IS LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE VERY NECESSARY?

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Abstract: In this article, we have dwelt on the purposes of learning a foreign language. In chapter one, we have tried to mention the difficulties and purposes of learning a foreign language. In chapter two, we have focused on the importance of a foreign language particularly English as an international language so that we should understand clearly why people are inclined to learn a foreign language—especially English. In chapter three, we have tried to put out the relationship between instrumental motivation and purpose of language learning. In chapter four, we have tried to show some reasons for learning language such as to live in a target language community, to learn for specific purposes, to be attracted to the culture and to get a job.

Key Words: Learning a foreign language and purposes, Culture, Getting a job.

I. Introduction

A. Problem

The relation between people and language is scarcely thought of apart. Some languages such as English, French and German are important languages. They are the languages used by politically, economically and commercially important nations. For this reason they are widely studied outside the country of their use. Today both in the public sector and in the private sector a person applying for a job is asked whether he knows any foreign languages. Language learning is vital to everyday lives of millions.

B. Purpose

In this article, we have tried to show that the people learning a foreign language have different aims. We have tried to find answers to many reasons people have for language learning.

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C. Limitation

Our study is limited because the subject’s content is highly extensive. This subject can be divided into parts and each part can be handled and researched deeply. But we have accepted it as a whole and we will try to study it without going into detail.

II. The Importance of Language

The importance of language is not just a matter of territory; it depends also on the importance of the people who speak it. The importance of a language is connected with the political role by the nations using it and with their influence in international affairs; with the extent of their commerce; with the conditions of life under which the great mass of their people live; and with the part played by them in art and literature and music in science and invention and discovery—in short, with their contribution to the material and spiritual progress of the world. (Baugh and Caple, 1987: 4)

The relation between people and a language is scarcely thought of apart. A language lives only so long as there are people who speak it. English, French and German are important languages as they are spoken by politically, economically and commercially important nations. For this reason these languages are widely studied outside the country of their use.

There are several models for bilingual education programmes but generally they exist for the purpose of helping students to maintain their native language or to continue to grow their native language while acquiring a second language.

Another form of second language acquisition in an education context is the immersion programmes popular in Canada and certain parts of the United States. In these programmes, native English speaking children receive all of their initial instruction in a second language. After the early grades, more and more content courses are taught in the native language.

The acquisition of second languages in a formal school setting, however, is not the only context where second languages have their places in the world today. English, a second language for most of the people of the world, has increasingly become the international language for business and commerce, science and technology and international relations and diplomacy. Other professional intercourse, such as the proceeding of meetings of health practitioners or educators from many different parts of the world, is often conducted in English, a second language for many of the participants.

Another example of second language use connected with occupations is the gastarbeiter or migrant worker situation in Europe. In recent years, two million workers, primarily from Turkey, Greece, Spain and Italy, have left their homes and families to seek employment in the industrialized Western European countries. The migrant workers typically do not speak or understand the
language of their new environment when they arrive. (Freeman and Long, 1986: 45)

What comes to minds of many people when they encounter the phrase “Second Language Acquisition” is the experience they had as school students when they were engaged in the study of one or more foreign languages, second language acquisition, however, occurs in the other forms in schools today as well. Bilingual education for example has been a reality in many parts of the world for years.

Second languages frequently enter into consideration in affairs of state. Bitter contests have been fought in multilingual societies over national language policy formulation: Which languages are to be accorded official recognition and which should be denied? Which languages are to be the medium of instruction in school and which one is to be taught as a second language? Many children of the world grow up speaking a “dialect” at home, only to encounter their national language for the first time as they enter school. In short not only do second languages have a place in school, they also affect many other aspects of people’s lives. In the interdependent world of today the importance of language is very clear.

The new field did not blindly take over the concepts previously used for talking about language learning. Language teacher, for example, often contrasts second language teaching—that takes place in a country where the second language is wildly used, say the teaching of English to immigrants in England— with foreign language teaching—that takes place in a country where it is not an everyday medium, say the teaching of English in French. While this distinction is often convenient, it cannot be taken for granted that learners in these two stations necessarily learn in two different ways, perhaps two different purposes without proper research evidence. (Cook, 1985: 55)

Sometimes the cultural importance of an ethnic group or nation has at some former time been so great that their language remains important among cultivated people long after it has ceased to represent political, commercial or other greatness. Greek, for example, is studied in classical form because of the great civilisation which its literature preserves the most complete record of; but in its modern form as spoken in Greece today the Greek Language is largely neglected by the outside world.

