# Factors That Contribute to Success in Learning English as a Foreign Language

# Dr. Mounawar Alsayed Faculty of Arts and Humanities Damascus University

## **Abstract**

This study is a trial to investigate some factors that contribute to success in learning English as a foreign language. Five variables have been investigated: motivation, early exposure to English, attitude, early first language acquisition and social background. Instrumental Motivation is found to have the highest correlation with achievement in a foreign language followed by social background. Early exposure to English seems to be a good predictor for success in oral skills, so does early first language acquisition. Attitude, however, doesn't seem to be a good predictor for achievement in English as a foreign language. Some implications for teaching English have been drawn.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Improving the teaching of a foreign language is very much based on our understanding of the process of language learning; and a good background for such an understanding can be the successful language learner. Some people learn languages very quickly. They are said to have the ear for languages, others spend a long time trying to learn a language without good progress. Children also differ greatly in first language acquisition; some start talking at nine months, others don't say a word by two. The question that poses itself here is: what are the characteristics that characterise the good language learner?

There hasn't been an abundance of research on identifying characteristics, strategies and techniques of successful language learners through actual observation or interview (Rubin, 1975, Stern, 1975, Wesche, 1975, Naiman *et al* 1995). Among cognitive characteristics, language learning aptitude was studied by Carroll in the fifties. The result was the following: Two aptitude tests, one for adults, the Modern Language Aptitude Test (Carroll and Sapon 1959) and the other to children, the Elementary Modern language Aptitude Test (Carroll and Sapon 1967), and a similar test at high school level by Pimsleur, the language Aptitude Battery.

Naiman *et al* 1995 identified several principal concepts of language learning :

Context , learner(intelligence, language aptitude, past experience, age, sex, personality, motivation, attitude, cognitive characteristics), L2 teaching, L2 environment, learning (unconscious processes, conscious strategies and techniques, affective component) and outcome. Most of the above listed concepts were studied by researchers, but no research was conclusive: the student's sex (Burstall et al, 1974), age (Krashen et al 1979) and language aptitude (Carroll and Sapon 1967). The factors of attitude and motivation have been investigated more thoroughly. Gardner and Lambert (1972) reported that these two factors have a great influence on second language acquisition.

The following part sheds some light on some important factors in second language learning.

#### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review is intended to shed some light on important factors in foreign language learning:

#### 2.1 CONTEXT

During the past 40 years, there have been important shifts in how language educators have viewed context. The enduring issue has been the search for settings which could best promote language and culture learning. The central questions have been around the classroom as a learning setting as opposed to the "field", i.e., real world settings where the target language and culture are used. In the 1960s, many researchers and language educators believed that an understanding of context was crucial to language study, thus a lot of support was generated for experience-based learning such as study abroad programs and culture simulations in the classroom. The 1970s witnessed a shift toward cognitively-focused instruction with much less attention given to the role of context and experience in the learning process ( Edwards & Rehorick, 1990). From the 1980s up to the present time, much attention has been directed to context by language educators. Immersion schools, for example, represent an attempt to "contextualize" the learning environment (Moos & Trickett, 1987; Edwards & Rehorick, 1990). Study abroad programs, which have grown in popularity, constitute efforts to locate the language learner in the actual cultural context.

The methodology suggested by Crawford-Lange & Lange (1984), Kramsch (1993), Seelye (1984), and, particularly, Byram (1988) is anchored in three fundamental learning processes: (1) the learners' exploration of their own culture; 2) the discovery of the relationship between language and culture, and 3) the learning of the heuristics for analysing and comparing cultures. Meta-awareness and cross-cultural comparison lie at the heart of such a culture pedagogy. This implies providing opportunities for interaction such that "members of the host culture can impart their own epistemology, their own way of seeing things" (Jurasek, 1982, p.228) on the learner. More than twenty years ago, Robinson (1978) already pointed out that means are defined by their goal; if the goal is empathetic understanding of the people, it implies an "affective personal response" to real people (quoted in Robinson & Nocon, 1996, p. 435).

Hannigan (1990) found a strong relationship between successful intercultural communication and certain personal traits such as: cultural empathy, flexibility, organisational skills, and superior linguistic skills. But his study, like many others, could not demonstrate a causal relationship between the intercultural experience and the development of these qualities. Carlson *et al* (1991) conducted a longitudinal study of the long-term effects of the undergraduate study abroad experience involving 400 US and European students as well as a control group. They found, in addition to the language gains correlated with length of stay, that: (1) students who choose to study abroad differ in predictable ways from non study-abroad students by showing greater "cultural interest" and a lower "domestic orientation", (2) social and personal development are important parts of the international experience, and (3) participants in the study abroad program scored higher than the comparison group on cultural interest and "peace and co-operation" indicators.

