

Table Of Content

Journal Cover	2
Author[s] Statement	3
Editorial Team	4
Article information	5
Check this article update (crossmark)	5
Check this article impact	5
Cite this article	5
Title page	6
Article Title	6
Author information	6
Abstract	6
Article content	7

**Indonesian Journal of Cultural and
Community Development**

ISSN 2615-6180 (ONLINE)



BROUGHT TO YOU BY

Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo

Conflict of Interest Statement

The author declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Copyright Statement

Copyright © Author(s). This article is published under the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY 4.0) licence. Anyone may reproduce, distribute, translate and create derivative works of this article (for both commercial and non-commercial purposes), subject to full attribution to the original publication and authors. The full terms of this licence may be seen at <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/legalcode>

Editorial Team

Editor in Chief

[Dr. Totok Wahyu Abadi](#) ([Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo, Indonesia](#)) [[Scopus](#)]

Managing Editor

[Mochammad Tanzil Multazam](#) ([Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo, Indonesia](#)) [[Scopus](#)]

[Rohman Dijaya](#) ([Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo, Indonesia](#)) [[Scopus](#)]

Member of Editors

[Mahardhika Darmawan Kusuma Wardana](#) ([Universitas Muhammadiyah Sidoarjo, Indonesia](#)) [[Sinta](#)]

[Bobur Sobirov](#) ([Samarkand Institute of Economics and Service, Uzbekistan](#)) [[Google Scholar](#)]

[Farkhod Abdurakhmonov](#) ("[Silk Road](#)" [International University of Tourism, Uzbekistan](#)) [[Google Scholar](#)]

[Dr. Nyong Eka Teguh Iman Santosa](#) ([Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Ampel SURabaya, Indonesia](#)) [[Scopus](#)]

Complete list of editorial team ([link](#))

Complete list of indexing services for this journal ([link](#))

How to submit to this journal ([link](#))

Article information

Check this article update (crossmark)



Check this article impact (*)



Save this article to Mendeley



(*) Time for indexing process is various, depends on indexing database platform

Acquisition in second language, The influence of Age and Stimulation

Pemerolehan Bahasa Kedua, Pengaruh Usia dan Stimulasi

Hind Salah Hasan, hind.salah.2019@gmail.com, (1)

Ministry of Education, Anbar Education Directorate, Iraq

(1) Corresponding author

Abstract

This article examines second language learning ability by analyzing second language development. It also examines the age factor in learning a language other than the mother tongue and attempts to clarify whether there is currently sufficient evidence to show that young people undergo real changes in their language skills.. Research such as inspiration for the learning climate, as well as exposure and behavior in the language will also be addressed and data analyzed to assess if they play an essential role in encouraging students to achieve effective second language skills. It was widely known to create a big improvement in language learning when you are young to study a second language. However, the findings show that this is not completely applicable in all situations, provided that other considerations such as language sensitivity and enthusiasm influence the effective accomplishment of second-language learning. If vocabulary is lacking, therefore this could discourage students from studying the language effectively. However, it is worth noting that factors such as motivation and exposure play a more important role in the learning stage than the aging factor. This empowers the learner because, regardless of his age, it is extremely important for him to be motivated enough and have enough language exposure from the beginning.

Highlights:

- Analyzes second language development and age factor in language learning.
- Highlights motivation, exposure, and behavior's impact on effective language skills.
- Motivation and exposure outweigh age in successful second-language acquisition.

Keywords: second language learning, age factor, motivation, exposure, language skills

Introduction

The science of learning a second language, or how students interpret a foreign language (L1). This is used to explain the phase of learning a second, third, or fourth language after one's first language. So, a foreign language (FL) or target language is something different than the language used in the classroom during instruction (TL). Second Language (SL) A second language is a language that is learned after one's native language. A foreign language (FL) is a language that is spoken in the world outside one's own country (2013). Second language courses can be obtained in a variety of ways.. The language can be standardized, like in a classroom environment, and informally, as the learner's language use outside the classroom. This is probable when you attend school nationwide and watch local TV, read newspapers in Language 2, and listen to the radio in Language 2. Via participating in the learning phase, students are introduced to the international language daily. For second-language research, it is critical to investigate factors like age and learning environment for significant effects. In addition, it has been seen as a factor that influences language skills, as Gardner and Lambert (1979) have performed comprehensive research on this topic. Early language learning (ELT) and second language learning (SLA) have been extensively studied over the years, and it is generally believed that children can learn a second language quickly and easily. However, recent research suggests that children's second language ability is different from what was originally assumed

Result and Discussion

Theories of the Second Language Acquisition

There are many factors that influence second language learning. It is important to discuss the theories that determine why we acquire a second language. Three theories of ALS are discussed - Artistic Construction Theory, Communicative Language Teaching, and Cognitive Approach..

John B. Carroll, a professor of psychology at the University of Delaware, demonstrated how students are endowed with a conceptual system and a store of language-specific information that go together to become a native speaker of a language, thus minimizing the effort of studying the language. Altenaichinger refers to the analysis by Krashen which indicates that language acquisition involves three internal components. The author uses a 'filter,' a 'organizer' and a 'surveyor' to make learners feel less stressed and more positive in their fluency. The "organizer" (intermediate predecessor) determines the framework and usage of the learner language system, guidelines for errors, and general order to understand systems (Krashen, 1983, Altenaichinger, 2003).