A. The Importance of English

The number of people learning English is increasing very fast around the world. Because the importance of the English language is naturally very great. Spoken by more than 340 million people as a first language in the United Kingdom, the United States and the former British Empire. It is the largest of the occidental languages in the world. English, however is not the largest of the occidental languages in the world. Western estimates of the population of China would indicate that Chinese is spoken by more than 890 million people in China.
alone. But the numerical ascendancy of the English among European languages can be seen by a few comparative figures.

Spanish, next in size to English, is spoken by about 210 million people, Russian by 200 million, German by 105 million by native speakers and a large number of second language speakers. Thus at the present time English has the advantage in numbers over all other western languages. (Baugh and Caple, 1987: 7)

English is the mother tongue of nations whose combined political influence, economic soundness, commercial activity, social well being and scientific and cultural contributions to civilization give impressive support to its numerical precedence. There is the partial fact that a language may be important as a “Lingua Franca” in a country or region whose diverse populations would otherwise be unable to communicate. This is especially true in the former colonies of England and France where the colonial languages have remained indispensable even after the independence and often in spite of the outright hostility to the political and cultural values which the European languages represent. More scientific research is probably published in English than in any other languages and the preeminence of English in commercial use is undoubted. The revolution in communications during this century has contributed to the spread of several European languages. But especially of English because of major broadcasting and motion Picture industries in the United States and Great Britain. It will be the combined effect of economic and cultural forces such as these rather than explicit legislation by national or international bodies that will determine the world languages of the future. Since World War II, English as an official language has claimed progressively less territory among the former colonies of the British Empire while its actual importance and number of speakers have increased rapidly. As the colonies gained independence, English continued to be used alongside the vernaculars. In many of the new countries English is either the primary language or a necessary second language in the schools, the courts and business. The extent of its use varies with regional history and current government policy although stated policy often marks the actual complexities. In Uganda, for example, where no language is spoken as a first language by more than 16 percent of the population. English is the one official language; yet less than one percent of the population speak it as a first language. In India, English was to serve translational purposes only until 1965 but it continues to be used with Hindi and 14 other national languages. In Tanzania, Swahili is the one official language but English is still indispensable in the schools and high courts. It is nowhere a question of substituting English for the native speech. Nothing is a matter of greater patriotic feeling than the mother tongue. The question simply concerns the use of English or some other widely known idiom, for international communication and as John Galsworthy remarked, “any impartial scrutiny made at this moment of time must place English at the head of all languages as
the most likely to become, in natural unforced way the single intercommunicating tongue”. (Baugh and Caple, 1987: 8)

**B. English as a World Language**

The probable extension of English in the future leads many people to wonder whether English will some day become language of all the world. In many cases the wish is farther to the thought and the wish springs partly from considerations of national pride, partly from a consciousness of many disadvantages that result from a multiplicity of tongues. How much pleasant travel would be if we did not have to content with the inconveniences of a foreign language. How more rapidly we could conduct a business abroad if there were but a single language of trade. How greatly would be problem of the scientist and the scholar be simplified if there were one universal language of learning and how many of the misunderstandings and prejudices that divide nations would be promoted if there were free interchange of national thought and feeling.

An artificial language might serve sufficiently the needs of business and travel but no one has proved willing to make a medium of political, historical or scientific thought to say nothing of the impossibility of making it serve the purpose of pure literature involving sustained emotion and creative imagination. Without the support of governments and the educational institutions which they control, the establishment of an artificial language for the world will be impossible.

Recent history has shown language to be a highly emotional issue, the language of a country often symbolizing its independence and nationalism. The emotions which militate against the establishment of an artificial language work even more strongly against the establishment of a single foreign language for international communication.

The official languages of the United Nations are English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese and Arabic. Since it is not to be expected that the speakers of any of these six languages will be willing to subordinate their own language to any of the other five, the question is rather which languages will likely gain ascendancy in the natural course of events. Just over a century ago French would have appeared to have attained and disputed claim to such ascendancy. It was then cultivated throughout Europe as the language of the world and it enjoyed considerable popularity in literary and scientific circles. (Baugh and Caple, 1987: 7)

The growth in English will be notable in its use throughout the world as a second language. It is also likely that the Pidgin and Creole varieties of English will become increasingly widespread in those areas where English is not a first language. As we mentioned before, English is the language of international communication par excellence, and it can not be denied that in countries where English is not the mother tongue it is the most commonly taught foreign
language. One other language, Chinese, has more native speakers but they are largely restricted to a particular geographical area and Chinese exhibits less standardisation in its spoken form than English. That English occupies a dominant position, however, does not necessarily mean that it will always be so.