Norton. B & Toohey. K (2001) concluded their study by saying that understanding good language learning requires attention to social practices in the contexts in which the individuals learn L2s. Other authors have theorised that the classroom as an artificial community can provide some unexpected benefits for language and culture learning (Mitchell, 1988; Kramsch, 1993). In particular, they hypothesise that the classroom is a protective environment where students can feel free to make mistakes without any lasting repercussions, in contrast to a student who is studying abroad and makes a mistake which can have enduring consequences. This protective setting enables students to safely experiment with the language and thus encourages them to make sense of the language and culture for themselves.

In the study of ESL classes in South Asia, Canagarajah (1993) found that the students felt alienated and negative towards the target language and culture. They discovered that this was due to the implicit Western bias of the materials and of the instructor, reinforced by the fact that the cultural context was never explicitly discussed. Consequently, the students felt anxious about and disconnected from the target language and culture. Because of the circumstances, these students indicated that they favoured the more traditional approach of memorising the grammar and vocabulary, presumably because it was a process which allowed them to

keep a certain distance from the language and the culture. The second language students' fear of being "absorbed" by the culture of the language they are studying is repeatedly brought up by researchers in the US and abroad (Hoffman, 1989). In another study, McGinnis (1994), found that differences between teacher and student expectations concerning what is "good teaching" entailed conflicting assumptions about what should be included in a language learning context, assumptions which greatly interfered with the learning process by obstructing student-teacher communication.

#### 2.2 MOTIVATION

The early work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), posited two major clusters of motivation indices: instrumental and integrative. Integrative motivation, the desire by the student to be liked by people in the target culture, is thought to have a major influence on language learning in the school setting. Byram (1994) after reviewing work by McDonough (1981) and Bley-Vroman (1989) pointed to the difficulty of inferring the causal relationship between language learning and motivation, arguing that high motivation may be a result of success in learning rather than the cause of that success. Burstall, *et al.* (1974), Backman (1976), and others have argued that high achievement causes positive attitudes and high motivation, while the Gardner (1985) model explicitly suggests reciprocity between these variables.

Martin and Laurie (1993) (p. 190) investigated the views of 45 students, enrolled in an intermediate level French course at Flinders University in South Australia, about the contribution of literary and cultural content to language learning. They found that the students' reasons for studying French "were more related to linguistic than cultural interests", with practical reasons such as oral proficiency, travel plans, and employment opportunities dominating the list. When asked specifically about the role of literature and culture as motivating factors, the "desire to study the French way of life" motivated nearly 90% of students. After discussing possible reasons for the students' "fear of literature" (p. 205), Martin and Laurie advanced the hypothesis of "culture anxiety" caused by the perceived lack of "cultural background to relate to a foreign literature" (p. 205) and proposed a methodology for presenting literature.

Robinson and Nocon (1996) reported on an ethnographic experiment in a 3rd semester Spanish at San Diego State University. They investigated the hypothesis that training in ethnographic techniques and a commitment to face-to-face contact would have a positive effect on students desire to study the language and use it to communicate. They started from three key assumptions: (1) students have a tendency to "separate the language from the culture of the people who use it and, by extension, from the people" (p. 434), a conclusion already arrived at by Hall and Ramirez (1993); (2) one should not assume that language students have an intrinsic motivation or desire to communicate (Robinson, 1981); and (3) that salience and exaggeration form a general frame of perception that even resists counter-evidence. Robinson and Nocon (1996) used a threefold methodology of in-classroom training, inthe-field interviews, and pre and post-surveys of the students. They found that the project had initiated "positive perceptual, affective and cognitive changes" for the students (p. 443) as evidenced by students' enhanced attitudes towards the study of Spanish and increased desire to communicate with local Spanish speakers, and by students' better understanding of their own culture and the lived culture of local Spanish speakers. Regarding motivation, the authors refer to the controversy in psychology surrounding motivational theory which consists of two competing sets of beliefs: (1) that by first changing the attitude, a behavioural change will follow, or (2) that by changing the behaviour, an attitudinal transformation will follow. They point out that the value of the ethnographic approach lies in its ability to satisfy both criteria by "structuring the environment to change both behaviour and attitude" (Robinson and Nocon 1996).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that one of the reasons why work on motivation in second language learning has been inconclusive is because motivation has been limited to social-psychological conceptualisations of the construct and also has been frequently confused with attitudes toward the target culture. This view has been contradicted by Tremblay and Gardner (1995), however, who feel it is based in part on a misunderstanding and resulting in a misrepresentation of the 'Gardnerian' model and research. Crookes and Schmidt (1991)

recommend that research should move away from self-report and correlational studies toward survey instruments, observational measures, ethnographic work, action research, and introspective measures, in addition to "true experimental studies" (p. 502). Two recent studies (Martin and Laurie, 1993; Robinson and Nocon, 1996) have attempted to improve the state of the art by systematically investigating student motivation for language and culture study.

