It should be considered that many learners are multilingual. They may have acquired some competencies in more than one language. Then, the terms first language, second language –or even the third and the fourth-, and foreign language appeared in the discussion of SLA. Moreover, native language, mother tongue, additional language etc are also worthy to identify. It arose from the idea that a number of questions might be addressed to know someone's first language, as follows. However, the answers might be different and depend on the questions.

- What is your native language?
- What is your mother tongue?

- What language did you learn first when you are children?
- What language was usually spoken in your home when you were a child?
- What language are you most likely to use with family and friends?
- What is your strongest language?

When it comes to the question "what is your native language?" addressed to someone who acquired multilingual competence in two or more languages, it seems to be difficult to answer. For them, these questions might be L1s and or native language. In addition, such questions are also problematic for those whose language dominance has shifted from their first language to a language comprehend later (Saville-Troike, 2012).

The concepts of **first language** sometimes is as same as primary language, native language, and mother tongue. In other words, those concepts are treated as a roughly synonymous set of terms and genereralized as L1 (first language) to oppose the set of terms L2 (second language). In SLA concerns, first language (L1) –and any terms that share same ideas- are assumed to be languages acquired during early childhood which normally begin before the age of three years. This process is accomplished among people around them as part of their growth.

As mentioned above, many language learners are multilingual which meant they are capable to use more than one language. In terms of the acquisition, Saville-Troike (2012) proposed two distinctive multilingualism, namely:

1. Simultaneous multilingualism
   Simultaneous multilingualism is an acquisition of more than one language occured during early childhood. For example, one child acquire bahasa (Indonesian) in his/ her early life while acquiring Madurese (one of indigenous language in Indonesia) in the same time. Such multilingualism lead to the condition in which an individual might has more than one 'native' language.
2. Sequential multilingualism
   Sequential multilingualism is a learning of additional languages as the first language has already been attained.

In language acquisition, the term 'second' generally refers to any language other than first language. However, for learner from South Afrika, it would be more appropriate and accpetable to use term 'additional language' than term 'second language'. Why so? It is because in some learning setting there, the term 'second' are perceived opprobrious for many learner involving black learner in Africa.

Further, according to Saville-Troike, it is necessary to make further distinction of the function of L2 in our lives. It may lead to second language, foreign language, library language and auxiliary language. The following are distinctions commonly made in the literature as proposed by Saville-Troike (2012):

a. A second language is typically an official dominant language used for education, employement, and other general purposes. It is often acquired by minority group members or immigrants who speak another language natively. In this more restricted sense, the term is contrasted with other terms in this list.
b. A foreign language is one not widely used in the learners' immediate social context which might be used for future travel or other cross-cultural communication situations, or studied as a curricular requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or necessary practical application.
c. A library language is one which functions primarily as a tool for further learning through reading, especially when books or journals in a desired field of study are not commonly published in the learners' native tongue.
d. An auxiliary language is one which learners need to know for some official functions in their immediate political setting, or will need for purposes of wider communication, although

their first language serves most other needs in their lives.

In addition, a distinction is sometimes made between *second* and *foreign* language acquisition/ learning. Learning in a 'foreign language' setting necessarily means that someone are learning a particular language that is not generally spoken in their environtment.

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the first, second and freign language, we can notice the following example. Dira, a young child born in Madura that use Madurese in daily life, she acquire language at the first time. Indeed, Madurese is considered as her first language. As she is getting old, she uses Indonesian in her school environment. So, it can be said that Indonesian become her second language. Later, as she is capable in using Javanese with her friends, Javanese language mastered is considered as the third language, etc. Further, when she learns English in her school, English is acknowledged as foreign language for her.

In Indonesian context, people who live in big city in which multicultural and multilingual people exist, Indonesian language is mostly use in their daily life. It is not surprising if the Indonesian become their first language. However, in many areas in Indonesia, people mostly use Indonesian as their second language. It has been acknowledged that English becomes foreign

language for Indonesian people. It is due to the fact that English is not generally available in people's everyday communication. This is contradicted with situation in Singapore, for example, in which the people use English as second language since most of its people use English to communicate in their daily life, at home, schools and office, etc.

D. L1 Vs L2 Learning

When it comes to the comparison of first language (L1) and second language (L2) learning, it will be briefly divided into three stages, namely initial state, intermediate state and final stage. In the initial state, many linguists and psychologuist include the underlying knowledge of language structures and the principles that are already in learner's head at the very beginning of either L1 or L2 acquisition. The second stages, moreover, is the stages of basic language development which includes the maturational changes that occures in 'child grammar' and the L2 developmental sequence (so-called learner language or Interlanguage). Essentially, the final state is in line with the outcome of L1 and l2 learning.

The comprehensive explanation is reprented in the picture below (adopted from Saville-Troike).

Picture 1. The comparation of L1 and L2 Learning

L1		**L2**
	INITIAL STATE	
Innate capacity		Innate capacity L1 knowledge World knowledge Interaction skills
	INTERMEDIATE STATES	
Child grammar		**Learner language**
	Basic process	
Maturation		Transfer
	Necessary conditions	
Input Reciprocal Interaction		Input
	Facilitating cnditions	
		Feedback Aptitude Motivation Instruction
	FINAL STATE	
Native competence		Multilingual Competence

E. Exercises

1. List all of languages that you can use.
   a. Classify them as L1(s) and L2(s)!
   b. Classify the L2(s) as "second," "foreign," "library," or "auxiliary,"!

c. Distinguish between the ways you learned each of the languages: through informal or formal instruction, or some combination of these instruction.

2. Match the following terms to the definition:

1. Target Language	a. acquired during childhood
2. Native Language	b. an officially or societally dominant language (not speakers' L1) needed for education, employment, or other basic purposes
3. Foreign Language	c. has no immediate or necessary practical application, might be used later for travel or be required for school
4. Second Language	d. the aim or goal of language learning

3. Do you know individuals who don't feel like native speakers of their first language which is acquired? Or those who feel like native speakers of a language acquired later (language after L1) in life? What do you attribute this feeling to?

4. Diana is a 11 years old have been living in Melbourne since 4 years ago. She is good in

English and Indonesian. Clarify the status of English and Indonesian language used by Diana.

F. Suggestion for Additional Reading

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CHAPTER II

THEORIES OF FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CHAPTER REVIEW

If we talk about the language acquisition, the key point is mainly associated with the philosophical perspectives of how human acquire the language. Over the last fifty years, several theories have been put forward to describe the process by which the children learn to understand and speak a language. This chapter is designed to provide an outline of theoretical issues in the first language acquisition. It can be a foundation to build an understanding of principles and key issues in second language learning. Accordingly, there are three approaches that would be outlined in this chapter, namely the behavioral approach, the nativist, and the functional approach. It is also discussed the views of language acquisition according to some linguist. Moreover, the description of how a very young kid acquires languages in every stage is also considered in this chapter.

A. The Acquisition Timeline

The children naturally acquire the language through direct communication with the natives in their environment. It can be seen from the fact how a five-years-old child communicate with others without any formal language learning. It such a remarkable ability of children to communicate. In this age, they have phonologically, syntactically, and semantically acquired the language that is used by people around them.

Small babies and young children usually babble, coo, and cry to express an extraordinary messages and feeling as well as receiving even much more messages. At the end of their first year, an attempt to imitate words and sounds around them is particularly defined. This is the moment in which they utter their 'first' word. These words, later, have multiplied and beginning to appear in combination of two or more words to create 'sentences'. By two years of age, the comprehension of more sophisticated language is significantly established.

All normal children establish language at the same time as well as the same schedule. Moreover, it can be generally believed that language is acquired by children step by step. The language acquisition seems to have the same basis as the biological development of motor skills such as sitting up, crawling, standing, walking and using hands to hold something and many

other physical activities. This biological timeline is related very much to the infant's brain maturation.

It is said that children have the biological capacity to distinguish certain aspects of linguistics input at different stages during their early life. As mentioned above that the attempt of acquiring language is appear in babling stage. In this stage, it is too dificult to understand what they say. However, long before they begin to tal, they have been actively perceiving and processing everything they hear. We can identify how very young toddler pay attention to by the way they response to speech sounds or how they turn their heads in the direction of those sounds. Gradually, the infants are capable of distinguishing between sounds of [pa] and [ba], developing a various crying style with diferent needs and produced big smiles in rensponding to someone and begins to make a various vocalization.

1. Cooing and Babling

   Cooing is identified as the first and earliest use of speech-like sounds of the young baby. During their first few months, the baby starts to produce sequence of vowel-like sounds, [a] [i] [u]. At the age of four months, the ability is developed by bring the back of the tongue in to the back of palate which allows the baby to create sounds similar to the velar consonant [k] and [g].

   By six to eight months, the child begin to create a number of different vowel and consonant

and the combination of both. The sounds is likely [ba-ba-ba] and [pa-pa-pa] or [ma-ma-ma]. Therefore, this stage is called as is **babling** stage. Their babbling is obviously unable to be recognized by the parents as well as people around them.

2. The One-word Stage

At the of twelve to eighteen months, the child begin to create a variety of single unit of utterance which is easily recognizable. It could be considered as their first word. In this period, the child only utter a single term for everyday objects such as "*cu*" for "*susu*" in Indonesian (milk), "*mam"* for "*maem"* in Indonesian (eat) etc. This variety of words uttered by the young child are considered as a word that express a complete thought and ideas in accordance with the semantic and pragmatic meaning. For example, the word "*cu*" for "*susu*" in Indonesian (milk) is meant *"aku mau minum susu"* (I wanna milk), *"aku sedang minum susu"* (I am drinking a bottle of milk). Essentially, the meaning of the word depends on the context in which the utterance occured. We can use the term **holophrastic** which refers to a single form functioning as phrase or sentence. Such holophrastic word can easily described an utterance that could be analyzed as a word, phrase, or a sentence (Yule, 2014).

3. The Two-word stage

Two-word stage begin around eighteen to twenty months in which the vocabularies of the child move beyond fifty words. Then, at the age of two years, the child is enable to to use two or more words to make order, request and so on when they interact with people in surrounding. The interpretation of such combination very much depends on the context of the utterance. The combination might similar to *"adik duduk"* in Indonesian ('baby sit' in English). It could be interpreted as "this is baby's chair" which indicates expression of possession, "baby is in the chair" as a statement or "put baby in chair" which indicates a request, etc.

Not only produce speech, the children also receive feedback that confirms that the utterance worked as a respond to the contribution. Then, at the age of two, whey are capable of understanding the people's utterance. However, one thing should be considered is that the utterance might be an entertainig conversation. At the age of three, the language competence has rapidly increased. Furthermore, the child comprehend the complex structure of the utterance and gain an enormous vocabularies at the end of five.

