Krashen's Monitor Model Revisited with Some Linguistic Evidence for the Homogeneity Hypothesis

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Abstract

In this paper, the researcher aims at investigating and revisiting the impact of Krashen's input hypothesis on L2 output. Based on Krashen's theories, the researcher proposes the homogeneity hypothesis as an extension to the input hypothesis. Homogeneity hypothesis states that the linguistic input given to L2 learners should be not only comprehensible but also homogeneous. It also should meet the learners' current rather than next level. Homogeneous input can lead to a well-organized L2 mental lexicon that speeds up the processes of L2 production, acquisition, and perception. Thus, this study attempts to answer the following question: "How homogeneous is the English linguistic repertoire adopted by some EFL learners given a higher level of English than their own?" viz., is the linguistic repertoire of an (i + 1) EFL learners a homogenous American, a homogeneous British, or a hybrid accent? To answer this question and to test the effect of an (i+1) linguistic input ignoring homogeneity, the researcher examines the linguistic input of a sample comprising ninety-two university students who had received a higher heterogeneous level of English during their high school stage before they attended Port Said University. The study concluded that the English accent

acquired by the EFL learners was neither British nor American; it was a deformed form of English, which hindered the students' listening and speaking skills from being naturally developed.

Keywords: *homogeneity hypothesis, monitor model, second language acquisition, mental lexicon, American accent, British accent*

1. Introduction

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories are of three principal types: linguistic, psychological, and sociocultural **(**Gass & Selinker**,** 2008). Krashen's monitor model is an innate linguistic theory. Notwithstanding the acclaim Krashen has received for his monitor model, Brown (2000) regarded it as one of the most dialectical theoretical perspectives in SLA in the twentieth century. Despite the acrid criticism which the input hypothesis has received, Krashen (1985) regarded the monitor model as the substantial part of an overall theory of second language acquisition that comprises five basic hypotheses. On account of the excessive controversies over this hypothesis, it especially interests the author who endeavors to test its empirical perspectives in this paper. This study first gives a critical review of Krashen's monitor model within the framework of SLA research and then reviews the weaknesses noticed in the input hypothesis. Eventually, it shows how the homogeneity hypothesis, proposed by the author, can solve the problems caused by the monitor model in general and the input hypothesis in particular in the field of SLA research.

2. Theoretical Background
2.1 Krashen's Monitor Model

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) investigates how learners devise a new language system. Thus, SLA is the study of what the learner manages and fails to achieve in the second language. SLA scope is wider enough to include the study of why most learners of a second language do not accomplish the same level of efficiency in a second language as they do in their mother tongue. SLA also examines why only some learners achieve native-like proficiency in over one language **(**Gass & Selinker**,** 2008). Krashen's hypotheses try to investigate these scopes.

Krashen's theory is of five key hypotheses about second language acquisition: (1) the acquisition-learning distinction, (2) the natural order hypothesis, (3) the monitor hypothesis, (4) the input hypothesis, and (5) the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1981b; Zafar, 2011).

Acquisition-learning distinction states that acquisition, unlike learning, is an unconscious process; the learner is not savvy about the language rules. The acquisition process is, therefore, an informal way to develop competence in a language. Further, the process of acquisition depends on spontaneity, and the learner has no time to apply any kind of conscious linguistic mechanisms (Krashen, 1981b). Several research studies show that formal learning settings are best for those who want to master a second language, while other reviews contend that informal environments are predominant (Krashen, 1981a; Zafar, 2011).

Krashen's natural order hypothesis states that second language learners acquire structural items in a predictable order irrespective of the presentation order (Abukhattala, 2012). Therefore, second language students tend to acquire particular grammatical structures earlier than others. For example, the [-ed] morpheme indicating the past simple tense is acquired earlier than the third–person singular [-s] morpheme, that is why there are some intermediate and advanced students who make mistakes with third-person singular of the simple present tense. (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Xiao, 2014)

As for the monitor hypothesis, Krashen (1981a&b) argued that the language which one subconsciously acquires is responsible for our fluency, whereas the language that one consciously learns acts as an editor. Such a conscious editor is sometimes termed the monitor. Liu (2015) argued that learners differently use their own monitors with degrees of success. The learners who excessively employ their monitors are concerned with correctness and, consequently, achieve no language fluency. To put it differently, monitor hypothesis states that what the student learns is available only as a monitor for purposes of editing or making changes in what has already been produced (Troike & Barto, 2017).

Krashen (1985) argues that one progresses along a natural order by comprehending input comprising structures at our next learning level, structures that are a bit beyond our recent level of proficiency. To put it differently, the input hypothesis shows how language acquirers develop their competence over a time period. It states that the learners acquire language when they understand a linguistic input containing structures a little beyond where they are now. The possibility of this

understanding is due to using the context of the language they hear or read and their knowledge of the world (Higgs, 1985; Thomas, 1995)

Krashen (1985) points out that the affective filter is a cerebral block that curbs the acquirers from using the comprehensible input they receive from language acquisition. The affective filter hypothesis proclaims that motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety all affect language acquisition (Du, 2009).