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that the limiting nature of second-language studies of motivation makes imperative the examination of the construct from other areas of social and educational psychology. They also suggest that researchers should consider factors such as student interest, feedback effects, effects of student self-perceptions, and materials/syllabus design, in order to better understand and then improve language learning in the classroom. More recently, (Gardner and Macintyre 1993, Gardner and Tremblay 1994, Crookes and Schmidt 1991, Dornyei 1994, and Oxford and Shearin 1994), among others, have returned to the basic task of defining motivation, seeking to strengthen the theoretical basis for further study from inside or outside the second-language acquisition field.

An additional problem is the difficulty of generalising findings on motivation across languages because, as foreign language teachers well know, each language seems to carry its own "motivational baggage". Furthermore, the identification of factors making up motivation and its definition may still not be useful to teachers at all levels. What motivates students to begin L2 may be different from the factors leading them to continue language study, or to begin a third or fourth language where it is not required. Momber (1979) and Myers (1978) both found that students need high motivation to continue, but that motivation as a trait is highly unstable. In addition, they suggest that any research findings on motivation and continued language study are problematic due to the unreliability of self-report measures, which are so common in this type of research. The same student, for instance, may exhibit different motivation in different classrooms as a function of the particular characteristics (e.g., student composition, classroom climate, the teacher) that exist in each classroom.

Motivation can also change over time and vary by age. For instance, a student who begins studying Spanish initially because a friend is studying it, may continue into the second year due to family pressure to develop proficiency in the language, and may go on to a third year in order to travel in Latin America. Burstall, *et al.* (1974) ,studying children, adolescents, and adults, found age, in addition to experience and other personal variables, to be a significant factor in predicting differences in motivation.

#### 2.3 ATTITUDE

While motivation can, generally, be defined as the factor which impels the student to study a target language in the first place and to continue or to stop studying it, attitudes can be generally defined as the positive or negative feelings that students have toward the language, the language teacher, the language class, the culture(s) of people who speak that language, and the study of the language. While the concepts of motivation and attitudes are closely related, they appear to be different constructs in certain respects. By way of example, a student might be highly motivated to study a language and culture for instrumental reasons, which would not necessarily entail the development of positive attitudes towards the target culture. Beyond these conceptual distinctions lies a set of research questions regarding the complex relationship between motivation, attitudes, language learning, and behaviour (specifically, behaviour that is appropriate and effective in the target culture).

The theoretical possibility that linguistic experience and proficiency do not automatically lead to improved attitudes towards members of the target culture has been documented repeatedly since Tucker and D'Anglejan's (1971) well-known report on the Canadian St. Lambert immersion project. Massey (1986) also found that attitudes became more negative and motivation decreased the longer students studied the target language. He studied 236 sixth and seventh grade students in three schools who were currently studying French 40 minutes daily, but who had studied it only 20 minutes per day for the three years prior to the investigation. He administered the Gardner Attitude and Motivation Test Battery at the end of one academic year and again four weeks into the

following year; the scores became more negative over time in all the settings.

Hamers (1987) inquired as whether 5th, 6th, 9th, and 10th-grade students would improve attitudes and motivation if exposed to exchanges with French or English-speaking Quebecois students. She studied 24 classes (n=439) evenly divided between francophones and anglophones. Her two main findings were that inter-regional exchange affected students most positively at the secondary level, and that children from urban areas seemed to benefit less from any exchanges than children from rural areas. Durham study, it has been found that girls tended to be more positive in their attitudes toward the French, that the "better" classes had more positive attitudes, and that younger students seemed more prejudiced towards specific cultural groups than older students (Byram , 1988).

Stelly (1991), reporting on the effects of whole language approach using authentic French texts on student comprehension and attitude, found that the students' attitudes towards French culture did not significantly improve after a course, which exposed them to authentic materials in a learner-centred, communicative environment. Surprisingly, attitudes did significantly improve in the control group, a supposedly "traditional" classroom that had followed a regular syllabus. In fact, the control was preparing for an upcoming trip to France, many class members were going to go on the trip, and the teacher was using her own videos, photographs and cultural artefacts as a complement to text-based classroom activities. The findings, therefore, must be interpreted with great caution. Nocon (1991) found that while attitudes towards Spanish speakers did not usually change over the time, the existence of a foreign language requirement was correlated with negative attitudes towards the language and speakers of the language (quoted in Robinson and Nocon, 1996, pp. 432-34).

