

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SPECIALISED SECONDARY
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

FERGHANA STATE UNIVERSITY

FOREIGN LANGUAGES FACULTY

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

This is submitted for

**BACHELOR'S DEGREE
DIPLOMA PAPER**

**Theme: "THE STUDY OF FOREIGN
LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND THE
IMPORTANCE OF ITS FACTORS"**

By: Abdusalomova Nodira

Group 453

Supervisor:

Umaraliyeva M.M

Bachelor's diploma work has passed a preliminary by chair.

_____2_____ submission number " _____28_____ " _____ September_____ 2017

Table of contents

Introduction	3
Chapter I. The role of foreign language acquisition	
1.1. Theories of Foreign Language Acquisition.	8
1.2. Learners' Autonomy in Language Learning.....	15
Conclusion on chapter I.....	28
Chapter II. Influencing factors of Foreign Language Acquisition.	
2.1. External factors in language learning.....	30
2.2. Internal factors in language learning.....	38
Conclusion on chapter II.....	43
Chapter III. Practical aspects of foreign language learning.	
3.1. Practical Value of Learning Strategies.....	45
3.2. Results and Discussion.....	50
Conclusion on chapter III.....	54
Conclusion	55
Bibliography	57
Appendix	60

Introduction

Uzbekistan takes part in the integration processes of the world community, the successful development of external affairs in various fields of international relations, tries to enter the prestigious and influential international organizations, and determines the reform of science and education, as a science is one of the major factors that affect the improvement of training system as a whole. The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan I.A. Karimov says: “The purpose of science is forming our future. Science should be the means of force, driving forward the development of society”.[1,154-155]

Development of linguistic science is connected not only with the decision of actual scientific problems, but also with features of internal and foreign policy of the state, the implementation of the state educational standards which are the generators of progress providing the society socially and economically. It makes the society capable to adapt quickly in the modern world.

Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan has become very important since the first days of the Independence of our country, which pays much attention to the rising of education level of people, their intellectual growth. As our president I.A.Karimov said: “Today it’s difficult to revalue the importance of knowing foreign languages for our country as our people see their great prosperous future in the cooperation with foreign partners” [1,38].

This decision was obtained and was signed on 10th of December, 2012 that was a decree of “On measures to further improve foreign language learning system”.

It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Programme for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages’ teaching system. It is aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia

tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools were created, more than 5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums were equipped with language laboratories.

However, analysis of the current system of organizing language learning shows that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the current requirements, particularly in the use of advanced information and media technologies. Education is mainly conducted in traditional methods. Further development of a continuum of foreign languages learning at all levels of education; improving skills of teachers and provision of modern teaching materials are required.

According to the decree, starting from 2013- 2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second grade. Besides it is envisaged that university modules, especially in technical and international areas, will be offered in English and other foreign languages at higher education institutions. The State Testing Centre, along with other relevant agencies, is tasked with preparing draft proposals on introducing foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions. In order to increase teaching standards in distant rural areas, the higher educational institutions are allowed targeted admission of people living in distant areas to foreign language programs on the condition that they will oblige themselves to work in the acquired specialty at their residence area for at least 5 years after graduation. The decree also envisages 30% salary increase for foreign language teachers in rural areas, 15% increase for those in other areas.

The radical reforming of the system of education has become the most important factor and fundamental basis of changing the minds and worldview of people, raising their political and civic activeness, as well as confidence in their future. What is particularly important is that the new generation, the educated

youth who are free of any vestiges of the past are today turning into a vital driving force of democratization, liberalization, renewal and confident growth of the country.

Nowadays in our country an enormous number of specialists are working on these issues. Our research work also created in this purpose.

The actuality of the research. As we mentioned the attention to Foreign Language in our country is developing in all areas of study. And nowadays it is essential to learn target language. The field of foreign language acquisition (FLA) research, now more than 30 years old, is expanding rapidly and widening the scope both of its research interests and perspectives (e.g., cognitive, grammatical, neural, pragmatic, and socio-interactive aspects of language learning and use) and of its applicability to other fields (e.g., economics, cognitive psychology, second/foreign language teaching, sociology, theoretical linguistics).

Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA) involves a wide range of language learning settings and learner characteristics and circumstances. This work will consider a broad scope of these, examining them from three different disciplinary perspectives: *linguistic*, *psychological*, and *social*. Different approaches to the study of FLA have developed from each of these perspectives in attempts to answer the three basic questions: *What* exactly does the language learner come to know? *How* does the learner acquire this knowledge? *Why* are some learners more (or less) successful than others?

The aim of the research is to study out and to explore foreign language acquisition process in a more thorough and methodological way, detailed study of external and internal factors, which play important role in language acquisition and to single out, describe, compare and find the possible ways of classification of methods in learning language.

The purpose of the research stipulated the arrangement and consecutive solving of the following **tasks**:

- To classify theories and methods according to their usage
- To determine reasons of the importance learner autonomy

- To research fundamental and modern sources of introducing foreign or second language and to give a contrastive view of the issue.
- To take into account the important factors of FLA and using them proficiently in methodology
- To show the results and discussion of questionnaire which were taken from school pupils

The object of the research: the process of acquiring a foreign language.

The subject of the research is strategies, methods, factors that influence learning language and the peculiarities of their usage in teaching and learning and their effect on the development of the language in different stages.

The methodological ground of the research work consist of the theoretical issues and scientific articles of scientists and linguists in the sphere of linguistics, methodology, psychology, socio-linguistics etc. The research is founded on fundamental works of well-known scholars such as Rod Ellis, Stephen Krashen, Noam Chomskiy, R. C. Anderson, Jim Cummins, Newmark Dulay, M.Burt, Corder, Cohen and many others.

The following methods of inquiry were used in research work: cooperative method, method of questionnaire, analysis into immediate constituents, analytical, descriptive, cognitive, psychological analysis and other methods.

Theoretical significance of the research. Our research work has confirmed past theories on language acquisition with sufficient language data collected from different kinds materials and consolidated them into an organic whole. The research on teaching and learning foreign language and it's important factors provides some reliable data and methodology for future research.

Practical significance of the research. The results and conclusion of this research can be applied in the sphere of methodology. It can be used at the lessons of different level students, in special courses on methodology, in writing essays, scientific articles, diploma works on the theme of investigation, broadening students' outlook and for the further investigation of the problems of acquiring a new language.

The structure of the research work. The research work consists of Introduction, 3 Chapters, Conclusion, Bibliography and Appendix.

The introduction covers topicality, theoretical base of research, as well as, methods of research and the structure of the work.

Each chapter consists of paragraphs and contains important information and explanation of the pointed tasks of the work.

The conclusion colligates the main propositions and ultimate results of the research.

List of used literature indicates the scientific issues, articles and thesis that were used in compiling the work.

Observation was used as a **data collecting** too.

Chapter I. The role of Foreign Language Acquisition.

Nowadays the world is changing rapidly and we live in the century of globalization. The most prominent branch of the government considered economy, and it is increasingly developed, this means that many of us are interacting across cultures in a way we never did before. In such an economy, the importance of learning a foreign language becomes self-evident. Learning language helps us to communicate across cultures and to conduct business in land where we can.

That said, there is another reason supporting the importance of learning a foreign language. Scientific studies have shown that learning a language improves brain function and stimulates creativity. When we know a new language, we start to see connections we didn't see before because every language approaches the world in a slightly way. As a result we have the opportunity to understand the world from the perspective of another culture and gain a greater appreciation of human society in all its diversity. As a consequence, the importance of learning a foreign language is again reinforced. We become not just equipped to communicate across cultures but empowered to understand others' points of view.

1.1.Theories of Foreign Language Acquisition

The following chapter will provide information about theories of second/foreign language acquisition and teaching. There are numerous approaches and theories which have a huge impact on learning. Generally, approaches provide information about how people acquire their knowledge of the language and about the conditions which will promote successful language learning. In this chapter the main focus will be on three theories which will be briefly described: The *Creative Construction Theory*, *Communicative Language Teaching* and the *Cognitive Approach*

Creative Construction Theory or the Naturalistic Approach

This approach is based on the assumption that language acquisition is innately determined and that we are born with a certain system of language that we can call on later. Numerous linguists and methodologists support this innateness hypotheses. Chomsky, who is the leading proponent, claims that each human being

possesses a set of innate properties of language which is responsible for the child's mastery of a native language in such a short time [9,24]. According to Chomsky, this mechanism, which he calls the 'language acquisition device' (LAD), 'governs all human languages, and determines what possible form human language may take' [11,6]. Some linguists, in particular Stephen Krashen, distinguish between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is supposed to be a subconscious process which leads to fluency. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process which shows itself in terms of learning rules and structures. Furthermore, Krashen claims that there are three internal processors that

operate when students learn or acquire a second language: the subconscious 'filter' and the 'organizer' as well as the conscious 'monitor' [11,11-45]. The 'organizer' determines the organization of the learner's language system, the usage of incorrect grammatical constructions as provisional precursors of grammatical structures, the systematical occurrence of errors in the learner's utterances as well as a common order in which structures are learnt. The 'filter' is responsible for the extent to which the learner's acquisition is influenced by social circumstances such as motivation and affective factors such as anger or anxiety. The 'monitor' is responsible for conscious learning. The learners correct mistakes in their speech according to their age and self-consciousness [11,45].

Krashen's Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis by Stephen Krashen is one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in Second Language Acquisition. It is based on a set of five interrelated hypotheses that are listed below:

1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

As mentioned above, Krashen claims that there is a difference between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is 'a subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language, not unlike the process used by a child to 'pick up' a language'. Learning is a conscious process in which 'learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process' [9,278].

2. The Monitor Hypothesis

The monitor has nothing to do with acquisition but with learning. The learned system acts only as an editor or ‘monitor’, making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. According to Krashen, three conditions are necessary for monitor use: 1. sufficient time, 2. focus on form, 3. knowing the rules [21,27].

3. The Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis states that we acquire the rules of a language in a certain order that is predictable [21,27]. However, this does not mean that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in exactly the same order. It states rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others to be acquired late. [20,28]

4. The Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis states that it is important for the acquirer to understand language that is a bit beyond his or her current level of competence. This means, if a learner is on a level i the input he gets should be $i + 1$. This means that the language that learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still is challenged to make progress [9,278].