It is no doubt that the child's creativity bring smiles to the parents, caretaker, or even people in surrounding (O' Grady in (Brown, 2007)):

Erase the window, Daddy [upon seeing a frosted window in the winter)

Headlights ... are lights thats go on in the head.

Is this where you get safe? 'Cause this is Saveway and you get safe from the cold . [3-year-old in a Safeway supermarket]

From the explanation above, a question might appear is how the child acquire and use the language in a very short time. This question will be answered through the various theories in line with the principles of first language acquisition. The first theory deals with behaviorism theory which believed that the child is born without any competence. In a matter of time, he is formed by the environtment. Therefore, according to this theory, the children acquire the language from the language spoken in their surrounding by drilling the utterances. If the drilling is simultaneusly occured, it will be their habits.

In contrast with the behaviorism theory, the nativist appeared with the idea that the children are born with genetic competence. In line with language, it is said that they are attached with language competence named *Language Acquisition Device.* Therefore, the environtment around them is beneficial in reviving the device. Further, the other theory was proposed by the cognitivist, argued that children are

born with ability to think including language competence which later developed due to interaction with people and environtment.

The three theories of first language acquisition is briefly described in the subcapters following.

B. The Behavioral Approaches

Behavioral psychologist viewed language as a fundamental part of entire human behavior. This view, however, was intended to lead the formula of the first language acquisition theories. The theory of behavioral approach focused on the perceptible aspects of linguistic behaviour –the publicly observable response- and the relationship between those responses and events around them.

Behavioral approaches (behaviorism) is considered as theory of animal and human behavior. It mostly discuss behaviour without any references to mental event or internal process (VanPatten and Williams, 2014). Thus, all behavior is described with reference to external factors in the environtment.

According to this view, an extreme behaviorist claimed that the child is born with a ***tabula rasa***. Tabula rasa means 'clean state' in Latin. It is a supposed condition that attributed to the human mind before the ideas is imprinted on it by the external worlds of object. In terms of language acquisition, the child has no preconceived notions about language, then

the environtment shaped and conditioned the child through various reinforcement.

The behaviorial approaches were developed by establishing a series of experiments on animals. B. F. Skinner, one of the behaviorist, then proposed this theory as an explanation for language acquisition in humans. In Verbal Behaviour (1957), he stated:

> "The basic processes and relations which give verbal behaviour its special characteristics are now fairly well understood. Much of the experimental work responsible for this advance has been carried out on other species, but the results have proved to be surprisingly free of species restrictions. Recent work has shown that the methods can be extended to human behaviour without serious modifications." (cited in Lowe and Graham, 1998, p68)

Over the last fifty years, several theories have been put forward to explain the process by which children learn to understand and speak a language.

There are two primary theories developed by the behaviorist, namely cassical conditioning and Operant Conditioning.

1. Classical Conditioning

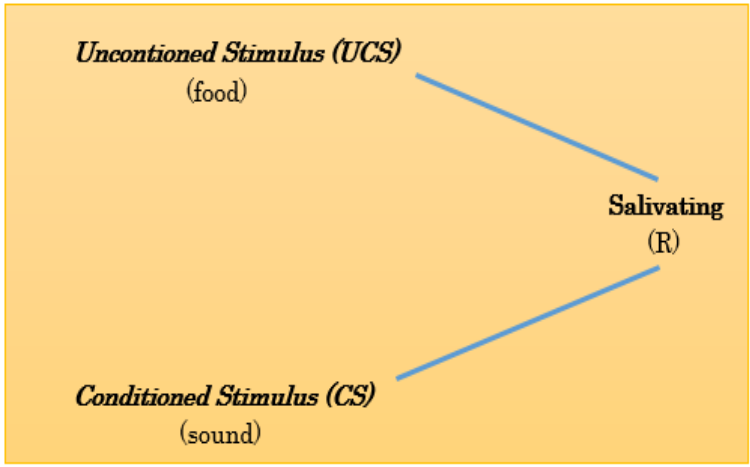
   Classical conditioning is also known as *contiguity theory*. Three crusial concepts in the behavioral approach exist, such as stimulus (which is later symbolized S), response (R) and renforcement (S+ and S-). Stimulus is detectable changes in the environtment. There are two

distinctive stimulus; *internal and external* stimulus. Internal stimulus is based on something procured inside of human, for instance hunger, sleepiness, thirst, etc. While, the external stimulus is stimulus comes from environtment, not human him/herself. Further, response refers to behavioral chages as reaction to some stimulus. Similarly, response could be internal and external response. Moreover, reinforcement refers to consequences of doing something that increases or strengthen the response including specific tangible rewards, situaltio and events. The principle of stimulus, response and renforcement is also considered in the operant conditioning.

It deals with Pavlov's experiments with dog. When a dog were fed, a tone is sounded. Regarding this, a tone sounded is considered as the stimulus. When the dog gets stimulus and is provided a meal, they would begin salivating. The dog's response of being salivating is not because the food appeared. Yet, it is because the dog hear the sound. In other words, although the food is not provided, the dog begin to salivating when they hear the sound. How it happens? It is because the trials of associationg the sound and food has been established in a series of repetition. Therefore, the sound appeared alone cause the dog to salivate.

The diagram below demontrates how the Pavlov theory works.

Picture 2. Classical Conditioning



Based on the diagram above, the food is an unconditioned stimulus. Unconditioned because it causes response without any training or learning. It means that, the dog will naturally salivate when they are provided a meal. In addition, the sound (bells ringing) is a conditioned stimulus because it needs frequently training to make the dog shows his response, that is salivating. This conditioned stimulus works if it simultaneously appear with the unconditioned stimulus (food). Therefore, the response caused by conditioned stimulus is known as conditioned response.

In terms of human behavior, behaviorists believed that the same case to be true for human. For instance, if the young child cried and then the caregiver pick them up, he will develop a habit of crying to call the caregiver. However, no response

from the caregiver make him abandon this strategy.

The classical conditioning theory of Pavlov contributed greatly in the development of learning theory. Therefore, Watson named it as *behaviorism.* Especially, in language acquisition, the classical conditioning theory plays its role in understanding the word, phrase and sentence. When the language stimuli (words, phrase, and sentence) frequently exist with the environmental stimuli, it results in a particular response. In spite of the stimuli from environment do not occur, the response is still noticable. For example, Rania, 18 month age, put something –not meals- into her mouth. When her mother recognized it, she immediately would say "NO!" while shaking her head. This condition is gradually occured untill Rania understand the meaning of "No" by acknowledging her mother's response, shaking her head.

.

2. Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning refers to conditioning in which the human being emits a response, or **operant** (a sentence or an utterance), without necessarily observable stimuli; that operant is learned by reinforcement (Brown, 2007). This theory was introduced by Skinner in *Verbal*

Behavior (1957). In the case of first language acquisition, imitation is the most crusial matter.

Similar with classical conditioning, Skinner used animal as media in his experiments. A number of experiments has been carried out through rats and birds. It is believed that the response followed by positive reinforcement tend to be maintained and increased in strength. In contrast, when the responses are punishing or do not followed by reinforcement, it tend to be weakened. When it comes to the question how the operant conditioning related to language acquisition, it simply clarifies that efective language learning behavior deals with an appropriate response or operant of the stimuli which later lead to habits because of reinforcement occured. Regarding this, when the child utters some words and it is appropriate with the situation, the mother and people around him would reward him by nodding head, utterance, smile and other acts indicating agreement. If so, the same response, over repeated, is conditioned. The simple example of how operant conditioning works is as in the following situation.

Merry, a fifteen month old, want a bottle of milk and said "cu" which refers to *susu* (milk in English). The mother or people around her will give a bottle of milk. So, she will say *"cu"* again in the next moments to require a bottle of milk. On

the other hand, when her utterance is not reinforced by people around her –for example she says "maem"-, she will not produce this utterance ('maem') to ask a bottle of milk.

The explanation above is not only intended to show how children create an utterance but also how they comprehend the utterance. In line with this, if the children are given oral stimuli (an utterance) and they are given reward (such as smile and praise) when they respond the utterance correctly, they actually learn how to understand the utterance. The people's utterances around them become stimuli for them to respond. Therefore, they already understand of the utterance they listen to as well as produce the correct response based on the situation occured.

It has been clearly explained in this sub-chapter that language acquisition is the result of a series of imitation. It seems to be true since the language of children is similar as the people in their environment. For example, children born in Madurese will use Madurese, not Javanese or Malay. However, the behavioral approach is contradict with another view, the Nativist (that will be presented in the next sub-chapter), who stated that children language competence is not developed through imitation of what appear in their environtment. This argument was considered to the idea in which the children say "All

gone milk" (which is ungrammatical). Of course, this utterance (*all gone milk)* is not produced as the result of imitating the people's utterance around. Another case is when children say "we goed to the school" (originally, past tense for "go" is went, not go+ed). It indicates that mistakes or errors carried out by children is not because they imitate the adult in their environtment. Therefore, this facts reveal that children can produce utterance or sentence even they have never hear.

Another critic goes to reinforcement in behavioral approach. It is found that the parents reinforce children only for the meaning of utterance, not the structure. It has been proved by Brown et all (1986) and McNeill (1970) in line with parental approval. In his study, the child said "that Mickey's" (the correct structure is "that's Mickey's" to ask the ownership of something which is later agreed by the parents by saying 'yes'. In indicates that behaviorist only focus on the content, not the structure. If so, the incorrect form of sentence will be possible occured rather than the correct one.

C. The Nativist Approaches

Another view of language acquisition was proposed by the nativist. According to the nativist, acquisition of language is innately determined. It deals with the idea that human beings are born with an innate competence of language that enable them to

interpret the language they encounter. Brown (2007) added that "we are born with genetic capacity that disposes us to a systematic perception of language around us, resulting in the construction of an internalized system of language". The innate competence or genetic capacity or even Chomsky proposed –the innate knowledge- was metaphorically embodied in a term *'little black box'* in the brain, named **Language Acquisition Devices (LAD)**. LAD is considered as a part of brain which is particularly responsible in processing the language. Since only human own this device, according to this theory, only human can communicate through language.

Following Chomsky, McNeill (cited in (Wardhaugh, 1971) asked what LAD posses to acquire such a grammar from the corpus of utterances, as it said:

> "LAD is, of course, a fiction. The purpose in considering it is to discuss real children, not abstract ones. We can accomplished this because LAD and children present the same problem. LAD is faced with a corpus of utterances from which it develops a grammar on the basis of some kind of internal structure. So do children. We can readily posit that children and LAD arrive at the same grammar rom the same corpus, and stipulate that children and LAD therefore have the same internal structure, at least within the limits that different children may be said to have same internal structures. Accordingly, a theory about LAD is *ipso facto* a theory about children".