Contact with people from the target culture, either in the school setting or in the target culture, has been found to have a positive influence and improve attitudes under certain circumstances. Porebski and McInnis (1988), like Robinson and Nocon (1996), submit that increased contact leads to positive attitudes rather than the reverse. They followed almost 2,500 children for three years (1975-78) and found that middle-school-

age children who had daily contact with French peers in an "animator" program had a highly significant increase in contact with French peers outside the classroom from grade to grade, as well as higher listening and reading proficiency in French. The instruments used, a sociometric friendship-pattern scale and IEA French language achievement scales, are quite different from the usual self-report scales for measuring attitudes. The researchers operationalized 'positive attitudes' as the willingness of students to seek out speakers of the target culture for pleasure. Similarly, Park (1995) used as the measure of attitudes and motivation of adult learners their voluntary current and past contact with native speakers of the language being studied (Japanese or Korean), as recorded in journals kept over two years, reported in interviews, and noted on a contact questionnaire.

#### 2.4 OTHER FACTORS

A number of other learner factors have been examined, among them learning style (Reid, 1987; Dirksen, 1990), intelligence, previous language background, language aptitude, and strategy use. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) detail a "socio-education model" of second-language acquisition which suggests that all of these factors-and perhaps many others-influence linguistic and non-linguistic (presumably cultural) outcomes in formal and informal language acquisition contexts. The research on motivation and attitude seems to gravitate around the notion of 'contact' and its role in the embryonic stage of intercultural development. While causality is far from being unidirectional, more studies point to contact improving attitudes than vice-versa. It appears that favourable contact leads to the discovery of cultural similarities and of our common humanity (cf. Robinson and Nocon's approach). The question then becomes how to help learners move beyond this still ethnocentric stage of intercultural development and into the intercultural stages where acceptance of cultural differences is the norm.

Schumann (1978, 1986) examined the effects of personal variables such as relative status, congruence, attitude, integration, closed or open attitudes, amount of time in the culture, size of the learning group, and cohesiveness of the group on adult language learning. Schumann suggested three strategies taken by adult learners: total adoption of the target culture (assimilation), preservation of the home culture (total

rejection of the target culture), and "acculturation," which he defines as learning to function in the new culture while maintaining one's own identity. In the foreign-unlike the second-language classroom, the situation is slightly different, in that the need for assimilation or acculturation is practically non-existent, especially at beginning levels and in languages such as French or German where, as Byram and Morgan (1994) (p. 7) suggest that "understanding the target culture is appreciated, but generally only as a support to linguistic proficiency". In Spanish, by contrast, where the cultural reality is readily encountered, a different set of responses to culture learning may occur, ranging from a desire to know one's neighbour to a deliberate effort to keep members of the other culture at a safe distance (Robinson & Nocon, 1996).

Research on second language learning abilities has frequently ignored the role of the more subtle psychological processes involved. But viewing second language learning in real life context reminds us that for people who geographically exchange one culture for another, the task of learning a second language poses a challenge to the integrity of basic identifications. This act of stepping into a new world needs the ability to extend the self so as to take a new identity. This in turn demands a certain degree of psychic processes. Guiora, A.Z., et al (1972) say that empathy is "a process of comprehending in which a temporary fusion of self-object boundaries, as in the earliest pattern of object relation, permits an immediate emotional apprehension of the affective experience of another, this sensing being used by the cognitive functions to gain understanding of the other".

From the above literature review, it is clear that there is so much need for further investigation of factors that contribute to success in foreign language learning. The present study, therefore, attempts to investigate some of these factors.

## 3. THE PRESENT STUDY

In the present study, some factors have been examined to determine their correlation with success in second language learning: attitude, instrumental and intrinsic motivation, social background, early first language acquisition and early exposure to the second language. Determining successful language learners was done on basis of the subjects' IELTS scores. Some information on the test is presented in Appendix III.

#### 3.1 SUBJECTS

Fifty subjects were picked up from the British Council Records on basis of their IELTS test scores. Twenty-five subjects have taken mark 7 out of 9 or above in the exam, and twenty five have taken 5 and below in the IELTS during the years 2000/2001. Sex has not been taken into account, because the records showed a high percentage of male students especially among high achievers. The reason could be the fact that most of these were doctors intending to train in the UK. All subjects had between 12 and 15 years of English instruction. Their ages ranged between 22 and 25. The subjects had different academic backgrounds: (medicine, English, business, science and literature.).

## 3.2 RESEARCH TOOLS

The main research tool in the present study was a semi-structured interview with each of the subjects. The interviews lasted almost ten minutes each. To prevent any inhibition, the interviews were not recorded, the researcher took notes instead, and interviewees were encouraged to talk spontaneously, according to their own thoughts and experiences. (See appendix I for the questions asked.)