Robinson (2013) recapitulates Krashen's monitor model with a single claim that learners acquire the target languages only if they obtain comprehensible linguistic input and if the affective filters are sufficiently low to permit the input. When the affective filter is low and the learner receives suitable comprehensible language input, the acquisition process is inevitable. That is to say, no obstacles can prevent the linguistic input if the affective filter dies down, and thus it will be unavoidable. On the contrary, when the affective filter is high, the learners may grasp what they hear and read. However, the input will not reach the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), a metaphor used by Chomsky to refer to the language faculty of children, and this metaphor is extended to adult second language learners (Troike & Barto, 2017).

2.2 A Critique of Krashen's Model

Gregg (1984), McLaughlin (1987), and White (1987), in addition to many second language researchers and theorists such as Brown (2000) and Liu (2015), harshly criticized Krashen's monitor model on a number of grounds. They have seen that Krasken's hypotheses lack explanatory power and empirical evidence. The controversies over the monitor model are summed up in the following points:

1.   Brown (2000) and McLaughlin (1987) believe that Krashen's theory is full of oversimplifications and overstatements. For example, Krashen (1985) contends that his natural order hypothesis is the first to provide second language teaching methodologies with a theoretical base. McLaughlin (1987) and Brown (2000), in addition to many researchers in the field, such as Lightbown and Spada (2006), reject Krashen's broad sweeping claim.

2. Liu (2015), McLaughlin (1987), and Lightbown and Spada (2006) point out that one of the weaknesses that Krashen's theory suffers from is that it is not supported by empirical research. The absence of empirical evidence is a criticism leveled at all of Krashen's five hypotheses. Krashen only argues that certain phenomena can be viewed from the perspective of his theory.

3.   McLaughlin (1987) doubts the validity of the monitor Model as a theoretical framework explaining processes involved in second language acquisition. He points out that Krashen's theory has failed at the level of definitional precision and explanatory power. This view is supported earlier by Gregg (1984) who asserts that this theory is not coherent, and it even would be inappropriate to apply the word 'theory' to it.

2.3 Input Hypothesis versus Homogeneity Hypothesis

2.3.1 Deficiencies in Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1985) assumes that the comprehensible linguistic input can procure language acquisition. Learners naturally move from i, their current level, to $i+1$, their next level, by comprehending a linguistic input containing $i+1$ (Liu, 2015). According to Krashen (1985), input hypothesis comprises two premises: first, speech engenders, rather than being taught, as a consequence of acquisition through comprehensible input; second, grammar is spontaneously acquired if the learner receives sufficient comprehensible input. The criticism directed to the input hypothesis can be outlined in the following points:

1. Liu (2015) and McLaughlin (1987) contend that Krashen never sets a precise definition for the concept comprehensible input. Thus, the testability of the hypothesis is rather impossible.

2.   Liu (2015) asserts that Krashen's equation $i+1$ is not given an exact definition. Even Krashen himself is not consistent with its description. He first points out that i refers to the learner's recent level of competence, and $i+1$ signifies the learner's next level along the natural order (Krashen, 1985). Nevertheless, Krashen then limits this type of competence to grammar alone and interprets $i+1$ as structures at our next stage. On account of this inconsistency, White (1987) harshly criticizes Krashen for failing to give syntactic illustrations.

Because Krashen failed to clearly define $i+1$ formulation, Lightbown and Spada (2006) endeavor to set a broad interpretation, in which i stands for the level of language already acquired and $i+1$ is a metaphor comprising words, grammatical forms, aspects of pronunciation, which constitute a step beyond the current level.

3.   Like the formulation $i+1$, the concept of comprehensible input lacks clear definition. The word 'comprehensible' is again defined in two different ways. When setting about to lay down the substantial two premises for language acquisition, Krashen (1982) contends that the first condition is comprehensibility or comprehension-based input comprising $i+1$. In this

explanation, two different concepts (i.e. comprehensibility and comprehension) are placed side by side, with the former dealing with a process and the latter with the result of the action (Liu, 2015).

4.   The vagueness of the input hypothesis is clearly shown in how to determine the next level (i.e. *i+1*) along the natural order. McLaughlin (1987) points out that Krashen's concept of natural order is actually a non-existent theory of acquisition concatenations. Consequently, it is impossible for the input hypothesis to pinpoint what specific structure the learners should acquire first and what next along the natural order (Liu, 2015).

5.   Gregg (1984) and Liu (2015) contend that what is occult in the input hypothesis is the acquisition process; evidently, more needs to be known about the transition from mere comprehension to successful acquisition. It seems that Krashen only lays down the condition for the move, but does not proffer a mechanism for moving along any given flow of progress (Gregg, 1984).

Krashen's premise that the linguistic input can be comprehensible via simplification is one of the infirmities attached to comprehensible input. Krashen cites caretaker speech as an example of comprehensible input, a notion totally rejected by Gregg (1984) and White (1987), since caretaker speech is directed at children who acquire their L1 rather than L2, and simplified in a way for the sake of communication.

2.3.2 Homogeneity Hypothesis

The researcher argues that the learning input which the learner receives should not be above his/her level (i.e. *i+1*) as Krashen suggests. Rather, the learning input should be of a homogeneous nature. Learners facilely retrieve identical learning input. For example, lexical entries carrying the past morpheme '-ed' are retrieved more quickly than those conjugated irregularly. That is, the homogenous input is retrieved more quickly than heterogeneous one.