Therefore, it is important for the children to have certain innate abilities to explain how the linguistic input into the child result in the output of linguistic competence. We can simply say that the *input* – language used in child's environment- is a trigger to activate the LAD so the child enable to use the language.

McNeill (1966) cited in Brown (2007) described the Language Acquisition device (LAD) consisted of four innate linguistics properties, as in the following.

- The ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment
- The ability to organize linguistics data into various classes
- Knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistics system is possible and other kinds are not. In line with this, he has distinguished two terms; 'weak' linguistics universal and 'strong' linguistics universal. Weak linguistics universal refers to reflections in language of universal cognitive abilities, while the 'strong' one refers to reflections in language speciic linguistics abilities (Wardhaugh, 1971).
- The ability to engage in constant evaluation of the developing linguistics system

The nativist approach is mainly associated with *the innateness hypothesis* which gained support from several linguists. However, it is said that the nativist

approach is mainly associated with Noam Chomsky's theory of language acquisition in children. In Brown (2007), Chomsky claimed that "the existance of innate properties of language to explain the child's mastery of a native language in such a short time despite the highly abstract nature of the rule of language".

Similarly, Saville-Troike stated that humans are born with a natural or **innate capacity** of learning languages. It was based on several facts occured;

- Children begin to learn their L1 at the same age, and in much the same way, whether it is English, Bengali, Korean, Swahili, or any other language in the world.
- Children master the basic phonological and grammatical operations in their L1 by the age of about five or six, as noted above, regardless of what the language is.
- Children can understand and create novel utterances; they are not limited to repeating what they have heard, and indeed the utterances that children produce are often systematically different from those of the adults around them.
- There is a cut-off age for L1 acquisition, beyond which it can never be completed.
- Acquisition of L1 is not simply a facet of general intelligence.

We can say that natural competence of acquiring language considered as innate capacity, we can argue that part of language structurally is genetically 'given' for all humans. As a matter of fact, all languages are incredibly complex systems which no children could possibly master in their very early years when they had to learn them in the usual sense of that word. However, the children's ability of creating new utterances is remarkable, and their ability of recognizing a string of words that are intended to be not grammatical in the languages is more so. For instance, when the children acquiring English as L1 hear *Crackers me eat*, they respectively recognize that this string of words is ungrammatical. Although they have never been told that the particular group of words is not an English sentence, but they already know. 'The logical problem of language acquisition' may exist if the child is learned consciously learn the set of abstract principles of their utterances, whether it is correct or incorrect one. Consequently, only the smartest would learn to talk and of course it would take them many more years.

The nativist theory bring about great contributions in language acquisition theory. One of the more practical contributions is all discoveries of how the language system of child works. Research has revealed that the child's language is a legitimate system in its own right (Brown, 2007). In line with this, the child's linguitics development does not

necessarily mean a process of developing fewer and fewer 'incorrect' structures. Besides, it also does not mean a language in earlier stages has more mistakes than later stages. Rather, the child's language development is systematic. For example, the child's utterances (in Indonesian *"atu mau tetola" / "aku mau ke sekolah",* English *"I wanna go to school),* seems to be incorrect if it is viewed from adults's language. However, according to Mc Neill, it is a consistent effort to find out the structure of the sentence in his environtment.

Mc Naill described how children process the language development. At the beginning stage, the child's language structure is known as *pivot grammar.* As it has been observed, the child's utterance aged 18 months consist of two words. Interestingly, these two words are not randomly uttered, but it comes from different classes. These classes are classified into pivot class and open class. Pivot class is the first class taken from small vocabularies and seldom occurs as single-word utterances. Moreover, pivot class might appear in a fixed position, either initial or last word in the sentence but never appear together. While, the open class refers to nouns, verbs, and adjectives which possible to have new vocabularies.

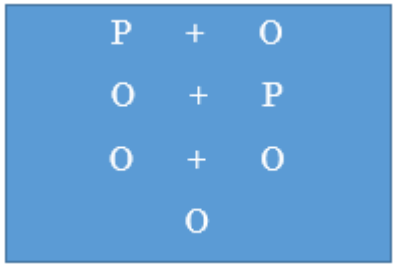
The table below clarifies the differences between pivot class and open class.

Table 1. Pivot Word and Open Word

Pivot Words	Open Words
▪ Small class of words ▪ Occurs in ix position ▪ List grows slowly ▪ Seldom used as single-word utterances	▪ Relatively large class ▪ May occur in either 1st or 2nd position ▪ Grows quickly ▪ May be used as single-word utterance

Consider the picture below in line with how utterance is derived from combination of open and pivot class:

Picture 3. Symbol Pivot Grammar



The patterns of pivot grammar above appear in children utterances, especiall those who can utter 2-3 words in their age. The example below was the result of study carried out by Braine (1963) cited in McNeill (1970).

Table 2. Pivot and Open Words

P	O
Allgone	Boy
Byebye	Sock
Big	Boat
My	Fan
Hi	Milk
	Plane
	shoe

Based on these two class words, the utterances might appear are stated in the following picture.

Picture 4. Pattern of Pivot Grammar

P	+	O	Allgone milk
O	+	P	Daddy byebye
O	+	O	Mommy sock
	O		Plane

From the explanation above, it is clear thet child's language use is systematic.

However, the nativist theory also gain critics from some linguists. One of critics were lied on the invisibility of the LAD. They argued that imposible to observe LAD, whether it exists or not.

D. The Functional Approaches

Recently, the pattern of research has been shifted due to an increase in constructivist perspectives on the study of language. Regarding this issue, two emphases have emerged that: (1) it has been realized that

language was just manifestation of the cognitive and affective ability to deal with the world, with others and with the self. In addition, the generative rules that were proposed under the nativist framework were abstract, formal, explicit, and quite logical. Thus, they dealt with the **forms** of language and not with the deeper **functional** level of meaning constructed from social interaction. Forms refers to morphemes, words, sentences, and the structures while functions are in line with the meaningul and interactive purposes within a social (pragmatic) context which the form attained with. Beside pragmatic function, Saville-Troike (2012) added another type of function including stuctural function which refers to the role of language structure as subject or object, as an actor or goal.

There are two emphasis of the functional perspective on language development, namely cognition and social interaction.

1. Cognition and Language Development

   Slobin (1971) among others stated that learning of meaning (semantic) in all languages is influenced by cognitive development. In addition, the sequences of development are determined more by content complexity (semantic) rather than the structural complexity.

   In terms of cognition, there are two major pacesetters to language development which is divided into two poles, functions and forms.

   a. Functional level

In this level, development is paced by the growth of communicative and conceptual capacity.

b. Formal level

In this level, development is paced by the growth of information-processing and perceptual capacity.

2. Social Interaction and Language Development

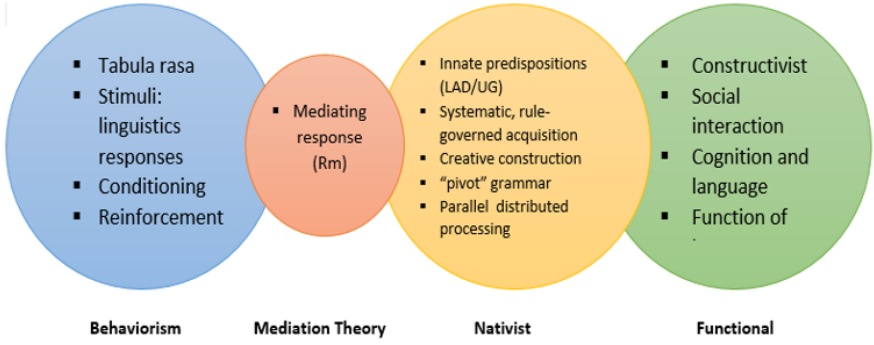
Recently, it is widely known that language functioning grows well beyond the cognitive and memory structure. A number of researches investigated the interaction between children's language acquisition and learning in line with how it influences human's behavior. In addition, the other research has focused on how language used in interaction. Basically, language is used for interractive communication. Therefore, the study fit with communicative unction of language is merely about "what do children know and learn about talking with others? What do children about connected pieces of discourse? Or how is the interaction between hearer and speaer?. If so, the communicative and pragmatic function is regarded as the very heart of language which is being examined in all its variability.

In addition, Saville-Troike (2012) provide three emphasis and characteristics of functional approach which is opposite the Chomskyan tradition. First, the

functional approach focus on the use of language in real situation (performance in Chomskyan view) and underlying the competence. Second, since the study of SLA begins with the asumption that language is for cmmunication, the linguistic knowledge is developed through communicative use. Third, it concerns the discourse structure and language use in interaction.

Therefore, the functional approach is different from structuralist and early generative model. The primary cncept of functional appproach is emphasizing the meaning/ content of the utterance. It also considered language primarily as system of communication rather than a set of structures.

Picture 5. Theories of First Language Acquisition.
Adopted from Brown (2007)



E. Exercises

1. Find a situation in your environment life in which a 2- years-old kid talks to her parents or caregiver.

Notice their utterance and expression then answer the question.

a. Does he/she gain reinforcement for their utterance?
b. If so, what kind of reinforcement it was?

2. Explain briefly how children understand the meaning of language according to classical conditioning?

3. Find another case of the classical conditioning in line with language acquisition!

4. According to Skinner, language is considered as verbal behavior. What does it mean?

5. Explain briefly one of the critics of behavioral approach!

6. What do you know about the innateness hypothesis?

7. What is the main thought of functional approach?

F. Suggestion for Additional Reading

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CHAPTER III

EARLY APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CHAPTER REVIEW

Before we have an accunt of what principles of second language acquisition, either psychological and social principles, we will begin to examine the most important component of second language, the language itself. This chapter will provide a comprehensive explanation of how the era of contrastive analysis brought way to an era of error analysis. This era is mediated by the concept of interlanguage, or what is also called learner language. This chapter is an important starting point because aspect of contrastive analysis prcedures intrduced the influence of the mother tongue language on second

A. Contrastive Analysis

One of the most popular approach for applied linguistics in the middle of the 21 century is the study of two languages in contrast. This is well-known as Contrastive Analysis (CA). Saville-Troike (2012) defined Contrastive Analysis (CA) as an approach to the study o SLA which involves predicting and

describing learner problems trough womparison of L1 and L2 to discover the differences and the similarities. It has primarily influenced by the theory of behaviorism and structuralism.

We have considered the behaviorism theory pay attention on *imitation and reinforcement* in the language teaching and learning process. According to this theory, learner's error in langueage use are bad habits and it is the result of the learners effort to bring the first language rules into their second language learning. This is relevant with what has been stated by brown (2007). CA claimed that the primary barrier of second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system. This interference refers to what people say "transfer" (also called crosslinguistic influence).