The reasons for the spread of English are well known, from its position in Shakespeare’s day when it was the mother tongue of a few million people living on an island of the northwest coast of Europe, to its present position where many peoples other than the native English can claim it as their own. The industrial revolution happened first in England; in their search for raw materials and markets and partly because of Victorian nations of national destiny, vast territories in all parts of the world were “acquired” by the British. The language followed economic and political dominance. Even as British influence declined, that of the United States, to which the language had been carried in its colonial period by those emigrating from Britain, increased. The British Empire is dead and, to say the least of it, many countries are revising their nations about the propriety of American hegemony, but the language remains. (Harrison, 1973: 13)

In countries where the original inhabitants were mostly killed or were reduced in numbers by the total disruption of their patterns of life and cultural self-sufficiency, like the United States itself or Australia, English became the language of all immigrants who occupied aboriginal land; in countries such as India or Nigeria where the native cultures for one reason or another were better able to resist Western technological shock and eventually secure independence, English was and may still remain the language of government and administration, the law courts and particularly High Courts, education and particularly higher education, commerce and banking and other prestigious and in the context of the modern state essential activities. In countries where other colonial power ruled, like Spain and Portugal in Latin America, English is the principal foreign language.

The main difference between now and the days of the Empire is that most countries can work out their own language policies rather than have policies imposed on them. Language is value-free in relation to potential performance; a language spoken by only a few hundred people in let us say a remote valley in the highlands of New Guinea could be put all manner of uses. It is necessary to say this because it is not uncommon to hear people, teachers included, making naive and false judgement about “civilised” and “primitive” languages. Only a few thousand years ago a relatively short period in terms of human history on the planet, the lineal ancestor of English was also only spoken by a few hundred skin-clad people who were at the time probably wandering in a desultory fashion in a vaguely western direction along the edges of some Central European swamp. (Harrison, 1973: 14)

Of course, problems of intrinsic merit are not the only ones that need to be considered. Although nothing of significance has happened to the English
people genetically, a lot has happened to the English language, in relation to the ways it is used and what it is used for. Again, the question of whether or not the English language should be used shouldn’t be confused with the past merits or beastliness of the British. It is not very rational to reject English chauvinistically just because it is the language of a former colonial power, if it has a certain place and certain resources invested in it in the country concerned.

Where English is concerned, some of the determinants of a linguistic policy should be as follows; if it is already spoken in a particular country, who speaks it and for what purposes? Is the country monoglot with one mother tongue, or polyglot; if the latter, is English used as a lingua franca in communication between different language groups? If it is thought fit to replace it for this purpose is it best replaced by another lingua franca or by one of the native languages? If the latter, what will be reactions of people from other language groups? The reaction of those who feel themselves linguistically disadvantaged can be very forceful indeed, in Europe as much as anywhere else. If English is to be replaced or partly supplanted, many effects can be seen on the educational system. If a country’s needs for English have been adequately assessed, needs such as those of science and technology, airline pilots, diplomacy, tourism to and from the main centers of the English-speaking world, again many effects can be seen on the educational system and many people begin to learn the language.

In countries which are monolingual or nearly so one would expect with the development of educational resources that English would be taught largely as a foreign language. In those many countries which are not monolingual, it is much more difficult to advocate any policy with the certainty that it is the right or even the best possible policy. For example, the abandonment of English as a medium of instruction in the universities of a particular country and the substitution of regional languages could lead to the Balkanisation of higher education in that country. Neither teachers nor students could move outside their own region, with possible adverse effects on the development of national consciousness, if that is thought, as it usually is, a desirable quality.