Not only lexical retrieval but also lexical storage and acquisition are influenced by the homogeneity hypothesis. The learners can facilely acquire and store homogeneous data. For instance, a list of homogeneous monosyllabic words beginning with the sound /r/ followed by the sound /æ/ , such as 'rat', 'rap', 'rack', 'rash', and 'ram' are more easily acquired and mentally stored than a list of heterogeneous monosyllabic words, such as 'fat', 'shake', 'monk', 'shy', and 'voice'. The homogeneity rate among the latter list is lower than that existing among the

former one. The latter has only a single common feature, being a list of monosyllabic words, unlike the former group which has three common features: (a) beginning with the /r/ sound, (b) having an inter-consonantal / æ /, and (c) finally being a monosyllabic list of words. The higher the homogeneity rate is, the faster the processes of the retrieval, acquisition and mental storage are.

Homogeneity hypothesis explains why some instructors tend to transform the difficult parts in their subjects into verse lines. It is due to the fact that poetry processes heterogeneous words and phrases so as to create a homogeneous sound system appealing to the listener. This homogeneity is achieved via intruding some poetic devices such as consonance, assonance, and alliteration. Thus, learners can easily retrieve homogeneous data faster than heterogeneous ones.

Unlike Krashen's concepts of acquisition and learning, the homogeneity hypothesis argues that homogeneous data are acquired subconsciously and rapidly, whereas heterogeneous learning input is learned consciously and slowly. This argument explains why children, during acquiring their native language, begin to produce monosyllabic words before disyllabic ones. With a quick survey of a two-year child's language stock (e.g. pa, ma, po, etc.), we can easily notice the high rate of homogeneity.

Homogeneity hypothesis totally opposes Krashen's natural order hypothesis which argues that L2 learners acquire only structural items in a predictable order regardless of the presentation order. Natural order, within the framework of the homogeneity hypothesis, means that L2 learners acquire first all homogeneous linguistic data before acquiring heterogeneous ones. To put it differently, all homogeneous language items, not only structural ones, are acquired in an early stage. For instance, L2 learners, given the list of vocabulary items in (1a) below, will acquire it before those given the second vocabulary list in (1b). It is attributed to the fact that the homogeneity rate among the first group is higher than that existing among the second. The first-word list comprises a group of words with only American English spelling, but the second-word list juxtaposes British and American spellings.

(1)

  a. color, behavior, savior, senior, and honor

  b. colour, behavior, saviour, senior, and honour

Homogeneity hypothesis accepts Krashen's notion that the language which one subconsciously acquires is responsible for fluency, whereas the language that one consciously

acquires performs as an editor. But homogeneity hypothesis adds that language fluency emerges immediately after heterogeneous, rather than homogeneous learning components, are fully perceived by the L2 learner. For example, fluency will be noticed after the L2 learner acquires the word list in (2a) below rather than the word list in (2b)

(2)

  a. may / meɪ /, say/ seɪ /, lay / leɪ /, hey/ heɪ /

  b. say / meɪ /, site /saɪ /, boil /bɔɪl /, down /daʊn/

    To empirically test the effect of the implementation of input hypothesis and the impact of disregarding the homogeneity hypothesis, the researcher examines the linguistic repertoire adopted by a group of ninety-two high school learners, who were given courses above their own then level as a process of curriculum development adopted by the Ministry of Education in Egypt in the past six years.

3. Research problem

    This study attempts to answer the following question: How homogeneous is the English linguistic repertoire adopted by some learners given a higher level of English than their own? In other words, is the linguistic repertoire of the sample under investigation a homogenous American, a homogeneous British, or a hybrid accent?

4. Research questions

    The research problem explained above raises the following questions:

1. How homogeneous is the $i + 1$ spelling system taught to the sample under investigation?

2. How homogeneous is the $i + 1$ pronunciation system taught to the sample under investigation?

3. In what way is the learners' writing system homogeneous?

4. To which variety of English do the grammatical rules adopted by the sample belong?

5. Methodology

In order to collect data, a questionnaire was given to a sample of ninety-two students, who have recently joined the Faculty of Arts at Port Said University. All the learners have the same age and have received English courses higher in level than their then one. The questionnaire is composed of four components: (a) spelling, (b) vocabulary, (c) syntax, and (d) pronunciation. At the spelling

level, the students were given twelve items, each with two different forms, and each form belongs to a particular variety of English. The students were asked to check the form they employ on writing, and to check 'both' if they use the two forms interchangeably in their writings (See table 1). The researcher surveyed Pernecker (2010) to collect English words with different spellings in American and British accents.

At the vocabulary level, the students were given eight British lexical items with their American counterparts, then they were asked to pick up the form they employ in writing or speech (See table 2). These eight vocabulary items are collected from Schlüter and Schlter (2009).

At the syntactic level, the students were given three British syntactic structures with their American counterparts. They, then, were asked to pick up the form they repeatedly employ in writing or speech. They were asked to check 'both' if they use the two forms. (See table 3). With the help of Zhang and Jiang (2009), the researcher collected some syntactic structures that differ in British and American English.

At the pronunciation level, the subjects were given eight words, and they were asked to pick up the pronunciation they utilize in their speech. Since the students do not have a clue about phonemes, the researcher loudly pronounced the two forms for the students (See table 4). Smotrova (2015) was consulted to collect some words with different pronunciation in American and British.