Transfer is defined as using sounds, expression and structures from the first language when performing the second language (Yule, 2014). It is believed that the first laguage of learners plays an important role in second language learning and acquisition. Moreover, it was assumed among language practitioners that the problem in second language is mainly caused by the first language.

It has been stated earlier that language transfer can not be separated from the explanation of contrastive analysis (CA). If we talk about transfer, it deals with the two languages, first (former) language and the second (target) language, that are compared

and contrasted. Therefore, through CA, the similarities and the differences between two languages can be noticed.

Transfer can be classified into two types, namely positive transfer and negative transfer. Second language learner may experience a *positive transfer* as long as the linguistics rules of the two languages are similar. The similarity of these two rules of languages lead to ease in learning the second language. On the other hand, *negative transfer* might occur since the rules of the two languages are different. Therefore, the differences of these two languages lead to difficulties in language learning. We should remember that in early stage of second language learning, negative transfer (sometime called 'interference) is commonly found. Unfortunately, it often reduces as the learner get familiar with the second language.

We can take phonology system of English language as an example of how transfer occured. There several English speech sounds which do not exist in Indonesian speech sounds, such as [ʃ] as pronounced in *she, slash* and the sounds of [θ] as pronounced in *think, thought.* Indonesian may have difficulties in pronouncing these sounds since they are not familiar enough. Therefore, Indonesian pronounce this word by using sound of [s] rather that [ʃ]. However, Indonesian who are familiar with Arabic find it is easy to pronunce the sound [ʃ] and [θ] since it is similar with the speech sounds of [ش] and [ث] in Arabic.

Second language learning and acquisition is merely about transfer. The question is about is about what the manifestation of transfer. As positive transfer happened, it is easy to transfer the rules of the target language in their learning because of its similarities. In this case, the *fasilitation* occured since the existance of the first language facilitate the second language learning process. While, if the negative transfer of mother tongue rules in to second language learning, *error* occurs. Language transfer involves the following item:

- Linguistics system (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic).
- Linguistics sub-system (possessive form, pronoun, verb, etc)
- Language form (passive voice, relative clause, direct speech, if clause, so on)
- Grammatical rules of both languages (word order, phase construction, etc.

It has been stated earlier that CA is heavily influenced by structuralism and behaviorism. Both theories were dominant in linguistics and psychology. Then, we might consider that based on psychological aspect, all errors in second language can be predicted by CA because the source of errors is the interference of first language. On the other hands, linguistics aspect sees that the two languages are compared through structural linguistics model. The analysis of

structuralist is carried out through followed procedures (Ellis, 1994):

1. Description of the two languages
2. Selection a certain items of two languages to be compared
3. Comparison
4. Prediction to determine which items are likely to cause errors.

In account of CA framework, two version has been developed, the *a priory* versus the *a posteriori* view and the *strong* versus *weak* view (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Strong version stated that individual is enable to make predictions about learning based on comparison between two languages. While, the weak version becomes the part of error analysis which analyze the learners' errors.

There is no doubt that the development of Contrastive Analysis positively contribute in second language acquisition. However, the contrastive analysis also gained problem in several points. The first point is that many errors are not caused by interference of first language. Moreover, it is hard to identify *"difficulties"* and *"differences"* because *difference* is a linguistic concept, while *difficulty* is a psychological concept. Since CA just focus on errors in correct language use, it disregards errors in appropriate language use. Most importantly, CA findings is not convincely relevant with language teaching. Therefore, these weakness lead to the idea

that learner's second language is not always associated with their first language. accordingly, it lead to the explanation of interlanguage.

B. Interlanguage

Interlanguage (IL) is a term introduced by Selinker (1972). In Indonesian, this term is called *bahasantara.* Interlanguage is "the intermediate states of learner's language as it moves toward the target language" (Saville-Troike, 2012). According to Selinker (2008), the development of interlanguage is a creative process carried out by inner forces in interraction with the environtment. Moreover, interlanguage is also influenced by both first language (native language) and input from the second language (target language). It is emphasized that the interlanguage itself is considered as a third language system which difers from both native and target language.

An interlanguage has several characteristics as presented in the following.

1. Interlanguage is systematic

   It refers to the idea that IL is governed by rules and structure which constitute the internal grammar of learner. Dealing with this, although learner has different IL with others, he/ she already known the rules itself. This rules are predicted and discovered by analyzing the language used by learner at the moment. For example, in past tense pattern of English "I

received moner, I buyed a new car, and I selled it".

2. Interlanguage is dynamic
   It refers to a condition in which the learners lack of knowledge of the language, but over time it progress. It means that the language system rules in their mind changes frequently. For example, "I no walking" which later changes into "I don't walking". It changes again until it achieve perfection "I don't swim". It indicates that interlanguage are not fixed since the altration, deletion, and addition process can be occured.
3. Interlanguage is variable
   Although the interlanguage is systematic, it may varies as the result of differences in context. For example, in language classroom, a student focusing on grammar would say "I don't drink coffee". While in other situation, the same meaning can be expressed as "I no drink coffee".

According to Selinker (1976) cited in Ellis (1994), there are five principles of interlanguage that should be considered, as follows:

- Transfer of first language (L1) to target language (L2). Some, but not all, rules, items and subsystem of interlanguage can be transfered from the L1.
- Overgeneralization of the second language (L2) materials.

- Transfer of training. Interlanguage elements covers the way in which learners are taught.
- Second language (L2) learning strategies. It refers to approach to learn materials.
- Second language (L2) communication strategies which refers to identifiable approach to communicate with the native speaker of the target language.

C. Error Analysis

As it is named, Error Analysis (EA) is an analysis in linguistic which focuses on the errors learners made (Gass & Selinker, 2008). This analysis is similar to what it is said in the previous sub-chapter, the weak version of CA which focus on comparing the errors made by second language learners. Unlike contrastive analysis in which the comparison is carried out with the first language (native language), the comparison of error analysis is made with the second language (target language).

What is error? Ellis (1994) defined "error as deviation from norms of the target language". sometimes, people misuse the terms 'error' and 'mistake'. In order to analyze language in an appropriate perspective, it should be made the clear distinction of both terms, mistake and error. An error occurs when the deviation is caused by lack of knowledge. While, a mistake takes place when the learner fails to perform their competence.

Below are procedures of conducting Error Analysis suggested by Corder (197 in Ellis, 1994).

1. Collecting a sample of learner language.

   In this step, the sample data are collected by using written and oral test.

2. Identifying errors

   In this step, any deviations is clasified into categories of errors and mistakes. Any deviation which are consistent are errors while those which are not consistent are mistakes.

3. Describing errors

   In this step, errors are classified on the basis of a taxonomy. The errors could be viewed from the language level (whether an error is morphological, syntactical or phonological, etc), general linguistic category (passive sentence, negative constuction, etc.) and more specific linguistics elements (articles, preposition, etc.). The table below is a taxonomy of errors.

   Table 3. A taxonomy of Errors (Ellis, 1994)

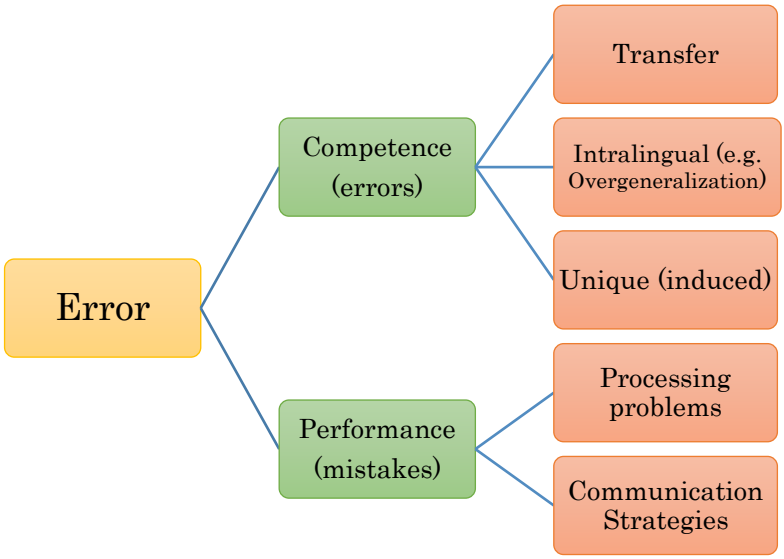
Category	Example
Omisions	She sleeping. *Dia nyapu halaman belakang* (Indonesian)
Additions	We didn't went there. *Dia naik ke atas, lalu turun ke bawah* (Indonesian)
Misinformation	The dog ated the chicken *Sekolahan Adik dimana?* (Indonesian)

Misordering	What daddy is doing? Dia menjual di pasar sepedanya. (Indonesian)

4. Explaining errors

In this step, the source of the errors is concerned. Consider the psycholinguistics sources of errors below.

Picture 6. Psycholinguistics sources errors.



In comparison, there are two categories of sources of errors within an EA framework; interlingual and intralingual errors (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Interlingual (between languages) is a result of negative transfer or interference from first language. Intraligual (within language) is not attributable to cross linguistics influence. It means

that the error occured is the result of the language itself.

Interlingual error can be seen in the the sentence "I play football yesterday" by Indonesian to express *"saya bermain sepak bola kemarin"*. The utterance of *"saya bermain sepak bola kemarin"* should be "I played football yesterday" in English. But, since there is no tense marker in Indonesian, the learner might ignore the concept of *–ed* as past tense. Al-Khresheh (2010) suggested that errors might be committed by:

- Transfer error
  A learner with no idea of the target language rules will use the same rules as he gained in his first language.
- Mother tongue interference
- Literal translation
  A learner translates his/ her native language sentence into the target language literally word by word.

An example of intralingual error is the utterance "He comed yesterday" expressed by Indonesian who know slightly that the concept of past tense in English is verb with *–ed*. The utterance "he comed yeterday" should be "he came yesterday" since the word 'come' is an irregular verb.

5. Evaluating errors

In this step, the error is evaluated and examined the effect that errors have on the individuals addressed. The error evaluation can be in terms of comprehensibility and the affective response of the addressee.

Error analysis is very useful in the study of SLA. However, several weaknesses should be kept in mind (Saville-Troike, 2012), as follows:

- Ambiguity in classification
- Potential for avoidance
- Lack of positive data
- Influence of L2 curricula

D. Exercises

1. What is the primary idea of Contrastive Analysis?

2. What is transfer? How will you differenciate two kinds of transfer? Provide an example for each based on your experience in learning language!

3. What do you know overgeneralization?

4. Listen to someone (your friends) speaking your language non natively. List some ungrammatical utterances they have spoken. Classify the errors they made by using the procedures of error analysis.!

5. Work in pairs. Write down a descriptive text in English (100 words). You may have different topic with your friend. Describe the errors which your friend made!