#### 3.3. PROCEDURES

Results were analyzed using Statistica (linear correlation matrix) to find out the correlation between each variable and the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). Then the correlation between each variable and the overall marks was also calculated.

The variables were calculated on a five- degree scale: very high-high- average- below average and weak. So a subject who was very highly motivated to improve his English, e.g, because his whole life and career depended on it, received a high mark( above 90%) in motivation.

See Appendix II for details of marks. The IELTS scores were calculated according to percentage.

#### 3.4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following variables were closely examined through the interviews:

- 1. Motivation.
- 2. Early exposure to English.
- 3. Attitude towards English people and culture.
- 4. Early first language acquisition.
- 5. Social background.

#### 3.4.1 Motivation:

Motivation seems to have a very high correlation with overall marks and marks in reading, writing and listening, but not as high in speaking (table 1). 90% of the high achievers had to get 7 or above in the IELTS in order to be able to continue their study in Britain. 83% of high achievers have managed to jump from level 6 to level 9 in just three months. They said they had no choice but study intensively to get up to such a level. 80% of the high achievers were doctors who had to get 7 to continue their training in Britain, and they managed to attain exactly this required score. 85% of the low achievers (5 and below in IELTS) reported that they were studying English because it is a world language and they might need it in prospective jobs or for immigration purposes. So it seems clear that instrumental motivation in this particular study is a high predictor of success in foreign language learning.

Table 1. Correlation between motivation and IELTS results

Subject	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Over all mark
Motivation	0.944	0.943	0.917	0.823	0.963

## 3.4.2 Early exposure to English:

A high correlation was found between early exposure to English and the listening and speaking marks. 90% of the subjects who had mark 7 or above in speaking and listening reported early exposure to English either at home, at school or having lived in an English speaking country during

early childhood. 87% of the Subjects who had very low marks in Speaking and listening, 4 or below, had very little exposure to English. Most came from villages and didn't even watch any English speaking programmes. So it is concluded that early exposure to language is an important factor in high achievement in aural skills, but has a low correlation with reading and writing (below 0.5). See table 2 below for details.

Table 2 Correlation between early exposure to English and IELTS results.

Subject	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Overall Mark
Early exposure to English	0.480	0.470	0.723	0.835	0.549

#### 3.4.3 Attitude:

This variable did not seem to have a high correlation with high performance. Low achievers seem to have a more positive attitude towards English people and culture. Few high achievers seem to have a very favorable attitude towards British people and culture. They wanted to continue their specialization in Britain because they thought British education was a very good education.

While many low achievers showed a favorable attitude towards British people and culture, saying that this is why they wanted to improve their English. The findings of this study seems to contradict with the findings of other studies like (Nocon 1991). The reason for this result can be the fact that the low achievers were mainly interested in immigrating to either Australia or Canada, and those definitely had a positive attitude towards the West in general and Britain as a western country. High achievers, on the other hand, were mostly doctors who thought of Britain as a place for study not for living permanently.

So according to the findings of the present study, attitude doesn't seem to be a key factor in high performance in English. It has a very low correlation with the overall mark and the four skills. Table 3 illustrates this low correlation.

Table 3. Correlation between attitude and IELTS results.

Subject	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Over all mark
---------	---------	---------	-----------	----------	---------------

Attitude 0.099 0.105 0.022 -0.002 0.084
---

## 3.4.4 First language acquisition:

Early first language acquisition correlated highly (0.74) with speaking, less highly (0.56) with listening. While the correlation with reading and writing was low (0.29 - 0.28). 70% of students who had 7 and above in speaking reported early first language acquisition. Their parents told them that they started talking in their first year. Their speech was quite accurate and their pronunciation was very good. While 75% of low achievers in speaking reported late first language acquisition. (See table 4 for details)

Table 4. Correlation between Early first language acquisition and the IELTS results.

Subject	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Over all mark
Early first language acquisition	0.285	0.293	0.561	0.730	0.361

This result is interesting but it needs further research, especially that not all subjects had an idea about their experience in first language acquisition( only 26 out of 50). If this result is validated by further research, it will prove that there is an aural inherent talent in human beings for learning languages. The question that poses itself then is whether we can promote this talent in the early years, and how this can affect foreign language learning.

### 3.4.5 Social background

Social background has a moderate correlation with subjects' high performance in the four skills and the overall mark. 50% of high performers reported that at least one of their parents spoke good English or French; both parents, or one of them is quite educated.

So a well-educated family plays a moderate role in success in learning a foreign language (table 5).

Table 5. Correlation between social background and IELTS results.