"Control" is the conscious aspect of learning where students correct their language in an age-appropriate manner (Altenaichinger 2003). These controversial key SLA components are based on the following five theories of Brown (2002) cited in Altenaichinger:

1. Acquisition Learning theory, concerns itself with implicit intuitive mechanisms, while learning, is a method of understanding and knowledge of the student's learning process.
2. Hypothesis: The monitoring method is intended to "monitor" the development of learning and to make enhancements to the learning already learned.
3. The Theory of the natural order argues that in a predictable order we learn the laws of a language.
4. The Feedback Theory reinforces the value of studying language with an effect such as inspiration that goes beyond its comprehension.
5. The theory of affective filter indicates that vocabulary is simpler to learn if emotional conditions such as mental health and not boredom are met. So, constructive behavior seems essential in SLA (Brown 2002, Altenaichinger, 2003).

The second principle of Altenaichinger centers around the instruction of speech and is entirely focused on learners. For the last 20 years, communicative linguistic instruction has become very preferred, and academics believe that this hypothesis is outstanding since it relies on language teaching interaction skills. One of the truths is that Cultural competence is the main factor in communicative language instruction. It is also important to conduct exercises that require students to interact in the target language. These exercises allow students to actually use the language and inspire them to understand the value of language learning so that they can gain real benefits from the learning process (Altenaichinger, 2003).

Cognitive solution is the third SLA principle in the article of Altenaichinger.

Researchers believe that SLA has one of its key features in creating an information structure that can be recollected implicitly. As a consequence, the apprentice should be able to recognize and engage socially in a social

setting with an awareness and exposure to the target language. Once the language has been fully experienced, the learner should naturally memorize the language and focus on improving other more differentiated language skills. In fact, the main feature of the cognitive approach is the automatic construction and use of language (Altenaichinger, 2003, pp. 10-11).

Altenaichinger explains the relevance of the three theories and how they combine. In addition, she points out that some teachers use teaching methods that take all three assumptions into account. Teachers who are proficient in the target language may prefer the natural approach.

Today's communicative language instruction is an incredibly necessary aspect of language learning and is contained in nearly all language school books and language classrooms. The cognitive method, though, is a very recent second-language principle and hasn't been implemented in the classroom yet (Altenaichinger, 2003). However, it is crucial for teachers to consider and use these three methods correctly as guidance in encouraging their students to effectively learn a second language.

3.1 Young Learners and SLA

3.2 The Five Stages of Second Language Acquisition

The language learning is performed in stages. To discuss SLA, it is important to research the 5 phases of second language acquisition. According to Hunt (2007), Preproduction is the first step, during which students gradually develop their vocabulary to around 500 terms without language being spoken, but repeating their language. Once the students have passed through the first stage, they can reach the second level, where they will have the opportunity to construct simple sentences to memorize and utilize short language forms (Haynes 2007). Haynes defines a third stage in which students get 3000 words and can utter short sentences. Now you should be willing to ask easy questions. They can read short stories sometimes without images. Learners have an active vocabulary of 6000 words at the 4th stage of growth, fluent. He goes on to state that students will create longer and more complex sentences both in speech and writing and with grammatical errors. The pacing is crucial because it requires up to 10 years to learn the second language. The final stage of growth is Final Fluence. Haynes says it may be easy to learn a second language at the beginning, but when one grows and becomes older, they through fail more to do so.

3.3 Children's Language Acquisition

According to Halgunseth (2009), children were granted chances to learn two languages simultaneously or sequentially (2008). Children are capable of studying two languages, L1 and L2, rapidly and effortlessly. School-aged children are, in the early childhood context, toddlers and small children who have been brought to school in their mother tongue. Students may also come from multilingual families where children are exposed to two languages at home. It is a mixture of Spanish and English (Halgunseth 2009, Tabors, 2008). She points out that even though children are exposed to two different languages, their choice of one of them is different. Because they learn two languages at the same time, two different language systems are formed in their brains. This language acquisition process is similar to how young children benefit from being exposed to languages (Halgunseth 2009). If the child is 6 months or older, separate the two languages and let him choose one language at that age. Parents who introduce their child to more than one language will improve the child's exposure to that language (Kuhl, 2004; Kuhl et al., 2006; Espinosa, 2008; Tabors, 2008). The infant speaks the mother tongue, but is often taught or initiated into a second language in a sequential language learning environment.

For eg, when the dominant language is English while Spanish-speaking children attend class.

Halgunseth states that sequential learning is not related to any age factor, but may be encouraged or inspired by elements such as motivation. There are four stages in second-language sequential instruction, which are:

Step 1 : Home Language: Children should not always have to study or use their mother tongue.

step 2: Quiet Period: Children are barely able to talk without nonverbals. The younger the child is, the longer the duration of silence will continue.

Step 3: Telegraphing and Formulaic Speech: At this stage, children continue to echo several words and make short comments.

Step 4: Children create their very own sentences in a productive language.