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CHAPTER IV

THE INTERNAL FACTORS AFFECTING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CHAPTER REVIEW

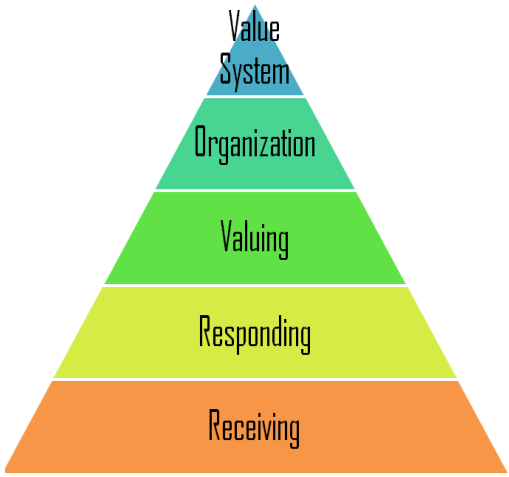
This chapter deals with facets of the affective domain of second language acquisition. The intrinsic side of afectivity will be the main object of explanation in this chapter which deals with personality factors within a person contributing in some ways to the success language learning. It is widely believe that affective domain, personality, plays an important role in language learning and acquisition. However, it is considered that the affective domain is not easy to describe scientifically. Moreover, the psycholinguist found difficulties in defining terms. It means that the abstract concepts of some affective domain such as emphaty, extroversion, and others are difficult to define empirically. Further, a careful and systematic study of the role of personality in SLA has led to a greater understanding of the learning process as well as improved language teaching design and stategies.

A. The Affective Domain

In the very first explanation of this chapter which deals with personality, it is beneficial to define what affective domain is. **Affect** refers to feeling or emotion. In line with **affective domain,** Brown (2007) has defined it as "the emotional side of human behavior, and it may be juxtaposed the the cognitive side". This domain includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes. The development of afective states of feelings involves a variety of personality factors which is in line with feeling both about ourselves and about others with whom we interact.

In terms of affective domain, Bloom and his collegues has provided the extension of the definition consisting five (5) levels of afectivity which is widely used today. This domain form a hierarchical structure and is arranged from simpler feeling to the complex ones. Most importantly, it is introduced 'the internalization' as the central regulative device of the afective domain (Morshead, 1965). Internalization refers to the process in which individual's affect toward something goes from general awareness level to a point where the affect is internalized and consistently control the behavior of individuals.

Picture 7. The Hierarchy of Affective Domain



1. Receiving

   It is the very first and fundamental of affectivity development. In this level, individuals must be aware of the environment around them and recognizing the situation, people and phenomena as well as be willing to receive –not avoid- and give their selected attention. In other words, individuals might be passively paying attention of the existance of certain phenomena and ideas. For example, an individual are watching movie, listening to a lecture, or watching movie, etc.

2. Responding

   After receiving, individuals might respond one dimension in acquiescence (perfoce but do not protest) or in other dimension, an individual is willing to voluntarily respond without any coercion which later gain satisfaction from that response. In

learning environtment, individuals actively participate. They are not only aware of stimulus happenned, but also expressing a reactions to it in some way. For example, individuals are participating in a grup/ class discussion.

3. Valuing

   Valuing means placing worth on thing, a behaviour or a person. In this level, individuals enable to see the worth of value of something and express it. For example, an individual propose a plan or ideas to increase proficiency.

4. Organization

   The forth step after valuing is organizing the values into a system of beliefs, determining interrelationships among them and establishing the hierarchy of values. In this level, individuals gain different values, ideas and information to be organized into their own unique value system. Essentially, it is an ability to prioritize one value over another. For example, an individual spends more time studying then playing games or prioritizing time effectively to meet goals.

5. Value system

   In the final level, individuals act consistently in line with the values they have been internalized and integrated beliefs, ideas and attitudes. Most importantly, individuals internalized the value and let them to control their behaviour.

B. Afective Factors

Below are some considerations concerning the affective factors in human behavior related to second language acquisition.

1. Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is considered as pervasive aspect of any human behavior. It is assumed that cognitive or affective activity would not be successfull unless the individuals have some degree of self-esteem, self confidence, and self-efficacy. Self esteem is a term used in psychology to reflect a person's overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth. A person's self esteem may be reflected in their behaviour, such as assertiveness, shyness, convidence and caution.

Coopersmith defined self esteem as a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in attitudes that the individual holds towards himself. Self- esteem indicates the extent to which the individual believes in himslef to be capable, significant and worthy. Moreover, Rogers (in {Heyde] also provided the definition of self-esteem. According to Rodgers, the self concept of self structure and an organized perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. "it is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the precepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; ...".

Similarly, Richard and Schmidt (Richards and Schmidt, 2002) also defined self-esteem as "a person's judgement of their own worth or value, based on a feeling of efficacy, a sense o interacting effectively with one's own environment". While, Malonowsky cited in Brown (2007) has presented a well-accepted definition of self-esteem as follows:

> "by self-esteem, we refer to the evaluation which individuals make and costumarily maintain with regard to themselves; it expresses an attitude of approval and dispproval, and indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, succesfull and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold toward themselves. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behavior.

There are three general levels of self-esteem as described in the following:

a. Global self-esteem

Global self-esteem might be analogized to a statistical mean level of the entire self-appraisal. It refers to the evaluation of self worthiness which we consciously make of ourselves. It could be the moral-ethical self, the personal self, the familial sel, the phisical self, the social self, identity and behaviour .

b. Situational or specific self-esteem

It refers to one's self-appraisals in particular situation or on certain relatively defined traits. Particular situation refers to social interaction, work, education or environtment. Traits are in line with intellegence, communiactive ability or personality traits like gregariousness and emphaty. While two types of specific self- esteem is intellectual and educational self-esterm.

c. Task self-esteem is relevant with self-esteem in particular task within a particular situation.

There have been a number of studies in line with relationship between people's view of themselves, including how self-esteem determined their success in different aspect of learning, especially in language development. In terms of educational psychology research, two main issues that have been discussed (Rubio, 2007):

"1. Whether self-esteem is a cause or an outcome of academic achievement
2. whether correlation between both are positive, negative or insignificant".

One of researches, for example Bryne (2000) in Asadifard and Biria (2013), revealed a positive correlation between students' high self-esteem and academic achievement. In this research. It is mostly believed that good achievement leads to high self-esteem. However, the effect of self-esteem

on achievement is more vague. In language learning context, Heyde (1979) has examined the effect of three levels of self-esteem on speaking performance by American college students who learn French as their foreign language. It is found that the three levels of self-esteem positively correlated with their oral performance, especially the correlation between task self-esteem and oral/ speaking performance.

Most importantly, Coopersmith (cited in Heyde (1979)) claimed that overall self-esteem is stable and remains fixed. In other words, it resistant to change unless the individuals desired to change it through some concious effort. Self-esteem, however might vary across many areas of experience and based on sex, age, and other factors.

2. Inhibition

Another variable related to self-efficacy and self-esteem is inhibition. In terms of understanding themselves, all human being construct sets of defenses to protect their ego. The process of constructing ego start from childhood until adulthood. Some person with higher self-esteem and ego strength are more able to survive their existence, and thus their defenses are lower.

It is in line with what Tavakkoli (2014) cited in Castello (2015), the psychological factors –

language ego- do not affect not only the learner's ability to acquire the language. It also affects on attitudes to learning and understanding the perception of a learner.

In line with issues of self-confidence and inhibition, Guiora (1972) cited in Castello (2018) stated that the egocentrism of young children enhance their ability to absorb and adapt language without worrying of making mistakes. It also allows them to confirm and form their identities.

3. Willingness to communicate

According to MacIntyre in Brown (2007), Wilingness to communicate (WTC) is defined as an "underlying continuum representing the predisposition toward or away from communicating, given the choice". Simply, it refers to intention to initiate communication. It has been examining today by researcher that WTC is a factor not only in second language acquisition, but also in a learner's first language pattern. A number of studies has been established in line with *unwillingness* to communicate and the label of "shyness".

In SLA, willingness to communicate (WTC) refers to the idea that language learners who are willing to communicate in second language actually look for chances to communicate and furthermore

these learners actually do communicate in the second language.

In earlier study on WTC, it is found that a high level of WTC does not depend on a high communicative ability. In Brown (2007), it is found that number of cognitive and afective factors that underlie the high level of WTC: motivation, intergroup climate, personality and two levels of self-confidence.

4. Anxiety

Beside self-esteem, inhibition, willingness to commucate, anxiety plays a major affective role in second language acquisition. We have consider what anxiety is and already experience all the thing related with anxiety. However, it is hard to define it in a simple sentence.

A number definition of anxiety has been proposed in order to gain an indepth understanding how anxiety related to the success of language learning and acquisition. As cited in brown (2007), Pieberger defined anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". It is clear that anxiety strongly related with humans' feeling of frustation, apprehension, uneasiness, worry and self –doubt.

There are two types of anxiety, namely *trait anxiety* and *state anxiety*. Trait anxiety tends to be

more permanent in anxiety. It is considered that some people are predictably anxius about many things. On the other hands, state anxiety is experienced associated with some particular events. It is said that in a number of studies, foreign language anxiety can cause a negeative effect n the language learning. However, a study of Bailey (cited in brown, 1994) noted that anxiety is a positive factors. It means that this kind of anxiety plays an important role in facilitating the learning process. To conclude, a certain degree of anxiety –concern, anticipation, and curiousity- is useful to achieve. Conversely, too much anxiety may lead to inhibition that impede the process of language learning. Furthermore, it has also classified *situational-specific* anxiety (Ellis, 1994). It refers to anxiety which is aroused by a particular situation or event, such as examination, public speaking, etc.

Beside the distinction of trait and state anxiety, an insight should be considered on the distinction between **debilitative** and **facilitative anxiety.** Even, Oxford (1999) cited in Brown (2007) proposed other terms for such kinds of anxiety, namely "helpful" and "harmful" anxiety. We might view that anxiety is a negative factor in language learning. We thought that it should be avoided all the ways. However, the terms of facilifative or helpful anxiety can be considered as positive

factors in language learning. In addition, as Spielman & Radnofsky (2001) in Brown (2007) identify the term **tension** to describe anxiety. According to them, the tension could be "dysporic" which is detrimental and "euphoric" which is beneficial. Therefore, we may be inclined that facilitative and help full anxiety as well as euphoric tension is beneficial in foreign language learning.

Further, Brown (2007) stated three components of foreign language anxiety as follows:

a. Communication apprehension.
   If learners experience such anxiety, they are not enable to express their ideas and thought.
b. Fear of negative social evaluation
   This kind of anxiety enable the learner to make a positive social impression on others.
c. Test anxiety
   It appears over academic evaluation.