Table (1) Spelling Level

1st Spelling Form	2nd Spelling Form	Both
Aeroplane	Airplane	
Ageing	Aging	
Analyse	Analyze	
Behaviour	Behavior	
Centre	Center	
Connexion	Connection	
Defence	Defense	
Disc	Disk	
Favour	Favor	
Install	Install	
Judgement	Judgment	
Kilogramme	Kilogram	

Table (2) Vocabulary Level

1st Vocabulary Form	2nd Vocabulary Form	Both
Go on holiday	Go on vacation	
Flat	Apartment	
Autumn	Fall	
Garden	Yard	
Primary school	Elementary school	
Secondary school	High school	
Mobile phone	Cell phone	
Lift	Elevator	

Table (3) Syntactic Level

1st Syntactic Form	2nd Syntactic Form	Both
The team are playing tonight.	The team is playing tonight.	
I shall go home.	I will go home.	
I learnt English.	I learned English.	

Table (4) Pronunciation Level

Items	1st Pronunciation Form	2nd Pronunciation Form	Other forms
Past	/p æst/	/pɑ:st/	
Teacher	/ ¹t:tʃər/	/ 't:tʃə/	
Hard	/h ɑ:rd/	/h ɑ: d/	
Class	/klæs/	/klɑ:s/	
Can't	/kænt/	/kɑ:nt/	
Soap	/soʊp/	/səʊp/	
Low	/loʊ/	/ləʊ/	
So	/soʊ/	/səʊ/	

6. Results
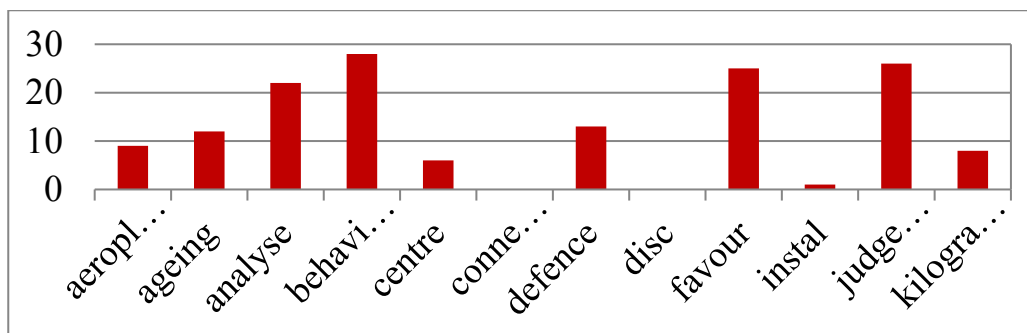
Fig (1) the frequencies of subjects' British spelling responses

[1]   The chart above shows the subjects' choices of British spelling responses (i.e. aeroplane, ageing, analyse, behaviour, centre, connexion, defence, disc, faviour, instal, judgement, and kilogramme). The percentage of each response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the British spelling responses is 42%.
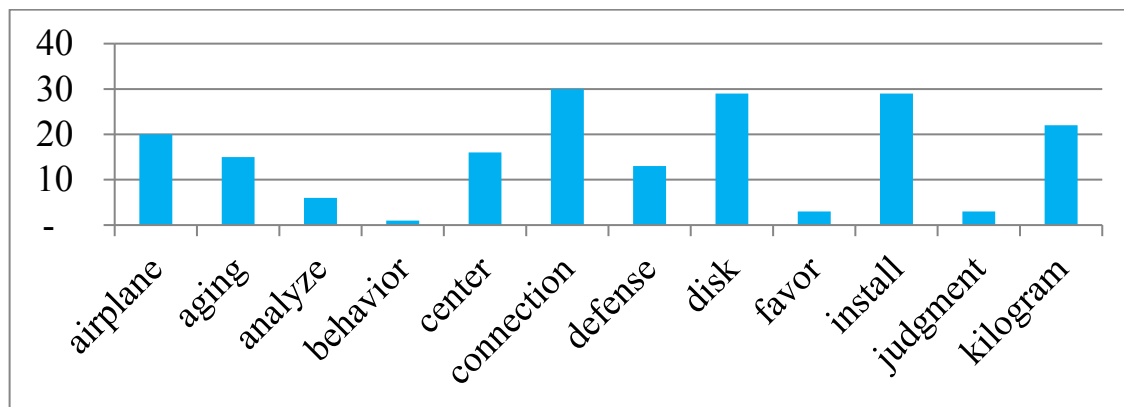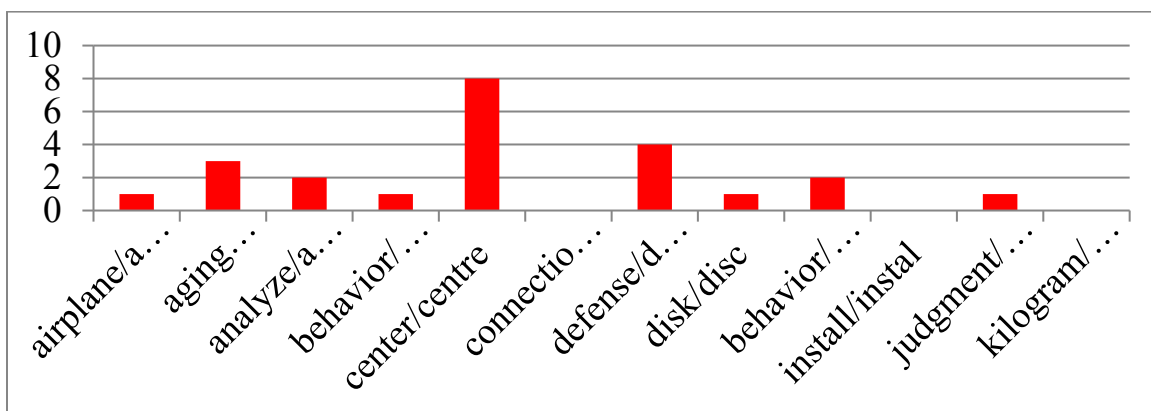