Easy and mistaken these phrases can adapt with time (Helgunseth 2009). Since children are introduced to two languages concurrently at a young age, they don't have to confuse languages quite quickly. As described, children often become bilingual when one parent speaks one language and the other speaks another language. Parents should even speak to each other in all languages such that children are used to both. But it has a drawback, being bilingual (Helgunseth 2009).

3.4 Bilingual Children Better Language Learners?

The Halgunseth study indicates that bilingual children perform better in some language tasks than monolingual children. Bialystok, though, demonstrates that some knowledge of languages in children is equivalent to an adult's understanding. Following the controversy of Bialystok, she discusses learned bilingualism. She notes that certain individuals reside "in home environments in which an ethnically, culturally or national background differs from that of the community in the language of their extended families" (p.3). In reality, children who became bilingual could become more effective and active learners in these family environments.

In view of several findings that are more successful than monolingual, bilingual children are more beneficial. In research by Genesee (2008), he raises concerns about the difficulties of teaching children more than one language and how it potentially hinders the production of the language. However, the individual variations in second-language learning should be taken into consideration and the various learning skills regarded when some kids develop better than others. He describes how the "delay" does not be a detrimental part of language learning, and that it takes longer for the infant to understand the language. It is verified the value of adequate exposure as it demonstrates how necessary it is to ensure that students are continuously exposed to both languages. How essential also is to prevent drastic linguistic changes since they may cause the child's problems and difficulties (Genesee 2008)

The difficulty of mastering both languages fairly in relation to individual languages or restricted to one language and not others are challenges confronting bilingual parents and educators. He discusses how bilingual children have differing short-term language learning. Additionally, he pointed out.

The same generation, young bilingual children have vocabulary problems and recognize fewer terms in one or both their languages. He is mostly worried that both children have a restricted capacity to memorize words from two languages of bilingual children, rather than one like monolingual children. Furthermore, bilingual children may recognize certain terms in one language but not in the other. These are therefore 'short-term' issues which would most certainly vanish before the kids enter kindergarten (Genesee 2008).

In line with the previous topic on bilingual infants, the rate of cognitive growth in a second language context is generally associated with a child's overall exposure to a language. He endorses his argument with Example of a boy who only came home after a brief period of time met his grandmother and used just one language. The child will be in support of the other language for a time, and the child lacks ability in the other language. Notice that this is just a transient change that will resume until there is adequate visibility in the other language (Genesee 2008).

The suggestion that children would neglect their first language and use all languages simultaneously is also discussed in Genesee's debate. He argues that children from the age of 18 years perceive both sounds and terms of the same language. The infant educators have discussed this particular question, since the child is confused and is incapable of distinguishing between languages. His claims are focused on the idea that kids merge languages purely based on lack of vocabulary for either language or both.

It says they steal the other language's words. The contact approach is successful in most households, since parents and other adults in the language community of the children prefer to combine the languages when they communicate with the infant, since both languages are understood. Genesee notes that languages are common and that the process of early bilingual learning is also a natural and usual process even amongst capable bilingual adults. Parents' position in this case is incredibly essential and they need not pause or stress if their children combine languages because children instinctively stop (Genesee 2008).

Visibility is of the greatest importance. Children must spend enough time with their parents to help them develop their own identities. If a parent knows two different languages but only speaks one at home, the child may be discouraged from having the complete education in that language. Teachers and parents will now be willing to improve their learners' language learning, leading to a simpler second language learning process (Genesee 2008).

4.1 Age and Second Language Acquisition

The learning of second language abilities for adults tend to be dramatically different from how children learn their first language. This guided scientists into the creation of the theory of the crucial time (CPH). Originally published in 1959, CPH was subsequently popularised and debated by Penfield and Roberts.

Then in 1967 by Lenneberg. Brown (2007) refers to this theory as "a biologically determined lifetime in which language is easier to acquire and more difficult to obtain time language" (p. 57). According to him, "the criticism of the acquisition of the second language is about puberty, which seems relatively impossible for people to acquire a second language" (p. 58). This also has contributed to uncertainty for those who have thought it is too late to excel in second-language acquisitions, after you hit a certain age (12-13) stage (Brown 2002).

If L2 learning capacities decrease over a time, it is necessary to analyze this. There are a few studies which research the output of SLA among old and young language students carefully. David Singleton (2004) quote Seright (1985), who states that few surveys of young and old students' performance and challenges suggest that younger

students do more than adult L2 students.

Seright also supported its arguments by referencing an experiment performed by Thorndike in 1928 in the analysis of Esperanto. Singleton suggests this research finds young students higher than old students. She also references d'Anglejan et coll1981 .s analysis of Canadian immigrants who studied French intensively, finding that young people were more successful than older students or less successful with age (Singleton 2004).

There is also proof that the "older" of second language acquisition is beneficial to this theory. Singleton states, though, that the structured guidance arose from both these inquiries. This study is focused on SLA in elementary school classrooms and bilingual L2 curricula in brief periods of research. He also listed the gains for older students from those immigrant studies. Many of the research involved

In singletons, children are referred to as at least one compare feature. So, there's

Few surveys that cover youth and adults of all ages indicate that old students are more competitive than older students. Singleton indicates that some surveys of immigrants indicate L2 learning improvement with age, as he quotes and relates to a 1974 report, in which Ervin-Tripp performed a study of 31 young children who spent nine months exposed to English. The findings of studies by Ervin-Tripp indicate that older students outperform younger students in each area of study (Singleton 2004).