In line witih anxiety playing it roles in every stage of language learning, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) has provided the summary as in the picture 9. This model, hwever, indicated that poor performance can be the result as well as the cause of anxiety.

Table 4. A model of the role anxiety in language learning (MacIntyre and Gardner (1991)).

Stage	Type of anxiety	Effect on Learning
Beginner	Very little – restricted to state anxiety	None
Post- beginner	Situation anxiety increases i the learners have negative expectations based on their bad learning experiences	Learner becomes nervous and performs poorly
Later	Poor performance and continued bad learning experiences result in increased anxiety	Continued poor performance

It is clearly enough to state that anxiety plays a crusial role in second language learning and acquisition. However, one thing should be considered is that anxiety is not seen as the crusial factors of successful language learning, but it is a factor that contributes in diferent degree of language learner.

5. Risk- taking

Another factor with a close bearing on second language learning is risk-taking. A tendency to take risks is considered to be closely associated with the success of language learning. Dealing with this, learners must be able to speculate of trying out hunches about the language learned and taking the rist o doing or speaking wrong. So, how will you define risk-taking? Beeby (1983) confirmed that risk—taking is a situation in which a learner

must take a decision to choose alternatives of various desirability which the outcome of the choice is uncertaince since it might lead to a possiblility of failure.

We might consider that a number of students in second language classroom tend to be silence since they were worry of making mistakes. The silent student in language learning process is the ones who unwilling to be foolish when mistakes are done. Interestingly, risk-taking is also interrelated with other afective factors. One of factors that is closely related to risk-taking is self-esteem. The student with high self-esteem enjoys those 'foolish mistakes' and is not daunted by possibility of being laughed by his/ her friends. Another factor is extroversion. Dealing with this, an extroverted learner tend to easily take risk o making mistakes and having more interaction with people. Consequently, they will lbe better in terms of second language learning, especially in communication aspect.

The topic of risk-taking in second language learning has been carried out in many researches. They claimed that the notion of risk become an integral part of successful learning especially classroom of English to speaker of other languages. A study of Skehan (1989) in Zafar and menakshi stated that risk-taking learners were considered to

more particitipate in the classroom. Of course, it leads to language proficiency improvement.

6. Extroversion

The terms of extroversion and introversion stems are one of the most frequently examined by reseach in SLA. It stems from trait theories of personality which is developed in psychology. It is believed by trait theorists that it is partly innate and relatively stable within human persnality and behaviour. A number of research in line with personality has been established and looked at the relationship between extroversion-interversion and different linguistics variables.

Brown (2007) has defined extroversion as "the extent to which a person has a deep-seated need to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people".

It has been believed among people about the streotype of extroversion and introversion. An extroverted person tend to be seen as directed to the world, gregarious, sociable, and have many friends. Mreover, an extroverted person also need exitement in whatever they are doing, are active and lively, and are easily distracted from studying because of their poor ability of contrating for long periods. On the other hand, the introverted person tend to be more private, inwards upon him/ herself, quite, and prefer to read rather than to meet

people in talking to others. They are also considered to have few friends and usually avoid excitement.

In line with language acquisition, it has been claimed that the extroverted person are better than the introverted one. In line with extroversion, a study by Zafar and Meenakshi (2012) seemed to show a possitive effect. It has been stated that an extroverted persons have a wide opportunities of using language because of their characteristics to be sociable, easy to join group and to engage in conversation both inside and outside classrom. On the other hand, the result of the study reflected that introverted people mostly suited to classroom learning. the subject that are very suitable is reading and writing.

The studies revealed that an extrovert seems to be more tolerate for risk. Since then, it would seem that he/she would be a better language learner thae more introverted personality who is more self-conscious and more conservative. Another study also revealed that an extroverted one may be more fluent to speak a second language. If so, people might have noticed obviusly that an extroverted learner gains greater fluency in an oral production task compared to introvert.

However, some studies carried out has shown that extroversion and introversion do not significantly impacted on second language learning

in the classroom. According to Gardner and Clement (1990), both types of learners, extroverted and introverted, had an equal chance for achievement. Indeed, the language teacher should address the needs of both personality types. The finding was relevant with the toronto study (Naiman, 1996 in Brown, 2007) which found no significancy effect for extroversion in identifying the good language learner. Moreover, the study carried out by Bush (1982) which hypothesized that the extroverted students would be better than the introverted ones. The finding revealed that the introverted students were significantly better than the extroverted ones.

C. Motivation

In the second language acquisition and learning, it is said that desire, support and objective of learning language positively influence on children/ learner's success. Indeed, people with strong desire, support and motivation tend to be more successfull in language learning than those who are not. For countless studies and research in human language learning, it was widely known that motivation is a key of learning.

Many reserchers in psychology and other scientific disciplines have defined what motivation is in many different ways. However, this chapter only presents some definition of motivation according to

some researchers. One referenced by Keller (1983) cited in Gardner (2010) stated that:

> "motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in this respect".

This definition seems to identify several elements of motivation. Moreover, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) in Gardner (2010) defined motivation and distinguished between integrative and instrumental motivation, stated:

> "motivation is identified primarily with the learner's orientation toward the goal of learning a second language. Integrative motivation is identified with possitive attitudes toward the target language group and the potential for integrating into that group, or at least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group".

Most importantly, Gardner has become a primary figure in the topic of motivation in SLA and secong language learning. According to him cited in Gass and Selingker (2008), motivation consist of a goal, effortful behavior, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes towards the activity in question.

Additionally, similar with self-esteem, motivation can be global, situational or task-oriented. All three levels of motivation is needed in learning foreign

language. A particular learner may have a high global motivation but in some ways he/ she may posses a low 'task' motivation in speaking the language.

The theories of motivation has been proposed for many decades. Rather, is was presented the thought of historical school about motivation in language learning.

1. Behavioral approach simply saw motivation as the anticipation of reward.
2. In cognitive terms, motivation is mostly dealing with individual decision of "the choice people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect (Keller in Brown (2007)). Motivation, moreover, is constructed by various needs as presented by Ausuble cited in Brown (2007).
    a. The need for exploration
    b. The need for manipulation
    c. The need for activity
    d. The need for stimulation
    e. The need for knowledge
    f. The need for enhancement
3. A constructivist emphasis on individual choices and social context. It is based on the interactions with others as it is from one's self determination.

For better understanding, it has been presented a schema of several perspectives of motivation.

Table 5. Three views of motivation (Adopten in Brown (2007)

Behavioristic	Cognitive	Constructivist
▪ Anticipation of reward ▪ Desire to receive positive reinforcement ▪ External, individual forces in control	▪ Driven by basic human needs (exploration, manipulation and so on) ▪ Degree of effort expended ▪ Internal, individual forces in control	▪ Social context ▪ Community social status ▪ Security of group ▪ Internal, interactive forces in control

Moreover, motivation can be categorized as instrumental motivation and integrative motivations. The instrumental motivation deals with the motivation usually found in a particular classroom environment. For example, high school English test to determine access to the next education. While, integrative motivation is in line with a desire to learn about the culture of the target language and associate it with its users as well as integrate in the second language speech community. Integrative motivation tend to be dominant in affective and emotional factors (Saville-Troike, 2012).

Another dimension of learners' motivation in language learning is the degree in which learners are

extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to be successful in language learning process. Deci (1975 cited in Brown, 2007) defined intrinsic motivation as stated in the following:

> "Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward... "

From the definition above, it is clear that intrinsic motivation is arising from oneself which no need for external stimlation. Within oneself, there is already an impulse to do something. In other words, intrinsic motivation arises due to one's own desires because of hobbies or because of self-awareness. In contrast, extrinsic motivation need rewards from outside or others. The typical rewards that can motivate learners are prizes, money, grade or a certain possitive feedback.

At least, there are two dichotomies of motivation; the intrinsic- extrinsic construction and Gardner's intergrative-instrumental orientation. It has been figured out the relationship between the two dichotomies with the diagram as in the following table.

Table 5. Motivational dichtomies (Adopted in Brown, 2007).

	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
Integrative	L2 learner wishes to integrate with the L2 culture (for marriage or immigration)	Someone else wishes the L2 learners to know the L2 for integrative reasons (Indonesian parents send kids to English language school)
Instrumental	L2 learner wishes to achieve goals utilizing L2 (for a career)	External power wants L2 learner to learn (e.g corporation sends Indonesian businessman to UK for language learning)

D. Exercises

1. How affective domain determines the language acquisition process?

2. What is inhibition? What is the role of inhibition in language acquisition? How will you relates inhibition and self-esteem in language acquisition?

3. In line with motivation, how will you differenciate the two types of motivation?

4. List four possible motivation in second language learning at an older age!

5. It is said that anxiety is not merely about a negative factor language learning. Give your opinion!

6. How historical school thought about motivation? Explain briefly!

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CHAPTER V

THE EXTERNAL FACTORS AFFECTING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

CHAPTER REVIEW

The process of second language acquisition is is very complex phenomena. Learners may vary in the language learning and acquisition achievement. A number of factors might influence the process of acquisition. It might depend on internal and external factors. Since the previous chapter has described the internal aspect that might influence the acquisition, this chapter is in attempt to provide a clear explanation of how external factors affect the second language acquisition. The external factors is about the social factors playing role in language acquisition. It is believed that the social factors have a crusial impact on second language proficiency. However, it probably does not influence the acquisition directly. This chapter will focus on two subtopic of descriptions, namely attitude and streotype.

A. Stereotype

Stereotype is another crusial motivational factor which profoundly affect the second language learning. It as a part of the cognitive component of an attitude. It was formed by personal experience, one's own emotional needs and by what one is told by others" (Roos, 1990). Stereotype often influence the way people interprets information about something. Because of stereotype, we define first and then see on something, not see first and then define it.

Allport's statement stated in (Roos, 1990) in line with labelling and stereotyping is seemingly in accordance with "most people are unware of this basic law of language – that every label applied to a person refers only properly to one aspect of his nature.... the labeled category includes indiscriminately the defining attribute, probable attributes and wholly fanciful, nonexistent attributes".

Brown defined stereotype as "a category that singles out an individual as sharing assumed characteristics on the basis of his group membership". Regarding this, stereotype is inaccurate when describing a particular person but it is accurate to depict the typical members of a culture society. The stereotype of something may influence the type of attitude of individuals toward it. Undoubtfully, it can affect a second language learning.

Another definition of stereotypes has been proposed by Spencer- Rodgers (2001) cited in Nikitina

(2019). According to Spencer- Rodgers (20010, stereotype is a complex psychological context that combines attitudinal, cognitive, and evaluative aspect. In addition, stereotype is also recognized that it has capacity to shape and guide an individual's attitudes and actions toward stereotyped entities (Niitina, 2019).