The terms “English as a Foreign Language” and “English as a second Language” are not used to indicate differences in level or performance. English as a foreign language means precisely that English is a foreign language, not used for any national purpose, but used for international purposes. When we speak of English being a second language, it is indicated that English occupies a place, greater or less, increasing or decreasing, in the national environment. It might be the language of newspapers, radio programmes, street signs or used for any of the institutional purposes given above. It is of course perfectly possible and not uncommon for someone who learnt English as a foreign language to have a better command of it than someone for whom it is a second language.
III. Instrumental and Integrative Motivation at Language Learning

If we perceive a goal and if that goal is sufficiently attractive, we will be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary to reach the goal. Goals may be of many different types; for example, we may work overtime in order to earn more money and reach the goal of owning a new house. The goal may be motivated to put in incredibly long hours of practice. (Harmer, 1985: 3)

Gardner and Lambert’s ideas about motivation were largely shaped by Mowrer’s view of integrative motivation acquisition. Mowrer attributed a child’s success in acquiring an integrative motivation to the child’s quest for identity, initially with members of the larger speech community. Borrowing the concept of identification from Mowrer, Gardner and Lambert proposed a construction they called “Integrative Motivation”.

A learner is said to be integratively motivated when the learner wishes to identify with another ethnolinguistic group by way of contrast to integrative motivation. Gardner and Lambert introduced the concept of “Instrumental Motivation”, in which the learner motivated to learn an instrumental motivation for utilitarian purposes, such as furthering a career, improving social status meeting an educational requirement. (Gardner, 1972: 57)

According to Gardner and Lambert, an instrumentally oriented learner can be as intensively motivated as an integratively oriented one: however, they hypothesized that the latter orientation would be better in the long run for sustaining the drive necessary to master the Instrumental Motivation. This hypothesis was born out in their early studies in Canada and as certain contexts as in the U.S.A. Indeed, in a study of newly arrived foreign students at U.S. Universities, Spolsky discovered that the students’ greater desire to be like speakers of English than like speakers of their own language was significantly correlated with the students’ English proficiency. This led Spolsky to conclude that learning a second language is a key to possible membership of a secondary society: the desire to join that group is a major factor in learning.

Although this is no doubt true, as Gardner and Lambert expanded the number of contexts they investigated, the perspective which held that integrative motivation was better than instrumental motivation was challenged. Students learning English as a foreign language in their Philippine study for instance, were highly successful despite their having instrumental, not integrative motivation. Moreover, in another study they found that instrumental motivation to learn English worked very well for French speaking children living in Maine and attending an American high school. Such findings led Gardner and Lambert to qualify their original statement about the superiority of having integrative motivation.

It seems that in setting where there is an urgency about mastering a second language-as in the Philippines and in North American for members of linguistic minority groups-the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective.
Despite this qualification, reports continued to be made that suggested that even this was an understatement. Lukmani investigated the relationship between the English proficiency of Marti: speaking high school students in India and their motivation orientation. Lukmani determined that integrative motivation on a test of English language proficiency. Research reported on by Izzo also suggested that there are conditions under which instrumental motivation leads to more successful second language learning than does integrative, and Burstall found that her subjects’ achievement in French was linked to both types of motivation.

Clement and Kruidenier have offered one explanation for these discrepant findings: ambiguity in the definition of integrative and instrumental motivation. They occur with Oller, Baca and Vigil that one example of the problem lies in such descriptions as “having friends who speak English”. A subject selecting this as a reason for learning English could be said to be motivated by either type of motivation. A second cause Clement and Kruidener advantage for the discrepant finding is contextual factors. It makes sense, for example, that someone studying a target language as a foreign language would less likely aspire to integrate with the target language community than someone for whom the target language was a second language. Thus the type of motivation and its strength are likely to be determined less by some generalized principles and more by “who learns what in what milieu”.

Clement and Kruidenier’s conclusion reminds us of Macnamara’s observation ten years earlier: “More pressing for most students than a general desire to be able to communicate at a future date is specific desire to be able to communicate in some actual situation where what is being communicated is of vital concern to the persons involved”.

Cooper also stresses the importance of the language learning context: “If most students had to know a given foreign language in order to accomplish some goal to them, then most would learn it”.

Genesee, Rogers and Holobow have discovered another angle to the issue of the relationship between motivation and context. These researches asked adolescent English-speaking Canadian students why they were learning French as a second language and what they taught French-speaking Canadian wanted them to learn French. The results showed that the respondents’ expectations of motivational support from the group emerged as significant and in some cases, unique predictors of a second language performance. Genesee, Rogers and Holobow concluded that social-psychological models of a second language need to consider the role of intergroup factors more seriously.