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This hypothesis states that it is easier for a learner to acquire a language when he/she is not tense, angry, anxious, or bored. According to Dulay and Burt, performers with optimal attitudes have a lower affective filter. A low filter means that the performer is more open to the input language. [20,38] Krashen’s assumptions have been hotly disputed. Many psychologists like McLaughlin have criticized Krashen’s unclear distinction between subconscious (acquisition) and conscious (learning) processes. According to Brown, second language learning is a process in which varying degrees of learning and of acquisition can both be beneficial, depending upon the learner’s own styles and strategies. Furthermore, the $i + 1$ formula that is presented by Krashen raises the question how i and 1 should be defined. Moreover, what about the ‘silent period’? Krashen states that after a certain time, the silent period, speech will ‘emerge’ to the learner, which means that the learner will start to speak as a result of comprehensible input.

Nevertheless, there is no information about what will happen to the learners, for whom speech will not ‘emerge’ and ‘for whom the silent period might last forever’ [9,281].

Communicative Language Teaching

The communicative approach has its origins in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s and more generally in the developments of both Europe and North America. This approach varies from traditional approaches because it is learner-centered. Also, linguists state that there is a need to focus on communicative proficiency in language teaching and that Communicative Language Teaching can fulfill this need. There are numerous reasons for the rapid expansion of Communicative Language Teaching: the work of the Council of Europe in the field of communicative syllabus design; the theoretical ideas of the communicative approach found rapid application by textbook writers; and there was an overwhelming acceptance of these new ideas by British language teaching specialists and curriculum development centers.

Proponents of this approach state that the goal of language teaching is communicative competence. Another aim is the development of procedures for the teaching of the four language skills (writing, reading, speaking, listening). Moreover, the four skills build the basis of the interdependence of language and communication [26,64-66]. According to Littlewood, one of the most important aspects of ‘communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language’ [23,1]. One of the most important aspects is pair and group work.

Learners should work in pairs or groups and try to solve problematic task with their available language knowledge. Howatt also distinguishes between a weak and a strong version of Communicative Language Teaching. The weak version, which seems to be standard by now, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes. The strong version claims that language is acquired through communication [18,279].

As mentioned above, there was and still is a wide acceptance of the communicative

approach. This approach is similar to the more general learning perspective usually referred to as 'Learning by doing' or 'the experience approach' [26,68]. Generally, Communicative Language Teaching focuses on communicative and contextual factors in language use and it is learner-centered and experience-based. There are many supporters but also numerous opponents, who criticize this approach and the relatively varied ways in which it is interpreted and applied. Nevertheless, it is a theory of language teaching that starts from a communicative model of language and language use, and that seeks to translate this into a design for an instructional system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviors, and for classroom activities and techniques[26,69].

Theory of language

A central aspect in Communicative Language Teaching is communicative competence. Hymes defines competence as what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. This includes both knowledge and ability for language use. In his book *Teaching Language as Communication* (1978) [26,71] Widdowson presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) found four dimensions of communicative competence that are defined as 1. grammatical competence, 2. sociolinguistic competence, 3. Discourse competence, and 4. strategic competence.

Theory of learning

Although there is little discussion of learning theory, there are still some elements that, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986), can be defined as communication principles, task principles and meaningfulness principles. The first one includes activities that involve real communication which are supposed to promote learning. The second element describes activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks which are also supposed to promote learning. The last one states that language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Of great importance is meaningful and authentic language use [26,72].

The Cognitive Approach

Cognitive psychologists claim that one of the main features of second language acquisition is the building up of a knowledge system that can eventually be called on automatically for speaking and understanding. At first, learners have to build up a general knowledge of the language they want to understand and produce. After a lot of practice and experience they will be able to use certain parts of their knowledge very quickly and without realizing that they did so. Gradually, this use becomes automatic and the learners may focus on other parts of the language.

The cognitive theory is a relative newcomer to second language acquisition and there have been only a few empirical studies about this approach so far. Although we know that the processes of automatizing and restructuring are central to the approach, it is still not clear what kinds of structures will be automatized through practice and what will be restructured. Also it cannot predict which first language structures will be transferred and which will not. As far as the phenomenon of ‘restructuring’ is concerned, psychologists state that things that we know and use automatically may not necessarily be learned through a gradual build-up of automaticity but they may be based on the interaction of knowledge we already have. They may also be based on the acquisition of new knowledge which somehow ‘fits’ into an existing system and may, in fact, ‘restructure’ this system [21,25].

McLaughlin’s Attention-Processing Model

This model connects processing mechanisms with categories of attention to formal properties of language. Consequently there are four cells. The first one refers to ‘focal automatic processes’ like the student’s performance in a test situation or a violin player performing in a concert. The second one characterizes ‘focal controlled processes’ such as the learner’s performance based on formal rule learning. The next cell refers to ‘peripheral controlled processes’ such as the phenomenon of learning skills without any instruction. The last cell focuses on ‘peripheral automatic processes’ and can be related to a learner’s performance in

situations of communication. ‘Controlled processes are “capacity limited and temporary”, and automatic processes are “relatively permanent”’ [9,142]. Automatic processes mean processing in a more accomplished skill which means that the brain is able to deal with numerous bits of information simultaneously. According to Brown, ‘the automatizing of this multiplicity of data is accomplished by a process of restructuring in which the components of a task are coordinated, integrated, or reorganized into new units, thereby allowing the ...old components to be replaced by a more efficient procedure’ [9,188].

Implicit and Explicit Models

According to Brown and other linguists, there is a distinction between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge. Explicit knowledge means ‘that a person knows about language and the ability to articulate those facts in some way’ [8,285]. Implicit knowledge is ‘information that is automatically and spontaneously used in language tasks. Implicit processes enable a learner to perform language but not necessarily to cite rules governing the performance.’ Instead of implicit and explicit Bialostok uses the terms ‘unanalysed’ and ‘analysed’ knowledge. Unanalysed knowledge is described as ‘the general form in which we know most things without being aware of the structure of that knowledge; on the other hand, learners are overtly aware of the structure of analyzed knowledge [9,286]. Furthermore, these models also distinguish between automatic and non-automatic processing which is build on McLaughlin’s conception of automaticity. Brown states that ‘automaticity refers to the learner’s relative access to the knowledge. Knowledge that can be retrieved easily and quickly is automatic. Knowledge that takes time and effort to retrieve is non-automatic’ [9,286]. Another significant fact in second language performance is ‘time’. It takes learners a different amount of time until they produce language orally.

Consequently, all three theories of language learning inter-relate somehow. Many teachers will use classroom methods which may be linked to all three approaches.

I.2. Learners' Autonomy in Language Learning

Learner autonomy is a problematic term because it is widely confused by self-instruction. For a definition of autonomy, we might quote Holec [17,3] who describes it as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning' on a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways:

- For situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- For a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- For an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- For the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- For the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

To all intents and purposes, the autonomous learner takes an active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher.

Over the last two decades, the concepts of learner autonomy and independence have gained momentum, the former becoming a 'buzz-word' within context of language learning [23,2]. It is a truism that one of the most important spin-offs of more communicatively oriented language learning and teaching has been the premium placed on the role of the learner in the language learning process. It goes without saying, of course, that this shift of responsibility from teachers to learners does not exist in a vacuum, but is the result of a concatenation of changes to the curriculum itself towards a more learner-centered kind of learning. What is more, this reshaping, so to speak, of teacher and learner roles has been conducive to a radical change in the age-old distribution of power and authority that used to plague the traditional classroom. Holec not only defines autonomy in the context of language learning as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" [5,3], but he also gives a more detailed definition as follows:

To take charge of one's own learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning; i.e.:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.);
- evaluating what has been acquired.

The autonomous learner is himself capable of making all these decisions concerning the learning with which he is or wishes to be involved. [17, 3]

The autonomy Holec wants to promote is not restricted to learning in European educational systems but has far-reaching implications for our societies and their social structures, which is emphasized by both Benson and Little [22,7]. Autonomy, in this sense, is not just a new approach to language learning but it may also help to develop learners into “more responsible and critical members of the communities in which they live” [5,3].

Although Holec's definition of autonomy covers the main areas of learning in which responsibility can be transferred from the teacher to the learner, other researchers do not entirely agree with Holec. Benson for example criticizes the fact that Holec's definition does not define “the nature of the cognitive capacities underlying effective self-management of learning” [5,49]. For this reason, Benson favors Little's definition, in which Little takes the role of control over the cognitive processes involved in effective self-management of learning into consideration: Essentially, autonomy is a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts. (Little, 1991: 4)

Despite these detailed definitions of learner autonomy, there are several misconceptions of this area of language learning, which Little tries to sum up in his definition of “what autonomy is not” [22,3]: Firstly, Little emphasizes that autonomy is not – as often believed – synonymous with self-instruction, which – mistakenly - indicates that autonomy in the classroom context forces the teacher to give up all initiative and control and, thus, makes the teacher redundant. Secondly, Little makes it clear that learner autonomy is not a new teaching method that can be programmed in a series of lesson plans. And thirdly, he stresses that autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior or a steady state achieved by learners.

Benson [5,49] points out that another important element of autonomous learning is to give learners the opportunity to take control of their own learning and to determine the content as well as the goals and purposes of learning. Apart from emphasizing this situational aspect, he also refers to the fact that learner autonomy has “a social aspect, which may involve control over learning situations and call on particular capacities concerned with the learner’s ability to interact with others in the learning process” [5,49]. Although learner autonomy generally implies that the learner enjoys a higher degree of freedom, the consideration of the social aspect of autonomy makes it clear that this freedom is constrained. “Because we are social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; our essential condition is one of interdependence.” [22,5] Benson has probably summed up all this definitions and aspects best by describing learner autonomy as “ a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times” [5,47].

Why learner autonomy?

There are two general arguments in favor of trying to make learners autonomous. First, if they are reflectively engaged with their learning, it is likely to be more efficient and effective, because more personal and focused than otherwise; in particular, what is learned in educational contexts is more likely to serve learners’ wider agendas. Second, if learners are proactively committed to their

learning, the problem of motivation is by definition solved; although they may not always feel entirely positive about all aspects of their learning, autonomous learners have developed the reflective and attitudinal resources to overcome temporary motivational setbacks.