One of example about stereotype is about Madurese. They are characterized as tough people which are also reflected on their language. Those who believe that Madurese is a tough language may be reluctant to speak. Another example is how people see French and Germany languages. French is stereotyped as elegant language. It has been considered as romance language. While, boys in English school have stereotype that German is tough language. It is considered as "man language. Therefore, it is not surprising if "girls with same stereotype of French will do naturally very well in that language as elegance and romantic are typical description of woman" (Al Daihani et all, 2016).

B. Attitude

The notion of attitude plays an crusial roles in social science and society. It is often used as prediction of some phenomena, especially the result of language learning. Middlebrook (1990) cited in Roos (1990) defined as 'an overall, learned, core disposition that guides a person's thoughts, feeling and actions toward specific others and object'. Based on this definition, the attitude of an individual determine what he/she attend

to in the environtment, how he/she gain the information and how he/she behave toward something in the environment.

In terms of language learning context, it seems to be true that examining their attitudes and beliefs toward the target language enable them to gain a deeper insight of language learners' mind. Attitude is generally defined as a tendency to either positively or negatively respond towards a particular thing, such as an idea, object, person and situation (Hosseini and Pourmandnia, 2013). An individual tends to like some things and dislike others. For example, students may dislike mathematic subject. In other cases, they like English. In line with this, a social psychologist would say that the students possess a negative attitude towards Mathematic and a possitive attitudes toward English. Basically, this is relevant with how Eagly and Chaiken (1993) defined attitude cited in Haddock and Maio (2007) as 'a psychlogical tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor'. The main point of the definition proposed by Eagly and Chaiken above is that emphasizing on all classes of attitudinal responding, namely cognition, affect, and behaviour.

Therefore, attitude has been conceptualized into the *multicomponent model.* Based on this model, attitudes are summary evaluations of an object consisting affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. The three components contribute to the

expression of attitude. An affective component refers to what people usually say about 'belief', an affective component reers to the emotions, while behavioral component is dealing with a connative component (Roos, 1990).

As it is said that attitude is definitely about like and dislike of a particular thing. It is also assumed that our attitude toward something bring a positif effect on the result. For example, when we have a possitive attitude in line with foreign language learning, it is said that we will achieve well in that learning. On the contrary, it is also assumed that people with negative attitude toward the language will not achieve well. However, it can not be true all the ways. To support this claim, we can take an example of the Arabic people who live in the territory occupied by Israel. Although they have negative atitude toward Israeli, they are considered to have good and fluent Hebrew. It indicates that language is used for communication. They need to use this language in everyday communication in order to deal with many human needs. Therefore, this condition motivated Palestinians to learn and speak Hebrew fluently.

C. Exercises

1. What do you know about stereotype?

2. How can stereotype affect language learning? explain briefly!

3. What is attitude?

4. What do you know about language attitude?

5. How can attitude influence language learning?

D. Suggestion for Additional Reading Sources

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REVIEW OF FACTORS AFFECTING SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING Dr. Hussein A. Al-Daihani1 , Ms. Amnah Al-Yaman2 and Mr. Ahmad S. Almutairi2

Roos, R., 1990. Language attitudes in the second language situation LINGUAM 6. https://doi.org/10.5785/6-2-350

CHAPTER VI

INDIVIDUAL LEARNER DIFFERENCES

CHAPTER REVIEW

The basic question that is frequently appeared in the language learning and acquisition is about why some L2 learners are tend to be successful than others. Some L2 learners have a rapid progress while others progress are very slow with great difficulties. The great answer is that they are not homogenous. They are different in each other. According to Dorney (2005), individual differences are personal characteristic of everyone and on which people differ by degree. A number of reason may be suitable which are viewed from linguistic perspective, psychological perspective and social context of learning. This chapter will explore the learner differences viewed from such various prespective. Most importantly, it will be presented 'good language learner' studies which deal with how learners are successful in SLA.

A. A Framework of Individuals Differences

The study of individul learner differences has gained a lot of attention in second language acquisition research. Actually, there are a number of dimensions in line with learner's differences based on some surveys, as stated in the table below.

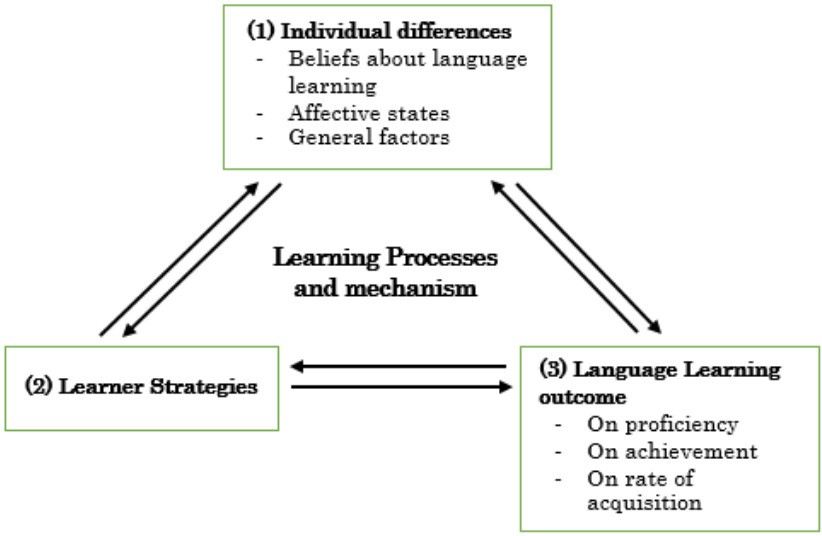
Table 6. Three surveys in line with Individual Differences

Altman (1980)	Skehan (1989)	Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991)
1. Age 2. Sex 3. Previous Experiences with language learning 4. Proficiency in the native language 5. Personality factors 6. Language aptitude 7. Attitude and motivation 8. General intellegence 9. Sense modality preerence 10. Sociological preference 11. Cognitive styles 12. Learner strategies	1. Language aptitude 2. Motivation 3. Language learning strategies 4. Cognitive and affective factors a. Extroversion/ introversion b. Risk-taking c. Intellegence d. Field independence e. anxiety	1. Age 2. Socio-psychological a. motivation b. attitude 3. Personality a. Self-esteem b. Extroversion c. anxiety d risk taing e sensivity to rejection f. emphaty 9. Inhibition h. Tolerance of ambinguity 4. Cognitive style 5. Hemisphere specialization 6. Learning strategis 7. Other memory (memory, sex, etc)

Individual learners differences are consists of three sets of interrelating variables. The first set is individual diferences itself involving belief about language learning, affective states, and general factors. The second set is merely about the learner strategis applied in learning a language. The last set is the

outcome of language learning consisting outcome on proficiency, achievement, and rate of acquisition. The framework is presented in the picture 8 below.

Picture 8. A framework of Individual Differences (Ellis, 1994)



According to the framework above, individual learner diferences are of three primary types, namely beliefs about language learning, affective states and and general factors. A study of Hortwits (1987) and Wenden (1987) in Ellis (1994) revealed that the learners had strong and pre-conceived ideas of language aptitude as well as the nature of language learning and strategies. Affective states is also considered since many learners seems to be fearful of starting to learn a second language while the others are very confidence. If learners' belief of language learning is fairly stable, their affective states are likely

to be volatile. While general factors constitute the factors that might influence on learning such as language aptitude which is considered as a stable factors since it is readily inflenced by the environment, motivation that are likely changing as a result of learners experience on learning, age, learning style, and so on.

The second set is about learner strategies that may vary accross learners. In other words, learners may have different learning strategies with others. The explanation of learner strategies is already presented in the following sub-chapter. The third set is language learning outcomes which is considered as the products of the acquisitional process of language. Most importantly, learning process and mechanism is an inner part of the triangle.

B. Age

Age is regarded as one of key factors of L1 and L2 acquisition. It is commonly believed that children are better in acquiring language than adults. This is dealing with what Ellis (2008) said that age is important in line with the assumption that older learners are less successful than younger learner in SLA. However, it is hard to define clearly what the meaning of success in language learning is. Saville-troike (2012) argued that the terms 'success' must be intensively defined. According to her, some studies defined 'success' ultimate achievement and other

studies defined it as initial rate of learning. Moreover, several studies defined success regard to how close the learner's pronunciation is to the native, and to what extent the fluency or functional competence of the learner is.

The relationship between age and L2 acquisition can be approached from both biological explanation and non-biological explanation. Biological perspective is in line with the hypthesis so-called "Critical Period Hypothesis" (CPH). On the other hand, some researchers proposed socio-educational and affective domain as non-biological perspective.

The effect of age and language acquisition has been questioned from many decades. It has also become a maor issue in SLA. Both children and adult have their adantageus of acquiring the language if it is vied from age perspective. Below is the advantages of acquiring language in both adult and childhood presented in table 7.

Table 7. Age differences in SLA (adopted in Saville-Troike 2018)

Younger	Older
Brain plasticity	Learning capacity
Not analytical	Analytic ability
Usually fewer inhibition	Pragmatic skills
Weaker group identity	Greater knowledge of L1
Simplified input more likely	Real-world knowledge

The Critical period Hypothesis (CPH) is commonly described as a period of time in individual's life during which language must be acquired. It is

believed that children have only a limited number of years in which the normal acquisition is possibly occured. There are two sequentally critical periods. The first critical period lasts from birth to about age two. In this period, a child needs exposure to language in term of building the brain structures that is used for language acquisition and native competence. While the second critical period occured last from about the age of ten years to sixteen years. In this period, an individuals are still easy to acquire the language but they meet difficulty in native competence.

The CPH seems to be true since it supported at least two sources of information. The first support remarked that children with unfortunate circumtances in which they had no or little language exposure in their early life. After having treatment, the success of the language exposure treatment to these children largely depended on the age of children. The second support is when the study has been established to compare the acquisition of a second language by children and by adult. The study revealed that children find it much easier to learn language than the adult do. However, this finding was merely considered to how close the pronunciation is with the native speaker. In line with this, an adult who learn new language tend to have an 'accent' indicating that they do not perectly acquire the phonological rules of the second language.