A final study worth mentioning in the area of motivation is Strong’s research on Spanish-speaking children learning English in an American classroom. Strong found that the student’s intensity of integrative motivation increased relative to their English language proficiency. A plausible explanation, Strong contends, is that motivation does not necessarily promote
acquisition, but rather results from it: those who meet with success in a second language become more motivated to study.

Alptekin admonishes language teachers to be sensitive to the motivation type of their students. Some teachers may be operating under the questionable assumption that students’ integrative motivation brings better results than instrumental motivation. Such teachers may be tempted to use methodological approaches that encourage assimilation to the target culture in a second language context. Teacher should be discouraged from such practices, according to Alptekin, who challenges H.D. Brown’s assertion that even in cases of instrumentally motivated language learning, a person is forced to take on a new identity if he is to become competent in a second language. (Brown, 1987: 233)

Alptekin rejects the notion that successful learners must assume new identities and argues instead that foreign students at American Universities not to be treated in the same way as imm immigrants to the United States. Any attempt to ascribe integrative motives to the students, Alptekin observes, will be distasteful to the students and could intensify any anomicie they are experiencing or any readjustment problems they may encounter upon their return home.

Instrumental motivation can be just as powerful as integratives. As such, since the instrumental motives of foreign students in the United States are often accompanied by an urgency to master English in order to proceed with their academic studies, Alptekin recommends an English for Specific Purposes approach in which the language is taught according to students’ general academic fields. In this way, students’ utilitarian motives are attended to.

IV. Target Language Community

Students may find themselves living either temporarily or permanently in the target language community. These students will have to speak the target language to survive in the country they live. (Harmer, 1985: 1)

Similarly migrant workers who are working in different countries especially in West Europe have to learn the language of the country they live.

A. Language for Specific Purpose

The terms “language for special or specific purpose” has been applied to situation where a students has come for a specific reason for wanting to learn the language. For example, if we take English, an air traffic controller needs English to guide aircraft through the skies.

This may be the only time in his or her life when English is used. The businessman may need English for international trade. The waiter may need English to serve his customers. The student who is going to study at an English University may need English so that he can write reports or essays and function in a seminar situation. This is often called English for Academic Purposes. The student of medicine or nuclear physics may need to be able to read articles and
textbooks about that subject in English. This is often referred to as English for Science and Technology.

One of the most frequently given reasons in some countries and particularly in developing ones, for the teaching of English is that it affords a window on the world. The world in question is the hoped world of economic growth, advanced technology and applied science. Anyone, however, who picks up this position can be contrasted with the large number of chapters in such works on the teaching of poetry, the literature lesson, drama and self-expression and so on. The reasons for this disparity are not hard to find. Most teachers of English and most trainers of teachers of English who have gone out from the various English speaking countries to the Third World have been educated exclusively in the literary tradition. A further complication is that most teachers of science overseas using English as a medium of instruction appear to be ignorant of the linguistic problems faced by their pupils.

The learning of scientific English in the early stages should relate directly to concrete laboratory situations and workshop practices. That is to say English will happen in the laboratory or workshop and will be the task of the science or technical specialist. Scientific English shouldn’t be confused with popular scientific journalism introduced by the English teacher in the Art building. It can be believed that the constant cross referencing of appropriate language with concrete scientific or technical operations is a fundamental part of learning and a necessary preliminary where English is used as a medium of instruction for science and technology before a superstructure of more abstract scientific language can be grafted on. (Harrison, 1973: 55)

The languages of the varieties of English are also lexically differentiated from each other. For example, the vocabulary of computer programming is not that of biochemistry. It was mentioned earlier that pupils or students should be able to discuss in an informal fashion what is happening whilst actually performing experimental work, using everyday language structures as a vehicle for exploring whatever scientific principles the experimental situation has been designed to bring out.