In the particular case of second or foreign languages there is a third argument. Effective communication depends on a complex of procedural skills that develop only through use; and if language learning depends crucially on language use, learners who enjoy a high degree of social autonomy in their learning environment should find it easier than otherwise to master the full range of discourse roles on which effective spontaneous communication depends.

Learner autonomy and the psychology of learning

Autonomy is very often linked with constructive theories of learning, the main thesis of which is that knowledge has to be constructed by the learner and cannot be taught. Of special importance for learner autonomy is George Kelly's personal construct theory (1963): Kelly's psychology views human thought as a process of hypothesis testing and theory building involving the continual development and revision of constructs, or meanings attached to objects or events, in the light of new experience. Personal constructs are derived from shared assumptions and values, but systems of constructs are unique to the individual since they are shaped through attempts to make sense of experiences that are uniquely one's own. [5,36] As far as learning is concerned, this theory holds that every learner brings his or her own system of personal constructs to bear on learning tasks. The new knowledge that the learner gains has to be assimilated to his/her current system of constructs. This assimilation is likely to be unproblematic and easy when the new knowledge is additional information, but it can be difficult if the new knowledge contradicts in some way the existing construct system [22,19]. The implication of the personal construct theory for education and learning is that learning can be facilitated if learners are helped to become aware of and understand their existing personal construct systems and if they are encouraged to assume control of psychological processes. Nevertheless this does not mean that

making learners aware of the demands of learning tasks and the techniques with which they might approach it will always be inevitably followed by successful learning. But when the process is successful, learning will become more efficient and purposeful[22,21]. Benson summarizes the connection between constructive psychology and learning as follows:

If learning is a matter of the construction of knowledge, effective learners must be cognitively capable of performing actions that enable them to take control of their learning. Similarly, the capacity to manage one's own learning activities must be grounded in certain cognitive capacities intrinsic to the process of learning. The importance of this hypothesis to the theory of autonomy is evidenced in Little's claim that 'all genuinely successful learning is in the end autonomous'. [22,40]

Autonomy and language learning

During the last few decades research on first language development has shown that learning a mother tongue is a – largely unconscious – autonomous process: Children do not learn their mother tongue word by word but pass through a series of stages, which is linked with an accommodation of their existing linguistic knowledge to new structural features. Furthermore, there is no separation between learning language and using language; and, thus, first language acquisition could be seen as a result of the children's communication and interaction with their environment. Another important feature of first language acquisition in connection with learner autonomy is the fact that acquisition “proceeds on the initiative of the child as it gradually learns to meet the communicative needs generated by its interaction with the environment” [22,24].

This unconscious autonomy shows that we are born self-directed learners and that we are naturally inclined to take control over the learning of a language. Benson, however, claims that – on the one hand – we appear to give up much of our autonomy as learning becomes more complex and is channelled through the institution of the school, but that – on the other hand – all of us are able to develop

autonomy on the basis of capacities that most learners already possess due to their natural tendency to take control over various aspects of learning [5,59].

Although people often believe that, in schooling, learning is the result of teaching, in fact, most learning happens casually. In many cases “learning is self-motivated, and undertaken in order to fulfill a personal need” [22,10] However, most learners are not aware of their autonomous behavior, which shows that unconscious autonomy can also be found in foreign language learning. Another similarity between first and second language acquisition is the influence of the learners’ encounters with their environment: “Social interaction generates communicative needs and provides the learner with input; and the learner’s effort to meet his communicative needs by using the target language gradually produces learning” [22,25]. This can especially be implied for those people who are learning a second language without benefit of instruction.

Enabling learners to use the foreign language as a medium of communication has always been regarded as the aim of foreign language teaching. But the learners’ communicative efficiency in the target language depends on their achieving a substantial degree of autonomy as language users, which includes factors like independence, self-reliance and self-confidence. Consequently, the most important question for language teachers is how to help their students to achieve this autonomy and to maintain it – mainly by becoming aware of the social requirements of the different situations in which they have to use the target language. In fact, learners will become more autonomous if as much of the classroom communication as possible is carried out in the target language and if this communication is “real to the learners in the sense that it engages them in understanding and producing meanings that are important to them” [22,29]. Thus, communication is not only the goal of but also a channel for learning; and the target language is not only the target but also the content of teaching.

In order to prevent learners from remaining alienated from the content and process of their learning and to enable them to become autonomous language users, traditional patterns of classroom organization have to be abandoned in favor of

learner-centeredness in both curricula and classrooms. The range of roles that characterizes the autonomous language user and that the learners are expected to adopt have to be available to them in the classroom. Furthermore, learners have to be autonomous in the sense that they are allowed to determine the content of their learning and to take responsibility for reviewing their progress. If this is the case, the learners not only communicate meanings that really matter to them but they are also encouraged to explore and make explicit their personal constructs; and engaging the learners' personal construct systems and giving the learners the opportunity to be in control of their learning has the effect of interesting them in the language learning tasks. "Thus they experience the learning they are engaged on as their own, and this enables them to achieve to a remarkable degree the autonomy that characterizes the fluent language user." [22,31]

In the context of fostering learner autonomy in the classroom, important aspects that have to be taken into account apart from the students' personal construct systems are individual psychological factors, which have a strong influence on the way a person learns a language and on the outcome of her learning efforts. Some of these variables – like learning style, aptitude and personality – are relatively stable conditions that cannot easily be changed.

The term learning style refers to any individuals preferred ways of problem-solving and learning. A frequently quoted definition is the one given by Keefe (1979): ...the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment... Learning style is a consistent way of functioning, that reflects underlying causes of behavior. Various dimensions of learning style have been identified. Some of these dimensions are: field-dependence/ interdependence, ambiguity tolerance, reflectivity and impulsiveness as well as visual and auditory styles [9,114-122]. Apart from learning styles, there are other variables like motivation, affective states and attitudes that can influence learning. Benson, however, states that these variables depend on context or experience and can be changed more easily than learning styles. "Although the

research evidence is limited, there is good reason to believe that language learners can and do exercise some degree of control over these variables in attempting to overcome obstacles to their learning.” [5,67]

Learner autonomy in practice

As mentioned above, autonomy is based on the learners’ natural tendency to take control over their own learning, which means that they “initiate and manage their own learning, set their own priorities and agendas and attempt to control psychological factors that influence their learning” [5,75]. Even if learners do take control, this does not imply, however, that they are autonomous. In order to be regarded as autonomous, learners not only have to try to take control of their learning every now and then but they have to do it systematically; and it is the role of the teacher to encourage and assist them in doing so. If autonomy is to be seen as a goal of language education, teachers and educational institutions should attempt to promote autonomy through practices that will encourage and enable learners to take more control of all aspects of their learning and will, thus, help them to become better language learners [5,109].

Apart from control of the psychological variables, learner autonomy involves three different levels of control: learning management, cognitive processes and learning content.

Learner autonomy and control over learning management

“Control over learning management can be described in terms of the behaviors that learners employ in order to manage the planning, organization and evaluation of their learning.” [5,76] Learning management – together with self-monitoring, and self-assessment – is regarded as an important part of effective self-directed learning, which is understood as the key to learning languages and to learning how to learn languages. In order to manage their learning effectively, learners should use certain learning strategies. According to Brown, strategies are “specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information” [8,113]. Cohen (1998) defines learning strategies as “learning

processes which are consciously selected by the learner”. These learning strategies are divided into three main categories: metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. “Metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluating. They have an executive function.” [14,538] Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, are “more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself” [8,124]. Socio-affective strategies concern ways in which learners interact with other learners or native speakers and control themselves in order to improve their learning. In general, strategy use requires the learner to know what language and language learning involve, to plan the content and methods of learning and to be willing to do a self-evaluation of his/her progress and his/her learning experience [9,81].

The discussion of learning strategies directly leads to the issue of strategy training or learner training, the primary goal of which is to help learners become better language learners and take greater control over their learning by increasing the learners’ awareness of themselves as language learners as well as their willingness and ability to manage their own learning. Cohen [10,67] defines strategy training and its purposes as follows:

Strategy training, i.e. explicitly teaching students how to apply language learning and language use strategies, can enhance students’ effort to reach language program goals because it encourages students to find their own pathways to success, and thus it promotes learner autonomy and self-direction. Consequently, learner training and the resulting increase of the learners’ learning efficiency seem to lead to the development of greater autonomy. Strategy training in classroom learning or strategies-based instruction – as Brown [8,130] calls it – basically means that teachers assist their students in developing skills in learning how to learn and skills related to strategy use and that they encourage the learners to activate their language outside the classroom [25,181]. According to Cohen [10,65], the underlying premise of strategy training is that “language learning will

be facilitated if students become more aware of the range of possible strategies that they can consciously select during language learning and language use”. The implication of this claim for language teaching is that it should have two different goals: The one is to foster the development of autonomy, and the other is to increase the development of learning skills and skills in learning how to learn [25,187]. In practice this can be done by incorporating elements of learner training as well as learning how- to-learn tasks into language teaching. The advantages of doing so are that “learners become aware not only of their own preferred ways of learning, but also of the fact that there are choices, not only in what to learn but also in how to learn” [25,181]. Learning how to learn tasks are able to encourage learners both to be more flexible in the ways they go about learning and to experiment with a wide range of different learning experiences. The teachers’ task is not only to provide the learners with technical know-how about how to tackle a language but also to assist them in becoming aware of their own style preferences and beliefs [8,131] - for the students’ choice of learning strategies is strongly influenced by individual learner differences such as attitudes, affective states and general factors as well as by various situational factors [14,529]. However, it is important that strategy-based instruction and learner training are not limited to teaching an approved set of strategies; instead learners should be trained to use strategies flexibly, appropriately and independently, which will help them to become more autonomous. It has been proved that language learners engage in self-instruction by using a wide repertoire of out-of-class strategies – like reading newspapers and novels or listening to the radio – even when their learning is primarily classroom-based. This out-of-class learning could be seen as a supplement to classroom learning. Its main purpose is the development of proficiency. Because of the fact that learners who achieve proficiency in foreign languages tend to take some degree of control over their learning, self-management, self-instruction and learner training could be regarded as important parts of most language-learning careers and as a key to learner autonomy [5,61-65].