Studies of older learners with a strong degree of L2 ability since the early 1990s have demonstrated promising outcomes. Singleton discusses how the grammatical assessments of English between native speakers like French, who have started to study French from the age of twelve, and native speakers in language management groups barely distinguished between White and Genese, in 1996. Singleton also speaks about a study of Dutch learners who started teaching English after the age of twelve in the classroom at Bongaerts et al. (1995). This study found that students could achieve English pronunciation scores in the same range as native speakers (Singleton 2004). Interestingly, this demonstrates that while L2 started when they were 12 years old and in classroom school, they could still achieve a natural accent.

As mentioned above, there is proof that "the younger the better" is in support of them, and tests suggest that old students will go beyond smaller students. Furthermore, there is another theory that younger teachers develop native accent in second language incredibly effectively. It must be considered that it is necessary for this to happen that the target language exposure is adequate.

Singleton (2004) supports this as "the strong version of this position states that a true accent is not normally obtained unless exposure to L2 begins in childhood" (p. 84).

It is also essential to speak about whether it is easier to learn L2 at an early age in the long run. The short- and long-term effects of the L2 acquisition can be seen further by Krashen et al. (1979). You say this:

- (1) Adults proceed more rapidly than adolescents in early phases of syntactic and morphological growth.
- (2) Teenagers get better than younger kids.
- (3) Adults who start studying a second language typically learn less than those who begin as infants. (p.272).

There does not seem to be compelling evidence that older language learners are more effective than younger learners. On the basis of current research, it is not possible to conclude that young second language learners are more efficient and successful than old ones (Singleton 2004). There is very reliable evidence that indicates that it is accurate that people who start learning L2 during infancy have higher skill levels than those who start later in life (Singleton 2004). The only research that may confirm this hypothesis was lab results. Consequently, it is impossible to equate lessons during the longer term and normally occurring L2 in a school.

4.2 Does age really matter in SLA?

The debate of when the second language is mastered is when the target language is attention or input. Students don't have ample insight to what a language learner is like so the exposure is not satisfactory. For younger learners at the early stages of second language learning, accuracy of information and the amount of experiences is most significant. It reflects evidence comparing younger and older language learners. The data suggests that younger learners often do more than older learners. This reinforces the argument that the CPH theory has certain merit and it also appears to show what was stated earlier regarding a certain age.

Language development requires time. Children can have a decreased chance of developing dyslexia if they begin studying at a younger age when they are more able to understand the language being used around them than a school environment (Munoz, 2010). This means that the sensitivity is more important to SLA than era.

The hypothesis that "the younger, the better" appears to favor more critical research in 2008, Larson-Hall (2008). However, these experiments were undertaken while students were active participants in the target country and

culturally engaged. The participants were actively introduced regularly to the target language and were exposed to the target language outside the classroom. The experts believe

Importance of exposure levels for the crucial SLA age and when the exposure is small, there is no assurance that "the younger is the better." As Larson-Hall explains, kids and adults have varying cognitive skills and methods to study English. She explores how young people get to know the language unconsciously, it may not suffice to shape a morphological, syntactic or phonological structure to provide a minimum of exposure. This assertion is supported by the review of older data and indicates that there is no language gain of SLA, provided the 'younger the stronger' when exposure is small (Larson- Hall 2008). One such earlier research of 1974, carried out by Oller and Nagato, and later quoted by Larson-Studio, involved students from Japanese elementary schools who started studying English (a weekly span of 1-2 hours). In the younger students, but not in the younger ones, observational variations were diagnosed and the result was that the benefits of younger students were not available. For that cause, Oller & Nagato's case may not see disparities in the older community, and statistical findings were pure, because the older group had 50 students, and the younger group 24, demonstrating that, if slight, statistical results may vanish (Tversky and Kahneman 1971). More current studies on "the better the older" remains contentious And the emphasis prompted scientists to further explore linguistic exposure and motivational influences.

Larson Hall's 2008 research shows young people have a stronger approach to studying a foreign language to read more regarding the encouragement and attitudes towards second language learning (Larson-Hall 2008). Finally, the research she carried out concentrated on whether there was a connection between early and high scores World that offered a low feedback of second language exposure since the conversation mostly centered around how age plays an essential part of natural settings or immersions. She states that "age appears to play an unacceptable role in improving the acquisition of second language, since learners are provided with sufficient input" this is not always so. This is not always so (p.24).

In addition, the reality is that ageing can play a part in the improvement of the acquisition of a second language, but it is crucial that during their learning phase students have adequate experience of the target language.

5.1 Motivation and the Learning Environment

5.2 Motivation

Understanding the role of motivation in SLA is very relevant as research (Gardner and Lambert 1972 and Dörnyei 2001) indicates that motivation plays a major role in the achievement of SL skilledness and abilities. Pandey (2005) claimed that encouragement is significant because it defines the level of learner's active participation and attitude to learning (p.79).