Fig (2) the frequencies of subjects' American spelling responses

[2]   The column chart in fig (2) displays the learners' choices of American spelling responses (i.e. airplane, aging, analyze, behavior, center, connection, defense, disk, favor, install, judgment, and kilogram). The percentage of each response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the American spelling responses is 52%.

Fig (3) the frequencies of subjects' binary spelling responses

[3]   The chart in fig (3) demonstrates the subjects' binary usage of American and British spelling responses   (i.e.   airplane/aeroplane,   aging/ageing,   analyze/analyse,   behavior/behaviour,

center/centre, connection/connexion, defence/defense, disk/disc, favor/faviour, install/instal, judgment/judgement, and kilogram/kilogramme). The percentage of each binary response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the binary usage of American and British spelling responses is 6%.
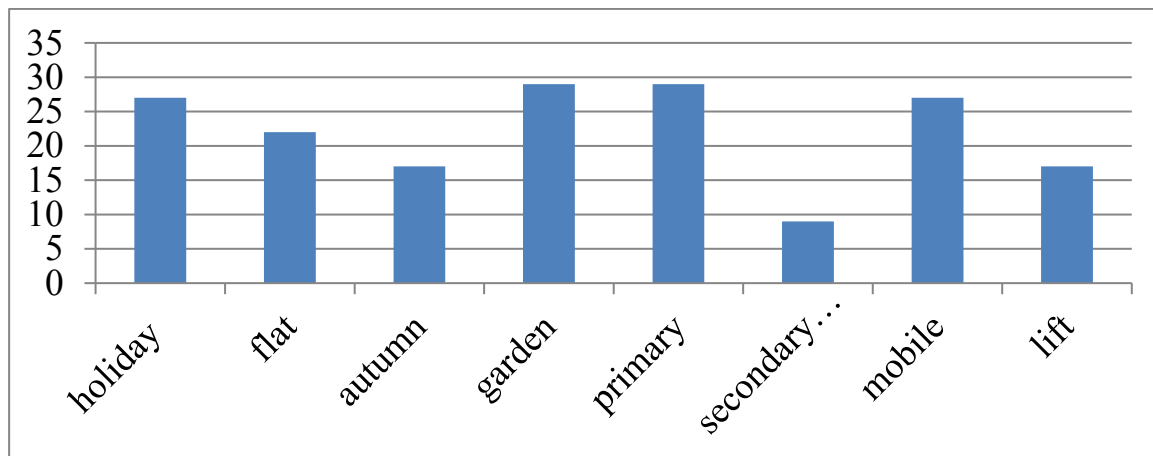

Fig (4) the frequencies of the participants' British vocabulary responses

[4]   The column chart in fig (4) above exhibits the study sample's British vocabulary responses (i.e. holiday, flat, autumn, garden, primary school, secondary school, mobile, and lift).   The percentage of each British vocabulary response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the British vocabulary responses is 74%.
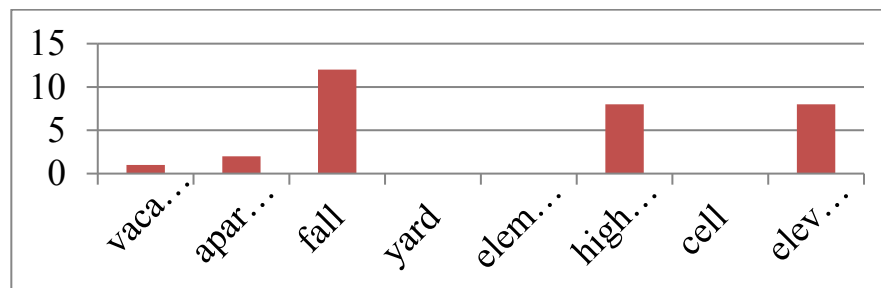