Picture 9. The case of Genie (Adopted in Saville-Troike 2012)

Genie

Evidence for the Critical Period Hypothesis

The tragic case of "Genie" bears directly on the Critical Period Hypothesis. Genie was discovered in 1970, at the age of thirteen, having been brought up in conditions of inhuman neglect and extreme isolation. She was severely disturbed and underdeveloped, and had been unable to learn language. In the course of her treatment and rehabilitation, great efforts were made to teach her to speak. She had received next to no linguistic stimulation between the ages of two and puberty, so the evidence of her language-learning ability would bear directly on the Lenneberg hypothesis. Analysis of the way Genie developed her linguistic skills showed several abnormalities, such as a marked gap between production and comprehension, variability in using rules, stereotyped speech, gaps in the acquisition of syntactic skills, and a generally retarded rate of development. After various psycholinguistic tests, it was concluded that Genie was using her right hemisphere for language (as well as for several other activities), and that this might have been the result of her beginning the task of language learning after the critical period of left-hemisphere development. The case was thus thought to support Lenneberg's hypothesis, but only in a weak form. Genie was evidently able to acquire some language from exposure after puberty (she made great progress in vocabulary, for example, and continued to make gains in morphology and syntax), but she did not do so in a normal way. (After S. Curtiss 1977 , in Crystal 1997b .)

C. Sex

A distinction between 'sex' and 'gender' is should be considered. According to Ellis (1994), the term of sex constitutes a biological distinction while 'gender' is a social one. However, a number of linguist currently prefer 'gender' since it emphasize on the social construction of male and female.

Several studies has been established in line with relationship between gender and successful language learning. The finding of the studies revealed that gender may bring about a significant impact on learner's learning of language. It is belived in second language acquisition that females seems to be more successful than males based on varius former studies. A research by Aslan (2009, cited in (Hiba, 2015) revealed that gender influence the application of learning strategies. In this study, females and males are observed in attempt to employ a number various strategies in language acquisition. It was also found in Farhady (1982 cited in Hiba, 2015) that females performed better on a listening comprehension test within 800 university students.

D. Learning Style

Brown (2007) has defined style as a consistent and enduring tendencies of individual preferences. It refers to the general characteristics of personality type and intellectual functioning identifying you from someone else. For example, you might be more

auditory oriented or more energic when learning, etc. The style of individuals are diferent from each other.

Learning style, according to Keefe (1979 cited in Brown 2007), is "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environtment". In the terms of second langugae learning, study of learning styles bring a number of crusial and significant effect on the theory of second language acquisition.

Knowles (1972) has identified learning styles as cited in Zafar and Meenakshi (2012), as follows:

1. Concrete learning style
2. Analytical learning style
3. Communicative learning style
4. Authority-oriented learning style

Witkin (1973) also proposed two types of learning style, field independent and field dependent style. Learners with field independent is left brain dominance. Accordingly, they are usually independent and confident in looking the details from a whole. They are considered to be rational and logic. Most importantly, one with left brain dominance indicates that the logic and mathematical side of his/ her mind is active during learning process. In contrast, the learners with field dependent style indicated that they are right brain dominance. In line with this, they tend to be better in gather the ideas and observing the

whole situation. Most importantly, one with right brain dominance is emotionally and visually oriented. Therefore, communication and interaction become crusial things in their language acquisition and learning. Furthermore, the characterization of individual with field independence and field dependence has been summarized in the following table.

Table 8. Field Independence vs Field Dependence

Field Independence	Field Dependence
Adult	Children
Males	Females
Object-oriented jobs	People-oriented jobs
Urban, technological societies	Rural, agrarian societies
Free social structures	Rigid social structures
Individualistic people	Group-centred people

There are a number of researches dealing with the relationship between field dependent/ field indepedent and second language learning. One of research that has been investigated is about the is the better in formal language learning and informal language learning between two variables, field dependent learner and field independent learner. The finding revealed that field independence learner achieved better in formal language learning while field dependence learner achieved better in informal language learning.

In addition, Ehrman and Leaver (2003) cited in Brown (2007) proposed the relevance of nine styles to second language acquisition. They are:

1. Field independence-dependence
2. Random vs sequential
3. Global vs particular
4. Inductive vs deductive
5. Syntetic vs analytic
6. Analogue vs digital
7. Concrete vs abstract
8. Leveling vs sharpening
9. Impulsive vs reflective

It is widely popular that there are some approaches to investigate learning style in second language learning. Therefore, Reid (1987) also provided the distinction of four perceptual learning styles, namely:

1. Visual learning
2. Auditory learning
3. Kinaesthetic learning
4. Tacticle learning

E. Learning strategy

In the previous subchapter, it has been clearly defined what the style and the learning style are. If styles refer to general characteristics that make individual is different from another, the strategies are

those specific technique we implemented on a given problem. Chamot (2005) in Brown (2007) defined

Learner differences on second language acquisition may also be afected by the individuals learning strategies. It refers to "behaviors and technique they adopt in their efforts to learn a second language" (Saville-Troike, 2012). The strategies that is implemented is sometime consciously selected by the learners. However, the selection of those strategies mainly influenced by the nature of their personality, motivation, cognitive style and specific opportunities of learning. In addition, the other factors we considered in the previous sub-chapter also play a role in the selection of learning strategy.

In SLA research, the goal that should be confirmed is about strategies that is relatively good to be implemented by language learners. It is also hoped that the strtagy is beneficial to be taught and to promote and enhance language learning.

O' Malley and Chamot cited in Saville-Troike (2012) formulated a typology of language learning strategy commonly used in second language acquisition, as follows:

1. Metacognitive strategies.

   Metacognitive refers to strategy of regulating language learning by planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning activity. The several strategies regarded as metacognitive strategies are listed in the following:

- self-management which is trying to arrange the suitable conditions for learning,
- advance organizer that refers to planning the activity in advance,
- selective attention which refers to selecting to pay attention to specific situation that is beneficial for learning,
- self-evaluation which refers to evaluating how well one in learning,
- self-reinforcement which refers to giving oneself reward for his/ her success.

2. Cognitive strategies

   This strategy applies direct analysis or synthesis of linguistics materials. The strategy could be translating the authentic materials (L1), remembering a new word in L2 by imaging the vivid images, guessing the meaning of an utterances or sentences through inferencing. Other cognitive strategies are listed as follows:

   - Repetition. It refers to imitating other people's utterances silently or loudly.
   - Grouping. It refers to organizing learning based on the common attributes.
   - Key word. It refers to using key word memory technique.
   - Contextualization. It refers to placing a new word and phrase in a meaningful language context,

- Elaboration. It refers to associating new word/ information,
- Question for clarification. It refers to questioning teacher or native speaker for help, explanation, etc.

3. Social/ affective strategies

   Social and afective strategy involve interaction with others such as looking for opportunities to interact with native speakers, asking question, requesting, etc. Another strategis involved social strategis is cooperation which refers to working together with group or peers to require information, solve the problem, gather feedback on learners performance. Moreover, self-talk become one of learning strategy which beneficial in reducing anxiety by using mental techniques. So, the learner will eel competent to do learning task.

It has been mentioned earlier that many factors can influence the language learning strategy selection. How can age have an influence on language learning strategies? It can be seen on how adult use more synthesis while children tend to use more repetition. In terms of the sex of language learners, it is said that females tend to use more social and affective strategies that males do. It is also said that females tend to use more metacognitive strategies in listening tasks.

Ellis (2008) has proposed the characteristics of how 'good learners' shold do in within the strategy implemented;

- Concern for language form and also pay attention on meaning
- Focus on communication
- Active task approach
- Awareness of the learning process
- Ability to use strategies flexibly dealing with task requirement.

Furthermore, Rubin (Rubin & Thompson, 1982) in Brown (2012) has described good language learners considered to learner's personal characterestics, styles, and strategies as summarized in the following. Good language learners:

1. Find their own way, taing charge of their learning
2. Organize information about language
3. Are creative developing a 'feel' for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words
4. Make their own opportunities for practicing in use the language inside and outside classroom
5. Learn to live with uncertainty
6. Use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recal what has been learned
7. Make errors work for them and not against them
8. Use linguistic knowledge (knowledge of their first language) in learning second language

9. Use contextual cues to help them in comprehension
10. Learn to make intellegent guesses
11. Learn chunks of language
12. Learn certain tricks to keep conversation going
13. Learn certain production strategies
14. Learn diferent styles of speech and writing

Oxford (1990) in Brown (2007) provided a comprehensive taxonomy of both direct and indirect strategis (see table 9).

Table 9. Strategy classification system by Oxford (1990)

Direct Strategies : Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation Strategies		
I. memory strategies	A. Creating mental linkage	1. Grouping 2. associating 3. Placing new words into a context
	B. Applying images and sounds	1. using imagery 2. Semantic mapping 3. Using keyword 4. Representing sounds in Memory
	C. reviewing well	1. Structured viewing
	D. Employing action	1. Using physical response or sensation 2. Using mechanical techniques
II. Cognitive strategies	A. Practicing	1. Repeating 2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing system 3. recognizing and using formulas and patterns 4. recombining 5. Practicing naturalistically
	B. Receiving and Sending messages	1. Getting the idea quickly 2. using resources for receiving and sending messages
	C. Analyzing and Reasoning	1. Reasoning deductively 2.Analyzing expressions 3 Analyzing contrastively 4. Translating 5. Transfering

	D. Creating structure for input and output	1. Takig notes 2. Summarizing 3. Highlighting
III. Compensation Strategies	A. Guessing Intellegently	1. Using linguistic clues 2. Using other clues
	B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	1. Switching to the mother tongue 2. Getting help 3. using mime or gesture 4. Aviding communication partially or totally 5. selecting the topic 6. Adjusting or approximating the message 7. Coining words 8. Using a circumlocution system or synonym
Indirect Strategies : Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies		
I. Metacognitive strategies	A. Centering your learning	1. Overview and linking with already known materials 2. Paying attention 3. delaying speech production to focus on listening
	B. Arranging and planning your learning	1. finding out about language learning 2. organizing 3. Setting goals and objectives 4. Identifying the purpose of language task
	C. Evaluating your learning	1. Self-monitoring 2. Self-evaluating
II. Affective strategies	A. Lowering anxiety	1. Using progressive 2. using music 3. using laughter
	B. encouraging yourself	1. Making positive statement 2. Taking risks wisely 3. rewarding yourself
	C. Taking your emotional temperature	1. Listening to your body 2.Using a checklist 3 Writing a language learning diary 4. Discussing your feelings with someone else
III. Social	A. Asking questions	1. Using linguistic clues 2. Using other clues

Strategies	B. Cooperating with others	1. Coperating with others 2. Cooperating with proficient users of new language
	C. Empathizing with others	1. Developing cultural understanding 2. Becoming aware of other's thoughts and feelings

F. Exercises

1. Consider the list of good language learners' characteristic proposed by Rubin and Thompson. Which one seems the most important? Based on your own experience, would you be able to add some items to this list?

2. In your words, explain briefly what is critical period hypothesis (CPH)!

3. Among a number of learning strategies in second language acquisition, what strategies thatis fit and proper for you? Why?

4. Is it worthy to teach children a second language in the classroom? What strategies should be considered?

5. Do you agree that adult and children have differetial success in learning language. Relate your question with your own experience

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