The control over learning management and the application of learning strategies are part of a movement within educational theory and practice which takes a learner-centered view of pedagogy: “A learner-centered approach is based on a belief that learners will bring to the learning situation different beliefs and attitudes about the nature of language and learning and that these beliefs and attitudes need to be taken into consideration in the selection of content and learning experiences.” [25,178].

Learner autonomy and control over cognitive and content aspects of learning

As already mentioned above, a learner-centered approach to foreign language learning does not only consist of giving learners the opportunity for self-directed learning but also of involving learners in the majority of decision-making processes concerned with the day-to-day management of their learning. Only if students are given the opportunity to take a certain degree of control over the planning and assessment of classroom learning and only if they are supported appropriately in doing so, will they have the chance to acquire the ability to develop control over all three aspects relevant for learner autonomy – learning management, cognitive and content aspects of learning. According to Benson, there are some pre-conditions for the development of these levels of control:

Learners may develop the capacity to control cognitive aspects of their learning through the opportunity to take decisions in the classroom, but this will depend in part on the extent to which their decisions are limited by or go beyond learning procedures with which they are already familiar. Similarly, they may develop the capacity to define and determine the content of their learning, but this again depends on the extent to which decisions are constrained by pre-determined learning content. The risk in implementing learner control in the classroom when the scope of decision making is constrained is that the learners will feel that their decisions have little real consequence or that they are being given responsibility without genuine freedom. [5,161-162]

Benson also emphasizes that giving learners the opportunity to make decisions regarding their learning within a collaborative and supportive environment is a key factor in the development of autonomy and that – because of this – teachers should surrender “their prerogative of making most or all of the decisions concerning the students’ learning” [5,152].

When they finally do so and learners are encouraged to take control over the planning of classroom activities, the result is a positive effect on both learner autonomy and language learning.

Experimental programmes involving group work in language classes or giving students a certain degree of control over the content of their learning within a teacher-directed classroom had the effect that the students felt more free to speak, to make mistakes and to contribute their own experience, which lead to a feeling of being supported in their learning difficulties. In fact, group work and peer teaching result in “gains in motivation, participation, 'real' communication, in-depth understanding, responsibility for learning, commitment to the course, confidence, mutual respect, the number of skills and strategies used and accuracy in written outcomes” [5,154].

As far as control over the learning content is concerned it is very common that the general learning goals are determined by the National Curriculum. Nevertheless it is possible to give learners at least some control over the content by allowing them to select the order in which they work on these goals, to choose their own tasks for practice and to plan activities within the classroom. In fact, increased learner control is beneficial to language learning because, according to Benson, “transfer of control also often involves an increase in student student- interaction and increased opportunities to use and process the target language in group work”[5,154].

Another advantage of this learner-centered approach is that students are encouraged to reflect consciously on the learning process, on their goals and learning activities and they are trained in self-evaluation and self-assessment of the effectiveness of their learning and their language performance; and while self-

evaluation is beneficial to learning in itself, conscious reflection on the learning process is a distinctive characteristic of autonomous learning.

Helping language learners to become autonomous

Attempts to theorize the process of 'autonomisation' have been strongly influenced by neo-Vygotskian psychology, which sees learning as a matter of supported performance and emphasizes the interdependence of the cognitive and social-interactive dimensions of the learning process. According to this model, the teacher's role is to create a maintain a learning environment in which learners can be autonomous in order to become more autonomous. For example in our region there are some places where you can learn independently, social classes, where all comforts for learners are exist. You can go there any time when you want.the development of their learning skills I never entirely separable from the content of their learning, since learning how to learn a second or foreign language is in some important respects different from learning how to learn maths or history or biology. Dam's(1995) account of the gradual 'autonomisation' of teenage learners of English in a Danish middle school provides a classic illustration. Her key techniques are: use of the target language as the preferred medium teaching and learning from the very beginning; the gradual development by the learners of a repertoire of useful learning activities; and ongoing evaluation of the learning process, achieved by a combination of teacher, peer and self-assessment. Posters and learner logbooks plat a central role in three ways: they help learners to capture much of the content of learning, support the development of speaking, and provide a focus for assessment.

How to support the development of learner autonomy is also a key issue for self-access language learning schemes. Where self-access learning is not embedded in a taught course, it is usually necessary to provide learners with some kind of advisory service: learner counseling is central to the self-access literature. The most successful self-access projects tend to be those that find effective and flexible ways of supporting learners.

Conclusion

To sum up of this chapter, the theories which we mentioned above are used somehow. Many teachers will use classroom methods which may be linked to all three approaches. Teachers who are native speakers tend to use Krashen's Natural Approach more than others. But this approach has been hotly disputed and it seems that it took a back seat in the foreign language learning classroom during the last few years. Communicative Language Teaching has established itself in the last twenty years. It somehow builds the basis of language learning and can now be found in almost every language class and language schoolbook, whereas the Cognitive Approach is a rather new approach and therefore not very widely applied. All in all, a teacher should be aware of the different theories and approaches and use them as a basis for his/her teaching.

In the last few years quite a lot of research has been done on learner autonomy and its effects on and implications for foreign language teaching. According to Benson [5,104-105], fundamental findings on autonomy are:

1. Learner autonomy means for the learner to take an active, independent attitude to learning and to undertake a learning task independently and, thus, is beneficial to learning.
2. The concept of learner autonomy is supported by some evidence that language learners have a natural tendency to exercise control over their learning.
3. Learner autonomy is a systematic capacity of effective control over various aspects and levels of the learning process; and this personal involvement of the learner in decision making leads to more effective learning.

Although the advantages of learner autonomy for the language learner seem to be quite obvious, fostering autonomy amongst learners in practice can be very difficult for teachers because of the social and political problems involved in changing the traditional structure of the teaching and learning process. Benson managed to summarize the problematic nature of fostering autonomy very aptly: One clear outcome of the research is that any attempt to transfer control over one

aspect of learning is likely to have complex effects on the system of learning as a whole. Flexibility in the guidelines for the implementation of a curriculum often creates spaces in which individual teachers can allow learners a degree of control over aspects of their classroom learning. However, if the curriculum itself lacks flexibility, it is likely that the degree of autonomy developed by the learners will be correspondingly constrained. (Benson, 2001: 162)

Despite these difficulties, learner autonomy is becoming more and more frequent in foreign language learning and teaching. Although the curricula are still quite inflexible and rigid, the number of teachers who try to foster learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom by helping their students to take greater control over their learning and to become autonomous learners is rising; and I even think that this tendency will increase over the next few years when a new generation of language teachers will start teaching at schools – because, in my opinion, the foundation of learner autonomy lies in teacher training, and there, the issue of fostering learner autonomy is certainly more important than ever.

Chapter II. Influencing factors of Foreign Language Acquisition

Some students learn a new language more easier and quickly than others. This simple fact is known by all who have themselves learnt a target language or taught those who learns a language at school, college or another type of educational branch. Clearly some language learners are successful by means of their absolute determination, hard work and explicitness. However there are other decisive factors influencing success that are largely beyond the control of the learner. These factors can be broadly categorized as external and internal factors. It is their complex interaction that defines the speed and opportunity with which the new language is learnt.

II. 1. External factors in language learning

External factors are those that characterize the particular language learning situation. Among external variables one can refer to such variables as social class, first language, teachers, early start, L2 curriculum, instruction, culture and status, age, aptitude, motivation and attitude , personality, cognitive style, Hemisphere specialization, Learning Strategies and etc.

Social factors (for example, a learner's ethnic background) may influence individual learner factors (for example, a learner's motivation to learn a particular language). It is also possible, of course, that individual learner factors (for example, a learner's personality) may have an effect on the social conditions of learning, for example by influencing the nature of the social settings experienced. Social factors/settings serve as the major determinant of the input that learners receive. For example, they influence what variety of the target language the learners will be exposed to and also the amount of exposure.

Social factors and second language acquisition. This paragraph is about the relationship between society and foreign language learning. It considers the role of social factors in L2 proficiency. Learners differ enormously in how quickly they learn an L2, in the type of proficiency they acquire and the ultimate level of proficiency they reach. In part, these differences can be explained by reference to psychological factors such as language aptitude, learning style and personality

Social factors have a major impact on L2 proficiency but probably do not influence it directly. Rather, their effect is mediated by a number of variables. According to R. Ellis three broad questions should be discussed in the field of social factors:

1. To what extent do specific social factors (age, sex, social class, and ethnic identity) affect L2 proficiency?
2. To what extent do social factors influence the learner's choice of target language variety?
3. How can we characterize the different social contexts in which L2 acquisition takes place, and what effect does the type of context have on learning outcomes?

Learner attitudes. Learners manifest different attitudes towards (1) the target language, (2) target language speakers, (3) the target-language culture, (4) the social value of learning the L2, (5) particular uses of the target language, and (6) themselves as members of their own culture. These attitudes are likely to reflect the particular social settings in which learners find themselves. Learner attitudes have an impact on the level of L2 proficiency achieved by individual learners and are themselves influenced by this success. Thus, learners with positive attitudes, who experience success, will have these attitudes reinforced. Similarly, learners' negative attitudes may be strengthened by lack of success. We will also find cases of learners who begin with positive attitudes but who, for one reason or another, experience inadequate learning opportunities, fail to progress as they expected, and, consequently, become more negative in their outlook.

Baker (1988) discusses the main characteristics of attitudes:

1. Attitudes are cognitive (i.e. are capable of being thought about) and affective (i.e. have feelings and emotions attached to them)— [Triandis 19 71].
2. Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar—they vary in degree of favorability/unfavourability.
3. Attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one.
4. Attitudes are learnt, not inherited or genetically endowed.

5. Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experience.