Fig (5) the frequencies of the participants' American vocabulary responses

[5]   The chart in fig (5) above displays the students' American vocabulary responses (i.e. vacation, apartment, fall, yard, elementary school, high school, cell phone, and elevator). The average rate of the percentages of the American vocabulary responses is 13%.
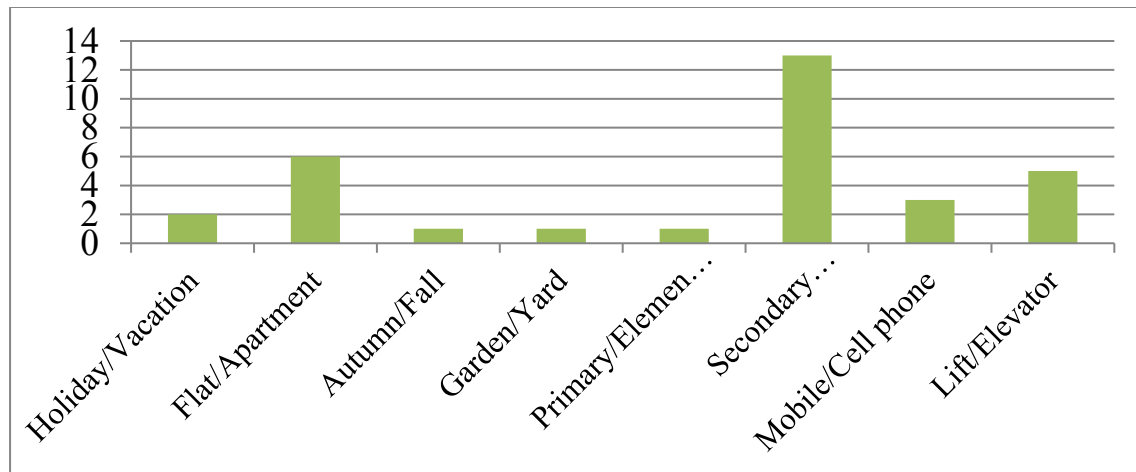
Fig (6) the frequencies of the subjects' binary vocabulary responses

[6]   The column chart in fig (6) above displays the students' binary vocabulary responses (i.e. holiday / vacation, apartment / flat, autumn / fall, garden / yard, primary school / elementary school, secondary school / high school, mobile / cell phone, and lift/ elevator). The percentage of each binary vocabulary response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the binary vocabulary responses is 13%.

[7]   The charts in figures (7, 8, & 9) below demonstrate the students' British, American, and binary syntactic responses (i.e. team are/is, shall/will, and learnt/learned).   The percentage of each syntactic response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rates of the percentages of the British, American and binary syntactic responses are 10%, 81%, and 9% respectively.
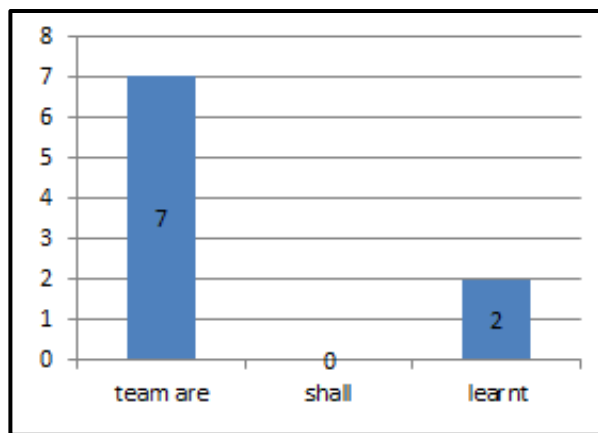

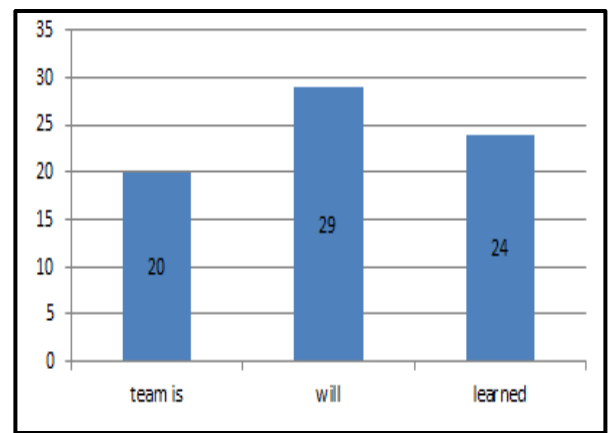*Fig (7)* the frequencies of the learners' British syntactic responses

Fig (8) the frequencies of the subjects' American syntactic responses
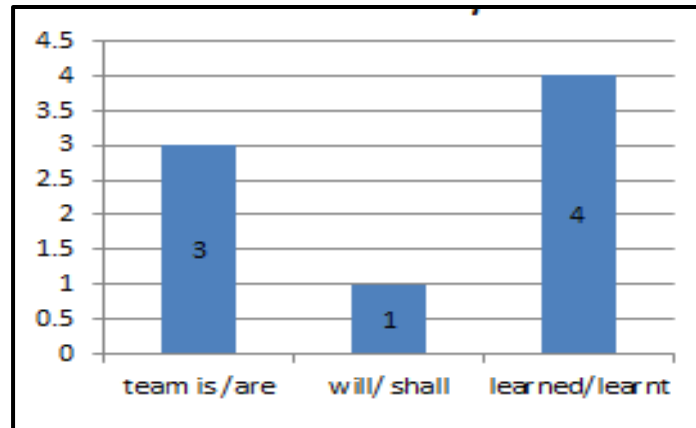
Fig (9) the frequencies of the subjects' binary
syntactic responses