Subject	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	Over all
Social background	0.467	0.463	0.551	0.628	0.499

## **4 CONCLUSIONS**

The present study came up with the following findings

- 1. Motivation seems to be the most significant predictor of overall performance in English as a foreign language.
- 2. Attitude doesn't seem to correlate with high achievement in English as a foreign language.
- 3. Early first language acquisition correlates highly with aural skills, but has a relatively low correlation with reading and writing.
- 4. Early exposure to English has a high correlation with aural skills, but a lower correlation with reading and writing.
- 5. Social background has a moderate correlation with overall achievement in English as a foreign language.

## 5 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study show that motivation plays a very important role in success in learning English as a foreign language. We can enhance language learning through motivating students to get high marks. There seems to be a spiral relationship between motivation and success. If the student is more motivated, he will put in more effort, which will result in better achievement.



Initiating motivation is one thing and maintaining it is another huge task. That is why teachers have to experiment and come with new ideas that can involve the whole class.

So improving our students' motivation level is very important in the language classroom. This can be done through giving awards, increasing self esteem and confidence and trying to give them positive feedback, whenever possible, which will in turn communicate a sense of optimism. We have to help students achieve success in order to increase their

motivation. This can be done through giving accessible tasks, involving students in classroom activities and giving room for choice of tasks.

## **6 CALL FOR FURTHER RESEARCH:**

The area of "the good language learner" is still a mystery. Much research is needed to come to an understanding of the qualities that make the good language learner. Some results of this study need to be followed up at a larger scale and in more depth like the findings concerning the relationship between early exposure to the foreign language and oral skills. Another point worth following up is the relationship between first language acquisition and success in second language oral skills.

#### **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Backman,N. (1976) 'Two measures of affective factors as they relate to progress in adult second- language learning.' <u>Working Papers on Bilingualism</u>, 10, 100-122.

Bley-Vroman, R. (1989)' What is the logical problem of foreign language learning.'In S.Gass & J.Schachter (Eds.) <u>Linguistic Perspectives on second language acquisition</u> (pp. 41-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burstall, C., *et al.* (1974). <u>Primary French in the balance</u>. Windsor, Ontario: Neer Publishing Co.

Byram, Michael, 'Foreign language education and cultural studies.' <u>Language</u>, <u>culture</u> and <u>curriculum</u>; v1 n1. 1988.

Byram, Michael.' Training for language teachers: views from elsewhere.' <u>Language Learning Journal</u>; n10 Sep 1994.

Byram, M, & Morgan ,C. (1994) 'Teaching-and-learning language –and culture.' Clevedon,Avon: <u>Multilingual Matters</u>.

Canagarajah, A.S.(1993).' Critical ethnocentrism of a Sri Lankan classroom: Ambiguities in student opposition to reproduction through ESOL.' TESOL Quarterly, 27,(4), 601-626.

Carlson, J. *et al.* (1991). 'Study abroad: the experience of American undergraduates in Western Europe and the United States.' <u>Occasional Papers on International Education Exchange Research Series</u>. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED 340322).

Carroll, J.B. and Sapon, S.M. <u>Modern Language Aptitude Test – Elementary</u> (EMLAT). New York: The Psychological Corporation 1967.

Carroll, J.B. and Sapon, S.M. <u>Modern Language Aptitude</u> <u>Test</u>(MLAT). New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1959.

Crawford-Lange, L. M. & Lange, D. (1984). 'Doing the unthinkable in the second-language classroom: A process for integration of language and culture' In T. V. Higgs (Ed.), <u>Proficiency: The organizing principle</u> (pp. 139-177). The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Foreign Language Education Series. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook.

Crookes, Graham; Schmidt, Richard W..' Motivation: reopening the research agenda.' <u>Language Learning</u>; v41 n4. 1991.

Dirksen, Carolyn.' Learning styles of Mainland Chinese students of English.' <u>IDEAL</u>; v5. 1990.

Dornyei, Z. (1994). 'Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom.' The Modern Language Journal, 78 (3), 273-284.

Edwards, Viviane; Rehoric, Sally.' Learning Environments in immersion and non-immersion classrooms: are they different?'Canadian Modern Language Review; v46 n3. 1990

Gardner, R.C. (1985). <u>Social Psychology and Language Learning:</u> the Role of Attitudes and Motivation. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R.C, & MacIntyre,P.D. (1993).' A student's contributions to second- language learning. Part II: Affective Variables.' <u>Language Teaching</u>, 26,1-11.

Gardner, R C. and Lambert, Wallace E. <u>Attitudes and Motivation</u> in Second Language Learning. 1972.

Gardner,R.C, & Tremblay,P.F.(1994).' On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks.' <u>The Modern Language</u> Journal,78,359-68.