Attitudes have been measured both indirectly and directly. An example of indirect measurement is the Semantic Differential Technique. This presents learners with a series of antonyms (for example, useful-useless; ugly- beautiful) and asks them to evaluate a given phenomenon (for example, a language or a speaker's accent) on each dimension. It has been used in Matched Guise studies (Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, and Fillenbaum 1960), in which the same speaker, who is bilingual, reads a passage in two languages. Learners are then asked to make judgments about the readers (i.e. they are not told that it is one person). In this way, they inadvertently reveal their attitudes towards the two languages. In general, positive attitudes towards the L2, its speakers, and its culture can be expected to enhance learning and negative attitudes to impede learning. This need not necessarily be so, however. Negative attitudes may have a positive effect on L2 learning if the learners have a strong reason for learning. Most members of the language teaching profession realize that their students' learning potential increases when attitudes are positive and motivation runs high. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers should recognize that all students possess positive and negative attitudes in varying degrees, and that the negative ones can be changed by thoughtful instructional methods, such as using materials and activities that help students achieve an "understanding and appreciation of the foreign culture"[3, 199]

Curriculum: For EFL students in particular it is important that the totality of their educational experience is appropriate for their needs. Language learning is less likely to place if students are fully submersed into the mainstream program without any extra assistance or, conversely, not allowed to be part of the mainstream until they have reached a certain level of language proficiency.

Age. Age has received considerable attention from sociolinguists. Chambers and Trudgill (1980), for instance, document variants of /q/ in the speech of different generations of speakers in Norwich (England). The younger generation (10-19 years) used non-standard variants, while middle-aged speakers (30-60 years) preferred the standard variant. Older speakers (70+ years) demonstrated use of

non-standard variants, although not to the same extent as the younger generation. Chambers and Trudgill seek to explain this pattern by suggesting that younger speakers are subject to social pressures from their peer group, while middle-aged speakers have less cohesive social networks and are more influenced by mainstream societal values. In older, retired people, social pressures lessen and social networks again become narrow.

The general pattern of social influence which Chambers and Trudgill document may help to explain age-related factors in L2 acquisition. Learners who commence learning an L2 after the onset of puberty (and possibly earlier) are unlikely to acquire a native-speaker accent, while those who begin after the age of about 15 years are less likely to develop as much grammatical ability as those who begin before. Preston (1989) suggests that children may be more prepared to share external norms because they are not subject to peer pressure and have not formed stereotypes of their own identities. He argues that the threat to identity in older learners occurs even in 'short-term, restricted' L2 acquisition, which may account for why many adolescents are resistant to L2 learning in foreign language settings. This explanation is not entirely convincing, however. It does not explain why adolescent learners progress more rapidly than younger learners to begin with. Nor does it explain why adolescents tend to do better than middle-aged learners, who ought to outperform the younger generation given their greater acceptance of prestige social norms. As Preston recognizes, a social explanation of age related effects in L2 acquisition is, at best, only a partial explanation.[3,201]

Sex. A distinction is often made between 'sex' and 'gender'. The former constitutes a biological distinction, while the latter is a social one. A number of sociolinguists currently prefer the term 'gender' because it places the emphasis the social construction of 'male' and 'female' (Kramarae 1990). As Labov notes, 'there is little reason to think that sex is an appropriate category to explain linguistic behavior' (1991: 206), and so it is necessary to posit some intervening variable (i.e. the distinct roles assumed by the different sexes). The term 'sex' is used here to reflect the way in which the variable has been typically measured in SLA research

(i.e. as a bipolar opposite).

Sociolinguistic research has identified two distinct and apparently contradictory principles relating to sex differentiation in native-speaker speech (Labov 1991:206-7): In stable sociolinguistic stratification, men use a higher frequency of nonstandard forms than women. In the majority of linguistic changes, women use a higher frequency of the incoming forms than men.

Women, therefore, nearly always outstrip males in the standardness of their speech and use of prestige forms, and yet they also tend to be in the forefront of linguistic change. This can be explained by positing that women are more sensitive to new forms and more likely to incorporate them into their speech, but, when they become aware of the change, they are inclined to reject them. Men, on the other hand, may be less sensitive to new forms but once they have started to use them are less likely to reject them, perhaps because they are less likely to notice them. Both principles suggest that women might be better at L2 learning than men; they are likely to be more open to new linguistic forms in the L2 input and they will be more likely to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from target-language norms.

These predictions based on sociolinguistic theory are borne out by several studies. Female learners generally do better than male. Boyle (1987) reports on a study of 490 (257 male and 233 female) Chinese university students in Hong Kong. The female students achieved higher overall means on ten tests of general L2 English proficiency and in many cases the differences were significant. Also, some studies have reported no or few differences between males and females. Bacon (1992), for instance, found no difference between the sexes in two authentic listening tasks.

A number of studies suggest that females have more positive attitudes to learning an L2 than males. Gardner and Lambert (1972) also report that female learners of L2 French in Canada were more motivated than male learners and also had more positive attitudes towards speakers of the target language. Girls may

perceive a foreign language as having significant vocational value for them, whereas boys do not. These beliefs may derive from the students' parents.

Sex (or gender) is, of course, likely to interact with other variables in determining L2 proficiency. It will not always be the case, therefore, that females outperform males. Asian men in Britain generally attain higher levels of proficiency in L2 English than do Asian women for the simple reason that their jobs bring them into contact with the majority English-speaking group, while women are often 'enclosed' in the home. Sex interacts with such factors as age, ethnicity, and, in particular, social class.

Social class. An individual's social class is typically determined by means of a composite measure that takes account of income, level of education and occupation. However, in our country there is an equal rights among all people, it is customary to distinguish into four groups: lower class, working class, lower middle class, and upper middle class.

As Preston points out, there is a clear parallel between sociolinguistic phenomena associated with social class and language change and interlanguage development. The similarity may rest more in the psychological processes which underlie both linguistic change and L2 learning.

There is evidence of a relationship between social class and L2 achievement, however. Burstall (1975; 1979) found that for both male and female primary and secondary school learners of L2 French there was a strong correlation between socio-economic status and achievement. Children from middle-class homes regularly outperformed those from lower- and working- class homes. There were also class-related differences in the learners' attitudes. Working-class children tended to drop French after their second year in secondary school, while middle-class children were likely to continue. Skehan (1990) also reports moderate correlations between the family background of 23 secondary school children in Bristol and both language learning aptitude and foreign language achievement in French and German, with middle-class children again outperforming lower-class. Skehan suggests that these relationships may reflect the learners' *underlying* ability

to deal with context- disembedded language.

These studies examined L2 achievement in foreign language classrooms. Their results mirror the general finding that children from lower socioeconomic groups are less successful educationally than those from higher groups. Another study, however, suggests that the disadvantage in language learning shown by lower-status groups is not inevitable.

There have been few studies investigating social class and L2 learning. The results to date suggest that middle-class children achieve higher levels of L2 proficiency and more positive attitudes than working-class children when the programme emphasizes formal language learning. This may be because they are better able to deal with decontextualized language. However, when the programme emphasizes communicative language skills, the social class of the learners has no effect.

Ethnic identity. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1990) inform us that ‘ethnicity is a slippery concept’. This is partly because there is tension between ‘objective’ and ‘subjective’ definitions of the term. Objective definitions predominated in early anthropological studies, in which researchers imposed external categorizations on their subjects. Subjective definitions see ethnicity as a process whereby individuals use labels to define themselves in communication with others and are now generally favored. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey point out that both self- and other categorizations of ethnic identity may influence the way language is used in inter-ethnic communication.

There is a general consensus that ethnic identity can exert a profound influence on L2 learning. This influence can take three possible forms, corresponding to normative, socio-psychological, and socio-structural views of the relationship. Research based on a normative view of the relationship between ethnic identity and L2 learning seeks to establish to what extent membership of a particular ethnic group affects L2 achievement. A key concept here is that of the ‘distance’ between the cultures of the native and target languages, the idea being that the more distant the two cultures are, the more difficult L2 learning is and, therefore, the lower the

achievement levels.

A socio-psychological view of the relationship between ethnic identity and L2 proficiency emphasizes the role of attitudes. The attitudes that learners hold towards the learning of a particular L2 reflect the intersection of their views about their own ethnic identity and those about the target-language culture. These views will influence both L2 and L1 learning.

Instruction: Clearly, some language teachers are better than others at providing appropriate and effective learning experiences for the students in their classroom. These students will make faster progress. The same applies to mainstream teachers in second language situations. The science teacher, for example, who is aware that she too is responsible for the students' English language development, and makes certain accommodations, will contribute to their linguistic development.

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

Teacher behavior definitely influences all kinds of learning especially learning a foreign language. According to Cheng and Dornyei (2007) teachers can fire students' enthusiasm by being a personal model in the class. Stipek (2002) also points to the importance of the teachers' projection of enthusiasm.

The Number of Students in the Classroom. The number of students in the classroom will play a significant role. On my practice it has shown that classes with fewer students are more beneficial to learning than classes with larger numbers of students. The teachers can recognize the students easily and the material will likely be taught more effectively when the class size is relatively small (no more 10 pupils).

Motivation (extrinsic): Students who are given continuing, appropriate encouragement to learn by their teachers and parent will generally fare better than those who aren't. For example students from families that place little importance on language learning are likely to progress less quickly.

Access to native speakers: the opportunity to interact with native speakers both within and outside of the classroom is a significant advantage. Native speakers are linguistic models and can provide appropriate feedback. Clearly, foreign language learners who have no extensive access to native speakers are likely to make slower progress, especially in the oral aspects of language acquisition.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers should recognize that all students possess positive and negative attitudes in varying degrees, and that the negative ones can be changed by thoughtful instructional methods, such as using materials and activities that help students achieve an “understanding and appreciation of the foreign culture.

Chapter II. 2. Internal factors in language learning.

Internal factors are those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation. Internal variables imply cognitive and affective factors such as motivation, intelligence, anxiety, risk-taking ability, personality, aptitude, attitude, learning strategies and etc.

Age. Foreign Language Acquisition is influenced by the age of the learner. Children who already have steadfast literacy skills in their own language, seem to be in the best position to acquire a new language efficiently. Motivated older learners can be very successful too, but usually struggle to achieve native-speaker-equivalent pronunciation and intonation. Adults are superior to children in rate of acquisition. Older children learn more rapidly than younger children. With regards to morphology and syntax, the adolescents do best, followed by the adults and then the children. Grammar differences diminish over time, and children begin to catch up, but adults outperform children in the short term. Where pronunciation is concerned, adults do not always progress more rapidly than children do.