[8]   The chart below (see fig.10) presents the learners' American pronunciation responses (i.e. /pæst/, /soʊ/, /loʊ/, /soʊp/, /ˈtiːtʃər/, /haːrd/, /klæs/, and /kænt/). The percentage of each American pronunciation response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the American pronunciation responses is 43%.
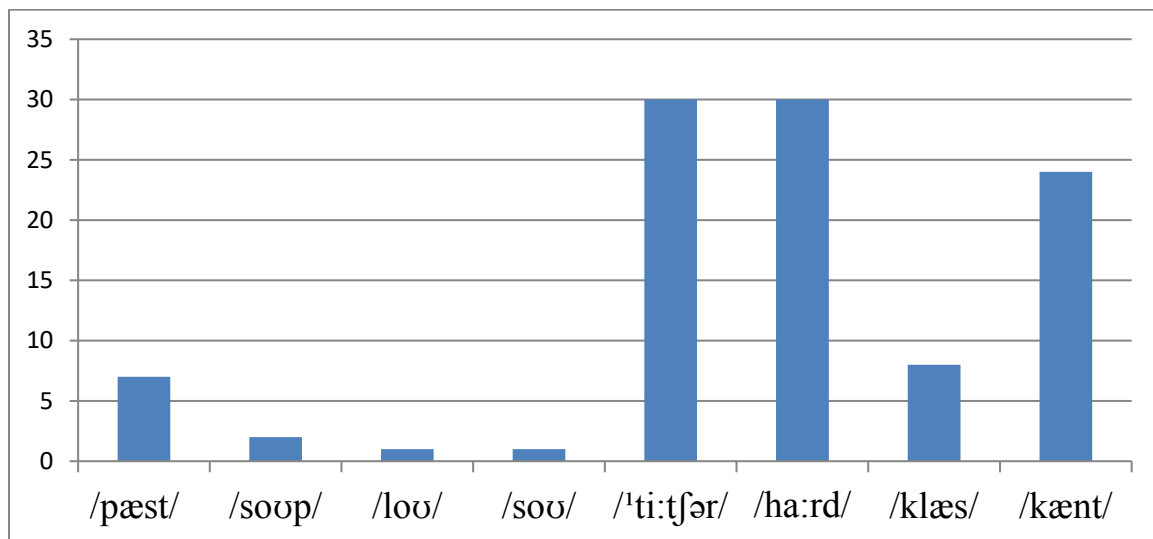

Fig (10) the frequencies of the subjects' American pronunciation responses

[9]   The chart below (See fig.11) presents the learners' British pronunciation responses (i.e. /paːst/, /səʊ/, /ləʊ/, /səʊp/, /ˈtiːtʃə/, /haː d/, /klaːs/, and /kaːnt/). The percentage of each British pronunciation response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via

dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the British pronunciation responses is 12%.
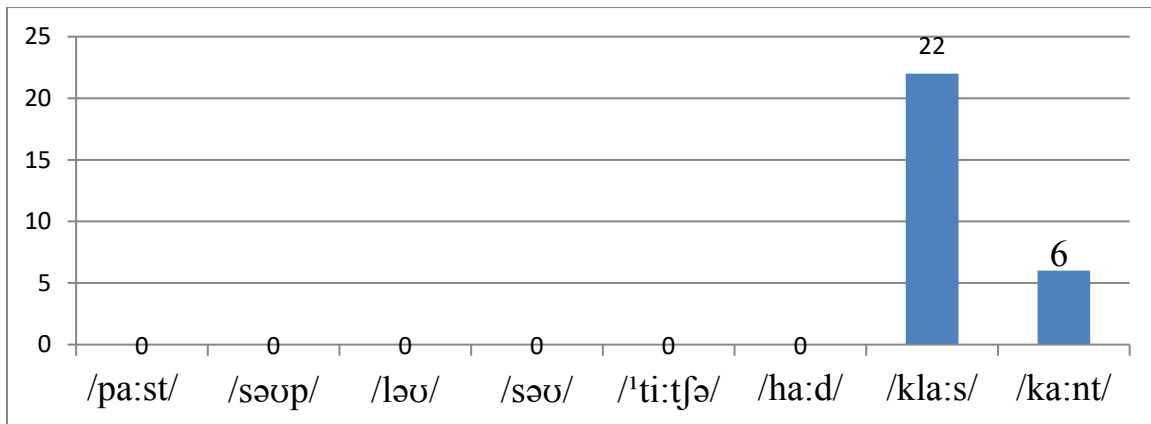

Fig (11) the frequencies of the subjects' British pronunciation responses

[10]   The chart below shows the learners' mispronunciation responses. Some learners, for instance, reported that they pronounce the word 'past' as /pʌst/; others declare that they pronounce the words 'so', 'low' and 'soap' as /sɔ:/, /lɔ:/ and /su:p/ respectively. The words 'teacher', 'hard', 'class' and 'can't' are reported correctly with null mispronunciations. The percentage of each mispronunciation response is calculated and finally, the average of all percentages is computed via dividing the sum of percentages by their numbers. The average rate of the percentages of the mispronunciation responses is 45%.
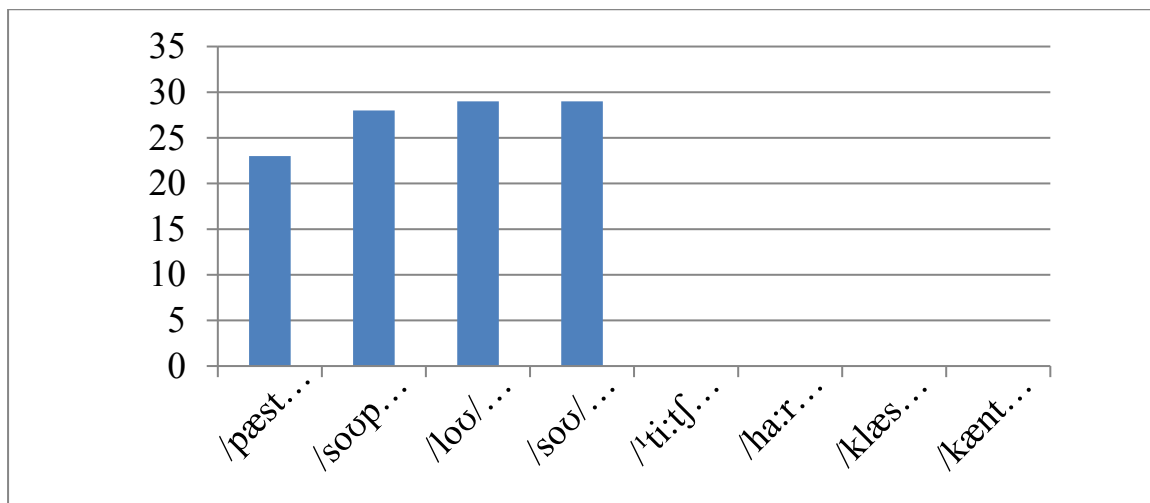