Guiroa, A.Z, Brannon, R.C.L and Dull, C.Y. 'Empathy and Second Language Learning.' <u>Language Learning</u>, 1972,22.

Hall, Joan Kelly and Ramirez, Arnulfo.' How a group of high school learners of Spanish perceives the cultural identities of Spanish speakers, English speakers and themselves.' Hispania; v76 n3. 1993

Hannigan, Michael R. 'Cooperative learning in elementary school science.' Educational Leadership; v 47 n4 .1990.

Hamers, Josiane F. 'The Relevance of Social Network Analysis in the Psycholinguistic Investigation of Multilingual Behaviour '1987.

Hoffman, Diane M.' Language and Culture Acquisition among Iranians in the United States.' <u>Anthropology and Education Quarterly</u>; v20 n2 June 1989.

Jurasek, Richard. 'Practical applications of foreign languages in the college curriculum.' <u>Modern Language Journal</u>; v66 win 1982.

Kramsch, Claire. <u>Context and Culture in Language Teaching</u>. 1993.

Krashen, S.D., Long, MA, and Scarcella, R.C. (1979). 'Age, rate, and eventual attainment in second language acquisition.' <u>TESOL</u> Quarterly, 13, 573-582.

Martin, A.L., & Laurie, I. (1993) 'Students views about contributions of literary and cultural content to language learning at intermediate level.' Foreign Language Annals, 26, (2), 188-207.

Martin, Anne L.; 'Laurie, Ian. Student views about the contribution of literary and cultural content to language learning at intermediate level.' <u>Foreign Language Annals</u>; v26 n2. 1993.

Massey, D. Anthony. 'Variations in Attitudes and Motivation of Adolescent Learners of French as a Second Language.' <u>Canadian</u> Modern Language Review; v 42 n3 January 1986.

McDonough,S. (1981) <u>Psychology in foreign language teaching</u>. London: Allen and Unwin.

Mc.Ginnis, Scott. 'Cultures of Instruction: Identifying and Resolving Conflicts.' Theory into Practice; V33 n1 Win 1994.

Mitchell, Rosamond. <u>Communicative Language Teaching in Practice</u>. 1988

Momber, H.E. (1979). An examination of secondary school student and teacher variables related to student discontinuance in second language study after the first year Unpublished doctoral dissertaion, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Moos,R.h.,& Tricket, E. (1987). <u>Classroom environment scale manual</u>. Palo Alto,CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, M. (1978). 'Childrens metacognitive knowledge about reading.' <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u> **70**: 680-690.

Naiman, N. et al. The Good Language Learner. 1995.

Nocon, A. (1991). 'Social and emotional impact of childhood asthma'. <u>Archives of Disease in Childhood</u>, *66*, 458-460.

Norton, B. 'Language, Identity, and ownership of English.' <u>TESOL</u> <u>Quarterly</u> 31. 1997

Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2001). 'Identity and language learning.' In R. Kaplan (Ed.) <u>Handbook of applied linguistics</u>. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Oxford, Rebecca; Shearin, Jill.' Language learning motivation: expanding the theoretical framework.' <u>Modern Language Journal</u>; v 78 n1 . 1994.

Park, Gi-Pyo.' The compensation model.' <u>Texas Papers in Foreign</u> Language Education; v2 n1 1995.

Porebski, Olierd R and McInnis, Charles E. 'Changes in the friendship pattern and proficiency level of FSL students as a result of the French animator program.' <u>Canadian Modern Language Review</u>; v44 n2 Jan 1988

Reid, Joy M. 'The learning style preferences of ESL students.' TESOL Quarterly; v21 n1 March 1987.

Robinson, G. (1978) 'The magic-carpet-ride-to-another-culture syndrome: An international perspective'. <u>Foreign Language Annals</u>, 11,(1), 135-146.

Robinson, G.L.(1981). 'Issues in second language and cross-cultural education: the forest through the trees'. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Robinson-Stuart, Gail; Nocon, Honorine. 'Second Culture Acquisition: Ethnography in the foreign language classroom'. <u>Modern Language Journal</u>; v80 n4. 1996.

Rubin, J. 'What the 'good language learner' can teach us'. <u>TESOL</u> <u>Quarterly</u>, 1975, 9.

Schumann, J.H. (1978). 'The acculturation model for second language acquisition'. In R.c.Gingras(ed)., <u>Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching</u>(pp.27-50). Washington, DC: Centre for Applied Linguistics.

Schumann, J.H. (1986).' Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition'. <u>Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development</u>, 7,379-92.

Seelye,H.Ned. Teaching Culture. <u>Strategies for Intercultural Communication</u>. 1984

Stelly, C.H. (1991) 'Effects of a whole language approach using authentic french texts on student comprehension and attitude'. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University and Agriculture and Mechanical College, Baton Rouge.