If we take into account all facilities about age, we can come as a conclusion like:

1. Adults have an initial advantage where degree of learning is concerned, especially in grammar. They will eventually be overtaken by children who receive enough exposure to the foreign language.
2. Only child learners are capable of acquiring native accent in informal contexts,

even though some children who receive enough exposure still do not achieve a native-like accent.

3. The critical period for grammar is about 15 years. Under this period learners may acquire native grammatical competence.
4. Children are more likely to reach higher levels of attainment in both grammar and pronunciation than adults.
5. The process of acquiring foreign language grammar is not substantially affected by age, but pronunciation may be.

Personality. Introverted or anxious learners usually make slower progress, particularly in the development of oral skills. They are less likely to take advantage of opportunities to speak, or to seek out such opportunities. More outgoing students will not worry about the inevitability of making mistakes. They will take risks, and thus will give themselves much more practice. Personality factors are self-esteem, risk-taking, anxiety, tolerance of ambiguity etc.

Self-esteem is the judgment or opinion we hold about ourselves. It's the extent to which we perceive ourselves to be worthwhile and capable human beings. Self-esteem is made up of all the experiences and relationships we've had in our lives. Everyone we've ever met has added or taken away from how we see ourselves. Self-esteem can be changed and changed at any age.

People with high self-esteem:

- Like to meet new people
- Don't worry about how others will judge them
- Have the courage to express themselves
- Lives' are enriched with each new encounter
- Are nicer to be around
- Ideas are met with interest because others want to hear what they have to say.
- Are magnets to positive opportunities
- Have an " I THINK I CAN" attitude!!!!

People with low self-esteem:

- Don't believe in themselves

- See themselves failing before they even begin
- Have a hard time forgiving their mistakes and make themselves pay the price forever
- Believe they can never be as good as they should be or as good as others
- Are afraid to show their creativity because they will be ridiculed
- Are dissatisfied with their lives
- Spend most of their time alone
- Complain and criticize
- Worry about everything and do nothing
- Have an “I CAN’T DO IT” attitude

Risk-taking willingness to take risks. Good language learners: willing to guess, to appear foolish in order to communicate, and to use what knowledge they do have of the TL in order to create novel utterances.

Tolerance of ambiguity: Significant correlations: a language learner is confronted with many stimuli, many of which are ambiguous: persons with a low tolerance of ambiguity experience frustration and diminished performance. They make frequent appeals to authority.

Aptitude. Aptitudes are natural talents, special abilities for doing, or learning to do, certain kinds of things easily and quickly. They have little to do with knowledge or culture, or education, or even interests. They have to do with heredity. Musical talent and artistic talent are examples of such aptitudes. Some people can paint beautifully but cannot carry a tune. Others are good at talking to people but slow at paperwork. Still others can easily repair a car but find writing difficult. These basic differences among people are important factors in making one person satisfied as a banker, another satisfied as an engineer, and still another satisfied working as an editor. Our aptitude testing will identify your natural abilities. The individual who knows his own aptitudes, and their relative strengths, chooses more intelligently among the world's host of opportunities.

In everyday language, aptitude is usually defined as a natural or inherent talent for a certain skill or activity. For example, we often talk about a student’s

aptitude for learning languages, a child's aptitude for drawing, a mother's aptitude for crossword puzzles or even a husband's aptitude for golf! Another way of thinking about aptitude is as a competency – whether innate, acquired or developed –for a certain type of work and this competency can be physical or mental. In the field of intelligence, aptitude is often considered to represent specific subsets of mental ability which provides useful information on an individual's potential, particularly with regards to education and employment.

According to Carroll (1991) aptitude consists of four sub-components:

- phonetic coding ability (capacity for sound discrimination and to code foreign sounds in such a way that they can be later recalled) it varies between individuals, but this variation does not correlate with language learning success.
- Associative memory (ability to make links or connections between stimuli and responses, for example native language words and foreign language equivalents, and to develop the strength of such bonds).

Nowadays associative memory is not so important, and the capacity to memorize more auditorily complex material and the capacity to impose organization and structure on the material are more powerful predictors of language learning success

- Grammatical sensitivity (ability to understand the contribution that words make in sentences. It emphasizes recognition of function, rather than explicit representation)
- Inductive language analytic ability (ability to examine a corpus of language material and from this to notice and identify patterns of correspondence and relationships. Ability to identify pattern, particularly in verbal material, whether this involves implicit or explicit rule representation)

Motivation. The study of motivation has been a prominent area for research in psychology and education for many years. Many studies have confirmed that motivation correlates strongly with proficiency, indicating both that successful

learners are motivated and that success improves motivation. Motivation has been recognized as an important variable determining foreign language achievement and attainment for a long time. Motivation is believed to act as an engine generating learning and then propelling students forward helping them overcome the difficulties they encounter in learning a foreign language [Cheng and Dornyei, 2007; Dornyei and Csizer, 1998]. Brown [2007] considers motivation as an affective factor that plays a central role in learning a second or foreign language. Cohen [2010] sees motivation as a dynamic process that is not stable but is in a continuous change.

Intrinsic motivation has been found to correlate strongly with educational achievement. Clearly students who like the language learning and take pride in their progress will do better than those who don't. Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself.

Extrinsic motivation is also a significant factor. ESL students, for example, who need to learn English in order to study or work in abroad are likely to make greater efforts and thus greater progress. Extrinsic motivation is fueled by the anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback.

Attitude. Attitude is a complex mental state involving beliefs, feelings values and dispositions to act in certain ways. Language learners' attitudes toward the language being learned, likewise, can have a significant impact on FLA . Where the community has a broadly negative view of the target language and its speakers, or negative view of its relations to them, learning is typically much more difficult (Gardner, 1985; "Attitude" 2009). According to Siegel (2003), motivation is affected by learners' attitudes toward the L2, its speakers, and the speakers' culture.

Experiences. Learners who have acquired general knowledge and experience are in a stronger position to develop a new language than those who haven't. The student, for example, who has already lived in different countries and been exposed to various languages and cultures has a stronger base for learning a further

language than the student who hasn't had such experiences.

Cognition. In general, it seems that students with greater cognitive abilities will make the faster progress. Some specialists believe that there is a specific, innate language learning ability that is stronger in some students than in others. A **cognitive strategy** serves to support the learner as he or she develops internal procedures that enable him/her to perform tasks that are complex (Rosenshine, 1997). The use of cognitive strategies can increase the efficiency with which the learner approaches a learning task. These academic tasks can include, but are not limited to, remembering and applying information from course content, constructing sentences and paragraphs, editing written work, paraphrasing, and classifying information to be learned.

Native language. Students who are learning a foreign language which is from the same language family as their first language have, in general, a much easier task than those who aren't. So, for instance a Russian child will learn English more quickly and easier than an Uzbek child.

Conclusion on Chapter II

As we analyzed above there are two kinds of factors that influencing learning a foreign language: external which characterized reflection to the learner by outside (social class, ethnic identity, teacher behavior, culture and status, attitude, age, sex, extrinsic motivation and etc.), and internal those that the individual language learner brings with him or her to the particular learning situation (personality, self-esteem, risk-taking, experience, native language, cognition, aptitude, attitude, motivation and many others). Clearly some language learners are successful by means of their absolute determination, hard work and explicitness. However there are other decisive factors influencing success that are largely beyond the control of the learner. These factors can be broadly categorized as external and internal factors. It is their complex interaction that defines the speed and opportunity with which the new language is learnt.

The influence of these factors are very important and teachers in methodology should pay attention on them. It is teachers duty to create motivation and positive attitude towards the learner to their subject. At the beginning of our work we mentioned that we should identify the answer for three basic questions: *What* exactly does the language learner come to know? *How* does the learner acquire this knowledge? *Why* are some learners more (or less) successful than others? In this chapter we have found the answers for some of them, especially the question *Why* are some learners more (or less) successful than others? This is related to the factors which we looked through above.

Chapter III. Practical aspects of foreign language learning.

At the beginning of this chapter we will show how to make easy to learn foreign language, there are three keys of it: PRACTICE, PRACTICE and again PRACTICE!!!

What does learning a language involve? Obviously, a rapid and definitive answer cannot be provided for this question since this aspects and situations affecting language learning are many and varied. From the role of culture to use of new technologies in foreign language learning, this work aims to offer its readers some of the current research being carried out in pedagogical areas.

III. 1. Practical Value of Learning strategies.

Learning is the act of acquiring new, or modifying and reinforcing, existing knowledge, behaviors, skills, values or preferences and may involve synthesizing different types of information. The ability to learn is possessed by humans, animals and some machines. Progress over time tends to follow learning curves. Within the field of education over the last few decades a gradual but significant shift has taken place, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning.

WHAT ARE LEARNING STRATEGIES?

- Thoughts and actions that assist learning tasks.
- Ways to understand, remember, and recall information.
- Ways to practice skills efficiently.
- Learning strategies are powerful.
- They help language learners become independent learners.
- They help language learners make the most of the English they have.

There are different types of strategies, as a teacher we should choose and advice the most appropriate variation for our learner:

- Build on students' current learning strategies.
- Demonstrate how to use the learning strategy by modeling.

- Give the strategy a name.
- Provide ample practice opportunities.

It has been considered that there are three types of Learning Strategies. They are:

1. *Metacognitive Strategies:*

- Matching thinking and problem solving strategies to particular learning situations
- Clarifying purposes for learning
- Monitoring one's own comprehension through self-questioning
- Taking corrective action if understanding fails

2. *Cognitive Strategies*

- Helping students organize the information they are expected to learn through the process of self-regulated learning.
- Directly related to individual learning task; students apply a specific technique to a learning task.

For example: Rereading, Highlighting, Mapping information, Taking notes, Graphic organizers, Visualization

3. *Social/Affective Strategies*

When you use social/affective strategies, you are thinking about how you feel about your language learning and you are working with other people to learn .

- Interaction
- Questioning
- Clarification
- Cooperative Learning Groups
- Self-talk

At this point we have a question why we teach learning strategies for our pupils or students, there are such kind of reasons:

- Show students how to be better learners.
- Build students' self-efficacy.

- Increase student motivation for learning.
- Help students become reflective and critical thinkers

A *Learning Strategy* is a person's approach to learning and using information. Students use Learning Strategies to help them understand information and solve problems:

- Students who do not know or use good learning strategies often learn passively and ultimately fail in school.
- Learning Strategy instruction focuses on making students more active
- Learners by teaching them how to learn and how to use what they have learned to be successful.