The motivation was beautifully supported in 1985 by the terms Gardner and Lambert (1972) which described the motivation to be "the combination of effort plus desire for the goal of language learning and favorable attitudes towards language learning" as a major factor in effective acquisition of the second voice (p. 10). In the area of second language learning and inspiration, Gardner and Lambert (1972) are considered leaders of science. The study involved two motivating variables, integrative and instrumental encouragement under which the student focuses on meeting certain targets in these two motivational factors. Instrumental inspiration may be regarded as a motivation for those who wish to learn a second language.

Second language or international language for educational or career hunting (Gardner and Lambert 1972). But, But Integrated inspiration, as described by Shirbagi, are the learners who want to engage culturally and enthusiastically as valuable members of the target language nation. In other terms, the language learner's primary purpose is to use language for social contact (Shirbagi 2010).

Analysis by Gardner and Lambert in 1972 emphasizes mostly on inherent motivation. There has been considerable emphasis on the need for integrative wellness and well-being. Instrumental encouragement is also a strong element, but it can still be linked to second language abilities (Shirbagi 2010). Gardner's 1985 appraisal reinforces this assumption, suggesting that an integratively focused learner will have greater enthusiasm, optimistic attitudes towards the condition of the learner, and more initiative for language learning (p.11).

The students should be conscious of the value of the SLA method in these two learning situations, so the instructor could be more beneficial for the student to excel. Shirbagi illustrates how students are inspired by an understanding of the value of SLA, which further creates integrative and instrumental motivation. He proceeds to argue about the student's nature of inclusive inspiration. Furthermore, he says that the position of the educator is a key element of integrated and instrumental motivation, since the teacher must be mindful of and appreciate the skill and motivation of each pupil (Shirbagi 2010). That is why he says that language learners should be given Playing integrative and instrumental encouragement opportunities. Teachers can have motivating exercises only as long as the instructor knows the cognitive ability of the learners (Shirbagi 2010).

Teachers should also be mindful of the value of inspiration to support students understand and meet their language learning objectives. Engin (2009) also analyzed the motivating function and found that it may greatly impact the performance of the pupil. Engin implies that instead of empathizing with mistake, the instructor should concentrate

on constructive progress or Negative incentive that may limit the performance of the learner. He then continues and notes that constructive reinforcement can help the learner understand the target language throughout the learning process. Students must be inspired sufficiently and the teacher must increase consciousness of their learning goals (Engin 2009). Motivation is an essential aspect to discuss as far as SLA is concerned, but a proper learning atmosphere must also be given to the learner.

5.3 Natural Setting and Instructed Setting

To research the impact of the approaches on the age factor, it is particularly necessary to be conscious of the natural and educational environments. In order to apply the techniques over the duration of the learning process, and for the learner to excel, it is necessary to consider the two contexts. In Munoz (2010), she supports the natural world firmly and points out the detrimental aspects of the informed environment. She points out that the training is confined to 2-4 weekly sessions of around 50 minutes a session as taught. Often, in addition to the target vocabulary, the target exposure is incredibly minimal.

The instructor and the pupil correspondence. In addition, the instructor might have minimal oral fluency in the target language and the language is not spoken outside the classroom (Munoz 2010). It is clear to remember that sensitivity to the target language is a vital consideration for every language learning clearly when you illustrate the discrepancies between the two environments. The conventional environment relies instead on the usage of vocabulary on the language itself. But with regard to age and exposure sufficient, one might think that a good language learning would be best begun as early as possible. As Munoz pointed out, the two learning settings vary and four things have to be addressed in terms of their impact on second language learning since she questions whether "the younger, the better" is nice or not.

In conclusion, Munoz cites four main asymmetries between the natural approach to learning and the informed sense, in order to infer that "the younger the better." Past findings in age and natural factors suggest that young students appear to surpass older students in multiple abilities (Munoz 2010).

Other studies quoted by Munoz indicate, though, that the key emphasis was on contrasting learners in a natural environment and that older language learners are mostly more likely to begin younger students in a short period. As Munoz suggests, the explanation for this is that the older learner in the early phases of the learning phase was more successful than the younger learner and continues to progress even quicker.

Young students may start learning the language slower, but they develop a higher level of skills in a long term that is comparable to practically native language abilities (Munoz 2010). The assumption that older learners are more effective than young students contributes to the inference that "when the benefit of older students is primarily attributed to their superior cognitive development, there are no gaps in skills to be expected if cognitive development disparities with age often vanish" (Munoz, 2006, p. 34). As Munoz (2010) claims when she describes the findings of the BAF experiment, which concentrated on investigating whether age has an effect on learning the foreign language: This obviously reveals that older people who are trained tend to gain from the younger start:

"An early beginning does not automatically give an ultimate achievement advantage in a trained foreign language learning environment." The disparity between a learning environment for international languages, and a naturalistic learning environment can be seen as a critical age-related" (p. 43-44).

In addition, Munoz argues that in all learning environments, the early learning mechanism cannot perform the same role. Clearly, the degree of exposure in second language acquisition is a major factor. It states, however, that "the parallelism in a naturalistic language learning context and the instructions on language between age effects" (p. 43) suggests that as a calculating instrument of L2 standard, time the student spends in the target country (living and learning) is done. She specifically points out that this would not take place in a language exposure classroom setting that is not almost the same as in a natural learning environment.