Fig (12) the frequencies of the subjects' mispronunciation responses

As exhibited in section (6), the results of applying an *i+1* learning system ignoring homogeneity can be epitomized in the table (5) below.

Table (5): A Summary of the Final Results

Language Level	British English	American English	Binary Responses
Spelling Level	42%	52%	6%
Vocabulary Level	74%	13%	13%
Syntactic Level	10%	81%	9%
Phonological Level	**British English**	**American English**	**Mispronunciation**
	12%	43%	45%

7. Discussion

It is quite clear that the implementation of an i+1 learning system without taking homogeneity into consideration has led to a deformed variety of English embraced by the subjects under investigation. On the one hand, it seems that the spelling and syntactic systems tend to be American English-based, whereas the vocabulary system is British English – based. On the other hand, the pronunciation system belongs to neither the British nor the American accent. Had the sample learners been exposed to a homogeneous rather than an *i+1* learning input, the results would have been totally different.

Homogeneity hypothesis does not accord with Chomsky's concept of the lexicon. Chomsky (2015) points out that the lexicon is a mere list of words on which syntax is operated. Chomsky's concept focuses on a single module, (i.e. the syntactic module) discarding semantic, pragmatic, and phonological modules, and ignoring the harmony and homogeneity existing inside and among these modules.

Homogeneity hypothesis is in accordance with the recent view of the mental lexicon, set forth by cognitive psycholinguists (e.g. Marcus, 1991; Henderson, 1985), neuropsychologists (e.g. Caramazza, 1997), and cognitive scientists (e.g. McClelland and Rumelhart, 1981; Marcus, 2001). According to these psychologists, neuropsychologists, and cognitive scientists, the mental lexicon is perceived as a highly organized mental dictionary which contains information about a word's pronunciation, meaning, and syntactic attributes (Jackendoff, 2002). The lexical entries are stored, activated, processed and retrieved by the speakers whenever they want.

The recent view of the mental lexicon highlights the homogeneous aspects of the mental lexicon. That is, verbs, for example, are lexically inserted in isolation of nouns, which in turn are lexically inserted in isolation of adjectives. Homogeneity hypothesis goes against the perpetual nature of the mental lexicon. Actually, the mental lexicon keeps developing, growing, and updating. Every day the learners acquire new words and insert them in their position in the mental lexicon. The newly inserted lexical items may replace outdated ones or may be inserted above or under old ones.

Dual – Coding theory, developed by Pavio in 1960s, supports the homogeneity hypothesis. As a theory of cognition, Dual – Coding theory argues that the formation of mental images helps in the learning process (Reed, 2012). The closely related images are stored in the same component inside one's memory. For example, all the images of the animals are stored in a single component. Heterogeneous images cannot be lexically inserted in the same component. The higher the homogeneity rate among the non-verbal information is, the faster the retrieval process is.

Homogeneity hypothesis is upheld by the essence of language production theories. According to Dell (1993), theories of speech production propose that utterances are formed via a mechanism that detaches linguistic content from linguistic structure. Linguistic content is encored from the mental lexicon and is then inserted into slots in linguistic structures or frames. Thus, homogeneity appears in the separation between the linguistic structure component and the content component. The slots, in which the linguistic content is to be inserted, are all of a syntactic nature, and the linguistic content is all of a semantic nature.

Homogeneity hypothesis is also enhanced by the speech production models proposed by Garrett (1975), Dell (1993), and Fromkin (1971). According to these speech production models, planning a sentence involves the construction of successive levels of representation. A semantic or conceptual representation is supposed to be constructed first, followed by two linguistic representations, one involving syntactic, and the other involving phonological information. Finally, the phonological representation is translated into a motor program to produce speech. Each level of representation has a high rate of homogeneity; a conceptual representation, for example, includes all semantic information required for a sentence production; no syntactic or phonological information, for instance, can be interfered.

8. Conclusion

Analyzing the linguistic repertoire adopted by a sample of students exposed to an i+1 learning process shows how heterogeneous the linguistic output the learners have acquired. The English accent acquired by the learners is neither British nor American; it is a deformed form of English, which hinders the students' listening and speaking skills from being naturally developed. Therefore, the author proposes the homogeneity hypothesis to solve the problems created by Krashen's input hypothesis and to set a theoretical base for any second language input given to L2 learners.

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