Here we look through some of this strategies:

Strategies related to reading. The Inference Strategy is a set of procedures readers can use to comprehend written passages and answer inferential questions (questions that are not answered directly in the text). Research results showed that students who learned the Inference Strategy improved their ability to make inferences and to identify different types of questions.

The Paraphrasing Strategy. The Paraphrasing Strategy is designed to help student focus on the most important information in a passage. Students read short passages of materials, identify the main idea and details, and rephrase the content in their own words. After learning the strategy, these students comprehended 84 percent of the material.

The Self-Questioning Strategy. The Self-Questioning Strategy helps students create their own motivation for reading. Students create questions in their minds, predict the answers to those questions, search for the answers to those questions as they read, and paraphrase the answers to themselves.

Lincs Vocabulary strategy. The LINC'S Vocabulary Strategy helps students learn the meaning of new vocabulary words using powerful memory-enhancement techniques.

Paired associates strategy. The Paired Associates Strategy is designed to help students learn pairs of informational items, such as names and events, places and events, or names and accomplishments. Students identify pairs of items, create mnemonic devices, create study cards, and use the study cards to learn the information.

Cooperative Thinking Strategies. Students working together in teams use the THINK Strategy to systematically solve problems. Our research studied the use of this strategy in situations in which school improvement goals targeted problem solving, reasoning, and communicating.

Learn strategy. The LEARN Strategy was designed to enable students to work in teams to learn together. Each step promotes creative cooperation; students think together to generate ideas to help them learn.

Build strategy. Students use the BUILD Strategy to work together to resolve a controversial issue. The purpose of the strategy is to enable students to work together to make decisions using a process similar to a debate.

Taking notes together. Taking Notes Together is a program that can be used to teach students a simple strategy for taking notes in response to a variety of stimuli, including lectures, demonstrations, movies/videotapes, and reading assignments.

Understanding learners.

As a teacher, in order to help our learners, firstly, we should understand them. Understanding learners is very important when teaching a Foreign Language. During the period of my practices at school I found that it would be more successful, if I know and understand my pupils well. Some of the most important things to understand are: learners' language level, their interests, the kinds of activities they enjoy doing and how they learn best (by hearing, by seeing, by doing, etc.)

It is important for the teacher to receive regular feedback from his/her learners. This feedback will help the teacher to plan future lessons which will help the learners make progress. The feedback will also help the teacher prepare lessons

which are enjoyable for the students and this should motivate them to take part in the classes and learn more quickly.[28,38]

Activity: Using a feedback questionnaire

This activity should help the teacher to understand his/her learners. The activity can be adapted for the beginning, middle or end of a course, term or school year. In general it is good idea to seek regular feedback from students. With young children the questionnaire should be simpler. The children can draw smiling faces or sad faces in response to simple questions. If the learners have a very low level of English, the questions can be written in their first language. Even with young children, it is a good idea to ask their opinion how they feel about the work the teacher is doing, it can be also useful to improve the learners' critical thinking.

- Make a worksheet like the one below
- Give it to the learners
- Read the feedback they give you
- Use this to help you plan future lessons.

The worksheet has the following sentences written on it:

1. Name
2. In class, I like
3. In class, I don't like
4. My favorite activity is
5. When we do speaking activities do you prefer working in pairs, in small groups, or with the whole class?	
6. Please complete the two sentences below: In future lessons, I hope we.....	
In future lessons, I hope we do not.....	

No two learners are the same. It is important to get to know learners as individuals as far as possible so that we can understand them better. A better

understanding of their preferences helps teachers to help them to learn and acquire the language. Some learners prefer working individually while others prefer working in pairs or in groups. As a teacher we should make sure that we have a variety of grouping formations in each lesson so that all of the learners are happy. The teacher should not always put the same students together in pairs or groups. All students should get to know each other and interact with different individuals. It is important to think about interaction patterns as well as grouping – for example, who speaks to who in a speaking lesson. Variety is important here too. Every learner must have an opportunity for participating but no learner should feel uncomfortable. The best way of understanding learners is by asking the right questions. It must be simple and informal questionnaire as we showed above, in order to find out more about learners.

III.2. Results and Discussion

According to Chujo (2005) vocabulary size, text lengths, and sample size affect the stability of text coverage and define relevant parameters. In this case, a teacher should not place sole attention on internal and external factors; they should also focus on the forms and face validity of the vocabulary lesson itself. This research aims to establish the internal and external factors that influence difficulties in learning English as a Foreign Language in Uzbekistan and their significance toward the students' English language learning. It focuses on factors, influencing difficulties in learning English language especially vocabulary (because of its difficulty for learners) faced by seventh grade pupils in Ferghana Region, Altyarik District, School № 6. Children are taught English vocabulary at school. However, they still find it hard to learn. There are so many factors influencing these difficulties that they need to be analyzed deeper. The causes of the difficulties can be from the pupils themselves or from the external factors, such as the teacher or the educational environment. This study aims to find out the difficult factors that hinder secondary students in learning English vocabulary. Children are always need to be introduced to basic vocabulary with the right guidance from educators. It is so important since vocabulary is a vital part of

communicating well in English. By knowing the different factors that impede students in learning English vocabulary, it is anticipated that educators can address the difficult factors and help students more effectively learn English vocabulary.

Method

The participants were seventh grade pupils of school №.6 who are learning English vocabulary at the basic level. One class took part, consisting of 35 pupils. To address the research objectives of the study the following instrument were used:

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to get detailed information about each student regarding their difficulties in learning English vocabulary.

Findings and Discussion

The questionnaires highlight the following questions:

- (1) How do the pupils understand vocabulary learning?
- (2) What are the problems the subjects think in their vocabulary learning?
- (3) What are the aim of learning vocabulary?

All the questions are written in English. In bracket, Uzbek versions for the questions are provided so that the subjects can understand the English questions well. All the questions are closed ones for the sake of the objectivity of the study. Therefore, quantitative approach is used to analyze the data collected from the questionnaires. [table 1,2,3]

After being calculated, we achieve the following results:

1. There is a significant positive correlation between the internal factors (especially motivation and memory) and the students' vocabulary grade. In short, the more students have problems in the internal factors, the more they have problems in their vocabulary test.

2. External factors (vocabulary difficulties), is positively correlated to the students' grade. The result was significant. In this case, this suggests that the less difficulty students face, the better grade they will get.

3. The second external factor is the concrete and abstract vocabularies. It is also correlated to the students' grade and the result is positively significant. If the students learn concrete vocabularies, they will get better marks in vocabulary tests, whereas if they learn abstract ones, students will get lower marks.

4. The third external factor that is the number of students in the classroom. It is exactly the same as the standard of (probability), but it is still considered significant. To sum up, the fewer students in the classroom, the better grade they are likely to get. On the other hand, the bigger number of students in the classroom, the lower grade they tend to get.

5. The last external factor is the Educational Environment. It is also positively correlated to students' grade. It is still considered significant. If the educational environment, like the teacher, is supportive enough, the better grade students will get.

6. And we also correlate both the external and the internal factors to students' grade. As a result, we have combined both of the factors and get the result. This is positively significant indeed because both of the factors really influence the difficulties of vocabulary learning of the seventh grade at Altyarik School . The conclusion is that the fewer students find difficulties in terms of external and internal factors, the better grade they will get.

In addition, based on the questionnaire distributed to the students, we have found the following:

A. Internal factors relate to the intrinsic motivation of the students. This consists of:

➤ Students' desire to learn English. Some students like to learn English; others do not

- Students' limited attention span/concentration . Many students could not concentrate fully on the lesson. It is understandable as a result, the teacher needs to be more creative in the teaching and learning process.
- Students' willingness to get a good grade. Some students admit that they are trying hard to get good grade since their parents will give them rewards.

Furthermore, based on the interview with the teacher, we have found the following:

B. External factors that influence students' learning vocabulary are:

- Concrete/abstract vocabulary. The teacher identified that the students found it hard when they had to understand abstract vocabulary. That is why the teacher needs to explain it in simple words, or by demonstrating with a miniature. For things that the students could touch and see (concrete vocabulary), they understood the concepts much more easily.
- The number of students in the classroom. The teacher admitted that having a large number of students in the classroom made him frustrated since students were noisy, difficult to handle, and had limited attention spans.

How to help children with learning difficulties

Children who have learning difficulties are not lacking in intelligence, but instead have not be instructed in ways that do not match the way they learn. In my practice with pupils I witnessed that the most of things are related to the teacher. As a teacher of my group, it's my responsibility to create the best environment for learning that I can. This can be a challenge, but remembering some key points about how children learn can help along the way:

Children learn best when:

- ❖ they are excited and motivated to listen and learn
- ❖ they have the opportunity for success
- ❖ the activity has an element of surprise
- ❖ the activity is tangible and active
- ❖ the activity is relevant to their own lives
- ❖ the facilitator provides open-ended questions

- ❖ the facilitator understands the audience, and adjustments when needed

Conclusion on chapter III

The conclusions from the results above is that there are both internal and external factors that influence difficulties in vocabulary learning; both correlate to the students' grade. If their difficulties in learning English is not significant, automatically their grade will be high. On the other hand, if students find difficulties more often, their grade will be lower. Both have positive correlations to the students' grade on English vocabulary testing.

Getting involved in education is very demanding. Every person needs education and educators need to provide proper guidance in the teaching and learning process. The world of education needs teachers who are aware of the difficulties faced by their students in learning something; in this case, English vocabulary. We need to know what factors hamper students in learning English and hope that the teachers can minimize these difficulties and direct the pupils to the correct way of learning language. Learning Strategies are playing an important role to improve their autonomy. That is why paying attention to the students' difficulties in learning English is worth doing. It is recommended that similar studies are conducted to determine whether there are other factors apart from motivation and the educational environment that influence students' learning. Similar studies need to be conducted to know all factors that influence difficulties in learning English vocabulary and their influence on the students' grade of vocabulary English testing for the sake of knowledge contributions in applied linguistics.