This is the explanation Alderson (1999) points out to a fascinating fact that Munoz discusses and describes that the relation between time spent studying a language and ability level has not always been linear.

She resumes Munoz' discussions of 2010, stating that "the long-term benefit of young people from learning foreign languages is not found" (p. 46). In continuing, she says that the significant exposure of naturalistic learners is lacking

The learners are presented with the background setting. In other terms, the quality of language exposure to students in the trained setting is not comparable. This lack of exposure ensures that children cannot profit sufficiently from the philosophy of learning they gain, as Munoz says. Direct instructor guidance, on the other hand, prefer older students because they are more efficient learners because they recognize what the teacher needs of them and they often know the consequences of their learning (Munoz) (2010).

Finally, Munoz' arguments about "the younger the better" and all past studies which support a natural learning background, may be better earlier, but should be supported by encouragement and appropriate exposure to the target language. The visibility and incentive rate are also essential elements for SLA. In addition, teachers can

provide students with ample opportunities in different L2 social environments to learn the language. In a natural learning sense, Munoz contrasts a young second-language learner with a lesson tutor and an elderly pupil with an excellent learning environment. She believed that the cause was that a natural learner is continuously exposed from the social setting and that the lesser one gets no goal language exposure would thus be a more effective language learner. She suggests that the consistency of the target language exposure has a substantial impact on the influence of second-language pupils. She also points out that "the older students' explanations" persistent benefit in the pace of learning and the difficulty for younger students to display long lasting advantages as a consequence of a school starting early" (Munoz, 2010, p. 39).

5.4 Educational Context and Cultural Context

It is important to address the instructional context (classroom learning) and the cultural climate to explore the origins of motivation in second language acquisitions (outside the classroom). Gardner(2000) illustrates how complicated a second language analysis requires the study of exotic terms, for example modern words, grammar and language constructs, while other school areas are based on sections that are related to a learner's own community (Gardner) (2000).

The background in which learners are taught is the world they know. Educational influences may make a significant contributor to the learning during SLA. Any of the influences Gardner (2000) sees as influential elements of motivation for SLA are standards of school system, language content, the classroom climate, resources used in schools and the curriculum. The cultural background represents the capacity of students to convey behaviors, values, personality, features, desires, principles and so on. Gardener (2000).

The truth of becoming more conscious of their learning path and of the outcomes they want is, that it may be better for adults to learn a second language. In this situation, on the other side, language requirements appear to be relevant because children will get a native focus even sooner and easier than adults if they acquire the language in a normal way as while engaging in the group rather than in the schoolroom (Gardner 2000). Therefore Gardner argues that because the learner is driven by diverse elements and behaviors, such as beliefs, significance, knowledge of the learner's capacity for learning and variations in the personality, in the cultural sense. Therefore, he says "the cultural context can influence the ultimate success of the individual in the learning of the language" (Gardner, 2000, p.6). His discussions appear to indicate that educational environments and cultural contexts are not distinct components and have little impact over each other. It is important to remember that a cultural context can affect the student's approach to the learning atmosphere and the educational context may influence the inclusive dimensions of the student. His belief that the educational environment plays an essential motivating function in Gardner's inquiry is that the learner has formed an attitude towards the educational condition. This is particularly necessary since this mentality impacts the human degree of motivation in the educational sense (Gardner 2000).

Dörnyei (1994) has over the years explored the motivation of the education context and has also looked at influences that shape the motivation of second-language learners. The position of the instructor in the classroom is one of his influences. It demonstrates how teachers are regarded by the multiple role plays in the classroom as one of the most important components of L2 learner encouragement. Teacher is both a trainer, motivator, trainer and coach. not just an educator. In reality, the instructor should be active in the learning phase so that the student can achieve success in the target language and benefit from it (Dörnyei 1994). Furthermore, in the most recent 2001 debate by Dörnyei, he thought that the motivations for teaching strategies could rely heavily on the students' interpretation of teaching strategies. He also went beyond Gardner and explored the elements in the mechanism of language learning that influence learner motivation and also set up an L2 motivation system on the basis of three main L2 learning elements in the sense of education. The 1994 structure for Dörnyei has been split into three levels: vocabulary, learner and learning. The standard of the learning condition is subdivided into three additional levels:

- a. Motivational elements unique to the course, which include the curiosity, desires and happiness of learners.
- b. Motivating elements for the instructor, like the willingness of the pupil to satisfy the teacher. Form of authority (control vs protection for autonomy) and clear incentive socialisation (includes modelling, task presentation and feedback)
- c. Motivating Elements for Group-specific.

Dörnyei proposed with his system concept that the L2 instructor should be conscious of the learning abilities and needs of the students as already stated. He believes that teachers are more of a facilitator than authorities and highlights the value of fostering autonomy for learners. Finally, he stresses the value of utilizing effective instructional methods to enable students to excel in language skills (Dörnyei 1994).