The science teacher using English as a medium of instruction must in large part be responsible for teaching the language appropriate to his subject. He will know more English than the English teacher will know science. If he is himself a native speaker of English, he will a native speaker’s intuition about and competence in the language. It is admitted that the pupil or student will need a grasp of the mechanisms of everyday English to use as a vehicle for expressing his science, particularly in oral situations and here the English teacher, provided he is not scared off by even the most rudimentary forms of scientific knowledge being learned and practised by students, should arise from their science course material and the experimental work they perform; it shouldn’t be divorced from the curriculum. Scientific concepts and the language used to Express them are not separable and the greater the degree of
specialisation the more this is likely to be true. The lexis of particular science may be extractable, for technical dictionaries and so on, but this is another matter from language use. Fourthly, science courses and textbooks for use in countries where a second language is the medium of instruction should be written by scientists and linguists in concert. (Harrison, 1973: 59) Lastly, teachers need to pay more attention to the kind of active language use which may the difference between real and superficial learning and so structure their teaching that appropriate strategies can be developed. (Harrison, 1973: 67)

B. School Curriculum

Many students learn a foreign language especially English. Why? The true and sincere answer to that question is that they have to. English is an important item in the school syllabus which is prescribed and which they must follow. A language is part of the school curriculum; a decision has been taken by someone in authority that it should be so. But why is English in the syllabus in this country and for students? Why have the authorities forced English upon teachers and students?

As we mentioned before, English was the native language of England only. From there it spread to other parts of Great Britain and to North America and Australia and New Zealand, where the British people settled, it is the vernacular of those countries. But it is no longer only the native language of those particular countries and peoples. By accidents of history and by the rapid spread of industrial development, science, technology, international trade and by something like an explosion in the speed and ease of travel and by all the factors which have broken down frontiers and forced nations into closer interdependence, English has become a world language. It is the means of international communication; there is no other. English is now taught as a second language in school in nearly every country in the world: east, west, North and South. (French, 1963:1)

Our first aim in teaching English must be to enable our pupils to speak the language well, since the purpose of learning English is to use it as a second language or as an international language and on most occasions this implies the ability to speak to someone for most people this is the primary need: the ability to read English and to write it is important but secondary. With a knowledge of English students hold a key which will open many doors. That is why English is in the syllabus. (French, 1963: 41)

C. Culture

Some students study a foreign language because they are attracted by the culture of the target language communities. They learn the language because they want to know more about the people who speak it and the place in which it is spoken. (Harmer, 1985: 2)
D. Advancement

Some people want to learn a foreign language because knowing an other language may mean getting a job, a chance to get educated and expressing beliefs. It affects people’s careers and possible futures, their lives and very identities. It is possible that a good knowledge of a foreign language will help people to get a better job than if people only know his native language. There is no doubt that such a rapid development has many causes. Many people have realized the benefit and importance of learning foreign languages. Today both in the public sector and in the private sector, a person applying for a job is asked whether he knows foreign languages and those who do are preffered. Moreover, the wages paid to such people are also higher.

V. Conclusion

In this article, as we said in the introduction part, we have mainly discussed the purpose of learning languages. Language is a center of human life. It is our hatred for people, it is vital to achieving many of our goals and our career and it is a source of artistic satisfaction or simple pleasure. We use language for planning our lives and remembering our past; we exchange ideas and experiences through language; we identify ourselves with people who speak the same language. Some people are able to do this in more than one language. Knowing an other language may mean; getting a job, a chance to get educated; the ağabeylity to take a fuller part in the life of one’s own country or the opportunity to emigrate to another country, an expansion of one’s literary and cultural horizons, the expression of one’s political opinions or religious beliefs. It affects people’s careers and possible futures, their lives and very identities in a world where probably more people speak two languages than those who speak one. Language learning is vital to everyday lives of millions.

Özet: Biz bu makalede, yabancı dil öğrenmenin amaçları üzerinde durduk. Birinci bölümde, yabancı dil öğrenmenin zorlukları ve amaçlarından bahsetmeye çalıştık. İkinci bölümde, insanların bir yabancı dili, özellikle İngilizce’yi öğrenmeyi niçin öne mediklerini açık bir şekilde anlayabilmek için yabancı dilin ve uluslar arası bir dil olan İngilizce’nin önemi üzerinde yoğunlaştık. Üçüncü bölümdede, yabancı dil öğrenmenin amacı ve bu amaca ulaşmayı motive eden etkenler arasındaki ilişkiye vermeye çalıştık. Dördüncü bölümde, iyi bir iş bulmak, öğrendiği dilin kültüründen etkilenmek ve o dilin konuşulduğu ülkede yaşamak gibi özel amaçlı dil öğrenmenin nedenlerini göstermeye çalıştık.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı dil öğrenme ve amaçlar, Kültür, İş bulmak,
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