Conclusion

Today the world is changing in every breath we take and we live in the century of globalization. In such an globalization period , the importance of learning a foreign language becomes self-evident. That said, there is another reason supporting the importance of learning a foreign language. Scientific studies have shown that learning a language improves brain function and stimulates creativity. When we know a new language, we start to see connections we didn't see before because every language approaches the world in a slightly way. As a result we have the opportunity to understand the world from the perspective of another culture and gain a greater appreciation of human society in all its diversity. As a consequence, the importance of learning a foreign language is again reinforced. We become not just equipped to communicate across cultures but empowered to understand others' points of view.

In order to build a modern developed country we should stay equal with other nationality, it depends us learning and understand foreign language, especially the world Language English. It can give us especially young generation a great deal of opportunity to open the world door. The aim of our research was to identify the importance of learning Foreign Language and the factors which influence of learning.

Foreign Language Acquisition is the process by which people learn a Foreign Language. FLA is also scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. There are numbers of factors that influence foreign language learning.

The conclusions from the results of questionnaire above is that there are both internal and external factors that influence difficulties in learning language both correlate to the students' grade. If their difficulties in learning English is not significant, automatically their grade will be high. On the other hand, if students find difficulties more often, their grade will be lower. Both have positive correlations to the students' grade on English vocabulary testing.

Getting involved in education is very demanding. Every person needs education and educators need to provide proper guidance in the teaching and learning process. The world of education needs teachers who are aware of the difficulties faced by their students in learning something; in this case, English vocabulary. We need to know what factors hamper students in learning English and hope that the teachers can minimize these difficulties and direct the pupils to the correct way of learning language. Learning Strategies are playing an important role to improve their autonomy. That is why paying attention to the students' difficulties in learning English is worth doing. It is recommended that similar studies are conducted to determine whether there are other factors apart from motivation and the educational environment that influence students' learning. Similar studies need to be conducted to know all factors that influence difficulties in learning English vocabulary and their influence on the students' grade of vocabulary English testing for the sake of knowledge contributions in applied linguistics.

Bibliography

1. Каримов. И.А. *Без исторической памяти нет будущего.* – В кн. *Своё будущее мы строим своими руками*, Т. 7. Т., Узбекистан, 1999.
2. Каримов И.А. *Либерализация общества, углубление реформ, повышение духовности и уровня жизни народа – критерий и цель всей нашей деятельности.* // Собр. соч. -т.15 –Ташкент: “Ўзбекистон”, 2007.С.154-155.
3. Каримов И. А. *Юксак маънавият – энгилмас куч.* Тошкент: “Маънавият”, 2008. –Б.138
4. Austin J.L *How to do things with Words?* Oxford University Press 1962
5. Bilsborough K. *Understanding Learners: Preferences* 2016 Language and Literature teaching.p39
6. Bloom. L. *Language Development: Form and function in emerging grammars.* Cambridge Press 1970., p
7. Brown, Henry D. (2000) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.* 4th ed. London:Longman. Pp 104-105, 162
8. Brown, Henry D. (2002). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.* New York: Longman.pp 24,278,281,285-286
9. Cohen, Andrew D. (1998) *Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language.* London:Longman.
10. Dulay H, M. Burt, S. Krashen, *Foreign Language Study*,. Oxford University Press 1982., p.
- 11.Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt and Stephen Krashen (1982). *Language Two.* New York: OUP. Pp 11-45
12. Dulay.H.C, Burt M.K. *Errors and Strategies in child Second Language Acquisition.* 1974. Pp85-105
- 13.Ellis. R. *The Study of second Language Acquisition* 1999 pp 15-21, 197-201, 295-297.

14. Ergasheva G. *Ingliz tilida ta'limiy o'yinlardan foydalanish*. 2016. Language and Literature teaching. P 28-29
15. Grauberg W. *The Elements of Foreign Language Teaching*. 1997. Pp 56-78
16. Holec, Henri (1981) *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
17. Howatt, A.P.R. (1984). *A History of English Language Teaching*. Oxford: OUP.p 279
18. Kadrlar tayyorlash milliy dasturi. Toshkent, 1997.
19. Krashen, Stephen D. and Tracy D. Terrell (1983). *The Natural Approach. Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon Press. Pp 28-38
20. Lightbown, Patsy M. and Nina Spada (1995). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: OUP. Pp25-27
21. Little, David (1991) *Learner autonomy 1: Definitions, issues and problems*, Dublin: Authentik.
22. Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: CUP. Pp1-7
23. Meliyeva Sh Interfaol usul- iqtidorni yuzaga chiqarish omili.2013. Xalq ta'limi jurnali, 89-90 b
24. Nunan, D. (1991) *Language Teaching Methodology – A textbook for teachers*, Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.
25. Richards, J.C. and T.S. Rodgers (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP. Pp. 64-72
26. Searle J. *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge University Press 1969
27. Thomson K. *Understanding learners: Getting Feedback*.2016 Language and Literature teaching.p38

Internet resources:

1. www.bu.edu/linguistics/UG/course/lx400/.../lx400-2a-history.pdf
2. <http://www.celea.org.cn/2007/keynote/ppt/Merrill>
3. www.bu.edu/linguistics/UG/course/lx400/.../lx400-2a-history.pdf
4. <http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/fis/scaffold/page1.htm>
5. <http://ojs.academypublisher.com/index.php/tpls/article/view/tpls020510271032>
6. <http://www.bloomsbury-international.com/blog/2013/09/13/importance-of-learning-a-second-language/>
7. <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Lessard-Clouston-Strategy.html>
8. <http://www.peterlang.com/index.cfm?event=cmp.ccc.seitenstruktur.detailseiten&seitentyp=produkt&pk=50503>
9. <http://www.nclrc.org/guides/HED/chapter3.html>
10. <http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/support/factors.htm>
11. <http://article.sciencepublishinggroup.com/html/10.11648.j.ijll.20150305.16.html>
12. <http://amuziyo.uz/ru/news/show/3>
13. http://epubs.scu.edu.au/asdu_pubs/9/

Appendix

Table (1).

Questionnaire 1

Question 1. In your opinion, what is the position of vocabulary in English learning?(Fikringizcha, ingliz tilini o'rganishda lug'atning o'rni qanday?)

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------|-------|
| ✓ Very important | (juda muhim) | 54% |
| ✓ Important | (muhim) | 31.3% |
| ✓ Not important | (muhim emas) | 14.7% |

Question 2. What contents does vocabulary learning refer to?

(lug'at o'rganish nimalarni o'z ichiga olishga tayanadi?)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| ✓ Pronunciation and spelling of words (so'zlarni talaffuzi va yozish qoidasi) | 28% |
| ✓ Pronunciation, spelling and the meaning in the word list (so'zlarning talaffuzi, yozish qoidasiva ma'nolari) | 36.7% |
| ✓ Collocations of words (so'zlarni joylashtirish) | 24% |
| ✓ All the meanings related to the item (mavzuga doir barcha ma'nolar) | 11.3% |

Question 3. What is the difficulty in vocabulary learning?

(Fikringizcha so'z o'rganishdagi qiyinchilik nimada?)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| ✓ Pronunciation (Talaffuzda) | 12% |
| ✓ Spelling (Yozish qoidasida) | 22% |
| ✓ Meaning (Ma'nosida) | 41.3% |
| ✓ Word collocations (so'z joylashtirishda) | 24.7% |

Table (2).

Questionnaire 2

Question 4. “How do you usually learn vocabulary?”

(odatda soʻzlarni qanday yod olasiz?)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| ✓ By reading repeatedly (takror oʻqish orqali) | 28.4% |
| ✓ By writing automatically (avtomatik tarzda yozish orqali) | 34.8% |
| ✓ By analyzing affixes and roots (qoʻshimcha va asos qismlarni tahlil qilgan holda) | 23.6% |
| ✓ By association (birlashtirish orqali) | 10.8% |
| ✓ By keeping word cards with pictures, photographs, objects, etc. (rasmlar, rasimli kartochkalar va buyumlar yigʻish orqali) | 2.4% |

Question 5. How do you feel learning English vocabulary? (inglizcha soʻzlarni oʻrganishda oʻzingizni qanday xis qilasiz?)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------|
| ✓ Headache (bosh ogʻrishi) | 36% |
| ✓ Boring (zerikish) | 45.3 % |
| ✓ Interesting (qiziqarli) | 12% |
| ✓ Very interesting(juda qiziq) | 6.7% |

Question 6. Which of the words below you prefer to learn by heart?

(quyidagi qatordagi qaysi soʻzlarni yodlashni afzal koʻrasiz?)

- | | |
|---|-------|
| ✓ Relationship, house, cucumber (qarindoshlik, uy, bodring) | 29.5% |
| ✓ Peach, war, feeling (shaftoli, urush, sezish) | 17.8% |
| ✓ Book, phone, strawberry (kitob, telefon, qulpnay) | 38.5% |
| ✓ Memory, attention, silence (xotira, diqqat, osoyishtalik) | 14,2% |

Table(3).

Questionnaire 3

Question 7. Why do you like your English lesson?

(nima uchun ingliz tili darsini yoqtirasiz?)

- | | |
|--|--------|
| ✓ The teacher is very kind (o'qituvchi juda yaxshi munosabatda) | 27.6% |
| ✓ There are a lot of equipment in your English room (ingliz tili xonasida judayam ko'p ko'rgazmali qurollar bor) | 35.9% |
| ✓ Speaking English is very interesting (ingliz tilida gaplashish juda qiziq) | 16.5 % |
| ✓ You can play different games (turli xil o'yinlarni o'ynashingiz mumkin) | 26% |

Question 8. Do your parents help with learning the new words?

(ota-onangiz yangi so'zlarni yodlashingizda yordam berishadimi?)

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------|
| ✓ Sometimes (ba'zan) | 41.3% |
| ✓ Always (har doim) | 34.9% |
| ✓ Never (hech qachon) | 9.8% |
| ✓ Rarely (kamdan-kam) | 14% |

Question 9. What is the reason of learning vocabulary?

(lug'at yodlashingizni sababi nima?)

- | | |
|---|-------|
| ✓ To get good marks (Yaxshi baho olish) | 61.8% |
| ✓ It is very enjoyable (bu juda zavqli) | 7.8% |
| ✓ Your teacher is very strict (o'qituvchingiz juda qattiqo'l) | 15.9% |
| ✓ Not to get bad marks (yomon baho olmaslik uchun) | 14.5% |