5.5 Motivation in the Learning Environment

While age can have a significant impact in the learning process, enthusiasm appears to be the main factor in the learning process. Gardner (2007) argues that incentive to learn a second language is not easy. It cannot be

calculated by

one scale may not be able to accurately represent the full spectrum of encouragement (p. 10). Although talent is essential, it is determination that plays the most important role in language learning. Additionally, it appears they can learn, compose and express the language properly (Gardner 2007). There needs to be a form of incentive involved with adult ESL teaching. The topic of how inspiration is fostered poses critical SLA problems that include how students are educated and what portion of culture they are involved in.

Numerous research have been done that deal with the learning atmosphere and encouragement. This is to conclude, to examine whether classroom atmosphere or cultural engagement is more relevant to second language acquisition. Kissau discussed the area of motivating climate in his research in Canada. He points out how social methods dominated the study of the 1970s and 1980s, but the discipline has shifted to concentrate on the classroom-based L2 experience of the learner.

Kissau agrees with Gardner on the effect of inspiration on language learning. He also stated that Gardner was an outstanding scholar in the field of SLA who concluded that inspiration was the most influential element in studying a foreign language (Gardner 1985). In his later research in 2001, Gardner asserts that behaviors towards the learning condition are essential elements for encouragement, but motivation is responsible for the achievement. Gardner claimed that language learning progress was measured by attitude toward the target language and region. Kissau refers to learners as being.

They are instrumentally focused whether they have optimistic attitudes towards the community and language of the target nation. Many who learn in classroom settings are students who are deemed instrumentally focused (Kissau 2006).

Gardner (1985) observed that if students wish to excel, they would have good feelings towards the community they are studying and the people who talk the language they are learning. However, researchers are asking for more classroom approaches to L2 encouragement that requires more feedback from the teacher.

5.6 Motivation and Young Learners in the Classroom

As this paper states, if studying the second language is best begun while you are young, it has been investigated. Debates is debatable and no unequivocal findings seem to be seen if "the younger the better." Furthermore, those who support the "younger the better" claim that young students quickly get second-language lessons that seem almost effortless, are interested in studying, empowered and involved in producing (Nikolov and Djigonovi'c 2006).

In comparison, scientists who support the argument claim that children are learning by doing activities, unlike old students more mindful about what is required of them, and they are not informed of the learning process. This indicates that it is more common for young people to acquire the second language (Halliwell 1992, Cameron 2001).

With respect to the motivating side of young people who are SLA students, they are usually more optimistic and strongly oriented towards SLA. Nikolov (1999) investigated SLA among young students and showed that motivation is usually strong at first, but with time declining. As stated earlier, then the development of a positive learning atmosphere for young learners at the very beginning of the learning phase is highly necessary. Thus, during the learning process the teacher assumes a vital function. However, the effect shifts and other causes tend to be becoming older Influencing the motives of young students (Djigonovic 2012).

Given these conclusions, there is still not enough data to suggest that language learning is more effective to begin at an early stage; however, findings show that May be useful if the gain is not apparent at an early stage (contrary to the previously discussed). While "the younger the better," Torfadóttir and his associates have not yet shown considerable interest in the early change of foreign/second language in Europe. Indeed, it is extremely necessary to look at the factor which affects the learning process to empower young students in the language process and to offer them positive attitudes towards their target language. They further demonstrate that during the language learning process, some requirements must be fulfilled. Students ought to learn a new language discipline, consistency and encouragement. It is important for students to listen as much as possible to the target language (Torfadóttir, etc., 2006). In young students, one inspiring feature of ALS is to introduce photographs, banners, flashcards and actual items to life in the classroom setting, which will promote learning. In addition, they say that the more often the students listen and the more they get used to listening to the language. The more they respond. And when students hear the language regularly, they get accustomed to it, become more familiar about or try to use the language. The teacher should often use the vocabulary to allow clear commands and repetitions, so children sometimes instinctively learn the language. While the usage of the target language is so vital as necessary, switching to the mother language could be needed to clarify better nuanced instructions (Torfadóttir, et al., 2006).

It is clear that young pupils require the ability to research and learn the language in the classroom. Language is typically taught through playing, talking, running, and imitating (Torfadóttir et al., 2006). The approaches utilized in the classroom can affect how young people use the second language, and how they use the sort of word they use can create a difference in their learning.

It is critical for the educator therefore, that he uses various teaching methods and subjects in the classroom since children learn from his teacher and begin to imitate the teacher's accent and words, as Torfadóttir and his associates addressed it.

Furthermore, it is important to use a target language in the classroom and stress that young learners have spoken the language in the classroom Just use the goal vocabulary and even it's safe to make errors. Alternatively, the teacher will be able to affect and inspire pupils to practise and use the language always in the classroom. Motivation frequently plays an important function and affects the learner in the second language acquisition. If he doesn't care about the matter or the subject, he's obviously not successful. Studies by Torfadóttir and its associates indicate that enthusiasm and a constructive outlook towards the target language appear to contribute to better qualifications.

Interestingly, in order to include student in the learning process it is necessary to concentrate on teaching strategies and the welcoming school climate. The role of the instructor in this situation is incredibly significant. In order that students can feel safe in exploring the language, the teacher must provide students with an acceptable learning atmosphere. To achieve so, teachers must be educated correctly for the instructor lays the foundation for the future of the student and Therefore, the pupil must have the necessary means for building on the potential achievement in language learning (Torfadóttir, et al., 2006).