Stern, H. H.' What can we learn from the good language learner?' Canadian Modern Language Review, 1975, 31.

Tremblay, Paul; Gardner, Robert. 'Expanding the motivation construct in language learning'. <u>Modern Language Journal</u>; v79 n4 1995.

Tucker, G.R and D'Anglejan, Alison. 'Some Thoughts Concerning Bilingual Education Programs' . <u>Modern Language Journal</u>; 55, 8. 1971.

Wesche, M.B. 'The good adult language learner: A study of learning strategies and personality factors in an intensive course.' Doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto. 1975.

APPENDIX I
Questionnaire for the semi-structured interview
Name:
Age:
City:
Academic background:
Field of work:
Parents education and work:
Length and kind of exposure to English:
Length of studying English:
Have you taken the IELTS before ? What was your result?
Reasons for trying to improve English language performance:
Attitude towards British people and culture:
First language acquisition: (when did you start speaking your first
language ?)

Difficulties in learning English language (which skills are more difficult?)  $\ldots\ldots$ 

## APPENDIX II

	I LI IDI.								
Over	Reading	Writing	Listen	Speaking	Motivati	Social	Attitude	Exposure	Acquisti
72.22	66.67	77.78	77.78	88.89	80	85	70	80	85
81.94	88.89	83.33	66.67	61.11	85	75	70	60	50
81.94	88.89	83.33	66.67	61.11	90	75	65	65	60
86.11	94.44	88.89	66.67	55.56	85	80	80	50	50
80.56	77.78	77.78	88.89	94.44	90	75	65	85	80
77.78	77.78	77.78	77.78	77.78	85	65	60	70	50
83.33	88.89	83.33	72.22	66.67	85	70	70	60	55
76.39	77.78	72.22	77.78	88.89	80	80	70	80	75
84.72	83.33	83.33	88.89	94.44	85	85	80	85	80
91.67	94.44	94.44	83.33	72.22	90	70	80	60	65
87.50	88.89	88.89	83.33	77.78	90	80	60	50	55
79.17	77.78	77.78	83.33	88.89	90	85	80	85	75
86.11	94.44	77.78	77.78	77.78	85	60	65	60	60
77.78	77.78	77.78	77.78	94.44	80	70	70	80	85
83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	90	60	80	60	50
86.11	83.33	88.89	88.89	72.22	80	50	70	50	60
87.50	94.44	88.89	72.22	72.22	85	50	80	50	45
77.78	77.78	77.78	77.78	77.78	85	65	70	60	65

84.72	83.33	83.33	88.89	88.89	90	80	65	80	65
83.33	83.33	88.89	77.78	77.78	85	50	80	50	50
80.56	77.78	77.78	88.89	88.89	85	70	60	80	85
87.50	88.89	88.89	83.33	66.67	90	40	80	60	45
88.89	94.44	88.89	77.78	77.78	85	60	70	50	50
83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	80	60	75	65	60
83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	83.33	85	70	70	70	60
55.56	55.56	55.56	55.56	50.00	50	60	75	60	50
51.39	50.00	55.56	50.00	44.44	60	65	80	50	60
44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	50	50	75	40	50
47.22	50.00	44.44	44.44	44.44	55	60	80	50	55
52.78	55.56	55.56	44.44	44.44	60	55	75	45	40
50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	44.44	60	60	70	50	50
45.83	44.44	44.44	50.00	61.11	50	65	75	65	70
50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	55.56	50	60	70	60	60
44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	45	50	70	50	50
45.83	44.44	50.00	44.44	44.44	50	55	65	40	50
52.78	55.56	55.56	44.44	38.89	60	40	65	40	50
50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	50	60	70	50	50
45.83	44.44	44.44	50.00	44.44	45	50	70	50	50
47.22	44.44	44.44	55.56	55.56	50	55	75	60	60
45.83	44.44	50.00	44.44	44.44	45	50	60	50	50
47.22	50.00	44.44	44.44	55.56	50	60	70	50	60
50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00	55	50	75	50	45
47.22	44.44	50.00	50.00	33.33	50	55	65	40	40
44.44	44.44	44.44	44.44	50.00	45	50	70	35	50
54.17	55.56	61.11	44.44	38.89	50	55	75	40	40
51.39	50.00	55.56	50.00	50.00	60	60	75	45	50
54.17	55.56	61.11	44.44	44.44	55	45	70	40	40
45.83	44.44	50.00	44.44	44.44	65	55	60	50	50
51.39	50.00	61.11	44.44	44.44	50	60	75	40	50
45.83	44.44	44.44	50.00	55.56	50	60	70	60	60

Recevied 29/1/2002.