Conclusion

While it is important to remember, from this paper's discussion, that the key factor seems to be focused on language skills as well as the encouragement and form of learning atmosphere offered for learners, the theory of "the youngest better" and controversy about whether learning a second language in the later stages in life is not successful. It seems beneficial to compete culturally in the goal language for the highest second language achievement. Young language students who are studying a second language tend to be more successful than older learners, however over the long term older students become more effective if they are fully inspired and willing to acquire a second language. When we take into consideration the "younger the better" theory, Larson-Hall (2008) found that it has little linguistic value. In this situation it is vital that the target language is revealed and Larson-Hall (2008) concludes, among other items, that the age is an essential aspect of the SLA, yet certain factors must also be in effect, for example, appropriate exposure to the target language and encouragement. Almost any second-language student who is properly introduced to the target language performs better

Those that don't give the ability in a social setting to learn the target language. The position of the instructor is extremely essential to acquire full SL skills to impact second language learners. In his case of effective second language purchasing Gardner and Lambert (1972) claimed that inspiration has considerable impact. In addition, it would help the learner by involving inspiration in the learning phase. Gardner (2000) also supports the concept of culturally inspired students

Background in SLA would be stronger than those who practice training. On the basis of current evidence, it is virtually difficult to say that studying a second language is better than beginning of life. The explanation for this is the number of researchers involved. It is also impossible to claim why young people are stronger, whether the hypothesis is expected to stop, for example, with 2000 participants in a few classrooms. Age and SLA studies are strongly required and will still be debatable, while excellent scholars have examined the age aspect, motivation and exposure of individuals and the learning atmosphere in SLA. This issue is a matter of debate.

In conclusion, as stated above, "the younger the better" is not always the case, since Munoz has shown many items which can support and discourage them from benefitting from learning if the younger learners have not had adequate exposure. Finally, the age will play a significant role in SLA, or earlier, but encouragement and sensitivity to the target language must also be necessary if the learner is to enjoy this. In other terms, visibility and the role of inspiration seem more important than the age factor for effective SLA

References

1. . J. C. Alderson, "Exploding myths: Does the number of hours per week matter?," presented at the 9th IATEFL-Hungary Conference, Győr, 1999. [Online]. Available: examsreform.hu.
2. . E. Bialystok, *Bilingualism in Development: Language, Literacy, and Cognition*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
3. . T. Bongaerts, B. Planken, and E. Schils, "Can late starters attain a native accent in foreign language: A test of the Critical Period Hypothesis," in *The Age Factor in Second Language Acquisition*, D. Singleton and Z. Lengyel, Eds. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1995.
4. . H. D. Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. White Plains, NY: Longman, 2002.
5. . H. D. Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. White Plains, NY: Pearson, 2007.
6. . L. Cameron, *Teaching Languages to Young Learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
7. . A. D'Anglejan, C. Renaud, R. H. Arseneault, and A. M. Lortie, "Difficultés d'apprentissage de la langue

- seconde chez l'immigrant adulte en situation scolaire," Quebec: Centre International de Recherche sur le Bilinguisme, University of Laval Press, 1981.
8. . J. M. Djigunovic, "Attitudes and motivation in early foreign language learning," Centre for Educational Policy Studies Journal, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 55-74, 2012. [Online]. Available: cepsj.si.
 9. . Z. Dörnyei, Teaching and Researching Motivation. Harlow, England: Longman, 2001.
 10. . Z. Dörnyei, "Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom," Modern Language Journal, vol. 78, no. 3, pp. 273-284, 1994. [Online]. Available: mailer.fsu.edu.
 11. . A. O. Engin, "Second language learning success and motivation," Social Behavior and Personality, vol. 37, no. 8, pp. 1035-1045, 2009. [Online]. Available: web.hanu.vn.
 12. . S. M. Ervin-Tripp, "Is second language learning like the first?," TESOL Quarterly, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 111-127, 1974. [Online]. Available: jstor.org.
 13. . L. M. Espinosa, "Challenging common myths about young English language learners," Foundation for Child Development, 2008. [Online]. Available: fcd-us.org.
 14. . "Foreign language," The Collins Dictionary, 2013. [Online]. Available: collinsdictionary.com.
 15. . R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert, Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, 1972.
 16. . R. C. Gardner, Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation. London: E. Arnold, 1985.
 17. . R. C. Gardner, "Correlation, causation, motivation and second language acquisition," Canadian Psychology, vol. 41, pp. 1-24, 2000. [Online]. Available: citeseerx.ist.psu.edu.
 18. . R. C. Gardner, "Motivation and second language acquisition," Porta Linguarum, vol. 8, pp. 9-20, 2007. [Online]. Available: ugr.es.
 19. . F. Genesee, "Bilingual first language acquisition: Evidence from Montreal," Diversité Urbain, pp. 9-26, 2008. [Online]. Available: mcgill.ca.
 20. . L. C. Halgunseth, "How children learn a second language," in Classroom Diversity and Academic Success, A. Umaña-Taylor, Ed., 2009. [Online]. Available: education.com.